

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT**

**THE EFFECTS OF READING TEST-TAKING STRATEGIES ON STUDENTS'
ENGLISH READING ACHIEVEMENT**

Mehmet TUNAZ

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2014

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Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Gül den TÖM

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ÖZET

OKUMA TESTİ YANITLAMA STRATEJİLERİNİN ÖĞRENCİLERİN İNGİLİZCE OKUMA BAŞARILARINA ETKİSİ

Mehmet TUNAZ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

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Bu araştırma, üniversite hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerine verilen okuma testi yanıtlama stratejileri eğitiminin öğrencilerin İngilizce okuma testlerindeki performanslarına etkisini incelemek amacıyla yapılmıştır. Araştırma, Kayseri Erciyes Üniversitesinin farklı bölümlerini kazanmış, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce eğitimi alan 90 hazırlık sınıfı öğrencisi ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmanın başlangıcında, başlangıç seviyesindeki 250 öğrenciye, okuma testi yanıtlama stratejileri farkındalığını ölçmek ve ne sıklıkla bu stratejileri kullandıklarını tespit etmek amacıyla anket uygulanmıştır. Anket sonuçları SPSS 16.0 bilgisayar programı betimsel olarak incelenmiştir.

Anket sonuçlarına göre ortalamanın altında kalan 119 öğrenci içerisinden rastgele seçilen 30 öğrenci birinci grup olarak belirlenmiş ve altı hafta boyunca okuma testi yanıtlama stratejileri üzerine eğitim verilmiştir. Aynı şekilde rastgele seçilen 30 öğrenci ise sadece konu başlıklarından haberdar edilerek internet üzerinden bireysel çalışmaları sağlanmıştır. Rastgele seçilen 30 kişilik son grup ise hiçbir eğitim ya da yönlendirme almamıştır. Öğrencilere verilen strateji eğitiminin, okuma test puanlarına etkilerini araştırmak amacıyla öğrencilerin test sonuçları karşılaştırılmıştır. Ayrıca öğrencilerle yüz yüze yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yapılmış ve bu görüşmeler içerik çözümlemesi yöntemiyle incelenmiştir. Bulgulardan elde edilen sonuçlar şunlardır: 1) öğrencilerin yarısına yakını öğrenme stratejileri hakkında yeterli bilgiye sahip değildir; 2) öğrencilerin test çözme strateji farkındalıkları ile test başarıları paralellik göstermektedir; 3) yüz yüze strateji eğitimi alan öğrencilerin okuma testi başarılarının, hiçbir strateji eğitimine tabi tutulmayan öğrencilerin aynı testteki başarılarından yüksek olduğu saptanmıştır; 4) strateji eğitimine dâhil edilmeyen ancak bireysel çalışmaya yönlendirilen öğrencilerin okuma testi başarılarının da, hiçbir strateji eğitime tabi

tutulmayan öğrencilerin okuma testi başarısından yüksek olduğu saptanmıştır; 5) yüz yüze strateji eğitimi alan öğrencilerin okuma testi başarılarının bireysel çalışmalara yönlendirilen öğrencilerin okuma testi başarılarından yüksek olduğu saptanmıştır; 6) okuma testi strateji eğitiminden sonra yapılan görüşmelerde, öğrencilerin okuma testlerinde en çok zorladıkları stratejilerin, kelime anlamlarının bağlamdan tahmin edilmesi ve çıkarımda yapma olduğu saptanmıştır. Öğrencilerin en kolay bulduğu ve en rahat uygulayabildiğini ifade ettiği stratejiler ise; soru türünün tespit edilmesi, ana fikrin bulunması, detaylı ve yüzeysel okuma olarak tespit edilmiştir. Bu çalışmadan elde edilen bulgular ışığında, üniversite hazırlık sınıflarında okuma testi strateji eğitiminin mevcut ders programına dâhil edilmesinin yararları vurgulanmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Test yanıtlama stratejileri, strateji eğitimi, okuma testi, hazırlık sınıfı

ABSTRACT**THE EFFECTS OF READING TEST-TAKING STRATEGIES ON STUDENTS'
ENGLISH READING ACHIEVEMENT****Mehmet TUNAZ****Master of Arts, English Language Teaching****Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Gülden TÜM****July, 2014, 99 pages**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of reading test taking strategy training on university preparatory class students' performance in English reading tests. The study was conducted with 90 preparatory class students in 2013/2014 academic year at Erciyes University School of Foreign Languages. At the beginning of the study, 250 beginner level students were given questionnaire, which was designed to find out the students' awareness of reading test taking strategies. The data collected from questionnaire was analysed descriptively using SPSS 16.0 computer program.

According to the questionnaire results, 119 students were below the mean score. Among these 119 students, 30 students were chosen randomly as Group 1 (*Face to Face Training Group*) and were given test taking strategy training for six weeks. Another 30 students were also chosen randomly as Group 2 (*Online Self-training Group*) and were just informed about the topics and directed to study on their own. Group 3 (*Control Group*) consisting of 30 randomly selected students were given neither instruction nor training. With the aim of analysing the impact of strategy training, students' test results were compared. Moreover, face to face semi-structured interviews were held with 30 students and these interviews were analysed through content analysis. The following results have been obtained from the data: 1) nearly half of the students were not well informed about the learning strategies; 2) students' awareness of test taking strategies are in parallel with their test performance; 3) the test performance of *Face to Face Training Group* were found to be higher than the performance of *Control Group*; 4) reading test performance of self-training group, who were excluded from the training program but directed to study personally, were detected to be higher than the *Control Group* as well; 5) *Face to Face Training Group* had better scores than the self training

group in the same reading test; 6) at the end of the strategy training program, semi-structured interviews carried out with Face to Face Training Group indicated that students had difficulty in guessing the meaning from the context and drawing inference while detecting the question types, finding the main idea, skimming and scanning were reported to be useful and practical by the students. In the light of the findings of this research, the benefits of inserting reading test taking strategies into the regular curriculum at preparatory classes were emphasized.

