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**THE EFFICACY LEVEL OF USING COGNITIVE AND
COMPENSATION STRATEGIES FOR READING
COMPREHENSION SKILL**

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ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|------|---|
| ELT | : English Language Teaching |
| EFL | : English as a Foreign Language |
| ESL | : English as a Second Language |
| LLS | : Language Learning Strategy |
| SILL | : Strategy Inventory for Language Learning |
| SPSS | : Statistical Package for the Social Sciences |

PART I. INTRODUCTION

In this part, problem, research question, sub-questions, aim of the study, significance of the study, hypotheses, assumptions, definitions and limitations of the study are given as an introduction to the study.

I.1. PROBLEM

Language learning is attributed great significance nowadays. However, one cannot observe adequate effort by students to this end particularly in the context of Turkey. Furthermore, one foreign language is not viewed as adequate in most cases as a result of the tough competition for job opportunities. Under this framework, the relatively high number of learners, saying they have not been able to attain a sufficient level in the language they have been learning although this learning process has been several years, poses a problematic situation. In order to contribute to the solution of this problem, some steps that will serve to ease and accelerate this process should be taken.

The difficulty encountered in the foreign language learning process may appear for the four types of language skills, which are the receptive (listening, reading) and productive (writing, speaking) ones. Productive skills come after the receptive ones by the very nature of language learning. If these receptive skills are not taught properly enough, the whole learning process will be negatively influenced.

Like the other ones, the receptive reading skill constitutes a major pillar of the foreign language learning process. Although the most widely used form of communication is oral communication, written forms of language are also indispensable for communication. Actually, in most foreign language learning cases the primary aim is to attain a desired level of reading skill. Since, most EFL learners try to learn a language for instrumental purposes like succeeding examinations, reading the target literature, getting information for academic studies, etc. This tendency does not mean that the other three skills should be ignored. On the contrary, all language skills should be focused on with an integrated and eclectic approach so as to attain desirable language

proficiency. Nevertheless, EFL learners differ from the ESL learners in that their usage area of the language is more limited to written forms. Dubin and Bycina (1991: 196) say that reading is the fundamental purpose of most EFL learners. Since, they generally set priorities in accordance with their pressing needs and purposes while learning a foreign language; and these priorities usually turn out to be understanding what a written text tells about.

An old Chinese proverb says “Give a man fish and he eats for a day. Teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime” (Griffiths, 2004: 1). As this proverb stresses, solving or helping for the solution of a specific problem may seem pleasant in the short run; however the same problem will arise again in the future and external help will be required again inevitably. In order to overcome this problem for good, it is better and more logical to help someone learn how to cope with problems and teach him/her the know-how. In this context, language learning strategies (henceforth LLSs) can be useful in helping students become more autonomous and thus develop better skills. Considering the reading skill, the effect can be measured more tangibly and objectively than the other skills. Comprehension level, speed and getting the wanted item from the text are some of the dimensions of the reading process to which LLSs can serve to a great extent.

The success of LLS use may be affected by various factors such as the length of the training period, the age and level of learners, the selection of the strategies to be used and the like. Hence, as Oxford (1990: 244) says one cannot guarantee the definite achievement of using such strategies depending on the particular condition in which the LLSs are being instructed or employed. This view has been proved to be true with the findings of many domestic and foreign studies conducted on this issue. For instance, while the studies of Yalçın (2003) and Muhtar (2006) do not suggest a meaningful correlation between language learning strategy use and performance, the studies of Kiroğlu (2002: 6-12) and Kaçar (1999) yielded results to the contrary. Likewise, it is possible to see many other studies, the findings of which are consistent or inconsistent with each other.

In this study, it is aimed to show whether the training and use of cognitive and compensation strategies will yield meaningful results in reading performances. The instruction period is planned as an eight-week training. It is also aimed to contribute to the above-mentioned ambiguity as to the efficacy of using language learning strategies.

I.2. RESEARCH QUESTION

Is there a significant difference between the reading performances of the students who are taught cognitive and compensation strategies for reading comprehension skill and those who are not?

I.3. SUB-QUESTIONS

1. Is there a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the experimental group?
2. Is there a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the control group?

I.4. AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to reveal whether teaching cognitive and compensation strategies plays a significant role in terms of reading comprehension skill. By evaluating pre-test and post-test results for both the experimental and control groups, it will be tried to reveal whether there will be a significant difference between the reading performances of the students who are taught cognitive and compensation strategies for reading comprehension skill and those who are not. Furthermore, the efficacy level of the instruction process, which is characterized by cognitive and compensation strategies for the experimental group and a traditional approach for the control group, will be shown in view of the progress achieved within both groups.

Among the aims of this study is to establish awareness in students that they have the ability to command the ways in which they learn a foreign language. Thus, it is aimed to encourage them to adopt an understanding via which they will exceed affective factors such as risk taking and coping with new insights. Through trying new strategies consciously, it is aimed to help students see that traditional ways of learning can be changed into more effective and enjoyable ways thus giving the sense of more courage for both learners and teachers. Via such efforts, novel and modern approaches and methods can be successfully integrated into educational systems.

The study also aims to pave the way for prospective studies in accordance with the outcomes to be yielded by this research. The statistical data, experiences and suggestions which will be covered within this study are expected to shed a light upon other researchers who have the intention of conducting a study concerning language learning strategies.

I.5. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Language learning is often viewed as a quite crucial step but as a rather demanding process at the same time. Language learning strategies can be defined as steps taken by students to enhance their own learning as Oxford puts it (1990: 1). That is, the use of these strategies throughout the language learning process promises some facilities for the learners. The learning process can be turned into a more effective and fruitful one by means of using these strategies consciously. Within this framework, this study will be helpful for letting students learn some strategies and raising a relevant awareness in them. In addition, following the applied studies to be conducted under this thesis, the influence of using cognitive and compensation strategies on reading performances will be clarified.

The study is quite important in that it undertakes a role of filling the gap considering the need for more studies to reach more concrete opinions as to the use of LLSs. As Griffiths (2004: 17) says they may not be a magic wand to orient the whole language learning process; however they can be of extreme use eclectically in conjunction with

other techniques. Therefore, this study will present a different perspective for using strategies for reading comprehension.

Considering the issue within the framework of reading comprehension, the study undertakes an outstanding role, too. According to Hedge, an effective reading process involves “developing competence in the foreign language, awareness of the structure of written texts, and knowledge about the world” (2000: 221). LLSs aim to combine these three dimensions and yield more efficient readings. From this perspective, this study will suggest an idea about the links between LLSs and reading comprehension skill. Finally, all these findings will be of a constructive and guiding contribution to the prospective studies in the field of Foreign Language Teaching.

I.6. HYPOTHESES

1. There will be a significant difference between the reading performances of the students who are taught cognitive strategies for reading skill and those who are not.
2. There will be a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the experimental group.
3. There will not be a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the control group.

I.7. ASSUMPTIONS

- 1- The levels of English knowledge of both the experimental group and the control group are assumed to be similar.
- 2- The physical atmosphere in which the strategy instruction is conducted is assumed to be adequate and suitable.
- 3- Subjects are assumed to participate in the tasks with their full concentration.

4- Subjects are assumed to attend the pre and post-tests sincerely and with their full concentration.

5- The pre-test and post-test are assumed to be in conformity with the levels of students.

6- The materials provided for the students during the instruction process are assumed to be in conformity with the levels of students.

I.8. DEFINITIONS

Bottom-up Processing: A special form of mental processing in which individuals attempt to derive meaning from novel texture by analyzing individual word meanings or grammatical characteristics of the text (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 229).

Cognitive Strategy: A strategy serving to support the learner as s/he develops internal procedures enabling to perform complex tasks (Rosenshine, 1997: 85-86).

Compensation Strategy: A learning strategy that enables learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitations in knowledge (Oxford, 1990: 47).

Deduction: The process of applying rules to understand or produce the second language or of making up rules based on language analysis (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 229).

Direct Strategies: Language learning strategies that directly involve the target language (Oxford, 1990: 37).

Direct Training: Learning strategy instruction in which students are informed about the value and purpose of learning strategies (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 229).

Embedded Training: Guidance in the use of learning strategies that is embedded in the task materials but not explicitly defined to the learner as strategy instruction (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 230).

Foreign Language: A language that is learned in addition to one's mother tongue in a classroom environment consciously.

Indirect Strategies: Language learning strategies that support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language (Oxford, 1990: 135).

Inferencing: Using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 230).

Meta-cognitive Strategy: A learning strategy that involves thinking about or knowledge of the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring learning while it is taking place, or self-evaluation of learning after the task has been completed (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 230).

Second Language: Language that is acquired or learned in addition to one's mother tongue subconsciously in an environment or place where it is a native one.

Social/Affective Strategy: A strategy consisting of using social interactions to assist in the comprehension, learning, or retention of information (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 232).

Strategy: A plan that is intended to achieve a particular purpose (Hornby, 2000: 1284). In the foreign language learning context, Oxford puts it as steps taken by students to enhance their own learning (1990: 1).

Top-down Processing: A special form of mental processing in which individuals attempt to comprehend textual information by making use of schemata based on real-world knowledge or story grammars (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 233).

I.9. LIMITATIONS

- 1- Only three cognitive strategies and one compensation strategy have been employed in language learning strategy instruction addressed to the experimental group.
- 2- This study is limited with the influence of cognitive and compensation strategy use on reading comprehension skill.
- 3- This study is limited to first grade first group students in the experimental group and second group students in the control group attending the English Language Teaching Program under the Department of Foreign Languages Education at Ondokuz Mayıs University.
- 4- The study is limited to an eight-week strategy instruction (12 lesson hours in total).

PART II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this part, theoretical framework about the language learning strategies and brief information about the studies conducted both in Turkey and abroad in this specific field are presented. Under the theoretical framework, the background of LLSs and their relationship with approaches and methods in language teaching, studies about “The Good Language Learner”, and finally the typologies of Rubin, O’Malley, Stern and Oxford are mentioned.

II.1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Many theories have been put forward in the field of foreign/second language learning so far. Each of them has its own merits considering the context and time at which these theories appeared. Therefore, approaches, methods and techniques developed in line with this theoretical knowledge emphasize some aspects in language learning while other dimensions are neglected or remain less valued. Under this framework, it will be helpful to elaborate the relationships and conformity between LLSs and approaches and methods designed for language teaching/learning.

Grammar-Translation Method is deemed as one of the earliest ways employed to teach a foreign language. It takes literature as its basis and uses translation as the primary technique. Its major focus is reading and writing; speaking and listening skills are disregarded to a considerable extent (Griffiths, 2004: 5-6). Grammar-translation method gives almost no place to LLSs, as it has strict borders like memorizing grammar rules and vocabulary. The responsibility of the learner is clear-cut and it does not give any kind of autonomy to the learner. However, practicing translations and trying to memorize rules and words can be slightly linked to the cognitive strategies like repetition, translation, keyword, etc.

As a reaction against the restrictions of grammar-translation method, the Army Method appeared in accordance with the military needs of the time and then came to be known as the Audio-lingual Method (Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 50). This method that is based

on behaviorist theories prioritizes speaking and listening rather than reading and writing. Language learning is seen as habit formation and there is not a conscious contribution of the learner to the learning process. That is LLSs are not something in conformity with the Audio-lingual Method.

Following the behaviorist theory, Noam Chomsky put forward a cognitive approach to language learning in mid-sixties (Griffiths, 2004: 7). He claimed the existence of a Language Acquisition Device in human beings and that behaviorism is far from accounting for the complexities of language learning process. Although Chomsky's theory was directly related with the first language acquisition, it ushered a new era in the field of language teaching/learning (Griffiths, 2004: 7). It was believed that cognitive contributions of a learner to his/her own learning can be of a remarkable value. Thus, notions like "learner autonomy" came under discussion; and the idea that a learner can take the responsibility of his/her own learning began to be embraced. On this point, researchers like Stern (1975) and Rubin (1975) conducted studies to identify the features of good language learners and tried to explain how LLSs could help learning. These studies undertook the pioneer role in LLS research and broadened horizons for the related future theories.

While the researchers such as Stern (1975) and Rubin (1975) were trying to establish the idea of learner autonomy, Krashen (Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 178-182) headed for the opposite direction and challenged the former theories including cognitive control of learning by proposing five hypotheses: Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis, Natural Order Hypothesis, Monitor Hypothesis, Input Hypothesis and Affective Filter Hypothesis. These hypotheses, which laid the basis for the Natural Approach by Krashen and Terrell (Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 181-182), do not favor the use of LLSs. Particularly, Acquisition/Learning and Monitor Hypotheses are in direct contradiction with the idea that conscious learning can be helpful in language learning.

One of the most influential cornerstones in language teaching/learning came with the advent of Communicative Language Teaching that emphasizes the importance of being able to send and receive messages. The term "communicative competence" proposed by

Hymes in 1972 (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 159) was divided into four by Canale and Swain in 1980 (cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 160): grammatical competence (knowledge as to rules, vocabulary, etc.), discourse competence (ability to construct utterances or sentences correctly considering the context), socio-linguistic competence (ability to use language appropriately), and strategic competence (ability to employ strategies when language knowledge appears inadequate). Although Communicative Language Teaching enables learners to employ strategies (e.g. strategic and socio-linguistic competence), Griffiths (2004: 9) says that even it does not stress “learning” as much as “teaching”. So it seems to have an inhibiting influence on the broad use of LLSs.

Besides the above-mentioned theories, such approaches and methods as Situational Language Teaching, Direct Method, Total Physical Response (TPR), Silent Way, Suggestopedia, etc. have had their effects in the field. Considering their principles, it can be said that most of them have some kind of relationship with the use LLSs. Krashen’s Acquisition/Learning and Monitor Hypotheses and the Audio-lingual Method pose an exception in this context. However the other theories somehow have conformity with LLSs (Griffiths, 2004: 10-11). For instance, using cognitive and memory strategies can be linked to Grammar-Translation Method. Likewise, social and compensation strategies can be related to the Communicative Language Teaching; and humanistic methods like De-suggestopedia and TPR can be associated with affective strategies. Considering the recent prevalence of eclectic approaches and syllabuses, the importance of LLSs comes to the fore.

II.1.1 “The Good Language Learner”

The expression “good language learner” was the main focus of Rubin’s (1975) article “What ‘the good language learner’ can teach us” and Stern’s (1975) study “What can we learn from the good language learner?”. As the first steps in LLS research, these studies indicated mainly that the learners should take the responsibility and direct the learning process themselves by employing strategies like guessing, organizing, using keywords, etc. This was a turning point for the scientific studies and classifications to

be done as to LLSs. In 1983, Rubin and Thompson (cited in Nunan, 1991: 171) suggested the main characteristics of good language learners with a more comprehensive perspective as follows:

1. Good learners find their own way.
2. Good learners organize information about language.
3. Good learners are creative and experiment with language.
4. Good learners make their own opportunities, and find strategies for getting practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom.
5. Good learners learn to live with uncertainty and develop strategies for making sense of the target language without wanting to understand every word.
6. Good learners use mnemonics (rhymes, word associations, etc. to recall what has been learned).
7. Good learners make errors work.
8. Good learners use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language in mastering a second language.
9. Good learners let the context (extra-linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world) help them in comprehension.
10. Good learners learn to make intelligent guesses.
11. Good learners learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform 'beyond their competence'.
12. Good learners learn production techniques (e.g. techniques for keeping a conversation going).
13. Good learners learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language according to the formality of the situation.

As it can be clearly seen in the above-listed characteristics concerning good language learners, there is an undeniable emphasis on the autonomy of the learner, more risk-taking and using some techniques. The keywords such as “technique, mnemonics, context, guess, etc.” all remind us the use of language learning strategies. While writing down the features of a good language learner, Rubin and Thompson (cited in Nunan, 1991: 171) underline the generalization that language

learning strategies constitute an integral part of the learning process for successful language learners.

A similar account of the difference between effective and less effective students in the context of guessing and interpreting the meaning of an unknown item is given by Graham as the figure below shows (1997: 59):

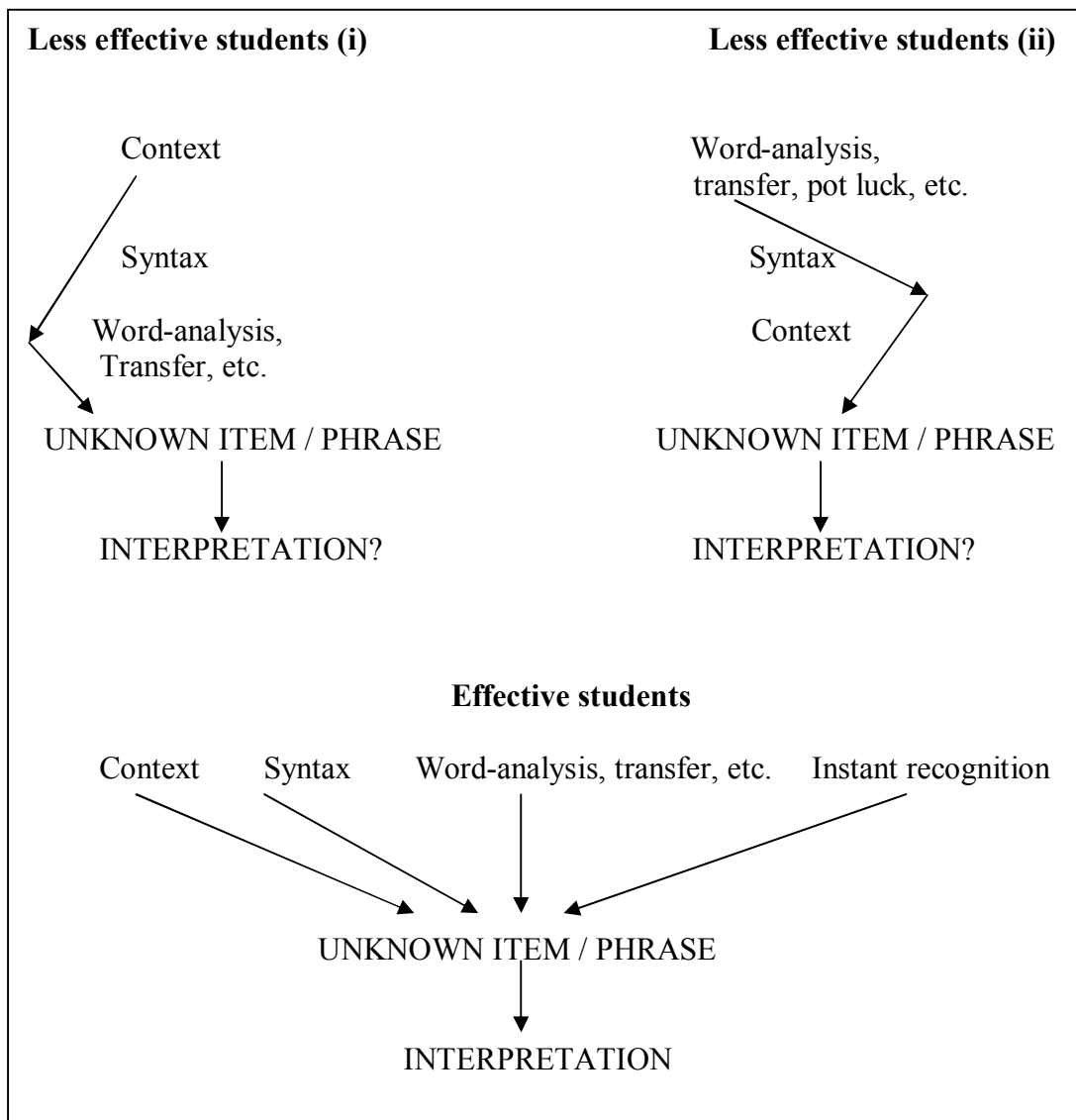


Figure 1: Comparison of Effective and Less Effective Students

As it is obvious from the above figure, less effective students tend to employ two incorrect ways to guess and interpret the unfamiliar elements in a text. The first group of

less effective students tries to make deductions making use of only context. While going from the context to the possible meaning of the lexical item, they ignore important elements like syntax, word analysis, transfer, etc., which directs them to an incorrect interpretation. The second group of less effective students depends on techniques like word analysis and transfer to guess the meaning; or just bank on their lucks, which orients them to an incorrect interpretation, too. However, effective students approach an unknown item from the perspective of context, syntax, word analysis, transfer, instant recognition, etc. with a holistic point of view. Only then do they present an interpretation of an unfamiliar lexical item or expression and this helps them avoid failures.

The analysis of Graham (1997: 59) suggests that effective students adopt a strategic approach to attain their goals. Instead of limiting themselves to one way, they prefer making use of varying clues to guess the meaning prophetically. It is also clear that they are leading this process consciously, which is one of the most remarkable features of LLSs.

II.1.2 Language Learning Strategies

Following the pioneer role Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) undertook by conducting researches on “The Good Language Learner”, more studies were launched and novel theories began to be maintained by researchers like Rubin (1975), Stern (1975), O’Malley et. al. (1985a) and Oxford (1990). Below are typologies provided by these outstanding researchers.

II.1.2.1 Rubin’s Classification

In 1975 the article, ‘What the “Good Language Learner” Can Teach Us’, by Joan Rubin paved the way for further research on language learning strategies (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007: 11). She defined strategies as “the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge” and put forward that successful language learners have some distinguishing characteristics like having a strong desire to communicate,

willingness to guess when unsure and not being afraid of being wrong or appearing foolish (1975: 43). In 1981, Rubin (124-126) classified language learning strategies as direct and indirect ones. Direct strategies were clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning and practice while the indirect ones were given as creating opportunities for practice and production tricks.

A few years after her first classification, Rubin (1987: 23) provided a more extensive point of view and classified language learning strategies under three groups: learning strategies, communication strategies and social strategies.

1. Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are defined by Rubin (1987: 23) as “strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learner directly.” She handles these learning strategies under two major categories:

1.1 Cognitive Learning Strategies

Cognitive strategies mean steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving that requires direct analysis, transformation or synthesis of learning materials (Rubin, 1987: 23). She (1987: 23-24) lists six general strategies for the cognitive group including clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization and monitoring. Such strategies generally serve to enhance the extent to which a learner understands something in the foreign language.

1.2 Meta-Cognitive Learning Strategies

Meta-cognitive learning strategies help oversee, regulate or self-direct a language learning process (Rubin, 1987: 25). They are more related to the abstract dimension of learning. In order to organize and control learning, Rubin (1987: 25) proposes strategies like choosing, prioritizing, setting goals and planning. By using such strategies, learners can have an organizing command over their learning to improve language skills.

2. Communication Strategies

Communication strategies can be defined as strategies that let learners maintain conversation and communication (Rubin, 1987: 26). They are not directly related with language learning in that they are generally used by the learners when they face a problem in understanding an oral expression or getting a message across. Use of simple sentences, synonyms, cognates, gestures, etc. can be listed among communication strategies (Rubin, 1987: 26).

3. Social Strategies

Social strategies help learners increase the extent to which they are being exposed to the target language through taking part in dialogues, meetings, etc. (Rubin, 1987: 27). The learner may participate in activities passively or undertake active roles. It is certainly better to be active for developing language skills; however even passive participations may contribute to language skills gradually.

Rubin's (1987: 23) classification is one of the earliest ones; and with the inclusion of cognitive, meta-cognitive, communication and social strategies it turns out to have common sides with the classification provided by O'Malley (1985b).

II.1.2.2 O'Malley's Classification

In 1985, *et al.* defined learning strategies as "operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information" (a 23) and classified them under three categories, meta-cognitive, cognitive and social. It can be said that they added the 'social' dimension to the taxonomy considering that the cognitive and meta-cognitive categories replaced Rubin's direct and indirect strategies that constituted his early classification. O'Malley's classification is presented below:

Table 1. O'Malley's Classification

| Learning Strategy | Description |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Meta-cognitive Strategies | |
| Advance Organizers | Making a general but comprehensive preview of the organizing concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity |
| Directed Attention | Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distractors |
| Selective Attention | Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that will cue the retention of language input |
| Self-management | Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions |
| Functional Planning | Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task |
| Self-monitoring | Correcting one's speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present |

| | |
|--------------------|---|
| Delayed Production | Consciously deciding to postpone speaking in order to learn initially through listening comprehension |
| Self-evaluation | Checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy |

Cognitive Strategies

| | |
|-------------|---|
| Repetition | Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal |
| Resourcing | Using target language reference materials |
| Translation | Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language |
| Grouping | Reordering or reclassifying, and perhaps labeling, the material to be learned based on common attributes |
| Note Taking | Writing down the main idea, important points, outline, or summary of information presented orally or in writing |
| Deduction | Consciously applying rules to produce or understand the second language |

| | |
|-------------------------|--|
| Recombination | Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way |
| Imagery | Relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar, easily retrievable visualizations, phrases, or locations |
| Auditory Representation | Retention of the sound or a similar sound for a word, phrase or longer language sequence |
| Keyword | Remembering a new word in the second language by <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word and (2) generating easily recalled images of some relationship between the new word and the familiar word |
| Contextualization | Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence |
| Elaboration | Relating new information to other concepts in memory |
| Transfer | Using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language learning task |

| | |
|-------------|--|
| Inferencing | Using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information |
|-------------|--|

Socio-affective Strategies

| | |
|-------------|---|
| Cooperation | Working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity |
|-------------|---|

| | |
|----------------------------|---|
| Question for Clarification | Asking a teacher or other native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation, and/or examples |
|----------------------------|---|

(O'Malley et al., 1985b: 582-584)

O'Malley *et al.* (1985b) presented a relatively detailed typology on LLSs. They listed 24 different strategies ranging from advance organizers to question for clarification under the three categories, meta-cognitive, cognitive and socio-affective. It can be said that their classification of LLSs lacks categories like compensation and memory strategies compared with that of Oxford (1990); however they preferred to put strategies related to memory or compensation like inferencing, imagery, keyword, etc. under cognitive ones.

II.1.2.3 Stern's Classification

Stern (1992:262-266) divides LLSs into five strategy groups, which are management and planning strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative - experiential strategies, interpersonal strategies and affective strategies. His classification resembles that of Oxford (1990) in that the scopes of the categories overlap notably.

1. Management and Planning Strategies

Management and planning strategies help learners take the control and responsibility of their own learning (Stern, 1992: 263). Steps like making programs, planning hours, setting goals, etc. can be counted under this category.

2. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are described by Stern (1992: 264) as actions taken to overcome language-related problems directly. Guessing, practicing, etc. can be classified under cognitive strategies.

3. Communicative - Experiential Strategies

Communication strategies are used to remain in conversation and keep on communication (Stern, 1992: 265). Strategies like paraphrasing, repeating, asking for repetition, looking for help, etc. can be counted under this set of strategies.

4. Interpersonal Strategies

Learners should get into contact with the native speakers of the target language and the target culture (Stern, 1992: 266). Through contacts with authentic contexts learners can enhance their language skills efficiently, particularly oral skills.

5. Affective Strategies

It is typical of language learning processes to contain affective drawbacks (Stern, 1992: 266). They can range from lack of motivation to high anxiety levels. In order to overcome such problems learners should realize what the problem is and employ strategies to reduce it as much as possible.

Stern's (1992) classification provides a good scope for LLSs; however the most comprehensive and detailed typology and contribution to this specific field were presented by the widely-accepted researcher, Rebecca L. Oxford in 1990s.

II.1.2.4 Oxford's Contributions

In 1990, Oxford made outstanding contributions to LLS research theoretically and categorized learning strategies under six categories: memory, cognitive, meta-cognitive, compensation, affective and social strategies (17). This taxonomy by Oxford is viewed as one of the most comprehensive ones formulated to date (Ellis, 1994: 539). The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, which is a scale used by Oxford to see what learning strategies the learners use to what extent, is one of the most broadly used scales to this end. In line with what Ellis (1994: 539) says, this study takes the typology of Oxford as its basis.

Oxford (1990: 9) lists some common features of language learning strategies:

Language learning strategies;

- 1- Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
- 2- Allow learners to become more self-directed.
- 3- Expand the role of teachers.
- 4- Are problem oriented.
- 5- Are specific actions taken by the learner.
- 6- Involve many aspects of the learner, 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.

Communicative competence is the main goal of all language learning strategies according to Oxford (1990: 8). Language skills all aim to let someone understand or produce something in the target language. It may take time and require patience, however competence, be it grammatical, discourse or communicative, will be achieved in time and strategies help for this ultimate goal. For instance, using mime or gesture, which is among compensation strategies, lets the learner maintain communication even in conditions where his/her knowledge of the target language is limited. Likewise, using resources for receiving and sending messages, which is one of the cognitive strategies, aims to enable learners to get external help for understanding or producing a message in the foreign language.

Self-direction is seen among the main aims of language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990: 10). They aim to render learners more autonomous and less dependent on the teachers. Since, it is not always possible to have somebody nearby to get help. In order to let them take the responsibility of their own learning, strategies take the role of an aid through which they can develop themselves in language skills.

Learning strategies bring new roles for the teachers like facilitator, helper, guide, consultant, advisor, coordinator, idea person, diagnostician, co-communicator, etc. (Oxford, 1990: 10). The traditional image of the teacher is destroyed with the coming of language learning strategies. Some teachers may object to this trend with the fear of losing their authority; however, it appears necessary to render the learners autonomous for better results.

LLSs also aim to solve a problem (Oxford, 1990: 11). The problem may not a tangible one. It may be even an aim. The aim of guessing meanings and so understand what is said, getting messages across, etc. all exemplifies language-related aims and using strategies serve to attain such aims.

In order to overcome problems and attain goals, learning strategies are employed by learners as specific actions (Oxford, 1990: 11). That is, an effort by the learner is

required. Taking notes, skimming-scanning, etc. can be all defined as actions employed by language learners.

Strategies are not limited to only the cognitive dimension of language (Oxford, 1990: 11). Besides cognitive aspects that directly involve using and practicing with language meta-cognitive, affective and social aspects of language are closely linked with language learning strategies. For instance, the aim of lowering the anxiety level of learners is related with the affective side.

As it is clear in the classification of strategies, both direct and indirect strategies are included. Direct strategies (memory, cognitive and compensation strategies), which directly involve the target language, provide a direct support for language learning (Oxford, 1990: 37). Indirect strategies (meta-cognitive, affective and social strategies), which do not directly involve the target language, support and manage the language learning process indirectly (Oxford, 1990: 135). In a nutshell, different kinds of strategies provide different types of contributions to the language learning process.

Many of the strategies can be observed while they are being used. Taking notes, deep breathing, asking for help, etc. can be counted as examples. However, strategies involving mental effort directly cannot be always observed. For instance, transferring a known piece of information to a new task cannot be observed while the learning is resorting to it, as it directly happens in the mind of the learner.

Strategies should be used consciously (Oxford, 1990: 12). Most of the learners use some kind of strategy while learning, however they are not exactly sure what and why they are using. Therefore, the inevitable result turns out to be failure. Learners should be aware of what they are doing and why they are doing so.

Strategies have the characteristic of teachability (Oxford, 1990: 12). Strategy instruction is the way to teach learners about the LLSs and how to use them. It is not always easy to change traditional learning styles; yet, following an effective instruction process, learners can adapt to more autonomous learning through using strategies.

Strategies are flexible in that learners can select and use them in an unpredictable way according to their own learning styles and preferences (Oxford, 1990: 13). There is not an exact principle or sequence for applying strategies. They may also choose to use a few of them in combination for a task.

Factors such as degree of awareness, stage of learning, task requirements, teacher expectations, age, sex, nationality/ethnicity, general learning style, personality traits, motivation level and purpose for learning the language, etc. all influence the learners' use of LLSs. Especially strategy selection and patterns of using strategies are notably affected by such factors. As a result, the course of a strategy instruction (length, success, etc.) is closely interlinked with such elements.

II.1.2.5 Oxford's Typology

Oxford (1990: 15) divides language learning strategies into two main groups (Direct and Indirect) and then divides these both groups into three (Direct: memory, cognitive, compensation, Indirect: meta-cognitive, affective, social). She (1990: 16) points out that these strategy groups and the total 62 strategies defined under these groups are all closely linked together and interact with each other resembling direct strategies to a "performer" and indirect ones to a "director". As a matter of fact, in order to attain a desirable success or conclusion performers and director should cooperate and work with coordination. This performer and director simile shows the close and indispensable inter-relation among different strategy types.

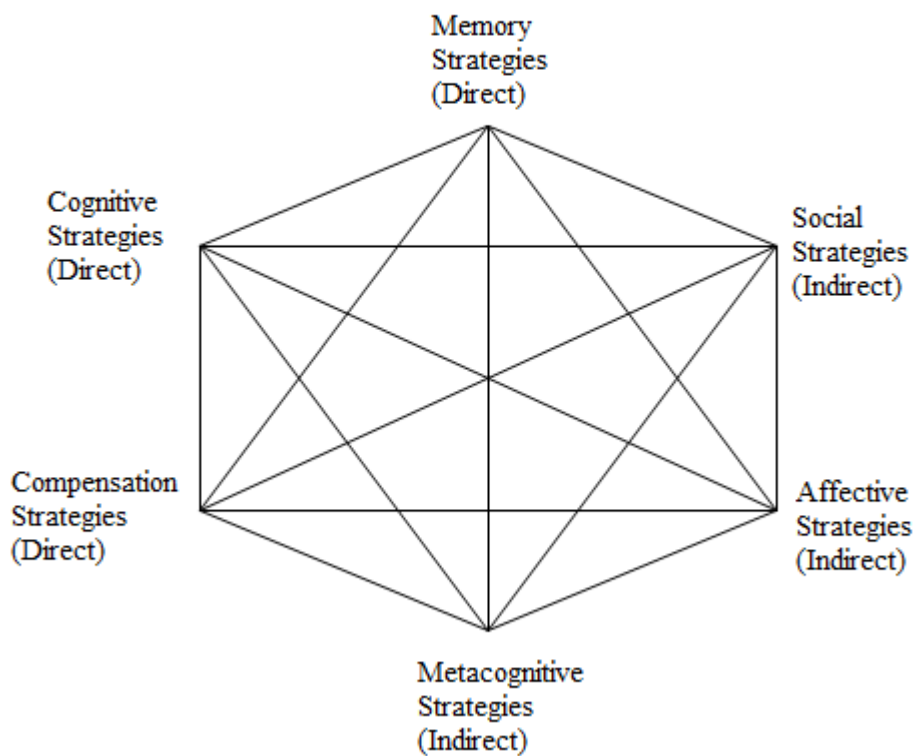


Figure 2. Interrelationships between Direct and Indirect Strategies and Among the Six Strategy Groups (Oxford, 1990: 15)

As it is clear from the figure above and afore-written definitions and explanations concerning specific strategies, direct strategies are chiefly related with the use and practice of language while the indirect ones are primarily tied with the organization and coordination of these uses and practices of the target language. Therefore, it is apparent that different strategies support each other and each group can be easily related with the others and they contribute to each other (Oxford, 1990: 14). For instance, practicing naturalistically is a cognitive strategy; however, it is closely related with almost all of the social strategies like cooperating with proficient users of the new language and developing cultural understanding. Likewise, structured reviewing that is a memory strategy cannot set apart from the strategy of setting goals and objectives that is classified under meta-cognitive strategies.

Below is the “Language Learning Strategy System” classified by Oxford:

Oxford (1990: 18-21) The Language Learning Strategy System

Direct Strategies (Memory, Cognitive and Compensation Strategies)

I. Memory Strategies

A. Creating mental images

1. Grouping
2. Associating/elaborating
3. Placing new words into a context

B. Applying images and sounds

1. Using imagery
2. Semantic mapping
3. Using keywords
4. Representing sounds in memory

C. Reviewing well

1. Structured reviewing

D. Employing action

1. Using physical response or sensation
2. Using mechanical techniques

II. Cognitive Strategies

A. Practicing

1. Repeating
2. Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems
3. Recognizing and using formulas and patterns

4. Recombining
5. Practicing naturalistically

B. Receiving and sending messages

1. Getting the idea quickly
2. Using resources for receiving and sending messages

C. Analyzing and reasoning

1. Reasoning deductively
2. Analyzing expressions
3. Analyzing contrastively (across languages)
4. Translating
5. Transferring

D. Creating structure for input and output

1. Taking Notes
2. Summarizing
3. Highlighting

III. Compensation Strategies

A. Guessing Intelligently

1. Using linguistic clues
2. Using other clues

B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

1. Switching to the mother tongue
2. Getting help
3. Using mime or gesture
4. Avoiding communication partially or totally
5. Selecting the topic
6. Adjusting or approximating the message

7. Coining words
8. Using a circumlocution and a synonym

Indirect Strategies (Meta-cognitive, Affective and Social Strategies)

I. Meta-cognitive Strategies

A. Centering your learning

1. Overviewing and linking with already known material
2. Paying attention
3. Delaying speech production to focus on listening

B. Arranging and planning your learning

1. Finding out about language learning
2. Organizing
3. Setting goals and objectives
4. Identifying the purpose of a language task
5. Planning for a language task
6. Seeking practice opportunities

C. Evaluating your learning

1. Self- monitoring
2. Self-evaluating

II. Affective Strategies

A. Lowering your anxiety

1. Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation
2. Using music
3. Using laughter

B. Encouraging yourself

1. Making positive statements
2. Taking risks wisely
3. Rewarding yourself

C. Taking your emotional temperature

1. Listening to your body
2. Using a checklist
3. Writing a language learning diary
4. Discussing your feelings with someone else

III. Social Strategies

A. Asking Questions

1. Asking for clarification or verification
2. Asking for correction

B. Cooperating with others

1. Cooperating with peers
2. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language

C. Empathizing with others

1. Developing cultural understanding
2. Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

As Oxford (1990: 17-18) says, classification conflicts are inevitable; since it is quite normal to see situations where a particular action or step is seen as an effective language learning strategy by some while others consider it as a simple usual thing excluding it from LLS categorizations. Namely, she puts forward her typology adding that there is no exact and precise classification on LLSs. Detailed information on the definitions and explanations of the strategies given in the classification by Oxford (1990) are written below:

I. Direct Strategies (Memory, Cognitive and Compensation Strategies)

Direct strategies are the ones that directly involve the target language (Oxford, 1990: 37). These are divided into three subgroups which are memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. The strategies included in these subgroups all relate to and contribute a different aspect of language learning. These strategies and their contributions to language skills are summarized below:

I. Memory Strategies

As its name implies, memory strategies help learners store and retrieve new and key points in a foreign language more easily. Listening and reading skills are especially related to this type of strategies.

A. Creating mental images

In order to better store and retrieve information when needed, grouping, associating-elaborating and placing new words into a context may help learners keep the newly learned items in the long-term memory.

1. Grouping: With grouping strategy, the learner classifies the new items, particularly the lexical ones. By putting these items into meaningful groups, the number of unrelated elements will reduce enabling the learner focus on the to-the-point items effectively (Oxford, 1990: 58). While listening a piece of information on cheetahs, for example, the learner may group the adjectives like “agile, swift, quick, athletic, etc.” into a group in his/her mind or take notes with the aid of these related lexical elements. While reading a piece of text about houses, words or phrases like “gate, dining room, hall, bedroom, etc.” can be grouped together in the mind or they might be highlighted. Through such semantic or grammatical groupings, the learned items are coded in the mind in a more effective way.

2. Associating/elaborating: With this strategy, the learner associates new language information with related elements already in memory (Oxford, 1990: 60). For instance, when a learner sees or hears the word “bookstore”, s/he immediately associates this word with the previously learned “book”. So it becomes clear that bookstore is something or somewhere related with books. Thus, after learning the meaning of bookstore, it becomes really hard to forget its meaning.

3. Placing new words into a context: Context is one of the key and magic concepts of language learning process. Everything is meaningful in an appropriate context. It is a common example to illustrate the significance of context that you cannot give a cactus to your sweetheart as a present even if it is classified as a flower. Therefore, it is better to use new words in sentences that will highlight their contexts. When one learns the word “bliss”, for example, s/he should form a sentence like “The first years of my marriage were a real source of bliss for me.” Via this contextualization, the learner will possibly remember his/her marriage when s/he sees the word “bliss” again and remember the context and meaning without much difficulty.

B. Applying images and sounds

The four strategies under applying images and sounds, using imagery, semantic mapping, using keywords, representing sounds in memory, help remember newly heard or read expressions in a better and easy way (Oxford, 1990: 61).

1. Using imagery: Forming a mental image about a new item helps encoding in the memory. This strategy can work efficiently for all of the four skills when one needs to remember a lexical item or the meaning of it. For example, an English learner living in Istanbul forms a mental image from his/her unforgettably upsetting experiences when s/he learns the word “earthquake”. With the assistance of this mental image, the learner will not have difficulty in learning and remembering the words like disaster, devastation, relief, injury, etc.

2. Semantic mapping: This strategy involves writing down some concepts or expressions in a shape by grouping them semantically. This strategy encompasses other memory strategies like grouping, using imagery, associating/elaborating, etc. and it helps improve both memory and comprehension of new items (Oxford, 1990: 62). While creating a semantic map, the learner is free to use pictures, lines, etc. A possible semantic map is given below:

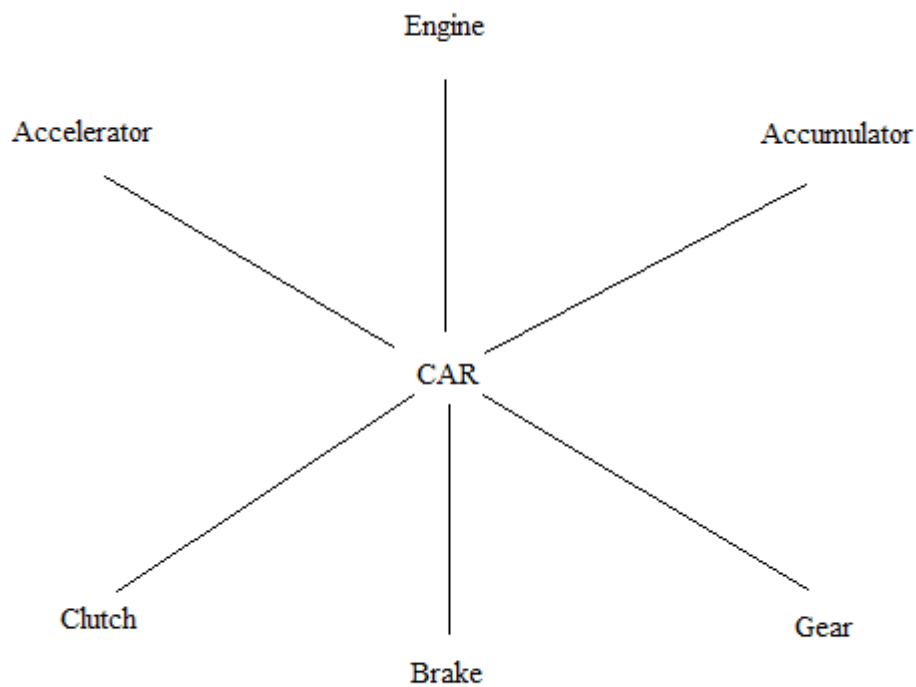


Figure 3. Sample Semantic Mapping

Through such a simple semantic mapping activity, a learner can group the words accelerator, engine, accumulator, clutch, brake and gear, all related with cars, in such a way and when s/he encounters one of these words this image will be remembered helping the learner keep these words in the long-term memory.

3. Using keywords: This strategy involves combining sounds and images; after identifying word similar to the new foreign lexical item in terms of pronunciation in one's own native language, a mental image about this word is formed in the mind for

later reminding. For instance, a Turkish student learning English sees the word “deteriorate” and he directly associates this word with the verb “beter olmak” phonologically and he forms an image of his previous saying for his close friend “Beter ol Ahmet!”. There is a close semantic similarity between the two, as well. So, the word “deteriorate” will remind the learner of the Turkish saying “Beter ol!” and the long-term retention and retrieval of the word will be more viable.

4. Representing sounds in memory: In this strategy, the learner creates an auditory image in his/mind instead of a visual one (Oxford, 1990: 63). For example, s/he forms an auditory link between the words temper, temperature, temporary and temperate in order to memorize better and when s/he comes across one of these, this auditory relation arouses in the mind and retrieval works more effectively.

C. Reviewing well

The only strategy classified under this heading is structured reviewing and it is elaborated below.

1. Structured reviewing: This strategy involves reviewing the new lexical items within the framework of a systematic program. The learner practices these items immediately, then 15 minutes later, an hour later, the following week, two weeks later and so on (Oxford, 1990: 66). Through following such structured reviewing program new knowledge establishes itself in the memory and becomes automatic in time ultimately contributing to the memory skills of learners.

D. Employing action

The strategy “employing action” constitutes the last group of memory strategies and involves two strategies, using physical response or sensation and using mechanical techniques, both closely connected with kinesthetic and tactile aspects of language learning (Oxford, 1990: 66).

1. Using physical response or sensation: This strategy involves acting out the heard or read expressions in order to encode them with physical movement (Oxford, 1990: 66). The Total Physical Response Method, developed by Asher, is chiefly based on this strategy (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 73). Besides physical movements, feelings or sensations can be an aid to remember new elements more easily. As an example to using physical response, a learner's acting of sneezing when s/he learns the verb "to sneeze" can be given.

2. Using mechanical techniques: Writing down new information on materials like flashcards is an effective way of contextualizing them; and with the advantage of their portability handiness this may form an enjoyable learning atmosphere especially for learners at early levels.