Keywords: Test taking strategies, strategy training, reading tests, preparatory class

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

DQs: Detail Questions

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

InferQs: Inference Questions

LLS: Language Learning Strategies

MIQs: Main Idea Questions

ReferQs: Reference Questions

RTTS: Reading Test Taking Strategies

SILL: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

TTS: Test Taking Strategies

VocQs: Vocabulary Questions

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Achievement in English exams has been a very important and vital step in many fields at universities all over the world. In almost all fields of education, students have to take English exam to be excluded from preparatory class or to be successful at preparatory class. The importance of achievement in English exams has also gained importance in academic areas to claim a position at universities. Since the achievement in tests has been accepted to be crucial, learning and applying test-taking strategies have also become of the same importance. Numerous types of test-taking strategies are currently available on the internet and other sources of information and until now there have been many studies dealing with their positive effects on test scores. However, teaching test-taking strategies to university students at preparatory classes in a separate course program and determining their effects on test scores haven't been thoroughly investigated, which is the main scope of this study.

The investigations are generally based on the procedure. However, focusing only on the procedure and students' progress in this period would be missing a very important factor: test scores. The test results of students are known to be affected by several factors such as cognitive, psychological or test-related factors (Hambleton et al., 1991). This means that there are several factors affecting achievement in tests. The cognitive and psychological backgrounds of the test-takers are also crucial factors that have a profound effect on the test results. For this reason, test-taking strategies can be classified under test-related factors by separating it from learner-related factors.

Many studies have shown that it is possible to enhance the achievement in tests by teaching the test-taking strategies to the students (e.g., Brown, 1999; Janowicz, 2007; Gray, 2011; Kesselman-Turkel & Franklynn, 2004). As Kesselman-Turkel and Peterson (2004) state teaching test-taking strategies both improves students' performance and lessens anxiety, which, in the end, should increase test scores.

Interest in test-taking strategies and test-wiseness has increased in the same row of interest in testing. Many studies have focused on testing, test-taking strategies and test-wiseness to increase students' performance. However, what appear to be neglected

in these studies are mostly the effects of test-taking strategies and test-wiseness in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) testing literature (Allan, 1992). Therefore, this issue forms the base of this study and will be explained in detail in the statement of the problem part. Moreover, test taking strategies are categorized according to different language skills. This study focuses on merely “*reading*” aspect of test taking strategies since all the strategies related to other skills would require a very long period of time.

In this chapter, the background to the study, reading test taking strategies, the setting, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, and limitations of the study are presented.

1.2 Background to the Study

Testing people’s language ability has been a crucial part of language teaching since it would be the most concrete indicator of the learnt ability. For this reason, language tests are always exposed to very strict criticism on their capacity to reach a dependable assessment and evaluation. Being so important in language teaching, especially in EFL, language tests are also considered to be related with test-taking strategies. Up to now, many studies have focused on the possible effects of test-taking strategies on the success of test takers. Similarly this topic has been included in many academic areas and course books.

The effect of test taking strategies on students’ success is not a very old issue in academic area, but it has a very wide range of interest nowadays. For instance, while some researchers confine test taking strategies as students’ ability to use time wisely and to develop practical study habits, others offer several strategies that would be beneficial to apply. For instance, Christine (2010) draws attention to the fact that test taking strategies are equal to long-term successful learning strategies, not quick tricks.

Janowicz (2007) states that self-esteem is very important for students to be successful at the tests. However, he also emphasizes that self-efficiency is inadequate to accomplish a task since a successful student would need both self-efficiency and test taking ability to perform best. To back up this idea, he also claims that teaching test taking strategies would increase both self-efficiency and academic achievement.

Lance (2004) mentions the importance of teaching test taking strategies to special education students to increase academic achievement. Lance (2004) also

questions the effects of test taking strategies on special education high school students. The findings showed that forcing special education students to as well as their mainstream counterparts could be unfair.

Test taking strategies have also been studied in different sub-skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking. For example, Sharnagl (2004) focused on the effects of test taking strategies on students' reading achievement. In this study, standardized reading test scores of students are taken into consideration to see the effects of test taking strategies. The results showed that test taking strategies affected the test scores slightly. Additionally, this study proved that test preparation should be a well-organized and long term program including test taking strategies.

As mentioned above, many studies have been related to test taking strategies in several ways. This study's distinctiveness lies in its comparing face to face teaching of reading test taking strategies with online self-training by setting *social networking* environment and assessing the frequency of using these strategies via questionnaire and test-results comparisons of preparatory class college students.

1.3 Reading Test Taking Strategies (RTSS)

In this study, reading test taking strategies are categorized under five main questions types (Main Idea Questions, Detail Questions, Vocabulary Questions, Inference Questions, and Reference Questions) to which students are exposed in monthly institutional exams conducted by School of Foreign Languages, Erciyes University, Kayseri, Turkey. The strategy training mentioned in methodology part is contextually based on these types of questions and main strategies related to them. These main areas are displayed in the following five tables:

Table 1.

Strategies for Main Idea Questions (MIQs)

1) Reading for Main Idea Questions	• Identifying the question as a main idea question (<i>main idea, emphasizing, focusing on, primarily dealing with, author's point of view</i>) • Reading and taking notes • Eliminating incorrect, irrelevant, too broad and narrow sentences • Reading first and last sentences
---	--

Table 2.

Strategies for Detail Questions (DQs)

2) Reading for Detail Questions	Identifying the key word(s) in the questions
	Skimming and scanning
	Identifying synonyms or similar phrases
	Finding the answer(s) in the passage

Table 3.