As it is clear from the above information on memory strategies, they can be of invaluable importance for all of the four skills, particularly reading and listening. Especially the problems related with semantic aspects of lexical items can be overcome by resorting to the different sorts of memory strategies ranging from using keywords to structured reviewing.

II. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are defined by Rosenshine as strategy serving to support the learner as s/he develops internal procedures enabling to perform complex tasks (1997: 85-86). Their chief aim can be said to raise the learners' exposure to the target language and

thus enhance their skills in every language skill. Practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and finally creating structure for input and output are four main subgroups described under the heading of cognitive strategies.

A. Practicing

There are five strategies classified under “practicing”, which are repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining and practicing naturalistically. All these strategies aim to raise language skills through practice as much as possible and as Oxford puts it practicing naturalistically is the most significant strategy under this category (Oxford, 1990: 44). Since, it adds an authentic and original context to language learning.

1. Repeating: Repeating is one of the most basic types of practicing and it can be performed for all of the four skills in accordance with the language task and learning style of the learner. A learner can write down the unknown words with their meanings repeatedly or s/he can utter these lexical items ten or more times for pronunciation practice, for example. Likewise, a speech or conversation can be listened from a tape or recorder more than one time and a learner can try to utter the sentences s/he hear repeatedly in order to enhance his/her speaking skill.

2. Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems: This strategy can be effectively used for listening, speaking and writing skills (Oxford, 1990: 71-72). Listening to speeches and conversations by native speakers, especially with the visual aid of their written forms, and practicing this activity during programmed periods contribute all of the above-mentioned three strategies. By hearing and repeating new words and expressions in the target language listening and speaking skills can be developed, and thus getting familiar with sounds and written forms of the target language can contribute to the writing skills of learners from lexical point.

3. Recognizing and using formulas and patterns: *Formulas* are fix expressions while *patterns* can be exposed to alteration and making use of such linguistic structures help enhance all of the four skills (Oxford, 1990: 72). Some common formulas in English:

- Here you are.

- You're welcome.
- Try other means.
- Good night.
- It is up to you.
- It depends.
- Take care.

There are many other formulas besides these and here are some examples of patterns commonly used in English:

- I mean that...
- It is commonly believed that...
- I would like to tell...
- I don't know how to express...
- The reasons behind...

As is the case with formulas, pattern examples can be easily multiplied. The important thing here is that practicing with such expressions as much as possible can help learners raise their commands of the target language especially in terms of speaking skill which is a real nightmare for most of language learners.

4. Recombining: This strategy involves constructing a meaning structure or new expressions by combining already known elements (Oxford, 1990: 74). By this way, a learner can develop himself/herself by extending the time of exposure to target language and practice it. For instance, a Turkish student already knows the expressions, "I mean...", "to commit a blunder" and "It was my fault". By recombining these structures and adding some new lexical items, the learner can construct a sentence like "It was my fault; I don't know how to express myself, but... I mean I committed a blunder...". Through practicing with new sentences and structures a learner can raise his/her self-confidence and this will add to his/her linguistic knowledge as well as speaking skills in turn.

5. Practicing naturalistically: It is generally a major drawback for language learners that they do not have the opportunity to learn the target language in real and authentic contexts. With the development of technology and ever-globalizing world, such problems appear to be surmountable to some extent. Authenticity has an invaluable effect in view of motivation and language development (Oxford, 1990: 78). For listening comprehension, for instance, learners should be provided with authentic native speaker speeches and conversations. Moreover providing different accents of the target language from time to time can be more efficient. Since, only teacher talk in the class is not enough for preparing the learners to use language in real world situations. Similarly, reading passages written for language learners do not suffice and the learners can often describe them as artificial. Unfortunately this lowers both motivation and self-confidence. Instead, authentic texts to be chosen according to the level of the students will work better. For also writing skill authenticity can be provided through organizing pen-friends from abroad or communicating with native speaker via e-mails. Unlike reading, writing and listening, speaking skill is probably the most demanding one in terms of naturalistic practicing. It is not easy to find a native speaker and have the opportunity to speak to him/her. This may be compensated by computer and internet technology in part, however, it is better to practice the target language in a country where it is spoken as the mother tongue. Programs like Comenius and Erasmus all serve to provide students have overseas experience and practice their foreign languages in natural contexts.

B. Receiving and sending messages

Strategies of getting the idea quickly and using resources for receiving and sending messages are given under receiving and sending messages and these two strategies can be used to understand foreign language input and create correct outputs in a foreign language.

1. Getting the idea quickly: There are two strategies used to get the idea of a reading or listening text quickly: skimming and scanning. Skimming is used to get the main idea or gist, in other words, of a text and involves reading the title, first paragraph, last

paragraph and finally the first sentences of the developmental paragraphs successively for reading comprehension (Oxford, 1990: 80). If any of these steps are enough for getting the idea of a text, it is not necessary to follow all of the other steps. On the other hand, scanning involves finding out details and specific information in a text (Oxford, 1990: 80). In order to achieve this, identifying keywords concerning what is being looked for will be of valuable use. Through skimming and scanning both written and audio texts can be comprehended more efficiently in a shorter period of time.

2. Using resources for receiving and sending messages: Receiving and sending messages actually involve using all of the language skills in an appropriate and correct way. Using resources to do this involves making use of language-related materials so as to understand what is being read or heard and to write and speak sufficiently (Oxford, 1990: 81). Dictionaries, reading passages, cassettes, tapes, computers, worksheets, flashcards, etc. are all among resources that can be counted as useful for language learning.

C. Analyzing and reasoning

Strategies given under analyzing and reasoning, which are reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, analyzing contrastively, translating and transferring, help learners use logical thinking in perceiving and using a foreign language (Oxford, 1990: 82). These strategies enable more cognitive participation of learners in the learning process.

1. Reasoning deductively: Reasoning deductively helps language learners derive hypotheses on the meaning of what is being heard through general rules they already know (Oxford, 1990: 82). For example, when a learner hears the sentence, “Does it matter for you?” s/he easily understands that this is a question that must be responded. Since, s/he already knows the rule that “do/does” turns a sentence into a question form when posed at the beginning. However, reasoning can sometimes lead to misunderstandings or overgeneralizations (Oxford, 1990: 82). If a learner knows that the “er” suffix turns an adjective into comparative form s/he may constitute an incorrect

structure like “expensiver” through a direct overgeneralization. In order not to face such problems, learners should not bank solely on the conclusions they draw from the familiar structures.

2. Analyzing expressions: Some expressions or lexical items may seem incomprehensible at first sight; however, when examined carefully they turn out to be readily perceivable. Therefore, a learner should not give up his/her efforts to understand an item in a foreign language immediately; instead s/he should look for ways to analyze such elements for the ultimate aim of getting the meaning. For instance, the adjective “unputdownable” seem rather hard to understand. Nevertheless, if a learner looks more attentively s/he will see that it is made up of several linguistic elements that can be separated without difficulty: un-put-down-able. Thus the meaning of “one cannot put down easily” and then “engrossing” will clearly appear.

3. Analyzing contrastively (across languages): This strategy involves analyzing elements of a new language in comparison with the learner’s own native language in order to identify similarities and differences between the two (Oxford, 1990: 83-84). This is done automatically and unconsciously by most of learners especially at the beginning levels (Oxford, 1990: 84). For instance, when a learner firstly encounters the word “trivial” s/he can establish a phonological and semantic connection between it and the Turkish expression “tırı vırı”. Likewise, when s/he learns the sentence structure “Jim went home – Subj. + Verb + Obj.”, it will be apparently seen that it is quite different from the Turkish sentence structure “Jim eve gitti – Subj + Obj. + Verb”. Through such contrastive analyses between languages, linguistic knowledge and awareness of learners will automatically increase.

4. Translating: Translating can be helpful for early language learners when used attentively (Oxford, 1990: 84). When one cannot understand what s/he hears or reads in a foreign language, translating it into one own native language can help understand the expressions to some extent. However, verbatim (word-for-word) translation may bring about misunderstandings (Oxford, 1990: 84-85). For instance, when a learner sees the word “firefighter” and translates into Turkish as “ateş savaççısı” s/he cannot always

conclude the exact meaning of “itfaiyeci”. So, it is not a preferable strategy for upper levels, in particular.

5. Transferring: Transferring involves using already available knowledge in understanding and constructing structures in a foreign language (Oxford, 1990: 85). This transfer generally arises interlingually for most learners, however intralingual transfers are also viable. In order to make appropriate and correct transfers between languages, there must be parallel points; otherwise incorrect outputs can be produced unintentionally. “Train station”, for example, can be easily understood through a simple transfer from Turkish “tren istasyonu”. However, transferring the Turkish word “mobilya” to understand the English word “mobility” can lead to the construction irrelevant sentences. In fact, the two words are semantically related when considered from an extensive point of view; nevertheless, the learner may associate “mobility” with meanings like “chair, oven, fridge, etc.”.

D. Creating structure for input and output

Three strategies under this category, taking notes, summarizing and highlighting, all help language learners sort and organize the information in a foreign language in an efficient and comprehensible way (Oxford, 1990: 86).

1. Taking Notes: Note-taking is an indispensable part of consecutive interpreters’ job and it can be said that it is cut out for listening comprehension. While listening, the listener takes comprehensible notes jotted down point-by-point, not in full sentence form. Also while reading, the reader can take notes point-by-point and after reading all the text s/he can understand what is written in the text by making use of the taken notes and it helps the learner save considerable time compared with rereading the passage or trying to find answers. For writing skill, note-taking is generally used at the pre-writing phase while thinking and organizing what to write. Jotting down main points and then beginning to write often yield more organized and consistent writings.

There is not a standard type of note-taking for different skills. Learners are free to form their own styles. However, the important thing here is that notes should be organized, legible and point-by-point. Below is a sample outline structure provided by Oxford (1990: 89).

- I.
 - A.
 - B.
 - II.
 - A.
 - B.
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
 - III.
 - A.
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - a.
 - b.
 - (1.)
 - (2.)
 - B.
- IV. (etc.)

Figure 4. Sample Outline Structure (Oxford, 1990: 89)

It is possible to multiply these samples for different skills; however, it is better to let learners take notes in accordance with their tendencies and learning styles. Only with such approaches, can the learners be effectively oriented to autonomous learning.

2. Summarizing: Summarizing involves making a condensed version of the original passage and its simplest form is giving a title (Oxford, 1990: 88). It is better to summarize in the target language, yet at early levels learners may be allowed to summarize what they read, listen or plan to write or speak in their mother tongues (Oxford, 1990: 88). At upper levels, however, they are expected to make summaries in the foreign language. By summarizing, learners can raise their motivations by showing that they can understand the input provided in the foreign language.

3. Highlighting: Highlighting involves emphasizing some important points in a text by techniques like starring, coloring, underlining, CAPITAL LETTERS, **BIG WRITING**, **bold writing**, circling, etc. (Oxford, 1990: 89). Learners may use one or more of these techniques as they like. Through highlighting some points that are deemed to be crucial in terms of the content, learners have the opportunity to eliminate the irrelevant and unimportant points and thus save time and energy.

Cognitive strategies comprise strategies like skimming-scanning, practicing naturalistically, reasoning deductively, transferring, note-taking, etc. and appropriate and timely use of such strategies directly help learners develop their language-related skills.

III. Compensation Strategies

Compensation strategies can be defined as specific actions taken to overcome some specific and circumstantial problems encountered while using a foreign language (Oxford, 1990: 90). Learners can use these in order to maintain using the foreign language with minimum stumbling. Under compensation strategies there are two main groups, guessing intelligently in listening and reading and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.

A. Guessing Intelligently

“Guessing” implies that the learner does not know something exactly; however, with some aids and factors, s/he tries to find out the unknown points. Using linguistic clues and other clues are the two strategies that are listed under this heading.

1. Using linguistic clues: With this strategy, the primary clues for the language learner are the linguistic ones. The task of the unknown item in the sentence is quite important for guessing the meaning. Prefixes, suffixes, adjectives, adverbs, etc. are all important here. For example, when a learner comes across such a sentence as “Because of his indecent behaviors, he was declared as persona-non-grata.” and does not know the meaning of the word “persona-non-grata”, s/he can guess almost the exact meaning through linguistic clues. First of all, it is clear that this word undertakes the adjective role in the sentence and the existence of the conjunction “because” shows that there is a cause-effect relationship in the sentence. In the light of these linguistic findings, the adjective “indecent” is the most important determinant of the meaning within the context of this sentence. Considering the negative sense the word “indecent” attaches to the sentence, it becomes clear that the word “persona-non-grata” is used to describe unwanted or undesired people. By means of such practices language learners can enhance their skills to guess the meaning of unfamiliar expressions from context.

2. Using other clues: This strategy involves making use of general background knowledge, analysis of non-verbal behavior including body language, mime, gesture, etc. and analysis of tone, emphasis, etc. (Oxford, 1990: 92-93). For instance, when someone who does not have a good command of English encounters someone else saying “Shut up!” s/he can deduce from the tone of voice and gestures that this expression is a negative one and it is uttered at times of anger and fury. Likewise, when learner reads or hears a sentence like “Barack Obama is the President of U.S.A.” his/her background knowledge about Obama and America will allow him/her to understand easily that “president” means “head of state”. As such inferences depend to a great extent on the learner’s background and linguistic knowledge, ability to guess unknown expressions varies with learner characteristics.

B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

Strategies classified under this heading enable learners to stay in conversation or keep writing long enough to get adequate practice and these are tailored mainly for writing and speaking skills (Oxford, 1990: 94).

1. Switching to the mother tongue: This strategy is called as “code-switching” in socio-linguistics and involves using mother tongue for an expression when its equivalent in the target language cannot be remembered (Oxford, 1990: 94). It cannot be regarded as a suggested strategy; nevertheless, it can be effectively used when necessary for speaking skill. It can be exemplified with a Turkish student’s saying “The flood was really bad and it was a real felaket!” Here the student cannot remember the word “disaster” and in order not to cease the conversation s/he uses Turkish instead of English for one word and in order to camouflage this s/he uses his/her hands and mimics expressing the negative sense of the word “felaket”.

2. Getting help: When something cannot be remembered during a conversation or speech, one can look for help from the other interlocutor or someone else nearby. This may occur in both target language and native one. For instance, a Turk speaking with an English citizen on populations asks another Turk to tell him what the meaning of “nüfus sayımı” is in English or s/he may ask the English interlocutor in English what they call the practice of identifying the number and general characteristics of the citizens living in a country. Both types of this strategy can be effectively used according to the conditions.

3. Using mime or gesture: It is a real handicap for foreign language learners that they understand what others say, however they cannot express themselves adequately. So as to surmount this problem, one can resort to using his/her mimes or gestures in order to maintain the mutual communication with foreigners. For instance, when someone is asked whether s/he approves organ donation, s/he may nod to express approval, so the tough task of forming a long and complex sentence can be eliminated for this time.

However, depending on this strategy in the long term is not a sound approach; instead, it should be employed when it is really needed at times.

4. Avoiding communication partially or totally: It involves avoiding speaking in conditions where problems are likely to occur in terms of language competence; this strategy is in contradiction with the ultimate aim of ceaseless speaking and communication; however, on the other hand it helps keep the motivation of speaking by avoiding error-making (Oxford, 1990: 96). Like resorting to only mime and gesture while speaking, avoiding communication should not be repeated often and it should be used only in really problematic circumstances so that it will not hinder the development of oral skills.

5. Selecting the topic: If one has the opportunity and flexibility to select a topic which s/he likes while speaking and writing, this can be used as an advantage and familiar topics can be selected accordingly. During the practice of this strategy, factors like personal interests, background and topic alternatives come to forefront.

6. Adjusting or approximating the message: This strategy is used to form simpler and more general sentences instead of long and complicated ones while getting a message across (Oxford, 1990: 96). For instance, instead of saying “I would like to extend my sincere welcome to you”, one can say only “Welcome” to communicate his/her message. Using this strategy may not be appropriate for every occasion; yet, it can be effectively used especially in informal conversations.

7. Coining words: This strategy involves making up new words to express a concept on which someone does not have the exact defining information (Oxford, 1990: 97). Someone may contrive such a word as “Turkian” in order to express “Turk” or “Turkish”. Examples of this word-coining can be easily multiplied.

8. Using a circumlocution and a synonym: Instead of coining a new word, one can use a circumlocution or a synonym for an expression as a way of strategy. Actually, this

is more preferable than coining new words. As an example, a learner can say “a person whose job is to carve wood” when s/he cannot remember the word “carpenter”.

Briefly, compensation strategies are generally used when the learner faces a situation which he deems as really problematic and s/he should somehow overcome this matter. Therefore, strategies like coining words, avoiding communication, using mime and gesture, etc. can be employed by the learners to stay in language practice process when language-related difficulties arise.

II. Indirect Strategies (Meta-cognitive, Affective and Social Strategies)

Indirect strategies are the ones that do not directly involve the target language but support and manage the language learning process (Oxford, 1990: 135). These are divided into three subgroups which are meta-cognitive, affective and social strategies. The strategies included in these subgroups are generally related with the indirect control and orientation of the learning process. These strategies and their contributions to language skills are summarized below:

I. Meta-cognitive Strategies

Oxford (1990: 136) defines meta-cognitive as “beyond, beside or with the cognitive”. There are three groups of strategies under this heading which are “centering your learning, arranging and planning your learning, evaluating your learning” (Oxford, 1990: 136) and these groups are composed of eleven strategies in total. The primary aim of using these strategies is to coordinate and control the learning process (Oxford, 1990: 136).

A. Centering your learning

A clear-cut focus should be determined while dealing with language learning, otherwise, the process may end up with a mere confusion (Oxford, 1990: 152). In order to achieve this, Oxford (1990: 152) introduces three strategies: over-viewing and

linking with already known material, paying attention, delaying speech production to focus on listening.

1. Over-viewing and linking with already known material: This strategy involves reviewing a particular subject or material before a relevant upcoming activity so that the learner can ease what s/he will learn by performing a preparation beforehand (Oxford, 1990: 152-153). For instance, a learner prepares himself/herself for an upcoming reading lesson, which will be on global warming, by reviewing vocabulary that may be relevant to this specific subject matter.

2. Paying attention: Attention is a major factor behind achievement. Without adequate concentration, it is rather hard to attain conscious successes. Oxford (1990: 154) divides attention into two: directed attention and selective attention. Directed attention is a general determination of a learner that s/he will try his/her best to concentrate on the thing or activities to be done. A listener's saying "I will pay my utmost attention to what the speaker will confer", for example. On the other hand, selective attention is a type of attention paid to particular points. For example, while reading a literary text the reader pays his/her attention to identifying figurative language.

3. Delaying speech production to focus on listening: This strategy involves arranging the time or period between listening and speaking skills (Oxford, 1990: 155). For instance, a learner may avoid speaking in the target language for months to get himself/herself ready enough by focusing on listening comprehension.

B. Arranging and planning your learning

There are six strategies classified under "arranging and planning your learning" and these include ways to make efficient plans concerning the learning process. The six strategies are finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task and seeking practice opportunities.

1. Finding out about language learning: It is not a good idea to make something without knowing what it exactly is. So it is important to discover and learn some information about what language learning is and what it comprises. Oxford (1990: 156) suggests that learners read books or writings on language learning.

2. Organizing: Organizing strategy is of a broad scope in terms of language learning (Oxford, 1990: 156). For instance, it may cover arranging an appropriate environment or atmosphere for learning. This may be silent environment or a neat desk, for example. The learners may also have note-book with them to write down what they consider as important. They may also form a strict program for the learning process and abide by the determined days and hours. All these and many other possible steps can be defined under the organizing strategy.

3. Setting goals and objectives: Goals are long-term aims while objectives are partly short-term ones (Oxford, 1990: 157). Setting goals and objective are important for language learner in that they can see and evaluate what they have done and achieved and so orient the remaining process in a more effective way. An objective for a learner may be understanding tenses or learning the vocabulary on family relations. On the other hand, a goal may be attaining a level at which one can fluently speak with native speakers.

4. Identifying the purpose of a language task: Being aware of the purpose of language tasks is important in that learners can better direct and control the things they follow consciously. For instance, when an instructor asks students to practice deduction activities, it is better to let them know and identify why they are learning such a thing and what it will work for.

5. Planning for a language task: Planning and making some preparations before a specific language task can enhance the fruitfulness of it. For example, before reading a text on animals, a learner can look for some information on animals and construct basic vocabulary knowledge accordingly.

6. Seeking practice opportunities: Learners should make use of every opportunity that will enable them to practice the target language particularly in authentic contexts. This is an indispensable part of language learning; however, it is generally ignored. A learner, for example, should speak to a native speaker as much as possible when s/he meets one. This will be an invaluable chance to practice oral skills. Likewise, if one has the opportunity to watch foreign channels via satellites, s/he should not miss such a chance again. It is important to practice and to be exposed to language at the highest possible level for the development and retention of language skills.

C. Evaluating your learning

The two strategies under this heading, self-monitoring and self-evaluation, involves the learners' monitoring his/her errors and evaluating his/her performance.

1. Self- monitoring: Language learning is not smooth way, so problems and difficulties are likely to be faced while leading a learning process. In this context, self-monitoring involves the learners' conscious decision to monitor his/her errors and difficulties and adopt a "notice and correct" approach to eliminate problems (Oxford, 1990: 161). This can be applied for all language skills ranging from grammar to pronunciation. For example, if a learner has difficulties in the pronunciation of commonly confused words like chemistry, chore, chalk, charm, etc. s/he should diagnose the problem firstly and then try ways to improve the problem with such words. For example, s/he may try listening to the pronunciation of these words from an audio-dictionary; or s/he may record his/her pronunciation firstly and then compare is with that of the audio-dictionary.

2. Self-evaluating: Self-evaluating involves the learners' evaluating themselves in terms of the progress made in language skills (Oxford, 1990: 162). This is especially important for higher self-motivation. Since, when someone sees that a remarkable way has been driven, the hope and willingness for future will naturally go up. This similarly applies for the language learning process. A learner, for instance, can accumulate the

compositions s/he has written for the writing course for a month and then evaluate the progress achieved during this period by analyzing the writings.

II. Affective Strategies

Oxford (1990: 140) says that *affective* refers to emotions, attitudes, motivations and values. That is, it covers mainly controlling the spiritual dimension of language learning process. There are three main strategy groups under affective strategies: lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself, taking your emotional temperature.

A. Lowering your anxiety

High anxiety is a tough problem for language learners especially for oral skills (Oxford, 1990: 164). Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation, using music and using laughter are specific strategies listed under this title.

1. Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation: Progressive relaxation involves tensing and relaxing all the major muscles of a person, one at a time; likewise deep breathing involves breathing low from the diaphragm besides lungs and meditation concentrating on something deeply so that one directs all his/her attention to a single point (Oxford, 1990: 164). By using such biological and psychological techniques learners can reduce their anxiety level to a notable extent. While preparing for a speaking practice, for instance, a learner can breathe deeply a few times and try to eliminate affective problems.

2. Using music: Listening to slow and calm music is a useful strategy before stressful tasks (Oxford, 1990: 164). It varies from person to person; however, it is generally better to hear relaxing sounds to ease stress.

3. Using laughter: Laughter is a natural remedy and it is already being used by medicine as “laughter therapy” (Oxford, 1990: 164-165). In order to make use of this

feature of it teachers should try to prompt laughter in classes as much as possible via telling jokes, trying different activities, etc.

B. Encouraging yourself

Self-encouragement is quite important to enhance self-confidence and self-motivation. There are three strategies to achieve this: making positive statements, taking risks wisely, rewarding yourself.

1. Making positive statements: In order to motivate himself/herself a learner can try forming and using positive and encouraging statements (Oxford, 1990: 165). Such statements may include:

- I'm good at language skills.
- I will attain such a level in a year that I will be able to speak fluently.
- If I concentrate enough it is not a problem for me to understand audio-texts.

2. Taking risks wisely: Risk-taking is an important step that must be boldly taken by eager language learners. Otherwise, practice may not suffice for developing language skills. For example, a learner can raise his/her hands and show the courage to speak before the class in the target language.

3. Rewarding yourself: Instead of expecting external rewards for good performances, learners should try to reward themselves with particularly tangible things (Oxford, 1990: 166). For example, a learner can purchase a cinema ticket to reward himself/herself following a noteworthy reading or speaking performance in class.

C. Taking your emotional temperature

The strategies under this heading, listening to your body, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary and discussing your feelings with someone else, aim to make

someone aware of his/her affective condition (Oxford, 1990: 167). This helps identify what the problem is and find ways to overcome it.

1. Listening to your body: Oxford (1990: 167) says that “tuning in” to the body is an important step to become aware of one’s affective situation. For instance, before speaking practices, one can discern that his/her heartbeats increase and trembling arise just before the task. After identifying such a problem, s/he can try to find ways to eliminate this problem and overcome his/her anxiety.

2. Using a checklist: Using a checklist provide a more systematic and structured way to follow one’s own affective conditions (Oxford, 1990: 167). By writing down and asking questions to one’s self, more sound and clear identifications concerning the emotional problems can be made. So such steps can pave the way to attain a solution.

3. Writing a language learning diary: Writing down the affective conditions systematically in a diary can help learners see the process better (Oxford, 1990: 168). Problems related with the affective dimension may decrease or increase over time. With written records one can easily check and control his/her learning process and take steps accordingly.

4. Discussing your feelings with someone else: Discussing and sharing problems with others is a good way of diminishing the inner pressure. While discussing with others new opinions are likely to appear and this can contribute to the solution of problems. For instance, a learner that have difficulties in getting ready for speaking tasks from affective perspective can talk this matter with someone else try to find out ways to lower his/her anxiety level.

III. Social Strategies

Social strategies mainly cover ones that are linked to dialogue and solidarity between at least two individuals. Three main strategy groups are asking questions, cooperating with others and empathizing with others.

A. Asking Questions

The strategy of asking questions involve asking for clarification or verification and asking for correction. They are generally used when the learner is not sure whether s/he has understood a written or oral production correctly. Besides, they can be used to check whether his/her language production is correct or not.

1. Asking for clarification or verification: This strategy can be used when one wants to get more explanation or verification concerning what s/he has read or heard. For instance, while speaking a learner can ask someone:

- Can you explain this point again?
- I couldn't understand exactly, could you make it clearer?
- Can you repeat again?

Such questions can help a learner see whether s/he understands correctly or not, thus enabling him/her maintain a more sound communication and check his/her own level in terms of language skills.

2. Asking for correction: In order to monitor oneself more effectively, a learner can resort to asking someone else for correction especially about oral and written production (Oxford, 1990: 170). For instance, one can ask one of his/her friends or the interlocutor in person whether his/her utterances correct in view of grammar or appropriateness.

B. Cooperating with others

Cooperation is generally an effective way of attaining success. Oxford (1990: 170) says that cooperating with peers and cooperating with proficient users of the new language can be employed as a way for developing language skills.

1. Cooperating with peers: Cooperating with peers involve a common effort of more than one learner in order to perform a language task or activity (Oxford, 1990: 171).

Two students, for example, can handle a reading passage together through making summaries, taking notes and asking comprehension questions to one another.

2. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language: Proficient users or native speakers of a target language are generally inaccessible for most language learners. However, getting help from or cooperating with them can be of priceless help to improve oneself. One can ask a proficient user of the new language to check and tell what is missing in his/her using language skills and practice with this person for the ultimate aim of developing language skills.

C. Empathizing with others

Understanding and producing the target language involves empathizing with other people particularly from the target culture (Oxford, 1990: 172). To fulfill this dimension of the language learning process there are two strategies: developing cultural awareness and becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings.

1. Developing cultural understanding: Raising cultural understanding and awareness about the target language is quite important in that it may stimulate integrated motivation and so raise the willingness to attain a higher level at language skills. Moreover, it can help learners to better understand what types of language uses are appropriate or not for written and oral production (Oxford, 1990: 172). For instance, by keeping up with news and books in the target language, a learner can discover easily some details on the target culture and shape his/her language knowledge accordingly.

2. Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings: Understanding the feelings of others' through analyzing their expressions, body language, etc. is a good way of finding an appropriate response to the situations. It can help learners understand even some unfamiliar expressions. For example, when one hears somebody say "It was a real devastation for me!" s/he can guess that there is an upsetting situation in question without much difficulty and shape what to say in a more plausible and correct way.

Oxford's 62 strategies are summarized with examples above and some information is given below about the strategy instruction including its major types and steps.

II.2 STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

Studies conducted in this particular research area generally deal with the identification and description of the strategies used by second or foreign language learners (e.g., Oflaz, 2008, Ghani, 2003). These studies use the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning by Oxford (1990: 293) as their chief data collection instrument. Other studies aim to show the correlation with the strategy use of learners and their academic success (e.g., Song, 2004, Zahedi, 2008). Some other studies, on the other hand, try to demonstrate the efficacy level of strategy instruction (training) on achievement (e.g., Carrell et al., 1989, Coşkun, 2010). Such researches may take different dimensions of language learning strategies for instruction. For instance, while a study can focus on meta-cognitive strategy training, another one can concentrate on cognitive or compensation strategies, or both of them together.

As O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 152-153) report, generally there have been four different approaches to language learning strategies instruction: separate, integrated, direct and embedded instruction. These approaches may be adopted separately for the instruction of a particular set of strategies, or an eclectic approach, including more than one of them in accordance with the need and conditions in the instruction process, may be employed by instructors.

II.2.1 Separate versus Integrated Instruction

It is an important question whether strategy instruction should take place independently focusing solely on the teaching of strategies or contextually with the inclusion of materials and content designed for the teaching of different language skills. Separate instruction focuses merely on the learning strategy training itself while the integrated one involves the strategy instruction in combination with the normal classroom instruction (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 152). Researchers like Jones et al. (cited in

O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 152) put forward that if learners focus solely on the strategy training, the outcome will be better. They emphasize the efficacy of concentration on one point. On the other hand, researchers like Chamot and O'Malley (1987) suggest that practicing language learning strategies on classroom tasks, authentic ones in particular, help learners internalize the strategies and have the ability to use them for later tasks. Their emphasis for this point of view is the contextualization of learning strategies through tasks and materials designed for language teaching. It is not easy to say "this is exactly the true one"; so, different people may adopt varying approaches. However, due to its higher focus on contextualizing the strategy instruction, an integrated approach seems better to adopt.

II.2.2 Direct versus Embedded Instruction

Direct versus embedded dichotomy is more related with the characteristics of the training process. If an instructor informs the students about the definition, explanation, aim and usage of a strategy, it is called direct instruction; however, when the students are expected to find out and understand the reasons behind using a strategy through materials designed to elicit the use of strategies, it is called embedded instruction (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 153). Direct instruction is generally supported and emphasized for its meta-cognitive dimension. Researchers like Palincsar and Brown (1986: 771-777) say that explaining the strategies in an open way help learners get a meta-cognitive knowledge about strategy use thus transfer the learned knowledge for new tasks in a more efficient way. On the other hand, researchers like Jones (cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 153) value embedded instruction for its little need for teacher training. Learners have the control and more autonomy for their learning.

Both types of strategy instruction have their own merits. The direct one enables learners to get familiar with strategies in a simple and obvious way. As for the embedded type, students are given a task to find out and use the strategies themselves without any explanation by the teacher. So they discover and have the control of their own learning giving them more autonomy that is among the primary aims of language learning strategies. It may be plausible way to take an eclectic approach to strategy training.

Either of embedded or direct instruction may be adopted according to the type of the strategy and levels or needs of the target learners. In addition, both of them can be employed for teaching a specific strategy. The instruction can begin with a material designed for embedded teaching of a strategy and after letting students discover and think about the strategy in question for a while, the teacher can make explanations on the use and aim of it.

II.2.3 Steps in the Strategy Training Model

Strategy training is a demanding procedure, not a casual one. Therefore, some preparations and decisions should be made prior to an instruction process. Oxford (1990: 204) suggests an eight-step model for the training of LLSs:

- 1- Determine the learners' needs and the time available.
- 2- Select strategies well.
- 3- Consider integration of strategy training.
- 4- Consider motivational issues.
- 5- Prepare materials and activities.
- 6- Conduct "completely informed training."
- 7- Evaluate the strategy training.
- 8- Revise the strategy training.

The *first step* involves knowing about the features of the learners who will receive the strategy training. Age, proficiency level, background, etc. are all among the factors determining the needs of learners. Along with these factors, the instructor should determine the length of the process well in accordance with the needs of the students and conditions available.

The *second step* is about the selection of strategies. Strategies should be selected in accordance with the needs of students. Instead of using one strategy a few different but inter-related strategies should be instructed. Instead of teaching only simple or only difficult strategies, both of them should be given in combination (Oxford, 1990: 205). In

addition, the use of the selected strategies should be transferrable to future possible tasks.

The *third step* is related with the nature of the instruction. Oxford (1990: 205) says that an integrated approach should be adopted. The integration of the strategy training with the regular language tasks and materials is important in that it allows the learners to see and practice strategies in context, which raises the possibility of long-retention and future transfer.

The *fourth step* involves raising the motivation level of students. Oxford (1990: 206) suggests that teacher give grades for performance with strategies or encourage and convince students about the fruitfulness of using strategies. Besides, in order to enhance motivation, strategies and materials should be selected meticulously in line with the student characteristics.

The *fifth step* about the preparation of materials and activities to be used in training. Teachers may use available materials or they can develop their own materials like practice sheets. While preparing the materials and activities, motivational issues should be taken into consideration and they should be in conformity with the features and requirements of the selected strategies.

The *sixth step* involves the issue whether to follow a direct or embedded instruction process. Oxford (1990: 207) suggests that direct instruction should be employed and learners should be informed about the aim and use of the strategies to be taught. By this way, also meta-cognitive dimension of the training can be fulfilled.

In the *seventh step* both students and the teacher evaluate the instruction process in terms of the performance and progress achieved. Opinions and observations of the students are quite important in this context as they constitute the target.

In the *eighth step* the instructor revises the whole process in the light of the findings yielded in the seventh step and takes decisions about the efficacy of the training and what to change if there appear shortcomings.

It is better to follow these steps in order to attain desired results. If problems occur in any of these steps, the process may be adversely affected. However, with the aid of evaluation and revision phases errors can be compensated thus enabling chances to restructure the training model.

II.3 READING COMPREHENSION AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Reading comprehension is an indispensable component of language learning. Rivers (1981: 259) says that reading is one of the most significant activities in a language class, since it not only provides a source of information and pleasurable activity but also helps learners extend and consolidate their knowledge in the target language. It is not true to consider reading as a passive activity preventing the learner from actively participating in the process (Rivers, 1981: 266). On the contrary, it involves the learner in the process by giving him/her roles like analyzing lexical items, syntax and discourse, inferring meanings from context, getting and analyzing the intended messages, etc.

Carrell and Eisterhold see reading comprehension as an interactive process in which top-down (making use of prior knowledge in order to make sense of a text) and bottom-up (analyzing and decoding particular language components and features) processing occur simultaneously:

The data that are needed to instantiate, or fill out, the schemata become available through bottom-up processing; top-down processing facilitates their assimilation if they are anticipated by or consistent with the listener/reader's conceptual expectations. Bottom-up processing ensures that the listeners/readers will be sensitive to information that is novel or that does not fit their ongoing hypotheses about the content or structure of the text;

top-down processing helps the listeners/ readers to resolve ambiguities or to select between alternative possible interpretations of the incoming data.

(1983: 557)

Carrell and Eisterhold (1983: 557) mention a psycholinguistic approach to reading comprehension, which can be titled as the schema theory. According to Rumelhart, the schema theory emphasizes the role of background knowledge in language comprehension (cited in Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983: 557). Briefly, the world knowledge of a reader interacts with the input presented in a text in order to attain a healthy comprehension. They (1983: 557) clarify this point by saying that “according to schema theory, the process of interpretation is guided by the principle that every input is mapped against some existing schema and that all aspects of that schema must be compatible with the input information”.

Likewise, Hedge (2000: 189) puts forward six types of knowledge helping to understand a text:

- *Syntactic knowledge*: This type of knowledge involves knowing about the composition of phrases and sentences (syntax). e.g. “a gifted child” As it precedes a noun and comes after the indefinite article “a”, “gifted” is likely to be an adjective.
- *Morphological knowledge*: Morphological knowledge is related with the formation and composition of words. e.g. “robber” It is likely that the word “robber” is derived from “rob” and they are semantically related.
- *General world knowledge*: It involves knowledge besides linguistic aspects such as things about the recent agenda. e.g. “Prime Minister Erdoğan” It is clear that “prime minister” refers to “başbakan”.
- *Socio-cultural knowledge*: It involves knowledge concerning specific cultural and social features. e.g. “Hagia Sophia” If one knows about the

background and architecture of Hagia Sophia, it will be easier to understand the content of a relevant text (religious components, etc.).

- *Topic knowledge*: It is, in general sense, knowledge about particular topics. e.g. “global warming” Having some knowledge on global warming can help better understand some unfamiliar items in a related text.

- *Genre knowledge*: It involves knowing about the features of a specific genre, especially in the context of literary texts. e.g. “poems” While reading a poem, the reader knows s/he will encounter uses of figurative language and approach the semantic dimension of the text accordingly.

Syntactic and morphological knowledge can be linked to linguistic knowledge while the rest relates to schematic knowledge. It cannot be said that one or two of these types of knowledge are employed independently. As Hedge (2000: 189) points out, there is a perpetual interplay among various kinds of knowledge and all help readers for the ultimate aim of effective comprehension.

Aebersold and Field (1997: 42) mention two main approaches to teaching reading: extensive approach and intensive approach. The extensive approach aims to develop reading skills by providing them with large quantities of texts in accordance with their interests and preferences (Aebersold and Field, 1997: 43). The texts are read for general comprehension not for every detail. Learner’s being exposed to large authentic texts is believed to bring improvements in the reading skill especially in the long-term. On the other hand, the intensive approach aims to improve reading skills of the learners by providing them with shorter texts and letting them read each text at length (Aebersold and Field, 1997: 43). The latter approach is more widely used particularly in EFL contexts. This study has also taken an intensive approach during the instruction owing to the time restriction. However, for long term lessons it can be more useful to adopt an integrated approach including both extensive and intensive readings.

Hedge (2000: 202) mentions a possible characterization of extensive reading as follows:

- reading large quantities of material, whether short stories and novels, newspaper and magazine articles, or professional reading
- reading consistently over time on a frequent and regular basis
- reading longer texts (more than a few paragraphs in length) of the types listed in the first point above
- reading for general meaning, primarily for pleasure, curiosity, or professional interest
- reading longer texts during class time but also engaging in individual, independent reading at home, ideally of self-selected material.

The prevailing opinion here is that extensive reading is characterized by the existence of large quantities of texts and the learners' preferences in general terms. That is, it is in clear contrast with intensive reading. Under this framework, Hedge (2000: 202) says that intensive approach is more appropriate for teaching reading strategies thanks to its more concise scope; however, it will be better to adopt an extensive reading approach in order to let learners practice these strategies more autonomously on an extended range of materials.

Whatever the selected approach or material is, it is important to employ some strategies to lessen the burden of the learner and promise a better and effective learning. It is crucial to let the learner become autonomous and orient his/her own reading process. Through employing strategies like skimming-scanning, organizing, highlighting, summarizing, etc. reading comprehension skills of the learners can be improved to a notable extent.

Below is a sample account of two students' reading processes:

Mircea is a conscientious student. When he is told he will be tested on the contents of Chapter 2 in the textbook, he looks up every unknown word in the dictionary in an effort to fix the information in his memory. Despite his extended preparations, he doesn't do very well on the test, though he says he

spent hours preparing. Lia, on the other hand, excels on the exam, but she has approached the text in a very different way. Before she reads the chapter, she skims through it, looking at subheadings and graphics so as to give herself a general idea of what the text will be about. As she reads, she connects the material in the chapter to what she already knows. She frequently asks herself questions about the text, looking back or ahead to link one part of the text to another. When she is puzzled by the content, she searches for clues in the context, tries to paraphrase, or considers what she knows about text structure. In short, Lia is reading like an expert, while Mircea is relying on just one technique. The difference between the two is in their use of reading strategies.

(Janzen, 2002: 287)

The above example by Janzen (2002: 287) clearly shows the striking difference between the two students. Their approaches to reading differ radically and thus they get different results. It is important to focus on what Lia does and what Mircea does not do. Lia's using LLSs yields apparently far better results, whereas Mircea cannot find what she expects owing to her approach that does not include LLSs.

Likewise, following her study on the learners' reading strategies, Hosenfeld (cited in McDonough, 1995: 44) lists the chief characteristics of successful readers as below:

Successful readers;

1. keep the meaning of the passage in mind
2. read in broad phrases
3. skip inessential words
4. guess from context the meaning of unknown words
5. have a good self-concept as a reader
6. identify the grammatical category of words
7. demonstrate sensitivity to a different word order
8. examine illustrations
9. read the title and make inferences from it

10. use orthographic information (e.g. capitalization)
11. refer to the side gloss
12. use the glossary as a last resort
13. look up words correctly
14. continue if unsuccessful at decoding a word or phrase
15. recognize cognates
16. use their knowledge of the world
17. follow through with a proposed solution to a problem
18. evaluate their guesses

As is the case with the list provided by Rubin and Thompson, Hosenfeld (cited in McDonough, 1995: 44) gives a list of features she observed in successful language learners. Yet, the features presented by Hosenfeld are reduced to reading skill and the characteristics above are related to particularly good readers. However, the most important thing here is the overlapping of the two lists in terms of the emphasis put on the use of techniques and strategies. The keywords like “skip, guess, context, inference, knowledge of the world, etc.” all show us the significance attached to the role of using language learning strategies for reading comprehension.

Brown (2007: 140) says that it is essential to “teach learners how to learn”. This perspective applies for all types of language skills including reading and reading comprehension. As for LLS training for reading comprehension, explicit instruction is regarded as ideal (Chamot, 2005, Carrell et al., 1989, MacIntyre and Noels, 1996). Chamot (2005: 123) says that explicit training fosters meta-cognition and it is an essential part of effective strategy instruction. Besides, MacIntyre & Noels (1996) say that strategy training will be effective when the learners (1) understand the strategy itself, (2) perceive it to be effective, and (3) do not consider its implementation to be overtly difficult.

It is clear that the importance of LLSs has been emphasized on several occasions. At least, their use should be integrated to regular classroom contexts as much as possible, if

not always. Additionally, the focus on explicit instruction rather than an implicit one deserves some attention.

II.4. RELEVANT STUDIES

In recent years, language learning strategies have attracted much interest in second and foreign language teaching. The studies range from descriptive researches to experimental ones. While some of them focus on the identification of the particular strategies used by learners, others aim to test the efficacy of using these strategies through conducting an experimental strategy instruction procedure. Some other studies cover only the literature review composed of brief information concerning previously written papers in this particular field.

Studies with the aim of identifying what strategies are used by language learners take the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning as their chief data collection instrument. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning formulated by Oxford (1990: 293) is a likert-type scale that is made up of six parts (divided in accordance with the types of strategies – Section A- Memory Strategies, Section B- Cognitive Strategies, Section C- Compensation Strategies, Section D- Meta-cognitive Strategies, Section E- Affective Strategies, Section F- Social Strategies). It has been translated into various languages including Turkish so far and has several versions designed for different purposes like SILL—Version for English Speakers Learning a New Language and SILL—Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English.

In this part concise information concerning the researches conducted under the framework of language learning strategies has been given and these studies are divided into two main divisions as relevant studies made in Turkey (domestic ones) and abroad (foreign studies).

II.4.1. Foreign Studies

O'Malley (1987: 133-143) conducted a research with the participation of 75 students to see the effectiveness of language learning strategy instruction. The students were randomly assigned to three different groups. The first group received meta-cognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies training; the second group received cognitive and socio-affective strategies training; the third group received no special strategy training. Listening, speaking and vocabulary skills of the students were addressed in the study. Surprisingly, the control group did better in terms of vocabulary skills following the study. O'Malley (1987: 140-143) tries to explain this outcome by saying that the students in the experimental groups did not take the instruction seriously enough and continued to use their traditional understandings and techniques.

Tang and Moore (1992) carried out a study through teaching cognitive (title discussion, pre-teaching vocabulary) and meta-cognitive strategies (self-monitoring) for reading comprehension. The results yielded by the research show that both cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies made significant difference in terms of language scores. However, while the students tended to give up using cognitive strategies following the instruction process, meta-cognitive strategies turned out to be employed even after the strategy training process.

The study of Griffiths (2003), aiming to specify the relationship between the use of language learning strategies and success in English and taking multinational students in a private language school in New Zealand as its subjects, yielded findings in favor of a significant correlation between using LLSs and English proficiency. Another finding of the study is the different levels of using learning strategies between students of differing nationalities. The study also shows that there is no significant difference between males and females in terms of LLS use. The variable "age" also does not make a difference in the findings of the research. The researcher (2003) concludes that the findings are promising considering the effectiveness of LLSs.

In another study, Song (2004) conducted a research on Chinese EFL learners employing Purpura's scale of learning strategies. In a similar direction with the findings of Griffiths (2003), Song puts forward a meaningful correlation between strategy use and success in English. The study also indicates that the subjects of the research (121 university students) used meta-cognitive learning strategies more than cognitive ones.

Arce (2001) conducted a research with 114 Spanish learners using Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (1990) and The Terra Nova Exam. Unlike Song (2004) and Giffiths (2003), Arce says there is no meaningful correlation between strategy use and success. Students of high, medium and low success levels did not differ significantly in terms of strategy selection and use. However, the study suggests a significant difference between male and female learners considering strategy selection. It also shows that the use of memory and cognitive strategies appears at lower levels compared with other strategy types.