Strategies for Vocabulary Questions (VocQs)

3) Reading for Vocabulary Questions	Guessing the vocabulary in the context
	Using context and grammatical clues
	Word analysis (<i>prefix, suffix, root etc.</i>)

Table 4.

Strategies for Inference Questions (InferQs)

4) Reading for Inference Questions	Identifying the question as an inference question (<i>imply, suggest, infer, assume, indicate, conclude, seem, predict</i>)
	Realizing the content stream of the text (<i>yet, but, however, except, moreover etc.</i>)
	Spotting the wrong answers which are unsupported in the text.

Table 5.

Strategies for Reference Questions (ReferQs)

5) Reading for Reference Questions	Identifying the question as a reference question (<i>what does "x" refer to?</i>)
	Identifying what word or phrase is asked for reference (<i>it, this, that, these, those, them etc.</i>)
	Crosschecking the answer by switching reference words

1.4 Setting

This study was conducted in the School of Foreign Languages at Erciyes University, Kayseri, Turkey. There were 3245 students enrolled in this school in 2013-2014 Academic year. The students were divided into three groups: morning group, afternoon group, and evening group. Each group had four hours of English class per day. They also had two hours of reading and writing lessons per week.

In literature, there have been many researches having investigated the impacts of strategy training on students' test performance (Anderson, 1991; Auerbach & Paxton, 1997; Kern, 1989). However, there have been a limited number of researches on test taking strategies at schools of foreign languages in Turkey. For this reason, School of Foreign Languages at Erciyes University, Kayseri was chosen as the setting in this research. Moreover, its population is one of the highest among other foreign language schools in Turkey. It gave a chance to include a variety of students coming from different regions of Turkey. However, the representative power of students' backgrounds was excluded in this thesis, which might be the topic for further studies.

1.5 Statement of the Problem

Tests are acknowledged as the most robust indicator of students' language ability (Coombe, 2010). In almost all fields, tests constitute the most reliable grader and many students' destinies are closely related to them. To be successful in a field, students are supposed to perform a pre-set ability in the tests. This condition drags students into worry and being stuck in anxiety resulting with failure and disappointment. All these reasons have made a better understanding of test-taking crucially necessary for test takers.

Test taking strategies have been held in different ways by many writers and researchers. For example, Coombe (2010) mentions "ten things to remember about student test taking skills" to suggest teachers to make their students familiar with test taking strategies whereas Janowicz (2007) has tried to find out possible benefits of directly teaching test taking strategies to students in his research. Apart from these two examples, there have also been some other studies which focused on teaching test taking strategies for sub-skills such as test-taking strategies for writing tests and reading tests (Yang & Plakans, 2012).

Above mentioned issues and the diversity of studies on test taking strategies have shown that there is still a vital need for a better understanding of test taking strategies. It is clear that in EFL, the issue of improving students' reading test achievement via test-taking strategies hasn't been thoroughly overcome, which was the purpose of this study.

The reading test anxiety of students at *School of Foreign Languages, Erciyes University* and their low level of success in monthly proficiency exams have constituted the base of this study. Therefore, determining the possible effects of teaching reading test-taking strategies (RTSS) in curriculum on students' reading test performance was the main inspiration in this study.

1.6 Purpose of This Study

As many studies have focused on the effects of reading test-taking strategies in different fields, the study was conducted to find out their effects on EFL students' achievement in English reading exams at preparatory classes. Finding out whether teaching reading test-taking strategies increases students' success was the preliminary objective of the study. The students' awareness of these strategies, controlled observation of students' application of these strategies in reading exams and comparison of their previous and current exam results were the main chapters of the study. Moreover, the difference between face to face strategy training and self-training was also planned to be analysed in detail.

1.7 Research Questions

1. What is the nature of preparatory class students' awareness and attitudes towards language learning strategies?
2. Is there a significant difference among students' pre-reading test performance in terms of their awareness of test taking strategies?
3. Is there a significant difference among reading test performance of students who are exposed to test taking strategy training, students who are directed to study by themselves via online sources, and students who are rendered no strategy instruction?
4. What is the nature of students' perspective in dealing with a reading text as a result of the strategy training program?

1.8 Significance of the Study

Nowadays, learning English and showing a reasonable performance in English tests are the crucial determinant of getting a position in many fields. It is a well-known fact that English tests are mostly worrying, perturbing and disappointing for Turkish students, and for this reason teaching English as a second language (ESL) has been the main issue in many studies. Along with teaching the language itself, the techniques and strategies needed to reach this aim have also gained importance. For these reasons, test taking strategies and strategy training are of great importance.

This research forms a basis to discover how effective strategy training increase students' performance in English reading exams.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

This research was merely about teaching “reading strategies” as it is carried out for fourteen weeks (one academic term), and it would be overloading upon applied for all skills; thus, it might be more comprehensive to exclude other skills such as listening, writing, and speaking. It would require a longer time period to conduct such a research; however, investigating the relationship among different skills and strategies might have a more substantial contribution.

The other limitation is the lack of information about the personal background of the participants and their families. This was planned to be gathered at the beginning of the study, but then it was realized that this would prevent the participants' willingness and subjectivity. In order not to overshadow the main aim of the research, the participants were not asked about their personal background.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Test Taking Strategies

Test taking, although it is accepted as a meaningful way of reaching a decision in assessing and evaluating a performance, has been viewed and defined in various ways. Bachman (1990), for instance, focused on test taking strategies as a process and claimed that test taking process is directly related with the construct validity of the test itself. Similarly, Cohen (1984) stated that test taking affects the construct validity since the test constructor should take the test taking process into account while setting a test. Some other writers (Janowicz, 2007; Kesselman-Turkel, 2004; and Phakiti, 2004) viewed test taking as the most important phase of showing an ability or knowledge about a topic. For instance, Hughes (2003) stated that in language teaching, tests are one of the best ways to assess a learnt ability.