Nisbet (2002) is another researcher supporting the correlation between strategy use and success in language. In this study making use of Oxford's scale and The Institutional Testing Program - Test of English as a Foreign Language (ITP-TOEFLE), the chief finding is that there is a significant relationship between the use of cognitive strategies and success and also between the use of meta-cognitive and affective strategies together and success. The study suggests no significant difference between males and females.

Salem (2006) conducted a study with the participation of 147 undergraduate students at the American University of Beirut. The study yielded the result that the overall strategy use did not play a significant role in English proficiency. While cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies turned out to be the most frequently used strategies, affective strategies appeared to be the least frequently employed ones.

Zhao (2007) aimed to investigate the use of language learning strategies by undergraduate students and the correlation between strategy use and English proficiency. The subjects of the study were two hundred and fifty four Chinese undergraduate students (123 male and 131 female) in Assumption University. The

results yielded by the research showed that the students' use of strategies was at medium level. Compensation strategies were the most frequently used, and memory strategies were the least used. The study also suggests a positive correlation between the students' strategy use and their proficiency in English, which presents positive implication for strategy training.

Having studied on the effects of reading and reading strategy training on lower proficiency level second language learners who were learning Spanish as a second language, Steinagel (2005) reports that there is no significant difference between the performance of students who read loudly and who read silently. He (2005) also says that there is no significant difference between the performances of those who received strategy training for reading comprehension and those who did not. The chief reason behind this result is given as the limitation of the time allocated for the study.

In his study with 56 first-year Japanese college students enrolled in an English course at a university in Okinawa, Japan, Fewell (2010: 159-174) administered a Japanese translated version of the SILL questionnaire (Oxford 1990), a computerized English proficiency test in order to see the correlation between strategy use and success in foreign language learning. The subjects of the research consisted of 29 students with English majors (52%) and 27 students with Business majors (48%). The findings of the study show that students of English major with lower proficiency levels and students of Business major with high proficiency levels have a higher degree of strategy use. On the other hand, students who study in the English department and have a desirable proficiency level and those studying in the Business department with a low proficiency level in English showed lower strategy use. These findings suggest that there are numerous factors and variables affecting both strategy use and proficiency levels. Therefore, Fewell (2010: 170) says that the amount and pattern of language learning strategy use by learners should not be a determinant and decisive factor in predicting or deciding success or failure in a language learning process.

II.4.2. Domestic Studies

Özseven (1993) aimed to display the correlation between LLS use and speaking performances of science students with the participation of 62 subjects. Following the

study, which employed Oxford's SILL and a speaking exam, Özseven (1993) reports that there is no direct relationship between strategy use and speaking proficiency. The subjects of the study tended to use compensatory, meta-cognitive and social strategies at higher frequency. However, the study suggests that there may be a relationship between using cognitive and compensatory strategies and success in speaking performance.

Bedir (1998) conducted a strategy instruction through teaching cognitive learning strategies like skimming-scanning, summarizing, semantic mapping, etc. for reading comprehension. He (1998) reports that there is a significant difference between the performances of the experimental group and control group following this study with prep-class candidate EFL teachers at Çukurova University. Student interviews conducted under this study show that receiving strategic reading comprehension lessons gives students a considerable self-confidence and this helps improve their performances. Bedir (1998) concludes that strategy training should be integrated to reading comprehension lessons.

Yalçın (2003) conducted a study on the efficacy level of grammar learning strategies on the academic success of 425 students in the Prep School of Gazintep University. Although he detects significant differences in view of some variables like gender and educational background, his study does not show a significant correlation between strategy use and academic success.

Like Yalçın's (2003) study, the study of Muhtar (2006) concludes that there is not a significant correlation with meta-cognitive strategy use and success in reading comprehension. Following the rather limited period of meta-cognitive strategy instruction, her study puts forward that a three-week meta-cognitive strategy use training does not make a meaningful difference in terms of reading comprehension. However, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre and post-test results of the experimental group, which prompts positive ideas about LLSs. As for the LLS use of students, compensation strategies turned out to be the most frequently used and memory strategies appeared to be least frequently used ones.

In a study with 2nd grade university students, Kiroğlu (2002: 6-12) taught how to use the reading comprehension strategy, SQ3R (Scan, Question, Read, Recite and Review) and by means of pre-tests and post-tests it was aimed to see how this specific strategy instruction worked to what extent. At the end of the study, Kiroğlu (2002: 6-12) concludes that there is a significant difference between the reading comprehension levels of students who are given strategy instruction and those who are not.

Kaçar (1999) aimed to display the type of correlation between strategy use and English proficiency. Unlike Yalçın (2003) and Muhtar (2006), yet like Kiroğlu (2002:6-12), Kaçar (1999) disserts a significant correlation between strategy use level and success after a six-week strategy instruction to university prep school students.

Bekleyen (2006: 28-37) says that prospective EFL teachers' use of language learning strategies is at medium levels following her study with 142 university students at Dicle University. She reports that use of meta-cognitive and compensation strategies is above the average and the type of graduated high school does not make a difference in terms of strategy use. Finally, she concludes that there is a significant difference between male and female students' strategy uses in favor of the females. It is among her suggestions that male-female distinction be taken into consideration while language teaching.

Çubukçu (2008: 83-93) shows that using meta-cognitive strategies like using strengths, inferring meaning, using background information, evaluating, distinguishing and revising, etc. make a significant contribution to the students' success in reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge. In her study with junior university students, she taught how to use meta-cognitive strategies for reading comprehension for 5 weeks (one hour a week) and after evaluating both pre and post-tests she reports that the instruction process has made a significant difference concerning the success of students in both reading comprehension and vocabulary performance.

It can be said that two parallel studies, mainly covering the instruction of meta-cognitive strategies for reading comprehension, can yield totally contradictory results. While the study of Muhtar (2006) does not support the efficacy of teaching meta-

cognitive strategies in the short-term, the study of Çubukçu (2008: 83-93) demonstrates the effectiveness of meta-cognitive strategy training within a short period of time.

Gürata (2008) conducted a study with 176 prep-class students at Middle East Technical University (METU) with the aim of identifying grammar learning strategies used by the students taking different variables into account. The study indicates that the students use varying grammar strategies and using such strategies have a significant effect on grammar performance. It also reports that there are significant differences among students with different proficiency levels in terms of strategy use. Finally, it puts forward that male and female students differed significantly in their strategy use, which supports the findings of Bekleyen (2006: 28-37).

In his research aiming to investigate the effect of meta-cognitive listening strategy training on the listening performance of a group of beginner preparatory school students at a university in Turkey, Coşkun (2010) carried out a five-week strategy instruction. After analyzing pre and post-test results, he (2010) reports a significant difference between the listening performances of those who received strategy instruction and those who did not. In the light of this finding, Coşkun (2010) suggests that strategy training be incorporated into regular listening curriculum.

Similarly, Uslan (2006) reports a significant correlation between total strategy use and language proficiency while Cesur (2008) says that only memory, cognitive and compensation strategies make a significant difference regarding language success.

The above-mentioned studies on this particular issue are only some of the literature on the LLSs. They were selected according to their content and findings so that the whole literature could be represented here. One of the most important points here is that there are radical distinctions between the findings of these studies, which is caused by the existence of different variables. It is hoped that this study will also take its place among these researches and make its contribution to the related literature.

PART III. METHODOLOGY

In this part, information about the population and sampling, data collection and data analysis conducted under this thesis are presented.

III.1. POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The population of the study consists of students attending the English Language Teaching Program in the Department of Foreign Languages Education at Ondokuz Mayıs University in 2010 – 2011 academic year.

The sample of the study is composed of both first and second groups of the first grade students attending the English Language Teaching Program in the Department of Foreign Languages Education at Ondokuz Mayıs University in 2010 – 2011 academic year. For the reason that the study was planned as a research trying to reveal the role of teaching cognitive and compensation strategies in the success of university students in reading comprehension, the first grade course titled “Advanced Reading and Writing” was deemed as ideal for this application process. Therefore, the sample for the study was selected as the first-grade students in the English Language Teaching Program.

The subjects of the Experimental Group compose the first group of the first grade students (30 students, Day-time Education) and the subjects of the Control Group make up the second group of the first grade students (30 students, Day-time Education) attending the English Language Teaching Program in the Department of Foreign Languages Education at Ondokuz Mayıs University in 2010 – 2011 academic year. The experimental group consisted of 23 female and 7 male students. 14 of these graduated from an Anatolian High School in Turkey; 8 students from an Anatolian Teacher Training High School, 4 from a Super High School and 4 students graduated from a high school abroad. In addition, 21 students included in the experimental group said that they had attended prep-class last year at Ondokuz Mayıs University.

As for the control group, 19 female and 11 male students formed this group. 10 of these students graduated from an Anatolian High School, 1 from an Anatolian Teacher Training High School, 10 from a Super High School, 2 from a Regular High School and 7 students graduated from an overseas High School. 25 students of this group attended prep-class last year at Ondokuz Mayıs University.

As it is clear from the figures presented above, there is not homogeneity among students and between groups in terms of variables like gender, graduated high school and prep-class attendance. In both groups there is a blatant dominance of female students and those who attended prep-class. Considering the graduated high schools, Anatolian High School and Super High School prevail. Departing from these numerical data, it was decided that these variables would not be included in the study in order to eliminate the possibility of getting subtle results from the study.

Prior to beginning the instruction process, it was ensured that there was no significance difference between the proficiency levels of both groups. The results of the pre-tests suggested a significance level of 0,850 ($p>0,05$) between the experimental and control groups. A table covering the pre-test results is included in the “Findings and Discussions” part of this study.

III.2. DATA COLLECTION

- a. A pre-test for reading comprehension was administered to both groups at the beginning of the fall semester in order to see the level of the subjects.
- b. A post-test was administered to subjects following the instruction of cognitive strategy use for reading comprehension skill in order to specify the efficacy of the instruction.

In order to eliminate a possible risk of difference between levels, the pre-test and post-test for the study was applied using the same text and questions. The text titled “The Great Wall of China” was compiled by the researcher making use of two different texts

on The Wall of China (<http://au-piranha-tondeur.blogspot.com/2006/05/great-wall-of-china-on-walls-in.html> and <http://www.chinatoursaffordable.com/great-wall-of-china>). The level of the text is advanced and its level and length were selected in accordance with the levels and lengths of the texts included in the course book, “Creating Meaning”, which was employed as the primary resource for reading activities throughout the strategy training process.

In order to evaluate the comprehension level of the students, ten multiple choice questions, two open ended questions and four true-false questions were addressed to them in the test. The questions were prepared by the researcher taking the level of the students and scope of the strategy instruction process into account. The questions along with the text itself were handed to ten instructors from the ELT Department at Ondokuz Mayıs University and only after getting their approval was the pre-test put into practice.

III.3. DATA ANALYSIS

The statistical analyses of the study were carried out by means of the “SPSS 11.0” data analysis program employing statistical techniques such as mean, standard deviation, frequencies, percentage and T-tests. While conducting statistical analyses, the threshold for significance was accepted as $p < 0.05$ and discussions and comments on the findings of the study were shaped in accordance with this significance threshold.

III.4. PROCEDURE

Three main cognitive strategies and one compensatory strategy have been instructed to the experimental group under the framework of this research. In general terms, a two-week period was allocated to each strategy making up an eight-week strategy instruction process in total. The first weeks of this two-week period for each strategy were allocated to introduce the strategies to the students and show them examples of making use of these strategies effectively. These lessons were planned and delivered with the intention of laying a background knowledge and awareness about the strategies to be instructed. On the other hand, the second weeks of the two-week periods were utilized

so as to show students a more detailed picture about the strategies in question and let them have an opportunity to practice these strategies on the texts selected for the study.

While selecting the strategies to be instructed, Oxford's classification was taken as the basis. The employed cognitive strategies were "getting the idea quickly", "taking notes" and "highlighting". As the strategy "getting the idea quickly" involves skimming and scanning, this strategy is mentioned as "skimming-scanning" throughout this paper. As for the instructed compensation strategy, Oxford (1990: 92-93) titles it as "guessing intelligently". Although Oxford (1990: 92) lists two different strategies (using linguistic clues and using other clues) under this strategy type, they were regarded by the researcher as inseparable steps. Therefore, they were taught together with a holistic approach under the title "guessing intelligently" as a single strategy.

The texts used during the strategy instruction are from a course book titled as "Creating Meaning" (Blass et. al., 2008). Actually, as the instruction was conducted under the course "Advanced Reading and Writing", the students were asked to get this book prior to the beginning of lessons. Then, both sample strategy practices provided by the researcher and the strategy practices expected from the students were made with the use of texts covered in "Creating Meaning".

The course book, "Creating Meaning", aims to develop advanced reading and writing skills in students and therefore the texts in the book have an advanced level and they are of a broad range of themes ranging from global warming and family ties to natural disasters and social issues. Since the book includes both reading and writing skills, Instructor Siddık Yüksel, who was responsible for the Advanced Reading and Writing Course, also followed the same course book for the writing part. During the eight weeks the first three chapters of the book were covered under the strategy instruction. The titles of the texts employed for the strategy training are listed above (also given as appendixes at the end of this paper):

- 1- Changing the Definition (Appendix - 2-3)
- 2- James (Appendix - 4)

- 3- Innovations for the Developing World (Appendix - 5)
- 4- Finding a New Way to Paint (Appendix - 6)
- 5- Frank Gehry (Appendix - 8)
- 6- Global Warming (Appendix - 10)

In order not to let students face a time restriction, the lessons delivered in the second weeks of the process were planned to be composed of two hours unlike the ones delivered in the first weeks which were formulated to be one hour a week.

Unlike the lessons of the experimental group, the lessons of the control group were delivered with a traditional approach with no specific emphasis on LLS use. However, the time period and the employed texts for the instruction of both groups were the same.

Below is the strategy training process for the experimental group:

III.4.1 Strategy Training Process

29 September 2010

09.15-10.00 (Pre-test)

06 October 2010

09.15-10.00 (1st Lesson)

13 October 2010

09.15-10.00 (2nd Lesson)

10.15-11.00 (3rd Lesson)

20 October 2010

09.15-10.00 (4th Lesson)

27 October 2010

09.15-10.00 (5th Lesson)

10.15-11.00 (6th Lesson)

03 November 2010

09.15-10.00 (7th Lesson)

10 November 2010

09.15-10.00 (8th Lesson)

10.15-11.00 (9th Lesson)

01 December 2010

09.15-10.00 (10th Lesson)

08 December 2010

09.15-10.00 (11th Lesson)

10.15-11.00 (12th Lesson)

15 December 2010

09.15-10.00 (Post-test)

III.4.2 Account of the Lessons

1st Lesson (06 October 2010 -- 09.15-10.00)

In this first lesson of the strategy training, the students were introduced skimming and scanning strategies for reading comprehension. Firstly, the instructor asked the students to tell the lexical meanings of the two words “skimming” and “scanning” and to establish a connection between these meanings and reading skill. Then, the papers (Appendix 2-3) containing a sample skimming-scanning practice on the text “Changing the Definition” were delivered to students. The students were told that skimming could be used as an effective way of attaining the main idea and theme of the text. Shortly, its role in enabling the reader to understand what is going to be told about in the passage was emphasized through analyzing the underlined parts in the paper. The four steps of

the skimming strategy were explained (1- title, 2- first paragraph, 3-last paragraph, 4- first sentences of the developmental paragraphs) with the help of the sample text handed to the students. It was also stressed that there was no strict necessity to follow all of these four-steps one by one; and that skimming strategy could be efficiently fulfilled by following the first two and three steps, if sufficient. Following the explanation, the students were asked questions about the main subject matter of the text after they read the underlined parts.

In line with the skimming strategy, students were then told that scanning strategy could be used as an efficient means of finding details about the text. The significance of the keywords to be selected from the addressed question was emphasized. Then they were told that these keywords were expected to be looked for while searching an answer to a detail question. While analyzing the sample strategy practice on the text, “Changing the Definition”, they were shown the underlined parts in the part of questions. These were the keywords to be scanned while looking for answers. Then they were asked to scan the text quickly and establish connections between the underlined keywords and circled words or phrases within the text. They were all closely related and the exact answers to the questions could be found without difficulty. Thus, all the questions were analyzed with reference to the in-text clues in an interactive manner with the participation of students.

At the end of the lesson, both skimming and scanning strategies were summarized and the students were told that they were expected to use these two strategies for a better reading comprehension skill.

2nd Lesson (13 October 2010 - 09.15-10.00)

The lesson began with a brief summary of the first lesson. Then the students were asked to try to remember how to apply skimming making reference to the text “Changing the Definition”. As the second step, the instructor wanted them to practice the skimming strategy on the new text “James” (Appendix – 4) recalling the four-step approach. All of the four steps (1- title, 2- first paragraph, 3- last paragraph, 4- first sentences of the

developmental paragraphs) were practiced successively one by one. Following this, some questions concerning the main theme of the text were addressed to the students. When the researcher asked the students whether it was necessary to follow all these, the common response was that the first two steps, that is only reading the title and first paragraph of the passage quickly, was adequate. Finally, opinions of the students concerning the skimming strategy and its applicability were listened and it was contentedly observed that the skimming strategy worked for the students.

3rd Lesson (13 October 2010 - 10.15-11.00)

In this third lesson the focus was on the scanning strategy. Firstly, the scanning strategy was reminded to students and they were asked to have a quick look at the sample scanning practice on the text, “Changing the Definition”. Then they were asked to look at the comprehension questions given at the end of the passage, “James” which they had skimmed in the second lesson. Each question was analyzed at length with the participation of students and the most important keywords included in these question sentences were determined. While doing this, the instructor allowed the students to be as autonomous as possible and both their prophetic and alternative opinions were taken into consideration. After identifying the keywords, they were asked to scan the passage in order to find the parts which could be most closely related with the questions. This enabled the students to find the words or phrases in the passage associated with the keywords with more ease and the students underlined or circled these possibly related sections. The next step was to read these identified specific parts in the passage and determine the extent to which they met the requirements of the questions. After performing the scanning strategy, the questions given at the end of the passage were addressed to the students and they were expected to answer these through making use of the information they attained via scanning. It was clearly seen that most of the answers uttered for the questions came out to be correct.

4th Lesson (20 October 2010 - 09.15-10.00)

A concise summary of the skimming and scanning strategies was made for the students as an introduction to the new highlighting strategy. Then the papers covering a sample highlighting strategy practice on the text “Innovations for the Developing World” (Appendix – 5) was handed to them. Before the analysis of the papers, the significance of this strategy and its close link with the scanning strategy were explained. It was stressed that unlike skimming and scanning which were used to get information from the passage within the possible shortest time, highlighting was a more time-taking, demanding and detailed strategy. It was noted that in order to perform highlighting properly, the text should be scanned and read carefully and while reading some points seeming to be crucial in terms of the content and message of the text should be highlighted with a technique as they like such as underlining, circling, starring or color-coding. Instead of highlighting the sentences wholly, they were told that it was better to underline significant words or phrases. Private names, important dates, striking numerical data, names of important places and institutions were counted among the primary points to be highlighted.

Following this introduction to the highlighting strategy, the students were asked to read the text “Innovations for the Developing World” silently paragraph by paragraph; and after each paragraph the instructor made explanations about the highlighted parts and the reasons behind underlining these. Meanwhile, opinions of the students were taken about the importance of the underlined words and phrases while reading. After the reading phase, they were asked to read the comprehension questions listed at the end of the passage and to try to answer these questions availing from the highlighted parts. Except for the 7th question, which requires a holistic analysis and comment about a specific point, all other comprehension questions were answered correctly. Thus, the efficacy of using highlighting strategy was emphasized with the participation of students.

5th Lesson (27 October 2010 - 09.15-10.00)

The fifth lesson began with a summary of the highlighting strategy which had been introduced during the last lesson. Then the students were asked to read the title of the passage “Finding a New Way to Paint” (Appendix – 6) and to skim it in a matter of a few minutes in order to let them have a general idea of the text. With the extra aid of the illustrating pictures included in the text, the students had no difficulty in predicting the subject matter of the passage correctly. After this step, the students were asked to read the passage paragraph by paragraph silently and following each paragraph they were asked to determine which points or parts to be highlighted. Points like “1874, Impressionism, Paris, French Academy of Fine Arts, etc.” were deemed as vital and so worthy of highlighting by most of the students. As the text was a relatively long one consisting of 13 paragraphs, the first 8 paragraphs of it could be read and important points were highlighted by the students.

6th Lesson (27 October 2010 - 10.15-11.00)

In this lesson that succeeded the 5th one, the remaining 5 paragraphs were read and highlighting strategy was practiced on them. While reading and highlighting the students were requested to point out their own opinions and underlying reasons why they had preferred highlighting some particular names, dates or sentences. By the way, the researcher observed that most of the students preferred underlining technique rather than circling, starring, etc. After completing all the paragraphs, the eight comprehension questions at the end of the passage were addressed to the students one by one and they were asked to answer these questions availing themselves of the highlighted parts on their books. During the answering phase, the students were let discuss the questions and answers among themselves with the aim of raising more awareness about the strategy use. It was observed that following the discussions among the students about the questions and highlighted parts on the texts at their hands, most of the comprehension questions directed to them were answered correctly. Finally, a short account of the delivered two lessons, which were allocated to highlighting strategy, was given by the instructor and the lesson finished so.

7th Lesson (03 November 2010 - 09.15-10.00)

The introduction of the lesson started with a summary of the last lesson and the highlighting strategy was reminded to the students in general terms. After the introduction, the sheets “Note-taking Strategy for Reading Comprehension” (Appendix 7) that were prepared by the researcher were handed to the students. It was told that note-taking strategy could be effectively used for all skills; nevertheless, reading and listening could be particularly contributed by using this strategy. Then the table, on which sample note-taking symbols were written, at the top of the sheets was analyzed. On the table, which was taken from the website of the University of New South Wales in Sydney (<http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au>), mostly used symbols for note-taking were given. After explaining the symbols, the students were told that there was no exact type of note-taking and it depended on the choice and style of the learner.

Following these steps, two sample types of note-taking that were exemplified on the sheets were discussed. The first one was writing down the scope of the paragraph. The students were told that this was important particularly while scanning for a specific piece of information, as the scope of a paragraph would suggest clues about the content for the readers. Then, three sample note-taking practices on the sheet were discussed in the class. Following the first type of note-taking, the other which the researcher called as writing down detailed points on the content of the paragraph was explained by the instructor. The students were told that this type of note-taking would provide more information about the content of a passage and they should try to use the symbols, which were given at the top of the sheet, as much as possible. Inasmuch as, the importance of time and space saving was emphasized for this strategy. In order to make these explanations clearer, two sample paragraphs and sample note-taking practices on them that were also given on the sheet were discussed. While concluding the lesson, the researcher retold and reemphasized the importance of note-taking strategy and two possible types of it for reading comprehension.