2.1.1 Studies on Test Taking Strategies

Test taking strategies, since test taking itself is vital in almost all fields; have been of the same importance. In many studies, researchers and writers have focused on the effects of teaching test taking strategies to foster test achievement. Pike (1978) cites test taking strategies a unit of skills and knowledge about test-taking itself which lets learners to display their abilities to their best advantage. Sarnacki (1979) defines test taking strategies as a unit of practical information that a test taker can use to improve his or her performance regardless of the target area. In the same way, some writers state that test taking strategies are useful in any field for a test wise learner regardless of the type of test (e.g., Pike, 1978; Scruggs & Wastropieri, 1992; and Woodley, 1975). However, Bruch (1981) defines test taking strategies as a rule, tactic or procedure that helps the learners to interpret and solve only multiple choice questions.

Janowicz (2007) states that test performance is a valuable criterion to display a learnt ability. He also claims that in almost all fields learners are driven by tests. For this reason, knowing a topic simply might be insufficient to be successful. Rather, test performance is seen as the number one criteria. Assuming this condition, Janowicz (2007) conducted studies on young learners' math test scores. However, in his study

there was not meaningful difference between the students receiving test taking instructions and those deprived of these instructions.

Using test taking strategies can vary according to different test context. For instance, some strategies can be specific to a reading test while some others fit better to a multiple choice test. For this reason, a test wise learner can determine different strategies for different contexts. Furthermore, as Rupp et al. (2006) stated, different testing formats resulted in different strategy use.

Some writers and researchers describe test taking strategies as test wiseness. Test wiseness is also seen as the key concept of multiple choice questions since it refers to solving multiple choice questions without knowing the content area or using the skill that is being tested (Allan, 1992).

In Cohen's (1984) studies, several strategies used by EFL learners in multiple choice questions have been suggested. However, he cited that it is crucial for a researcher to know "how the test constructors intended for their tests to be taken and how respondents actually take them".

Lance (2004) also studied on teaching test taking strategies and observing their effects on test performance. However, this study was carried on special education high school students. In this study, a group of disabled students were taught some test taking strategies and using grids. The study's preliminary focus was to research whether all the children could pass high school proficiency exam (HSPE), which was triggered by "No Child Left Behind Act" (2001).

Scharnagl (2004) also cited the effects of test taking strategies on students reading achievement. He concluded that teaching test taking strategies may have a positive effect on students' academic achievement. The study also put forward that integrating test taking strategies into curriculum would even be more beneficial to increase students' test scores.

Some researchers have concluded that test taking strategies may be used in either manner positively and/or negatively. For instance, Perlman (2000) found out in his study that providing students with drills and exercises (which are used by some teachers to prepare the students for standardized exams) did not prove to be effective to increase standardized test scores. Other studies conducted by Rogers and Harley (1999) focused on test wiseness which was found to be an effective factor in increasing the test scores. On the other hand, Bunting and Mooney (2001) conducted a study on test

coaching. Their findings revealed that test scores may even double; however, they believe that coaching could cause test scores to be unreliable.

Ellis and Ryan (2003) stated in their studies about the effects of test-taking strategies on standardized exams that test-taking strategies provide advantages for the test takers. However, the findings of Edwards (2009) do not support previous studies since he reported that although the anxiety level of students may be lowered with test taking strategies, the students in the sample group showed high anxiety in last 30 minutes of an important math exam.

Assuming all these findings in various studies, the aim of this thesis was to find out whether test taking strategies have positive effects on EFL learners' exam results or not, which can be generalized to other fields, and finally can be added to the syllabus to be used throughout the academic year as well.

2.2 Classification of Language Learning

There have been many studies which tried to classify learning strategies. The learners have received more attention in almost all studies on second language learning, so did the techniques they reported to use to overcome difficulties in second language learning. Language learning strategies, among these techniques, have been of great importance for the last 40 years (Brown, 2007; Baker and Boonkit, 2004; Oxford, 2003). Since it has taken place in several studies, there have been various definitions of language learning strategies. As Oxford (1989) stated, language learning strategies are the actions and behaviour used by the learners to make language learning more successful, self-oriented and meaningful. On the other hand, Stern (1983) mostly focused on learners' internal characteristic and learning conditions which affect learning outcomes.

2.2.1 Studies Related to Classification Types

There have been several studies on learning strategies and their classifications. The most prominent ones are Werden's Classification, Rubin's Classification, Oxford's Classification, O'Malley's Classification and Cohen's Classification. Werden (1983) focused on the strategies used by adult learners by leading self-learning processes whereas Rubin (1987) explained learning strategies by forming categories of cognitive, metacognitive, communication and social strategies. Similarly, Oxford (1990) focused

primarily on metacognitive, affective and social strategies, However, Oxford (1990) also referred to indirect learning strategies which involve various strategies such as arranging, evaluating, seeking opportunities, and focusing. Moreover, O'Malley and Cohen (2010) also classified learning strategies cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies.

2.2.1.1 Werden's Classification

Werden (1983) worked on the strategies that the adult foreign language learners use to direct their own learning. This type of classification was later named as metacognitive classification by O'Malley and Chamot (1994). There were mainly three self-directing categories in this classification:

- Having general idea about language and language learning process;
- Learning to relate how and what aspects of language learning;
- Self-evaluation, learning and learners' response to learning experience.

2.2.1.2 Rubin's Classification

According to Rubin's Classification, there are three major strategies: learning, communication, and social strategies. Language learning strategies are then categorized in cognitive, metacognitive, communication and social strategies, which affect the learners' language systems (Liu, 2010). Memorization, clarification, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning and monitoring are some of the strategies listed under cognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies involve planning, prioritizing, and self-management which require more complex cognitive processes. Rubin (1987) stated that cognitive and metacognitive strategies affect language learning directly whereas communication and social strategies affect language learning indirectly.