8th Lesson (10 November 2010 - 09.15-10.00)

After asking the students what they remembered concerning the note-taking strategy and helping them remember some important points, the researcher asked them to perform note-taking strategy on the tenth paragraph of the text “Finding a New Way to Paint”, which was covered while handling the highlighting strategy. Inasmuch as they were familiar with the text and highlighted the significant points of this passage the week before, working with this text was a good beginning for note-taking. Then the instructor evaluated the sample notes of the students and told them about the shortcomings of their notes. After this first trial of note-taking, the students were asked to take notes making use of the eleventh paragraph of the same text. Following a short evaluation and exchange of opinions on the taken notes, a sample note was written on the board by a student.

9th Lesson (10 November 2010 - 10.15-11.00)

In this last lesson of note-taking strategy, two paragraphs included in the new text “Frank Gehry” (Appendix – 8) were dealt with. The third and sixth paragraphs of the text were analyzed in terms of note-taking strategy and the students were asked to take sample notes in accordance with their styles taking the important points of the content into account. After each paragraph opinions of students were listened to and different alternatives provided by them were discussed. In addition, a sample note-taking performance was written on the board by a student after both paragraphs. Then the instructor asked comprehension questions about these paragraphs and the students were asked to answer these through the notes they had taken. The lesson was concluded with a brief account of the activities and practices carried out under the note-taking strategy.

10th Lesson (01 December 2010 - 09.15-10.00)

The lesson began with a brief summary of note-taking strategy and the outstanding issues that should be considered while practicing it. Then the new and final strategy “Guessing Intelligently” that is classified under Compensation Strategies in Oxford’s

(1990: 49) typology was introduced to the students. It was emphasized that making guesses constituted the core point of this compensation strategy. The two steps “using linguistic clues” and “using other clues” were introduced as the main ways to make use of “guessing intelligently”. Then the sheet covering sample sentences formulated to develop the students’ guessing skills. There were ten sentences (Appendix - 9) on the paper and one word of each sentence, which was written boldly, was made up by the researcher. Then each sentence was analyzed and the students were asked to guess the meanings of these contrived words by making use of linguistic clues and their world knowledge. For example, “It is a **tarnless** criterion for candidate states to carry out a strict financial program.” was a sentence included in the practice sheet and the word “tarnless” was the target lexical item. As it was posed just before a noun, it was clear that “tarnless” was an adjective and it had a semantic stress for the word “criterion”. Following these linguistic findings, other clues were put into discussion. The words “candidate states” and “strict financial program” are important in the context of this sentence. Since Turkey’s accession process with European Union is a common agenda in Turkey, it became clear that the word “tarnless” referred to a necessity. That is, it was something like “indispensable”. Other sample sentences were all analyzed and discussed in this way with the participation of the students. While concluding the lesson, the researcher reemphasized the significance of using linguistic clues and other clues about general and world knowledge in guessing the meanings of unfamiliar lexical items.

11th Lesson (08 December 2010 - 09.15-10.00)

At the beginning of the lesson, the students were reminded about the strategy of “guessing intelligently” and its importance in view of the problems faced with unknown lexical items. Then they were asked to skim the new and final text “Global Warming” (Appendix – 10). After skimming the text and talking shortly about the topic, the first six paragraphs of the text were read by the students silently. After each paragraph the instructor asked them to guess the meanings of some unknown words like “fluctuate, spike, remnant, log, shrink, thaw, permafrost, etc.” availing themselves of the linguistic and other clues embedded in the sentences. After discussing on the meanings of these

words, the instructor asked some comprehension questions following each paragraph (Appendix – 10).

12th Lesson (08 December 2010 10.15-11.00)

In this final lesson of the strategy instruction process, the remaining six paragraphs of the text “Global Warming” (Appendix -10) were analyzed and discussed. While reading the text, the students were asked to guess the meanings of words like “dweller, retreat, elevation, tide, vulnerability, halt, exacerbate, bleach, latitude, etc.”. In addition, some comprehension questions were addressed to the students. After finishing the text, the instructor gave a general account of what had been done within the framework of strategy training process. All of the strategies practiced during this process, skimming-scanning, highlighting, note-taking and guessing intelligently, were summarized orally and their role in simplifying the foreign language learning process was emphasized again.

PART IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this part of the thesis, findings gathered from the data collected by the data collecting instruments are presented together with the discussion part. The scope of the findings covers statistical data about pre-test scores and the hypotheses specified at the outset of the research.

IV.1 FINDINGS ABOUT THE PRE-TESTS

Before launching the study and strategy instruction process, it was required to ensure that the experimental and control groups did not differ significantly with regard to their proficiencies in reading comprehension. With this aim, both groups were administered the same pre-test on 29 September 2010. The analysis of the scores is presented in the below table:

Table 2. Comparison of the Pre-test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups

| Groups | N | Mean | St. Deviation | t | Significance |
|--------------|----|-------|---------------|------|--------------|
| Experimental | 30 | 58,23 | 17,13 | ,190 | ,850 |
| Control | 30 | 57,40 | 16,84 | | |

($p>0,05$)

The analysis of the results of the pre-tests conducted for both groups shows that the significance level is 0, 850 ($p>0,05$). It means that there is not a significant difference between the proficiency levels of the students included in the experimental and control groups in terms of reading comprehension skill. Getting this finding at the beginning of study was crucial in that it enabled the researcher to include these groups in his study and give a start to the process.

IV.2 FINDINGS ABOUT THE 1ST HYPOTHESIS

The first hypothesis of the study: “There will be a significant difference between the reading performances of the students who are taught cognitive strategies for reading skill and those who are not.” In order to evaluate this hypothesis, t-test was applied for the post-test results of the students. The comparison of the post-test scores of both groups also aims to provide an answer to the research question of the thesis. The related table is given below:

Table 3. Comparison of the Post-test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups

| Groups | N | Mean | St. Deviation | t | Significance |
|--------------|----|-------|---------------|-------|--------------|
| Experimental | 30 | 65,73 | 13,68 | 1,151 | ,254 |
| Control | 30 | 61,33 | 15,84 | | |

($p > 0,05$)

The results of the t-test applied for the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups show that the significance level is 0,254 ($p > 0,05$). As it exceeds the significance threshold, it can be said that there is not a significant difference between the post-test performances of the students who belonged to the experimental and control groups of the study.

This finding poses a contradiction with the first hypothesis of the study and this contradiction will be explained in the discussions part below. It will be handled and commented on taking the findings about the second and third hypotheses of the thesis into account. Besides, past studies and comments of the previous researchers will be given as supporting components. Briefly, the possible reasons behind this failure of the first hypothesis will be touched on.

IV.3 FINDINGS ABOUT THE 2ND HYPOTHESIS

The second hypothesis of the study: “There will be a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the experimental group.” In order to evaluate this hypothesis, t-test was applied for the pre-test and post-test scores of the students included in the experimental group. With the analysis of the pre and post-tests of the experimental group in itself, it is aimed to reach a perspective for the progress made by the experimental students during the strategy instruction process. The related table is given below:

Table 4. Comparison of the Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group

| | Mean | N | St. Deviation | t | Significance |
|-----------|-------|----|---------------|-------|--------------|
| Pre-test | 58,23 | 30 | 17,13 | | |
| | | | | 3,445 | ,002 |
| Post-test | 65,73 | 30 | 13,68 | | |

($p < 0,05$)

The results of the t-test applied for the pre and post-test scores of the experimental group show that the significance level is 0,002 ($p < 0,05$). As it appears within the significance threshold, it can be said that there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the students who belonged to the experimental group.

This finding is in conformity with the second hypothesis of the study contrary to the case with the first one. Although the training process does not suggest a statistically significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups, it shows a significant difference in terms of the progress achieved by the experimental students considering their pre and post-tests. This finding will also be commented on in the discussions part.

IV.4 FINDINGS ABOUT THE 3RD HYPOTHESIS

The third hypothesis of the study: “There will not be a significant difference between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the control group.” In order to evaluate this hypothesis, t-test was applied for the pre-test and post-test scores of the students included in the control group. The analysis of the pre-test and post-test results of the control group in itself will provide a perspective for the progress made by the control group students during the strategy instruction process. The related table is given below:

Table 5. Comparison of the Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Control Group

| | Mean | N | St. Deviation | t | Significance |
|-----------|-------|----|---------------|-------|--------------|
| Pre-test | 57,40 | 30 | 16,84 | | |
| | | | | 1,986 | ,057 |
| Post-test | 61,33 | 30 | 15,84 | | |

($p > 0,05$)

The results of the t-test applied for the pre and post-test scores of the control group show that the significance level appears as 0,057 ($p > 0,05$). As it does not take place within the significance threshold, it can be said that there is not a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test performances of the students who belonged to the control group.

This finding concerning the third hypothesis complies with the anticipations of the researcher about the correlation between pre-test and post-test results of the students included in the control group. However, the significance level “0,057” suggests that it is really close to the 0,05 threshold. This attests to a certain amount of progress that was achieved by the control group students during the strategy instruction period, although it does not appear to be statistically significant. This finding will also be elaborated below.

IV.5 DISCUSSIONS ON THE FINDINGS

The main focus of the discussion should be on the failure of the first hypothesis. Considering the post-test results of the experimental and control group students, no statistically significant difference appears. Nevertheless, when considered independently the experimental group shows a significant progress statistically while the control group yields results to the contrary.

It is explicit that the strategy instruction turned out to be useful with regard to the statistical analysis of the experimental group's pre and post-test scores. However, it does not appear statistically meaningful from a broader perspective. These findings all suggest that the instruction process failed to produce the desired and expected results thoroughly. That is, the efficacy level of the instruction might have been higher. There may be several reasons behind such an outcome; some of their most possible ones are mentioned below.

One of the main problems for the effective application of the strategy instruction was the time limitation. Oxford (1990: 244) says one cannot guarantee the definite achievement of using learning strategies depending on the particular condition in which the LLSs are being instructed or employed. "Time" is one of the most important components for instruction. Although the training process was set as an eight-week (12 hours) instruction period, it turned out to be inadequate for attaining a significant difference between the control and experimental groups. Muhtar's (2006) experimental study in which she taught meta-cognitive strategies for reading comprehension for 4 hours does not suggest a statistically significant difference in reading performances. Following this study, she reports that time restriction was the most important factor behind the failure to get statistically significant results. She says that students need more time to be able to use LLSs effectively.

As Farrell (2001: 643-644) reports, a study that took place in Singapore showed that it was rather difficult to change the old habits of students. It was emphasized that immediate success should not be expected and even one semester of LLS training could

not be enough for integrating effective reading strategies into the ordinary course of reading lessons. Farrell (2001: 643-644) also points out that the types and characteristics of the selected strategies may influence the optimum length of the instruction process.

Within the specific context of this research, the 8-week period appeared to be inadequate for attaining meaningful results. Particularly note-taking strategy should have been allocated a broader period. Since, it was observed that the students in the experimental group were not able to employ this strategy effectively in the post-test. Likewise, it was observed that teaching the highlighting strategy required more time. It would have been probably more effective if the strategy instruction had been extended to two semesters at least. Giving up old habits and traditions is relatively demanding and achieving this goal especially under the framework of language learning requires more time with more and more practice.

Another drawback as to the training period might be the limited number of the selected strategies. The instruction of only four strategies (three cognitive and one compensatory) for reading comprehension skill may be among the factors behind the failure of the 1st hypothesis. Oxford (1990: 205) suggests that instructors choose more than one kind of strategy for effective training. This study covered two types of strategies; however adding one more strategy type to the process could have contributed to getting better results.

Considering the selection of strategy types, another problem appears to be the exclusion of meta-cognitive type strategies. The meta-cognitive dimension of the strategies was given to the students by explaining the importance and reasons of using the taught strategies. Yet, it was given while teaching other strategies (skimming-scanning, highlighting, note-taking, guessing intelligently) and it seems inadequate now. As Carrell (1998) points out, meta-cognition is closely related with reading comprehension and reading strategies. In order to help students acquire a meta-cognitive aspect for reading comprehension, meta-cognitive strategies should be taught and practiced as independent items. It is clear from the findings of this research that mentioning the

significance and usefulness of other strategies is far from helping the students internalize the strategies.

Among the factors behind the failure of the 1st hypothesis, the students' unwillingness to give up their old habits may be counted. In order to cope with this problem, a more extended period should have been given to practicing the strategies. More time means more familiarity; and more familiarity means more tendency to novelties. Moreover, of course, there may be some instructor-oriented shortcomings behind this outcome. Strategy training is a "learning-to-learning training" as Oxford (1990: 200) puts it. That is, it is not a simple and smooth process for instructors. The researcher's lack of experience in teaching LLSs as an integrative dimension for reading comprehension may also be viewed among the drawbacks of this study.

An additional possible drawback of the study may be that the learning styles of the students were not taken into consideration while selecting the strategy types. Oxford (2003: 1-3) says that if clashes occur between styles of the students and selected methodology and instructional materials, problems like lack of confidence and anxiety may arise, which may lead to poor performance. If the learning styles of the students had been taken into consideration, the study might have given different results.

Taking the pre and post-tests of the control group into consideration (Table 5), it can be said that a certain amount of progress was achieved; it does not appear statistically significant, though. It is quite normal to observe a progress in these students, as they were exposed to several reading texts during the process and the practices made in the class produced an increase in their scores. However, the lack of LLSs had a hindering effect on attaining statistically significant results in the control group. Even solely this finding suggests the efficacy and importance of employing LLSs.

Briefly, the finding that there is not a statistically significant difference between the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups does not overlap with the expectations of the researcher who set this hypothesis in the light of the previous studies and theoretical framework. Nevertheless, there is a statistically significant difference

between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group; and this implies a promising perspective for using LLSs. It can be inferred that the process can be turned into a more effective one if factors like time and strategy selection are extended to a desired extent. Moreover, considering the feedback by students included in the experimental group, it can be said that the instruction process had a positive effect on the attitudes and approaches of the students towards reading texts and materials.

PART V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

In this part of the thesis, conclusions drawn from the findings are presented together with some suggestions for future action or research.

V.1 CONCLUSIONS

The point of departure for this study was the aim to see whether it was useful to employ LLSs for reading comprehension. In order to test it, an experimental and a control group were chosen from the ELT Program at Ondokuz Mayıs University. The first group of the freshman students (day-time group) was selected as the experimental group and the second group (day-time group) was determined as the control group. Each group consisted of 30 students. While the experimental group received strategy instruction for reading comprehension, the control group received reading lessons with a traditional approach.

Three cognitive strategies (skimming-scanning, highlighting, note-taking) and one compensatory strategy (guessing intelligently) were selected for instruction. While deciding on these strategies, the information given about the types of LLSs in Oxford's (1990) book was taken as the basis. The instruction period was determined as 8 weeks (12 hours) and these four strategies were taught and practiced in the class during this period. A two-week period was allocated to each strategy, which makes an eight-week strategy instruction process in total. The first weeks of this two-week period for each strategy were allocated to introduce the strategies to the students and show them examples of making use of these strategies effectively. On the other hand, the second weeks of these two-week periods were used to let the students practice what they learned about LLSs.

At the beginning of the research, both groups were administered a pre-test and their scores were analyzed statistically. The significance level appeared as 0,850 ($p>0,05$) and it was understood there was not a meaningful difference between proficiency levels of both groups in terms of reading comprehension. Therefore, the instruction was

launched and following the 8 weeks a post-test was administered to the groups in order to see and evaluate the implications of LLS training.

In order to see whether strategy instruction made a statistically significant contribution for reading comprehension performances, post-test scores of both groups were evaluated statistically by means of SPSS program. It was seen that the significance level was 0,254 ($p > 0,05$) and this was contrary to the researcher's expectations and 1st hypothesis. This unexpected situation directed the researcher to have a look on the post-test performances of the groups independently. Statistical analysis of the experimental group's post-test scores yielded a significance level of 0,002 ($p < 0,05$) and this showed the effectiveness of teaching LLSs and verified the 2nd hypothesis of the researcher. On the other hand, the analysis of the control group's post-test scores yielded a significance level of 0,057 ($p > 0,05$). This finding was in conformity with the 3rd hypothesis of the researcher. However, the result is relatively close to the significance threshold, which refers to a certain amount of progress achieved by the students included in the control group.

Considering the opinions and feedback provided by the experimental group students, it can be said that they deemed using LLSs as an effective way of learning; yet, due to their traditional learning habits they had difficulty in adapting to their use. Especially applying highlighting and note-taking in a correct and efficient way was regarded as a rather hard step for them. Since, they were used to underlining sentences casually and almost never took notes for reading comprehension.

It can be concluded that this research had some shortcomings like time restriction, limited number of strategies and inadequate familiarity of the students with using LLSs, the instructor's lack of experience in LLS instruction and missing learning styles out. In the light of the findings and experience gained under this study, some suggestions are presented under the following title.

V.2 SUGGESTIONS

In the light of the conclusions that can be drawn from this study, it can be said that language learning strategies should be certainly integrated into regular methodology employed in language classes, especially in EFL classes. That this study does not suggest a statistically significant difference made by strategy instruction does not mean that LLSs are useless and ineffective instruments. Through organizing the variables like time, strategy selection, student background, etc. efficiently it is believed that letting and teaching students to use LLSs can bring better performances.

As Farrell (2001: 643-644) indicates, expecting immediate success through LLSs is not a plausible approach. Strategy instruction should be extended to at least two semesters and the integration of strategies to the course methodologies should be continuous. If a one-year strategy-based instruction is followed by a traditional approach in the following semesters, the aimed feeling of autonomy may not be embraced by students; and this may cause the LLSs to seem ineffective.

The researcher, himself, concludes that using LLSs can be highly effective for reading comprehension. This point is supported by the verification of the second hypothesis of this study and student opinions about the instruction process. Therefore, the teachers and prospective teachers of English should be made aware of the importance of LLSs. Prospective English language teachers can be educated about LLS use in universities and the experienced English language teachers' awareness in this context can be enhanced through in-service training programs.

In addition to the above-mentioned points, the number of the selected strategies and their types should be multiplied. It is thought that the inclusion of only four strategies in this study on account of the time limitation of one semester may have been one of the factors behind the failure to get the expected results. Especially meta-cognitive strategies can be added to the cognitive and compensation strategies for reading comprehension. As Carrell (1998) points out, meta-cognitive strategies can be highly

effective in enhancing reading performances. It is believed that the inclusion of meta-cognitive strategies may bring out better results for reading comprehension.

Moreover, this study shows that the learning styles of the learners should be taken into consideration while planning a LLS instruction. This becomes especially important when one thinks that the learning style of a learner can have an inhibiting effect on using a particular type of strategy. In order not to enable such a possibility, it will be better to identify the learning styles of the students beforehand.

Shortly, this study is believed to shed a light upon future studies to be conducted under the framework of language learning/teaching and LLSs. The findings obtained via this research are believed to constitute a constructive and contributive dimension for employing LLSs for reading comprehension and, in broader sense, for language learning. It is thought that the integration of the LLSs into EFL classes can bring out desired results in terms of the progress made by the learners. It is therefore important that ELT departments in universities adopt an inclusive point of view as to LLSs and help the prospective EFL teachers have an adequate awareness about the significance and use of strategy-based instruction.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX - 1

PRE/POST-TEST

NAME:

Type of the Graduated High School:

Did You Attend Prep-School Last Year?:

The Great Wall of China

Walls and wall building have played a very important role in Chinese culture. These people, from the dim mists of prehistory have been wall-conscious; from the Neolithic period – when ramparts of pounded earth were used - to the Communist Revolution, walls were an essential part of any village. Not only towns and villages; the houses and the temples within them were somehow walled, and the houses also had no windows overlooking the street, thus giving the feeling of wandering around a huge maze. The name for “city” in Chinese (ch’eng) means wall, and over these walled cities, villages, houses and temples presides the god of walls and mounts, whose duties were, and still are, to protect and be responsible for the welfare of the inhabitants. Thus a great and extremely laborious task such as constructing a wall, which was supposed to run throughout the country, must not have seemed such an absurdity.

However, it is indeed a common mistake to perceive the Great Wall as a single architectural structure, and it would also be erroneous to assume that it was built during a single dynasty. The building of the wall spanned various dynasties, and each of these dynasties somehow contributed to the refurbishing and the construction of a wall, whose foundations had been laid many centuries ago. It was during the fourth and third century B.C. that each warring state started building walls to protect their kingdoms, both against one another and against the northern nomads. Especially three of these states: the Ch’in, the Chao and the Yen, corresponding respectively to the modern provinces of Shensi, Shanxi and Hopei, over and above building walls that surrounded their kingdoms, also laid the foundations on which Ch’in Shih Huang Di would build his first continuous Great Wall.

The sheer size of the great wall is difficult to imagine. Various comparisons have been made to help people grasp the enormity of such an undertaking for the ancient Chinese. For example, if the great wall could be removed to Europe, it would surround all or most of France, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, Romania, Poland, Russia, and the former Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia. An English surveyor observing the great wall in 1793 estimated that just to build the great wall's watchtowers would require more stone and brick than had been used to build all the buildings in the London of his day.

Frequently, the great wall, with its meandering course, which hugs the curves and dips of many mountain chains, is compared to a dragon. At Shenanigan Pass, where the wall begins in the east, stand guard towers that have been referred to for centuries as the old dragon's head. The wall then represents the great dragon's twisting body. The symbolism is important to the Chinese: Traditionally, the dragon has been revered as the Asian symbol of strength and energy.

In some ways the great wall still remains a mystery, even to the Chinese people themselves. As far as can be determined, the wall has never been surveyed in its entirety. No one has ever accurately placed its course on a map. Even modern maps typically show the great wall on a course plotted centuries ago by three Jesuit priests who were working for the Qing emperor Kangxi. The priests' map, since lost, was given to the emperor in 1708. It is widely assumed that the Jesuits did not actually travel the entire length of the great wall. New maps are on the way, however. An aerial survey of the wall has been on-going since the early 1980s, but experts say that it will take decades to completely survey, catalogue and map it.

The role that the Great Wall played in the growth of Chinese economy was an important one. Throughout the centuries many settlements were established along the new border. The garrison troops were instructed to reclaim wasteland and to plant crops on it, roads and canals were built, to mention just a few of the works carried out. All these undertakings greatly helped to increase the country's trade and cultural exchanges

with many remote areas and also with the southern, central and western parts of Asia – the formation of the Silk Route. Builders, garrisons, artisans, farmers and peasants left behind a trail of objects, including inscribed tablets, household articles, and written work, which have become extremely valuable archaeological evidence to the study of defence institutions of the Great Wall and the everyday life of those.

Questions:

1. What does the passage mainly discuss?
 - a. the relation between the Great Wall and Chinese economy
 - b. the historical significance of the Great Wall for today's China
 - c. the importance of the Great Wall for the Chinese culture
 - d. people's perceptions as to the Great Wall

2. Chinese cities resembled a maze, because.....
 - a. they were walled.
 - b. the houses had no external windows.
 - c. the name for cities means 'wall'.
 - d. walls have always been important there.