2.2.1.3 Oxford's Classification

Oxford has developed a system of language learning strategies, which is a more comprehensive and detailed classification compared to earlier studies according to Jones (1998). This classification is accepted as the most inclusive taxonomy of language learning strategies (Zare, 2012). The Figure 1 shows direct language learning strategies in Oxford's Classification.

Oxford's indirect language learning strategies consists of metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Indirect strategies support language learning indirectly but powerfully by employing various strategies such as arranging, evaluating, seeking opportunities, and focusing (Oxford, 1990).

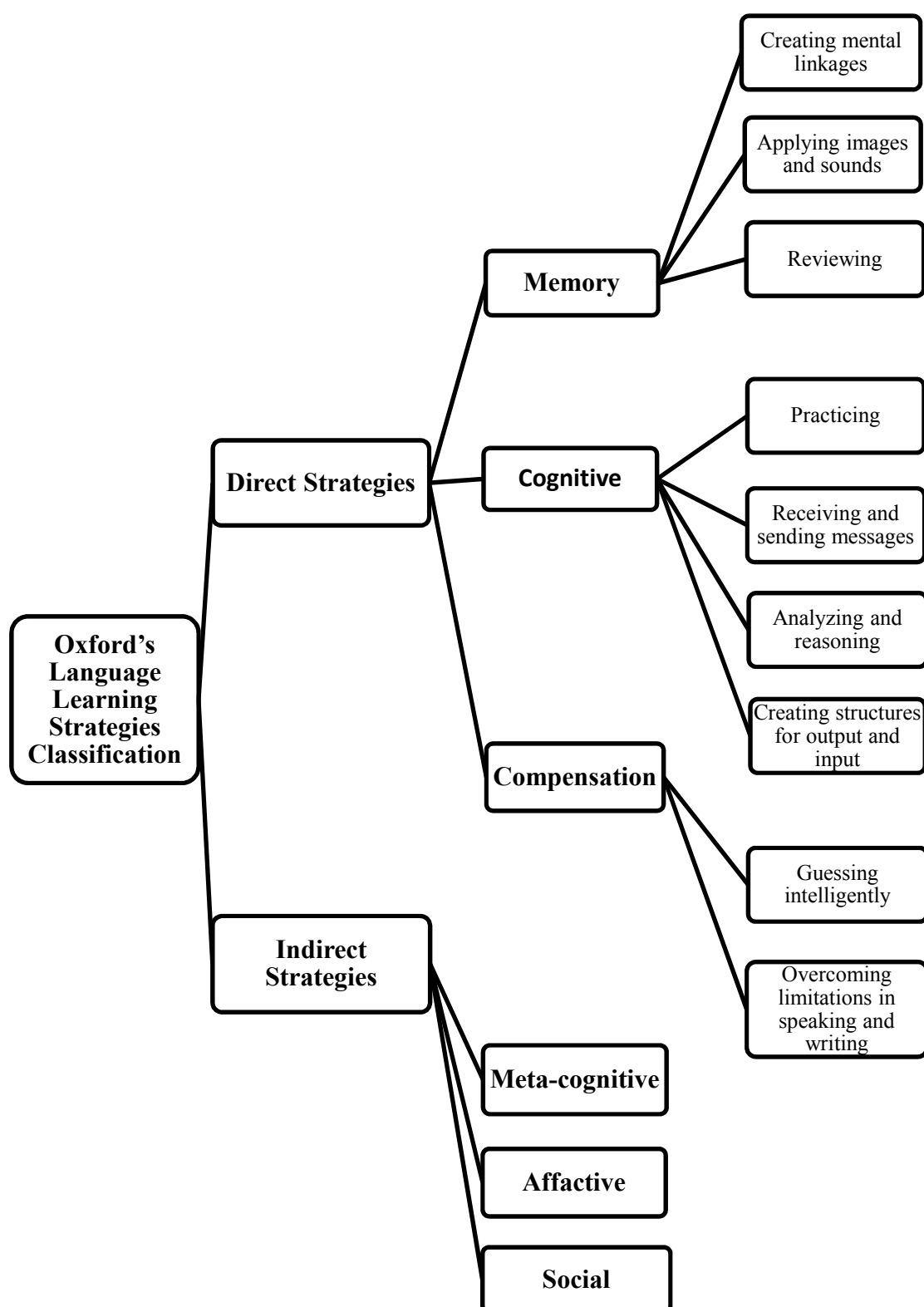


Figure 1. Oxford's language learning strategies classification

Sourca: Oxford, 2003.

2.2.1.4 O'Malley's Classification

Liu (2010) stated that O'Malley's classification came out as a result of the interviews with experts, novices and theatrical analysis of reading comprehension and problem solving. O'Malley's classification is divided into three sub-categories as: cognitive, metacognitive and affective (social) strategies. According to O'Malley, metacognitive classification involves knowing learning and controlling it through planning, monitoring and evaluating the learning activity. Cognitive strategies involve functioning and transformation of the materials which are to be learnt such as grouping, deduction, key word method, elaboration, summarizing, recombination, and translation (Liu, 2010). Social/affective strategies mainly include cooperation and question for clarification (Brown, 2007).

2.2.1.5 Cohen's Classification

According to Cohen (2010), language learning strategies are results of conscious selection of learning process by learners. Language learning strategies are classified under four categories: metacognitive, cognitive, affective and social strategies. Briefly, metacognitive strategies constitute the pre-assessment, pre-planning, process planning and evaluation, and post-evaluation of language learning and language use while cognitive strategies involve identification, grouping, retention and rehearsal, comprehension or production of word in second language. Affective strategies are more related to emotion, motivation, and attitudes towards second language. Social strategies encompass the language learning strategies of clarification and cooperation in order to interact with other learners and native speakers.