3. Constructing a wall that ran the length of the country
 - a. honoured the god of walls and mounts.
 - b. was an absurdly laborious task.
 - c. may have made sense within Chinese culture.
 - d. made the country look like a huge maze.

4. The Great Wall of China

- a. was built in a single dynasty.
- b. was refurbished in the fourth and third centuries BC.
- c. used existing foundations.
- d. was built by the Ch'in, the Chao and the Yen.

5. Crops were planted

- a. on wasteland.
- b. to reclaim wasteland.
- c. on reclaimed wasteland.
- d. along the canals.

6. The Great Wall

- a. helped build trade only inside China.
- b. helped build trade in China and abroad.
- c. helped build trade only abroad.
- d. helped build trade to only remote areas.

7. It is implied in the passage that it mustn't be surprising that

- a. foreigners don't have a complete knowledge on the details as to the Wall.
- b. Chinese people can go and visit the Wall whenever they desire.
- c. The Wall is observable from everywhere in China.
- d. The Great Wall has provided job opportunities for many in China.

8. The word “grasp” in the third paragraph refers to

- a. see
- b. perceive
- c. observe
- d. control

9. The word “undertakings” in the last paragraph refers to

- a. proceedings
- b. advances
- c. efforts
- d. roles

10. The word “those” in the last paragraph refers to

- a. emperors who ruled the region.
- b. farmers who cultivated the soil along the Wall.
- c. people who took part in the building process of the Wall.
- d. people who lived and died along the Wall.

11. In accordance with the symbolism in the Chinese culture, what does the Great Wall stand for?

12. What does the observation of the English surveyor mean as to the dimension of the Great Wall?

13. Mark the following statements T (True) or F (False):

- a. Northern nomads somehow contributed to the building of the Great Wall.
- b. The watchtowers of the Wall must have taken a relatively long time.
- c. There are some people knowing almost everything on the Great Wall.
- d. The archaeological findings have provided invaluable data about the Wall.

APPENDIX – 2 - Skimming (Introduction Sheet)

1 Changing the Definition

2 The family is under stress. In the past few decades, the number of divorces has increased dramatically around the world. In many countries, fewer people are getting married, and there is an increase in single-parent families. Nevertheless, optimists say that the family is merely changing as it has done for thousands of years.

u According to the Vanier Institute of the Family, families have always altered in size, structure, and patterns of functioning. Over the centuries, families have been in a constant state of adaptation to the natural environment as well as to current political, religious, and social conditions. However, there have been few periods in history during which families have changed as much as they did in the second half of the twentieth century.

u There are a number of reasons for the changes in the family:

- 20 • The extended family that was once common is now relatively rare. This is due to the fact that older people have greater financial security and tend not to live with their grown children.
- 25 • People are becoming more mobile. For example, one in five people in the United States moves every year, and the average American moves 11 times in his or her lifetime. Nuclear families move from one community to another in search of economic opportunity, and grown children tend to leave the community in which they grew up.
- 30 • Contraception gives women choices in the number and spacing of their children. Many women choose to work outside the home rather than stay at home to raise their children, as was the custom in the past.
- 35
- 40

- 45 • Liberalized divorce laws affect the family in that men and women can choose to leave less than satisfactory relationships. This has resulted in increased numbers of single-parent families.

u According to the Vanier Institute, people say that family is important to them. However, what people value in families is not the same as what they valued in the past. For example, studies show that today, many people believe that caring for one another is more important than having a marriage certificate.

u Therefore, with so much change taking place at such a rapid pace, is it time to redefine "family"? According to a 1997 report, psychologists who studied textbooks for definitions of the family could not find a specific definition. Rather, the psychologists found descriptions of families. They noticed that textbooks defined families through pictures and stories referring to family life. The texts showed families in many different ways; for example, families with both parents, families with single parents, and couples without children.

u The Vanier Institute of the Family believes that families should be defined by their function rather than who is in them. It asserts that we can no longer define families by who belongs to them because they are all so different. However, we can define families by what they do, because most of them still perform the same tasks they have dealt with for generations. For example, the family is where most learning, education, and socialization take place; furthermore, it is a source of emotional sustenance and support and a significant unit of both economic production and consumption.

u Any complete definition of what constitutes a family and its functions must allow for diversity and be culturally neutral. It must not rely on one national, historical, religious, or ethical set of assumptions. This is a matter of great importance in free and pluralistic societies.

85 The following is the Vanier Institute's functional definition of family:

90 Any combination of two or more persons who are bound together over time by ties of mutual consent, birth, and/or adoption or placement and who, together, assume responsibilities for variant combinations of some of the following:

- 95 • Physical maintenance and care of group members
- Addition of new members through procreation or adoption
- Socialization of children
- 100 • Social control of members
- Production, consumption, distribution of goods

and services, and

- Affective nurturance—love

105 Just as individual human beings both act within society and act upon it, so families can be thought of as simultaneously active and receptive agents within society. Families, the many forces at work on them, and their contribution to society are best understood as systems, the sum of many interacting parts. Moreover, families are open systems. Families are open to all kinds of social, political, economic, and natural influences. At the same time, families greatly influence their environment. For example, families in advanced industrial societies appear to have fewer children. In turn, smaller families result in many other changes in society such as empty schools, lower demand for big cars and apartments, and a smaller workforce. Those changes, in turn, may influence families.

4 Comprehension Check

Write your answers to the following questions.

1. List the ways in which families have changed in the last few decades.

.....

2. State four reasons for these changes.

.....
.....
.....

3. According to the reading, is what people value in families now the same as what they valued 25 years ago? Explain your answer.

.....
.....

4. How was family defined in the past? Why is it necessary to come up with a new definition of *family*?

.....
.....

APPENDIX – 3 - Scanning (Introduction Sheet)

Changing the Definition

The family is under stress. In the past few decades, the number of divorces has increased dramatically around the world. In many countries, fewer people are getting married, and there is an increase in single-parent families. Nevertheless, optimists say that the family is merely changing as it has done for thousands of years.

According to the Vanier Institute of the Family, families have always altered in size, structure, and patterns of functioning. Over the centuries, families have been in a constant state of adaptation to the natural environment as well as to current political, religious, and social conditions. However, there have been few periods in history during which families have changed as much as they did in the second half of the twentieth century.

There are a number of reasons for the changes in the family:

- The extended family that was once common is now relatively rare. This is due to the fact that older people have greater financial security and tend not to live with their grown children.
- People are becoming more mobile. For example, one in five people in the United States moves every year, and the average American moves 11 times in his or her lifetime. Nuclear families move from one community to another in search of economic opportunity, and grown children tend to leave the community in which they grew up.
- Contraception gives women choices in the number and spacing of their children. Many women choose to work outside the home rather than stay at home to raise their children, as was the custom in the past.

- Liberalized divorce laws affect the family in that men and women can choose to leave less than satisfactory relationships. This has resulted in increased numbers of single-parent families.

According to the Vanier Institute, people say that family is important to them. However, what people value in families is not the same as what they valued in the past. For example, studies show that today, many people believe that caring for one another is more important than having a marriage certificate.

Therefore, with so much change taking place at such a rapid pace, is it time to redefine "family"? According to a 1997 report, psychologists who studied textbooks for definitions of the family could not find a specific definition. Rather, the psychologists found descriptions of families. They noticed that textbooks defined families through pictures and stories referring to family life. The texts showed families in many different ways; for example, families with both parents, families with single parents, and couples without children.

The Vanier Institute of the Family believes that families should be defined by their function rather than who is in them. It asserts that we can no longer define families by who belongs to them because they are all so different. However, we can define families by what they do, because most of them still perform the same tasks they have dealt with for generations. For example, the family is where most learning, education, and socialization take place; furthermore, it is a source of emotional sustenance and support and a significant unit of both economic production and consumption.

Any complete definition of what constitutes a family and its functions must allow for diversity and be culturally neutral. It must not rely on one national, historical, religious, or ethical set of assumptions. This is a matter of great importance in free and pluralistic societies.

The following is the Vanier Institute's functional definition of family:

Any combination of two or more persons who are bound together over time by ties of mutual consent, birth, and/or adoption or placement and who, together, assume responsibilities for variant combinations of some of the following:

- Physical maintenance and care of group members
- Addition of new members through procreation or adoption
- Socialization of children
- Social control of members
- Production, consumption, distribution of goods

and services, and

- Affective nurturance—love

Just as individual human beings both act within society and act upon it, so families can be thought of as simultaneously active and receptive agents within society. Families, the many forces at work on them, and their contribution to society are best understood as systems, the sum of many interacting parts. Moreover, families are open systems. Families are open to all kinds of social, political, economic, and natural influences. At the same time, families greatly influence their environment. For example, families in advanced industrial societies appear to have fewer children. In turn, smaller families result in many other changes in society such as empty schools, lower demand for big cars and apartments, and a smaller workforce. Those changes, in turn, may influence families.

4 Comprehension Check

Write your answers to the following questions.

1. List the ways in which families have changed in the last few decades.

2. State four reasons for these changes.

3. According to the reading, is what people value in families now the same as what they valued 25 years ago? Explain your answer.

4. How was family defined in the past? Why is it necessary to come up with a new definition of family?

5. In your own words, explain what open systems means.

.....
.....

6. According to the Vanier Institute of the Family, who is in a family? Write your explanation in your own words.

.....
.....

7. According to the Vanier Institute of the Family's definition, what are the responsibilities of a family? State them in your own words. The first answer is supplied for you.

- a. Takes care of its members
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.
- f.

8. Using the information from questions 6 and 7, write a paragraph in which you describe in your own words the Vanier Institute's definition of a family.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Critical Analysis ⇒ Distinguishing Fact from Opinion

Critical analysis is reflecting on what you have read. It is going beyond a factual or literal interpretation of a reading. It involves applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating ideas and information. Critical analysis is an opportunity to go deeper, to discuss or write at a more intensive level.

Distinguishing fact from opinion is one kind of critical analysis. A fact is something that can be proven; an opinion is not. A fact has a source that either is stated in the reading or can be easily found. An opinion is unsupported and is usually presented with opinion language such as *in my opinion*, *his feeling is that*, *she believes that*. Words such as *can*, *should*, and *might* often indicate that the information is yet to be proven and is therefore not factual. Knowing the difference between fact and opinion helps you better understand what you read.

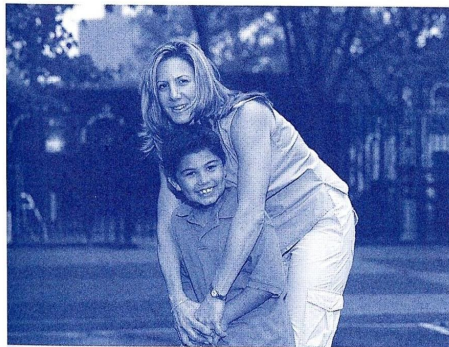
When you evaluate a statement, ask yourself, Can the information be proven? If so, how might it be proven? Is it the result of a study? Can I look it up in some kind of reference? If the answer to all these questions is no, the statement is probably an opinion.

APPENDIX – 4 - James (Skimming-Scanning Practice Passage)

James

James coming into my life has been the best thing that has ever happened to me. It has taught me so much and adds so much satisfaction to my life. Although being a parent is often a demanding and even sometimes terrifying job, I cannot imagine life without him anymore. I have come to believe that no matter who you are, who your child is, and how your child came into your life, all parents share the same challenges.

My son James is 11 years old now. I am his foster parent¹. He has lived with me for seven years, so we seldom think of it as a foster-care relationship. I am his “real” mom and he is my “real” son. It is a permanent relationship and a permanent placement by Child and Family Services. We do not and have not for many years used the word *foster*. Somehow I think that word might make him (and me) feel that we do not quite have the relationship that other moms and sons have. He, and I, both feel secure in our relationship. We have the same needs that biological families have.



I am a single parent. This adds some extra pressure, but it also makes things less complicated in some ways. There is no negotiating with a partner about what is best for James, but on the other hand, James has only one parental role model and influence. It also means that when I am tired, there is no other adult to take over for me. Therefore, at times, James has to deal with me when what I really need is some space.

James is Native American; I am white. Maintaining his cultural awareness is important, and I believe that his culture should not be ignored or replaced just because it is not the same as mine. My approach has been to let him take the lead here. At certain ages he has been more interested in his culture than at other times. This preteen age is a time when kids focus more on what they have that is the same as what other kids have rather than what sets them apart. I expect that as he gets older, he will start asking more about it again.

I worry sometimes about how people view him and how, as he grows older, this will affect him. At this point, he seems oblivious to any prejudice because of his culture. However, I have seen how some storekeepers, for example, watch him a little more than other children. Though it does not happen often, it does happen, and as he grows older, he may start to notice this.

When James was younger, I took him to some powwows² and read him books written and illustrated by Native American writers and artists. At a certain age, he seemed to become uninterested. At this time, I make sure that he has books written by people of his culture and some more informational books about legends and traditions of “his people” as he calls them. He loves reading and is an excellent reader, so he takes in lots of information. What I could have done and should probably still do is learn more myself about his culture instead of just providing him with the information. Parenting is a constant learning experience.

James has some special needs. By the time he was four years old, he had moved from home to home at least sixteen times. My focus has been on giving him a predictable and stable home atmosphere. More than anything, I believe he needs to know that he is safe and that I am present—physically as much as emotionally. He has some difficulty establishing his own limits and usually feels better about himself when they

are set out clearly. In order to succeed, he needs
75 to know what the rules, boundaries, and limits are.
Therefore, we keep quite a regular schedule—as
I have often heard social workers say about
children like James, “routine, routine, routine.”

As a single parent working full-time, I know I
80 often miss the small things, and they have become
dear to me, especially recently. I miss day-to-day
things like stopping to listen to him tell a story
about something that happened at school or to
tell me about a book he is reading or a dream
85 he had. I do well with the big decisions—about
what I think will be in his best interest, where we
should live, what school would be best for him,
and so on.

I believe that all parents set their priorities
90 according to what they believe to be crucial. I
know that more than in any other area of my life,
I struggle with parenting. It seems to me that it is
the most important role I have at this time. I often
wonder about how I am doing, what I might be
missing, and what I need to change or let go of as
my boy grows older. In sum, like most parents, I
learn as I go.

1 foster parent: a person other than a biological parent who takes responsibility for raising a child without adopting him or her
2 powwows: gatherings of Native Americans

4 Comprehension Check

Write your answers to the following questions.

1. Is this mother-son relationship positive? How do you know?

.....
.....
.....

2. What is one advantage of being a single parent, according to the author?
What is one disadvantage?

.....
.....
.....

3. What does the author mean when she says, “My approach has been to let
him take the lead here”? (para. 4)

.....
.....
.....

4. Who are “his people”? (para. 6)

.....
.....
.....

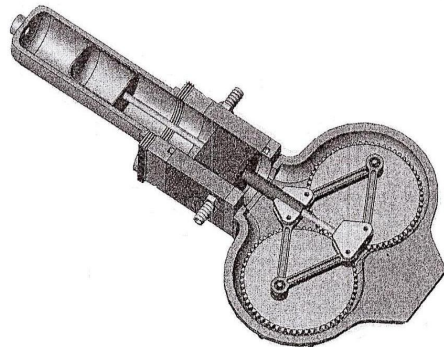
5. What does this mother do to ensure that James knows about his culture?

.....
.....
.....

Innovations for the Developing World

Engineer and inventor Dean Kamen is puzzling over a new equation these days. An estimated 1.1 billion people in the world don't have access to clean drinking water, and an estimated 1.6 billion don't have electricity. Those figures add up to a big problem for the world—and an equally big opportunity for entrepreneurs¹. To solve the problem, he's invented two devices, each about the size of a washing machine. One is a generator that can provide much-needed power in rural villages. The other is a water-cleaning machine. In addition, Kamen is delivering these new technologies using an entrepreneurial economic model with proven success in the developing world.

Lighting the Darkness



Prototype of Kamen's power generator

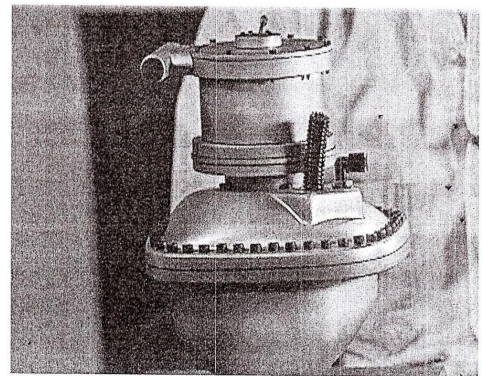
Kamen is testing the devices in real-world situations. For example, last year, prototypes² of Kamen's power machines went through a six-month field trial in two villages in Bangladesh. The power generator proved to be ideal for the developing world. According to Kamen, it runs on anything that burns. In Bangladesh, the electric generator is powered by an easily obtained local fuel: cow dung. Each machine continuously outputs a kilowatt of electricity. That may not sound like much, but it is enough to light 70 energy-efficient bulbs. As Kamen puts it, "If you

judiciously use a kilowatt, each villager can have a nighttime."

This is a significant innovation for most of the developing world. How? To understand the significance, think of a satellite picture of the earth at night—it shows large areas of darkness across Southeast Asia, the Middle East, and Africa. For the people living there, a simple lightbulb would mean an extension of both their productivity and their leisure time.

Cleaning Water

Kamen's other innovation is his water-cleaning machine, which he calls the Slingshot. The Slingshot works by taking in contaminated water—even raw sewage—and separating out the clean water by vaporizing it. The machine then shoots the remaining sludge back out through a plastic tube. Kamen thinks the Slingshot could be paired with the generator and run off the other machine's waste heat. Compared to building big power and water plants, Kamen's approach has the virtue of simplicity. He even created an instruction sheet to go with each Slingshot. It contains one step: just add water, any water. Step 2 might be to add an entrepreneur.



Kamen's water-cleaning machine

Creating Entrepreneurs

The real invention here may be the economic model that Kamen hopes to use to distribute the

machines. Kamen has joined forces with Iqbal
55 Quadir, the founder of Grameen Phone, the
largest cell phone company in Bangladesh. The
distribution model for the power generator is
fashioned after the Grameen Phone business—
already in place in Bangladesh—in which village
60 entrepreneurs (mostly women) are given micro-
loans³ to purchase a cell phone and service.
The women, in turn, charge other villagers to
make calls. Grameen Phone has 200,000 rural
entrepreneurs who are selling telephone services
65 in their communities.

Quadir and Kamen's vision is to replicate this
model with electricity. For example, during the
test in Bangladesh, Kamen's generators created
three entrepreneurs in each village: one to run
70 the machine and sell the electricity, one to collect
dung from local farmers and sell it to the first
entrepreneur, and a third to lease out lightbulbs

(and presumably, in the future, other appliances)
to the villagers.

75 Quadir believes that distributing the machines
in a decentralized fashion will be more beneficial
for the country than centralizing the technology.
Instead of putting up a 500-megawatt power plant
in a developing country, he argues, it would be
80 much better to place 500,000 one-kilowatt power
plants in villages all over the place, because then
you would create many more entrepreneurs.

1 entrepreneurs: people who start
new businesses

2 prototypes: models or
examples that work but aren't
the finished product

3 micro-loans: very small
loans—for example, of a few
dollars

4 Comprehension Check

Write your answers to the following questions.

1. What problem does Dean Kamen want to solve?

.....
.....

2. What two solutions does Kamen have?

.....
.....

3. How much power does Kamen's generator provide?

.....
.....

4. Why is the generator so well-suited to a country like Bangladesh?

.....
.....

5. What are the benefits of the generator? In other words, what does Kamen mean
when he says, "If you judiciously use a kilowatt, each villager can have a nighttime"?

.....
.....

6. Explain in your own words how the Slingshot works.

.....
.....

7. Explain in your own words why the Slingshot is well-suited to the developing world.

.....
.....

8. What is Kamen's "real invention"? (para. 5)

.....
.....

Critical Analysis ⇒ Analyzing Significance

Analyzing significance is a kind of critical analysis. Analyzing significance means judging importance. When you analyze the significance of something—for example, an invention—you determine how important it is. To do this, you think of both the actual and the possible effects of the invention. You look at the facts already on record regarding how the invention has helped people or improved the world in some way. You also think about its potential effects—how it might help the world in the future.

5 Critical Analysis: Analyzing Significance

In small groups, discuss your answers to the following questions.

1. According to the article, is there evidence that Kamen's inventions have already helped anyone? How do you know?
2. How might Kamen's inventions help people in the future?
3. On a scale of 1 (very important) to 5 (not important), how important are Kamen's inventions?
4. Think of four recent inventions or innovations, such as a new car design, a scientific discovery, a new type of drug, or a new entertainment technology. Add Kamen's inventions to your list and compare them with each of the other four items. Which item is more important? Rank the items in your list from 1 (most important) to 5 (least important).

Vocabulary ⇒ Identifying Synonyms

Synonyms are words or phrases that have the same (or nearly the same) meaning.

EXAMPLE: To solve the problem, he's invented two devices.

→ To solve the problem, he's invented two machines.

Machines is a synonym for *devices* in this sentence. However, synonyms do not always have the same meaning in all senses; they cannot always be used in the same context. For instance, the word *devices* (para. 1) can also mean methods or plans; in other words, not concrete objects.

Identifying synonyms helps you understand new words and expand your vocabulary. An especially useful tool is a thesaurus, which is a dictionary of synonyms. Thesauruses are written for the specific purpose of grouping words with similar meanings.

Finding a New Way to Paint

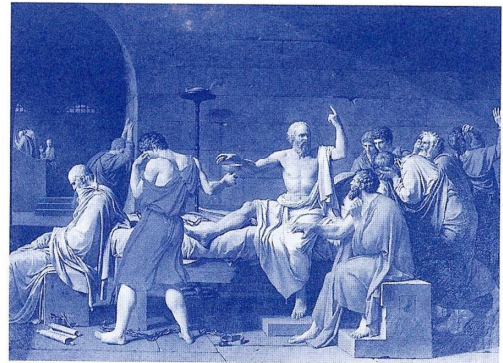
In Paris in 1874, fifty-five artists, founders of a movement they called Impressionism, held the first independent group show. Most of them—including Cézanne, Pissarro, Renoir, Degas, Monet, Manet, and Morisot—had been rejected by the Salon, the annual French state-sponsored exhibition that offered the only real opportunity for artists to display and sell their work. Never mind, they told each other. At the Salon, paintings were stacked three or four high and crowded too closely together on the walls. At their independent exhibition, mounted in what was formerly a photographer's studio, the artists could hang their works at eye level with space between them.

Although some people appreciated the new paintings, many did not. The critics and the public agreed the Impressionists couldn't draw, and their colors were vulgar. Their compositions were strange. Their short, slapdash brushstrokes made their paintings practically illegible. Why didn't these artists take the time to finish their canvases, viewers wondered?