2.3 Reading

Reading has been defined in many sources, and all these definitions have made the concept of reading more apprehensible (Kantarıcı, 2006). While reading is accepted as the ability to understand a printed page and interpret appropriately (Grabe and Stoller, 2002), it is also viewed as an active process which includes identification and interpretation skills to understand it as a whole (Cohen, 1990). Reading has also been defined as a receptive language process (Goodman, 1988).

2.4 Studies on Reading Strategies and Reading Comprehension

There have been several studies (Baier, 2005; Çiçekoğlu, 2003; Du Plooy, 1996; Lie, 2011; Singhal, 1999; Spörer et al., 2009; Xia, 2011; and Yousefvand & Lotfi, 2011) on reading strategies and reading comprehension. These studies were primarily related to the effects of teaching reading strategies, direct and integrated instruction of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies, and the effects of different forms of strategy instructions on students' reading comprehension.

Du Plooy (1996) investigated the effects of teaching reading strategies and found that teaching reading strategies contributed significantly to two main areas of comprehension which were guessing meaning of a word from the context and finding the main idea in a passage. The results also suggested that strategy instruction would develop students' comprehension competence and for this reason, teachers were encouraged to insert the strategy instruction into everyday lessons.

Singhal (1999) also searched about the effects of reading strategy instruction on reading comprehension and found out that reading strategy instruction had great effect on enhancing reading comprehension and strategy use. The study showed that after the instruction process, there were increases in overall reading comprehension scores. Moreover, a web-based strategy instruction program was used in this study and it was effective in making ESL learners more aware of strategies.

Çiçekoğlu (2003), investigating the effects of direct and integrated instruction of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies, found out that reading strategy instruction did not any significant difference on students' performance after two weeks of strategy instruction. Although the findings of this study were not statistically meaningful, strategy instruction was still suggested since the research literature is full of studies that have proved otherwise.

Baier (2005) investigated the relationship between reading comprehension and reading strategies. The results revealed that twelve students out of fourteen demonstrated improvement in the reading comprehension scores, two students resulted in no difference, but there was no student that showed decline in scores.

Spörer et al. (2009) conducted a study with 210 elementary school students in order to investigate the effects of three different forms of strategy instructions on students' reading comprehension. Training students were practiced the new strategies in small groups (reciprocal) and it was found that training group attained higher scores

than traditional instruction group in both follow-up and post-tests. Also, students who practiced reciprocal teaching in small groups had better scores than instructor-guided and traditional instruction groups on a standardized reading comprehension test.

Yousefvand & Lotfi (2011) investigated the effect of reading strategy instruction on Iranian EFL students test performance. The results of this study showed that students especially exhibited improvement in detail questions and this was mainly based on the effects of scanning technique.

According to Xia (2011), total number of strategy use is irrelevant to test performance since the findings of this study revealed that unsuccessful students were observed to use more metacognitive strategies than successful learners. The results showed that using only metacognitive strategies is not enough for higher performance. In the same study, it was also revealed that poor language proficiency, lack of automaticity and low reading rate would be the most obvious reading obstacles.

Lie (2011) searched about the strategy use and its effects on test performance. The result of the study revealed that test takers with high scores used strategies significantly more frequently than test takers with low scores. It was also stated that strategies such as identification of important information by the discourse structure, vocabulary/sentence in context, and multiple-choice test-management were used significantly more frequently by test takers with high scores.

2.5 Models of Reading

Reading researches have been relatively recent since it was almost a hundred years ago when James McKeen published seeing and naming letters versus words. Model building for reading started even later in 1965, and the changes in language research and psychological study of mental processes have contributed to the increasing stature of reading. Until today, many researchers (Carroll, 1964; Ruddell, 1969; Goodman, 1976) have built different reading models. Most general models of reading are classified as bottom-up, top-down and interactive (Kantarci, 2006). According to bottom-up model, readers firstly recognize the smallest units, letters, and then combine these letters to obtain the whole (Carrel, 1984). It can be concluded from this model that lower level mental processes are followed by higher level mental processes, which starts with combining letters and ends in understanding sentences. Anderson (1999),

Aebersold & Field (1997) and Samuels & Kamil (1988), however, claimed that this model ignores the readers' ability to think and their backgrounds.

Top-down model, as opposed to bottom-up model, includes "conceptually-driven" models of reading which start with higher level mental processing (Carrell, 1984). In this model, the readers have a pre-set hypothesis and prediction which they compare and examine while reading (Anderson, 1999; Carrell, 1984; Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

Interactive reading model refers to the interaction between bottom-up and top-down models while it can also be thought to refer to the interaction between the readers and the text (Anderson, 1999; Carrell, 1984; Grabe & Stoller, 2002). This model suggests that using lower-level and higher-level mental processes at the same time promotes effective reading.

2.5.1 A Brief Identification Extensive and Intensive Reading

2.5.1.1 Extensive Reading

Extensive reading, which was firstly defined in pedagogy by Harold Palmer (1969) as reading several books respectively (cited in Day and Bamford, 1998) was later clarified with 10 principles obtained from successful extensive reading programs as listed below (Day and Bamford, 1998, p.7-8),

1. Students read as much as possible regardless of their context;
2. Students are provided a wide range of material so as to encourage reading;
3. Students can select their reading material and might give up if the material fails to get their interest;
4. The nature of the material and students' interest are the main factor to determine the main purpose of reading which might be related to pleasure, information, and general understanding;
5. Reading is a gain on its own and there is few or no follow-up exercises after reading;

6. The reading materials are designed according to students' proficiency level to prevent looking at dictionaries so often, which could disturb fluent reading;
7. Reading is individual, at students' own pace;
8. Reading occurs fast since students find the materials comprehensible;
9. Teachers provide guidance for students, follow their development and explains methodology if necessary;
10. Teacher is also a model of a good reader from whom students could observe the benefits and rewards of being a good reader.