A Break from the Past

Indeed, Impressionism broke every rule of the French Academy of Fine Arts, the conservative school that had dominated art training and taste since 1648. Impressionist scenes of modern urban and country life were very different from the Academic approach to art: to teach moral lessons through historic, mythological, and religious themes. This tradition, drawn from ancient Greek and Roman art, featured idealized images. Symmetrical compositions, hard outlines, and meticulously smooth paint surfaces characterized academic paintings.

These "Independents," as they preferred to be called, brought together a wide variety of



The Death of Socrates, Jacques-Louis David (1787)

influences, beliefs, and styles when they first exhibited and met in Paris cafes to discuss art. The Academy's rejection of them in part united them as a group. But what characterizes Impressionistic art as a whole?

New Subjects

The most significant thread that linked the Impressionists together was an interest in the world around them. For subject matter, they looked to contemporary people at work and play. Most Impressionists were born in the bourgeoisie class, and this was the world they painted. "Make us see and understand, with brush or with pencil, how great and poetic we are in our cravats and our leather boots," the French poet Charles Baudelaire challenged his friend Édouard Manet. Baudelaire's essay "The Painter of Modern Life" inspired other Impressionists to portray real-life themes, too. Degas found his subjects in the backstage scenes of the opera and the ballet. Monet immortalized Paris railroad stations. Nearly all the Impressionist artists painted people hurrying through busy streets and enjoying their leisure time on the boulevard, at racetracks and cafe-concerts, and in stores, restaurants, and parks.

However, it was not just city life that intrigued the Impressionists. Country themes appealed to them, too. Railroads gave people a new mobility. They could hop on a train and be in the countryside in an hour. Commuters escaped from the crowded city to the suburbs that were beginning to appear around Paris. The Seine River, parks, and gardens provided recreational opportunities for weekend picnickers, swimmers, and boat parties, which the Impressionists duly recorded. According to some art historians, one key to Impressionism's popularity was that the artist often put the viewer in the position of someone on holiday enjoying a beautiful scene. "Monet never painted weekdays," one critic noted wryly.



Le Moulin de la Galette at Montmartre, Utrillo

Capturing the Moment

Another characteristic of the Impressionists was the desire to capture the moment, especially outdoors. Most Impressionists worked directly and spontaneously from nature. It was the painter Camille Corot who first advised artists to "submit to the first impression" of what they saw—a real landscape without the contrived classical ruins or biblical parables of French Academic painting.

Capturing the moment meant that Impressionists often depicted people in mid-task. Degas caught audience members at the opera watching each other instead of the stage and ballet dancers stretching or adjusting their costumes before a performance. Renoir's guitar player strums her

instrument by herself. Pissarro's Parisian pedestrians hurriedly cross the city streets.

A wish to capture nature's fleeting moments led many Impressionists to paint the same scene at different times and in different weather. They had to work fast to capture the moment or to finish an outdoor painting before the light changed. Artists had often made quick sketches in pencil or diluted oil paint on location, but now the sketch became the finished work. Impressionist painters adopted a distinctive style of rapid, broken brushstrokes: lines for people on a busy street or specks to recreate flowers in a meadow.

New Ways with Color

Impressionism was also characterized by its innovative use of color. Advances in the fields of optics and color theory fascinated these painters. Working outdoors, Impressionists rendered the play of sunlight and the hues of nature with a palette of bolder, lighter colors than Academy painters used. In 1666, Sir Isaac Newton had shown that white light could be split into many colors—including the three primary colors, red, blue, and yellow—by a prism. The Impressionists learned how to create the prismatic colors with a palette of pure, intense pigments and white. Unlike Academy painters, who covered their canvases with a dark underpainting, Impressionists worked on unprimed white canvas or a pale gray or cream background for a lighter, brighter effect.

Michel-Eugene Chevreul's 1839 book *On the Law of Simultaneous Contrast of Colors* guided the Impressionist practice of laying down strokes of pure, contrasting colors. Chevreul found that colors change in relation to the other colors near them. Complementary colors, or those directly opposite each other on his color wheel, create the most intense effects when placed next to each other, he wrote. Red-green or blue-orange combinations cause an actual vibration in the viewer's eye so that color appears to leap off the canvas. No wonder viewers react emotionally to the glittering sunlight on Monet's rivers or the splash of orange costume on Degas's ballet dancers. "I want my red

to sound like a bell!" Renoir said. "If I don't manage
it at first, I put in more red, and also other colors,
135 until I've got it."

The Appeal of Impressionism

Many Impressionists had difficulty selling
their art. Some reverted to Academic styles in
order to earn a living; some lived in extreme
poverty. Finally, in the 1880s and '90s, the world
140 that the Impressionists painted began to accept
them. Wealthy art collectors started buying

their paintings. What caused the public finally
to accept Impressionism? "Ironically," writes art
historian Ann Dumas, "the Impressionists' former
145 status as renegades enhanced their appeal to ...
the bourgeois collector ... [It was] a new art for a
new class that wanted images of the world they
inhabited!"

Impressionist painting remains popular today,
150 most likely due to its broadly appealing color,
spontaneity, and freshness.

4 Comprehension Check

Write your answers to the following questions.

1. How did the independent exhibition differ from the Salon exhibition?

.....
.....

2. What was the reason that the group of artists held the independent exhibition
in the first place?

.....
.....

3. Describe the characteristics of Academic art.

.....
.....

4. Explain in your own words the three main characteristics of Impressionist
art and give two examples from the reading of each characteristic.

1st characteristic:

Examples:

2nd characteristic:

Examples:

3rd characteristic:

Examples:

APPENDIX – 7 - Note-taking (Introduction Sheet)

NOTE-TAKING STRATEGY FOR READING COMPREHENSION

| Symbols for note-taking are as follows: | |
|---|---|
| = | equals/is equal to/is the same as |
| ≠ | is not equal to/is not the same as |
| ≡ | is equivalent to |
| ∴ | therefore, thus, so |
| ∵ | because |
| + | and, more, plus |
| > | more than, greater than |
| < | less than |
| — | less, minus |
| → | gives, causes, leads to, results in, is given by, is produced by, results from |
| ↗ | rises, increases by |
| ↘ | falls, decreases by |
| ∝ | proportional to |
| ∉ | not proportional to |

(<http://www.lc.unsw.edu.au>)

TWO MAIN TYPES OF NOTE-TAKING FOR READING COMPREHENSION

1. SCOPE OF THE PARAGRAPH

Background of his occupation

“According to Frank Gehry, it all started when he was a little boy growing up on Beverley Street in Toronto, Canada. His grandmother would go to a nearby woodshop to get wood for her stove. The pieces she brought home had been cut into a variety of strange shapes. Before his grandmother burned the pieces of wood in her fire, she would sit on the floor with him and build cities. Today, Gehry is considered by many to be one of the greatest architects of our time. His signature-artistic structures composed of seemingly unrelated and inconsistent forms made of nontraditional materials—is a reflection of his approach to architecture and his underlying philosophy.”

(1st paragraph of ‘Frank Gehry’)

Gehry's working style

{ “Collections of unusual forms, such as Gehry’s Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao, Spain, are typical of much of his work. Gehry’s style reflects both the process in which he engages as an architect and his philosophy of the modern city and democracy. Gehry’s way of working is to begin by listening closely to his clients. He takes note not only of their explicit requests but also of their body language and facial expressions to give him cues as to their desires and wishes. Gehry then works as a sculptor, using his intuition to guide him in the creation of shapes and forms that will appeal to his client. According to art critic Calvin Tomkins, when he has created a model that is similar to what his clients want, Gehry’s own design process really begins. He experiments with the model, modifying forms and the relationships among the forms, pushing the model further and further. When describing this process, Gehry has said, ‘The creative spirit flows from my childlike sense of the world, my sense of play and wonder’.”

(2nd paragraph of ‘Frank Gehry’)

preference as to the distribution models

{ “Quadir believes that distributing the machines in a decentralized fashion will be more beneficial for the country than centralizing the technology. Instead of putting up a 500-megawatt power plant in a developing country, he argues, it would be much better to place 500,000 one-kilowatt power plants in villages all over the place, because then you would create many more entrepreneurs.”

(last paragraph of ‘Innovations for the Developing World’)

2. DETAILED POINTS ON THE CONTENT OF THE PARAGRAPH

SAMPLE NOTES FROM THE 1ST PARAGRAPH OF ‘FINDING A NEW WAY TO PAINT’:

“In Paris in 1874, fifty-five artists, founders of a movement they called Impressionism, held the first independent group show. Most of them—including Cēzanne, Pissarro, Renoir, Degas, Monet, Manet, and Moristo—had been rejected by the Salon, the annual French state-sponsored exhibition that offered the only real opportunity for artists to display and sell their work. Never mind, they told each other. At the Salon, paintings were stacked three or four high and crowded too closely together on the walls. At their independent exhibition, mounted in what was formerly a photographer’s studio, the artists could hang their works at eye level with space between them.”

Impressionism

Rejection by the Salon → 1st independent group show
1874, Paris, 55 artists

Order : independent exhibition > classical ones at the Salon

SAMPLE NOTES FROM THE 4th PARAGRAPH OF ‘INNOVATIONS FOR THE DEVELOPING WORLD’:

“Kamen’s other innovation is his water-cleaning machine, which he calls the Slingshot. The Slingshot works by taking in contaminated water—even raw sewage—and separating out the clean water by vaporizing it. The machine then shoots the remaining sludge back our through a plastic tube. Kamen thinks the Slingshot could be paired with the generator and run off the other machine’s waste heat. Compared to building big power and water plants, Kamen’s approach has the virtue of simplicity. He even created and instruction sheet to go with each Slingshot. It contains one step: just add water, any water. Step 2 might be to add an entrepreneur.”

Slingshot

Vaporizing → Water cleaning

Simple functioning

Instruction sheet: add water

+ entrepreneur

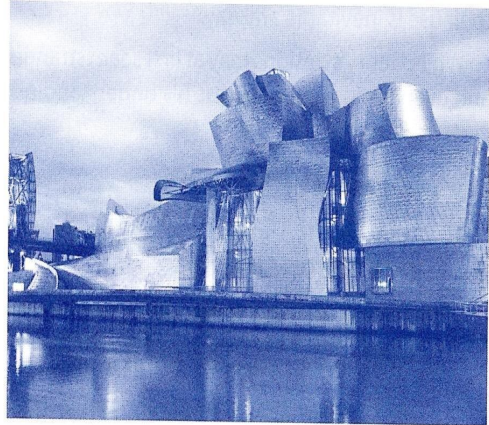
APPENDIX – 8 - Frank Gehry (Note-taking Practice Passage)

Frank Gehry

According to Frank Gehry, it all started when he was a little boy growing up on Beverley Street in Toronto, Canada. His grandmother would go to a nearby woodshop to get wood for her stove. The pieces she brought home had been cut into a variety of strange shapes. Before his grandmother burned the pieces of wood in her fire, she would sit on the floor with him and build cities. Today, Gehry is considered by many to be one of the greatest architects of our time. His signature—artistic structures composed of seemingly unrelated and inconsistent forms made of nontraditional materials—is a reflection of his approach to architecture and his underlying philosophy.

Collections of unusual forms, such as Gehry's Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao, Spain, are typical of much of his work. Gehry's style reflects both the process in which he engages as an architect and his philosophy of the modern city and democracy. Gehry's way of working is to begin by listening closely to his clients. He takes note not only of their explicit requests but also of their body language and facial expressions to give him cues as to their desires and wishes. Gehry then works as a sculptor, using his intuition to guide him in the creation of shapes and forms that will appeal to his client. According to art critic Calvin Tomkins, when he has created a model that is similar to what his clients want, Gehry's own design process really begins. He experiments with the model, modifying forms and the relationships among the forms, pushing the model further and further. When describing this process, Gehry has said, "The creative spirit flows from my childlike sense of the world, my sense of play and wonder."

The unusual forms in Gehry's work also embody his philosophy of the modern city and democracy. According to Gehry, the unity and uniformity



Guggenheim Museum, Bilbao, Spain

of the nineteenth-century city no longer exist; because our modern society is democratic, our cities are more chaotic. They reflect the pluralism within our society, and the forms within them are "collisive"—clashing into each other. This new reality is expressed in the unusual and "collisive" shapes of Gehry's buildings, such as the Bilbao Guggenheim in Spain. Buildings like the Guggenheim are an expression of his view of contemporary life.

In addition to their striking shapes, Gehry's structures are characterized by the use of unusual materials. Gehry often uses titanium, a material more frequently found in aircraft landing gear. He chose titanium for the Guggenheim, for example, because "it has a wonderful characteristic of changing in the light. When it rains, it goes golden, so just when the grey skies come, which is a lot of the times in Bilbao, the building radiates."

Gehry has woven other unusual materials such as chain link into his designs. Again, the use of these materials reveals his thinking about life and architecture. According to Gehry himself, he wants to understand the materials that are commonly used in our culture. "My goal as an architect is to take the 'culturally common'

materials I see being used in huge quantities and transform them into something better. I want to understand the materials and to use them, since their use is inevitable anyway.”

While Gehry’s designs may at first seem strange and even jarring, they express his understanding

of modern life. These designs are now inspiring a younger generation of architects, who, he hopes, will be encouraged to take risks and express their own understanding through their work. In the meantime, we are left to enjoy and find our own meaning in Gehry’s work, the art that is architecture.

4 Comprehension Check

Write your answers to the following questions.

1. What is the main idea of this article?
 - a. Frank Gehry is the greatest architect of our time.
 - b. Frank Gehry learned his skills from his grandmother when he was a small boy.
 - c. Gehry’s work reflects his approach to and philosophy about architecture.
2. How does the author of the article describe Gehry’s architectural style?

.....

3. Describe in your own words Gehry’s process.

.....
.....
.....

4. Explain how Gehry’s philosophy about the modern city is reflected in his designs.

.....
.....
.....

5. In terms of Gehry’s designs, what does “collisive” shapes mean? (para. 3)

.....

6. What else characterizes Gehry’s architectural style?

.....

7. Describe in your own words Gehry’s philosophy about the materials he uses.

.....
.....
.....

8. What influence does Gehry hope to have on young architects?

.....

APPENDIX – 9 – Guessing Intelligently (Introduction Sheet)

- Because of his indecent behaviors, he was declared as **delibal**.
-
-
-
- It is a **tarnless** criterion for the candidate states to carry out a strict financial program.
-
-
- It is quite perplexing to see a non-native person **teffle** new words and submit them to the official language institution of a foreign country.
-
-
- Because of her obstinate nature, it will be **tonifall** to try to convince her.
-
-
- Getting along with other people is rather **scrading** particularly with respect to the numerous types of characters.
-
-
- They haven't been able to get even a single call from their children for a week, which makes them have **sendles** about their lives.
-
-
- The non-constructive approaches of the opposition parties **dentle** not only their images but the prestige of the whole country as well.
-
-
- With the influx of millions of people, the refugee camps **tricle with** countless tragedies.
-
-
- Approaches and methods are **senitial** to the curricula of Language Teacher Training programs.
-
- You shouldn't be so mean. My advice for you is that you try to overcome this unpleasant habit by **chouting** some of your friends to a good dinner.

APPENDIX – 10 - Global Warming (“Guessing Intelligently” Practice Passage)

3 Thinking about the Topic

In small groups, discuss your answers to the following questions.

1. Do you have the impression that weather patterns are different today than they were in the past? If so, how are they different?
2. What do you already know about global warming?
3. What might be some of the effects of global warming? What might be some of the causes?

4 Making Predictions

In small groups, discuss your answers to the following questions.

1. What do you think is the main idea of “Global Warming”?
2. What details or examples might the author include to develop the main idea?

Now read the text and answer the questions that follow.

Global Warming

Global warming is a hot topic that shows little sign of cooling down. Earth’s climate *is* changing, but just how it’s happening and our own role in the process are somewhat uncertain.

Climate Change

5 There is little doubt that the planet is warming. Over the last century, the average temperature has climbed about 1 degree Fahrenheit (0.6 degree Celsius) around the world. The spring ice thaw in the Northern Hemisphere occurs 10 days earlier than it did 150 years ago, and the fall freeze now typically starts 10 days later. And the 1990s was the warmest decade since the mid-1800s, when record keeping started. At the time of this writing, the hottest years recorded 15 were 1998, 2002, 2003, 2001, and 1997. The multinational Arctic Climate Impact Assessment (ACIA) report recently concluded that in Alaska, western Canada, and eastern Russia, average temperatures have increased as much as 4 to 7 20 degrees Fahrenheit (3 to 4 degrees Celsius) in the past 50 years. The rise is nearly twice the global average. In Barrow, Alaska (the northernmost city in the United States), average temperatures rose more than 4 degrees Fahrenheit (2.5 to 3

25 degrees Celsius) in 30 years. The United Nations’ Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) projects that global temperatures will inevitably rise an additional 3 to 10 degrees Fahrenheit (1.6 to 5.5 degrees Celsius) by the end 30 of the century.

Over the last million years, Earth has fluctuated between colder and warmer periods. The shifts have occurred in roughly 100,000-year intervals thought to be regulated by sunlight. 35 Earth’s sunlight quota depends upon its orbit and celestial orientation. But changes have also occurred more rapidly in the past—and scientists hope that these changes can tell us more about the current state of climate change. During the 40 last ice age, approximately 70,000 to 11,500 years ago, ice covered much of North America and Europe—yet sudden, sometimes drastic, climate changes occurred during the period. Greenland ice cores indicate one spike in which the area’s 45 surface temperature increased by 15 degrees Fahrenheit (9 degrees Celsius) in just 10 years.

Where do scientists find clues to past climate change? The tale is told in remnant materials like glacial ice and moraines, pollen-rich mud,

50 stalagmites, the rings of corals and trees,
and ocean sediments that yield the shells of
microscopic organisms. Human history yields
clues as well, through records like ancient writings
and inscriptions, gardening and vintner records,
55 and the logs of historic ships.

Melting Ice

Rising temperatures have a dramatic impact on
Arctic ice, which serves as a kind of air conditioner
at the top of the world. Since 1978, Arctic sea ice
area has shrunk by some 9 percent per decade
60 and has thinned as well. ACIA projects that at least
half of the Arctic's summer sea ice will melt by the
end of the century and that the Arctic region is
likely to warm 7 to 13 degrees Fahrenheit (4 to
7 degrees Celsius) during the same time. Vast
65 quantities of fresh water are tied up in the world's
many melting glaciers. When Montana's Glacier
National Park was created in 1910, it held some
150 glaciers. Now fewer than 30 greatly shrunken
glaciers remain. Tropical glaciers are in even more
70 trouble. The legendary snows at the peak of
Tanzania's Mount Kilimanjaro, 19,340 feet (5,895
meters) high, have melted by some 80 percent
since 1912 and could be gone by 2020.

In the Arctic, the impacts of a warming cli-
75 mate are being felt already. Coastal indigenous
communities report shorter periods of sea ice,
which fail to temper ocean storms and their
destructive coastal erosion. Increased snow and
ice melt has caused rivers to be higher, while
80 thawing permafrost has wreaked havoc on roads
and other infrastructure. Some communities have
had to move from historic coastline locations. Sea
ice loss is devastating for various species, such
as polar bears and ringed seals in the Arctic and
85 penguins in the Antarctic.

Sea Levels

Melting ice can also mean higher sea levels.
Sea levels have risen and fallen many times over
the Earth's long geological history. According to
the IPCC, the average global sea level has risen by
90 4 to 8 inches (10 to 20 cm) over the past century.
The IPCC's 2001 report projects that sea level

could rise between 4 and 35 inches (10 to 89
cm) by the end of the century. Such rises could
have major effects for coastal dwellers. A 1.5-foot
95 (50-centimeter) sea level rise in flat coastal areas
would cause a typical coastline retreat of 150 feet
(50 meters). Worldwide, some 100 million people
live within 3 feet (1 meter) of mean sea level. Rises
of just 4 inches (10 centimeters) could promote
100 flooding in many South Sea islands, while in the
United States, Florida and Louisiana are at risk. The
Indian Ocean nation of Maldives has a maximum
elevation of only 8 feet (2.5 meters). Construction
of a sea wall around the capital, Male, was driven
105 by vulnerability to the rising tides.

Greenhouse Gases

Since the 1860s, increased industrialization
and shrinking forests have helped raise the
atmosphere's CO₂ level by almost 100 parts per
million—and Northern Hemisphere temperatures
110 have followed suit. Increases in temperatures and
greenhouse gases have been even sharper since
the 1950s.

Water vapor is the most important greenhouse
gas. Carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous
oxide also contain heat and help keep Earth's
temperate climate balanced in the cold void
of space. Human activities, burning fossil fuels
and clearing forests, have greatly increased
concentrations by producing these gases faster
120 than plants and oceans can soak them up. The
gases linger in the atmosphere for years, meaning
that even a complete halt in emissions would
not immediately stop the warming trend they
promote.

Plants and Animals

125 Studies show that many European plants
now flower a week earlier than they did in
the 1950s and lose their leaves five days later.
Biologists report that many birds and frogs are
breeding earlier in the season. An analysis of
130 35 nonmigratory butterfly species showed that
two-thirds now range 2 to 150 miles (3.5 to 240
kilometers) farther north than they did a few
decades ago.

By 2050, rising temperatures, exacerbated
135 by human-produced carbon dioxide and other
greenhouse gases, could send more than a
million of Earth's land-dwelling plants and
animals down the road to extinction. Coral reefs
worldwide are "bleaching," losing key algae and
140 resident organisms, as water temperatures rise
above 85 degrees Fahrenheit (29.5 degrees
Celsius) through periods of calm, sunny weather.
Scientists worry that rapid climate change could
inhibit the ability of many species to adapt within
145 complex and interdependent ecosystems.

Is It All Bad News?

The effects of a warming globe may not be
entirely negative. Heating costs could decrease
for those in colder climates, while vast marginal
agricultural areas in northern latitudes might
150 become more viable. Arctic shipping and resource
extraction operations could also benefit—
summer sea ice breakup in Hudson Bay already
occurs two to three weeks earlier than it did half
a century ago. But many species could be hit
155 hard—including humans. The most vulnerable
are peoples living in the far North, those perched
along the world's coasts, and millions dependent
on subsistence agriculture subject to the vagaries
of a changing climate.

5 Comprehension Check

Write your answers to the following questions.

1. Is climate change a new occurrence? Find the information in the passage that supports your answer.
.....
.....
2. How are temperatures changing today? Find at least two examples in the passage that support your answer.
.....
.....
3. Where do scientists find clues to past climate change?
.....
.....
4. What are greenhouse gases? Where do they come from?
.....
.....
5. What does the author mean by "The effects of a warming globe may not be entirely negative"? Do you agree? Why or why not?
.....
.....

ÖZGEÇMİŞ

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|-------------------------------|---|
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