2.5.1.2 Intensive Reading

Intensive reading theory, as opposed to extensive reading which is based on reading for pleasure, requires a deeper attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships (Brown, 1994). In the same vein, Long and Richards (1987) defined intensive reading as “detailed-in-class-analysis” of grammar and vocabulary in short texts, which is primarily directed by the teacher. In addition to these explanations, intensive reading was explained with its characteristic which could be listed as below (<http://fis.ucalgary.ca/Brian/611/readingtype.html>):

1. Classroom based reading activities;
2. Focusing on linguistic or semantic details of reading;
3. Focusing on surface structure details such as grammar and discourse markers;
4. Identifying key vocabulary;
5. Acquiring plenty of language knowledge rather than simply reading;
6. Fostering rapid reading and interpreting skills.

2.6 Reading Strategy Training and Models

According to Rubin (1981), strategies are not only confined to successful learners, but also could be learned by less successful learners. Similarly, O'Malley et al. (1994) states that “learning strategies of good language learners, once identified and successfully taught to less competent learners, could have considerable potential for enhancing the development of second language skills” (Liu, 2010). Hence, second

language teachers might a crucial role by leading learners how to learn and apply learning strategies to varied language activities and how to extend the strategies to new tasks both in classroom and other contexts. There have been several researchers who tested different models of strategy training to test strategy training.

2.6.1 Pearson & Dole's Model

Pearson & Dole's (1987) model basically consists of four stages which can be listed as: introduction, explanation, guided practice and independent practice. In this model, firstly the students are exposed to some strategies with the guidance of the teacher. Discussion with the students how, when, where and why the strategies are used is also an important part of the introduction. Following the introduction, the teacher defines the strategy and demonstrates its application with the teacher modelling. In guided practice part, the teacher and the students do some exercises so that the students might gain autonomy, and finally students try to do the same kinds of activities on their own without guidance from the teacher. Miceli et al. (2005) stated in their study on strategy training that in this model the students are directed by the teachers during the whole process, so they do not need to have prior knowledge about the strategy. The role of teacher is that of controller and manager.

2.6.2 Oxford's Model

Oxford's model is carried out step by step. In this model, learners

- are exposed a language task without instruction;
- realize the benefits of self-direction and importance of using strategies;
- are allowed plenty of time to practice the new strategy;
- have the opportunity to learn how to transfer the new strategy to other tasks;
- choose the strategies to complete a language task;
- evaluate their strategy usage process with a self-directed manner.

Oxford's model procedure is more flexible than the other models since it gives chance to adopt the procedure according to the learners' needs. However, inserting such a flexible model into a regular language program may not be easy (Liu, 2010).

2.6.3 Chamot's Model (CALLA)

Chamot et al. (1999) and Chamot (2005) designed the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) which is composed of six steps explained below.

- (1) *Preparation*: In this part, the teacher's main role is to activate the learners' previous knowledge and identify the learners' current strategies for familiar tasks.
- (2) *Presentation*: The teacher explains the strategies and gets feedback from learners about their previous experiences by asking when and how they have used it.
- (3) *Practice*: The learners apply new strategies with guidance of their teacher who eliminates the reminders gradually to encourage autonomous strategy use.
- (4) *Evaluation*: The learners evaluate their own strategy use after practicing the new strategy so that they can determine the effectiveness of their own learning.
- (5) *Expansion*: The learners transfer the new strategies into new tasks, group the strategies and associate them with their existing knowledge individually.
- (6) *Assessment*: In this part, assessment is done by teacher according to students' strategy use and its effect on performance.

2.6.4 Cohen's Model

Cohen's training model is Styles and Strategy- Based Instruction (SSBI) which is mainly learner-centred and includes both implicit and explicit integration of strategies into the course content. As it is learner-centred, the teacher has different roles such as "diagnostician, learner trainer, coach, coordinator, language learner, and researcher" respectively (Cohen, 1988). This model is considered to be useful for readers since it increases the learners' awareness of how to raise their comprehension and helps the learners to take the responsibility of their own learning.

2.6.5 Grenfell and Harris's Model

The model designed by Grenfell and Harris (1999) consists of six steps. As presented in Figure 2, raising the learners' awareness, modelling, general practice,

action planning, focused practice, and evaluation are the respective steps of this model. In the first step, the main purpose of the teacher is to foster learners' awareness of learning topics by providing sufficient and relevant context. Following the first step, modelling is set by the teachers which help learners get familiar with the benefits of reading strategies. The rest of the steps are general practice, action planning, focused practice, and evaluation are the respective steps of this model.



Figure 2. Grenfell and Harris's Model

2.7 Importance of Language Learning Strategies

Language learning requires a complex input process and for this reason, the learners should become familiar with language learning strategies. Language learning strategies are non-observable, but they can be a good indicator of how learners approach

a task or new situation encountered in language learning process. Namely, language learning strategies give language teachers important clues about the learners' attitude towards assessing the situation, planning, choosing suitable skills, learning and remembering new input (Hismanoglu, 2000). Fedderholdt (1997) have stated that language learners who are able to use several language learning strategies are better at improving their language skills. Metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies all have positive effect on learning time, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, using previous knowledge, and building up learner independence and autonomy. As Oxford (1990) states, language learning strategies are crucial to improve active and self-directed movement needed for developing communicative competence. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990) consists of six major strategy categories, namely memory, cognitive, metacognitive, compensatory, affective, and social strategies.

2.7.1 Memory Strategies

Memory strategies involve abilities like grouping, associating, and using imagery which enable learners to store and retrieve new information as cited by Demirel (2009). Practicing memory strategies starts at very early stages of human development, and very crucial to understand early memory development (Wellman, 1988). Oxford (1990) separated memory strategies from the category of cognitive strategies since memory strategies are particular mnemonic strategies which enable learners to store the information in the long-term memory and use when needed (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002).

2.7.2 Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are defined as strategies that enable learners to apprehend and produce new languages by making use of highlighting, analysing, and summarizing. According to Chamot (2004), cognitive strategies can be very operative in academic reading, writing, listening, and speaking tasks when they are combined with affective strategies.

2.7.3 Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies are usually defined as planning, organizing and evaluating one's own learning process (Oxford, 2003). Metacognitive strategies are also

a powerful indicator of language proficiency since they are an executive function over cognitive strategies as cited by Oxford (2003).

2.7.4 Compensatory Strategies

Compensatory strategies are the ones that are related to guessing from the context in listening and reading which enable learners to compensate the missing knowledge (Oxford, 2003).

2.7.5 Affective Strategies

As defined by Crossman and Behrens (1992), affective strategies are the ones that basically promote understanding of the emotions, the values and the motivation of the learners. Similarly, Oxford (2003) mentioned affective strategies as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for an achievement, using deep breathing and self-talk.

2.7.6 Social Strategies

Social strategies encompass the language learning strategies of clarification and cooperation in order to interact with other learners and native speakers (Cohen, 2010). In this vein, social strategies enable learners to work with others and get familiar with the target culture as well as the language as cited by Oxford (2003).

2.7.7 Difficulties of Strategy Training

Some factors may affect the implementation of strategy training although the training procedure is organized meticulously in advance. This might be the result of ignoring some features of strategy instruction or some other unexpected factors. Strategies may have different outcomes for individual learners and this may affect choosing the strategies to emphasize in strategy instruction (McDonough, 1995). Moreover, students' strategy preference for some texts may also differ as a result of their changing aims (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

As Rubin (1997) stated, the students might be unwilling to attend actively and taking responsibility of their own learning as an autonomous learner (as cited in Cohen, 1998). They may also stand against using new strategies and keep on believing that they are already good readers with their prior strategies (Hosenfeld, 1984).

Other than the difficulties related to different student profiles, some problem may occur due to the lack of experienced teachers in strategy application and instruction. Teachers are to prepare for the training and lead their learners in a flexible manner during the implementation. Teachers are also to observe the strategy use and practice in order to check and change techniques and approaches in accordance. For this reason, teachers themselves need a special training in advance to specialize in strategy training (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Pressley, 2002; Williams, 2002; Sinatra, Brown & Reynolds, 2001 as cited in Yetgin, 2003).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, overall design of the study is explained. Research design, the participant, instruments and data collection, and data analysis procedures are introduced.

3.2 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to determine the reliability and validity of the reading test which was supposed to be used as pre-test and post-test in this research. 50 preparatory class students who were studying at the school of foreign languages were given the reading test which consisted of 30 questions (six reading passages attached with five questions per each one). The main purpose of this pilot study was to adopt a reading test to conduct as pre- and post-test after analysing and ensuring reliability and validity. This test includes five types of questions which are based on “reading strategies training” listed below:

- Main idea Questions (MIQs)
- Detail Questions (DQs)
- Reference Questions (ReferQs)
- Vocabulary Questions (VocQs)
- Inference Questions (InferQs)

Upon consideration of the question types given above, the reliability coefficient of the test was measured with SPSS 16.0 computer program, and the results found are presented in Table 6.

Table 6.

Reliability Statistics of Pilot Test

KR-20	KR-20 Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,852*	,852	30

Note. N= Number of Questions, $p^{*}>, 7$

As illustrated in Table 6, all the items in the test correlated with the total test to a acceptable degree, and the test appeared to have reasonable consistency (KR-20 = .85).

To increase the validity of the test, the number of questions which was initially planned as 20 items was increased up to 30 items; the questions were reviewed by 25 English instructors working at the school of foreign languages. After the consensuses were reached; the results were obtained through optical scanner.

3.3 Research Design

The study was designed as an experimental study aiming to investigate the effects of reading test taking strategy training on learners' performance in reading tests considering how much face-to-face strategy training and online self-training affect the reading test performance.

At the beginning of the research, 250 students were given the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0 (Oxford, 1989) (see Appendix 1). The number of students below the mean score was 119, 30 of whom were selected randomly, and constituted the *Face to Face Strategy Training Group*. Another 30 students were randomly selected as *Online Self-training Group* whereas 30 other students became the *Control Group* of the study.

All the groups had a reading comprehension test (pre-test) and their results were analysed using SPSS 16.0. Then, *Face to Face Strategy Training Group* had six weeks of instruction on reading test taking strategies while *Online Self-training Group* were only provided with the names of the weekly topics and encouraged to search and learn about them on their own outside the classroom environment. During this process, the *Control Group* were excluded from any instruction other than the regular curriculum of the School of Foreign Languages.

At the end of the strategy training course (see Appendix 2), all the groups had the reading test (post-test) (see Appendix 3). Their results were analysed one more time with SPSS 16.0. To investigate whether the difference between the scores of each group are statistically significant or not, one way ANOVA was used.

Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used in accordance with the design of the study. The data obtained from questionnaire and multiple-choice reading comprehension test were analysed quantitatively using SPSS 16.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) to enhance the validity of the study. Also, to back up the qualitative data, audio record of participants' responses in semi-structured interview were analysed with content analysis by two Turkish Language instructors excluding the researcher.

3.4 Participants

Total number of students in 2013/2014 academic year at the School of Foreign Languages at Erciyes University was 3245. Mostly, these students come from the regional cities in order to continue their education at the university. Since they are enrolled in the university according to their performance in the university entrance exam, generally their scores are very close to each other. As shown in Table 7, the students' prospective departments were mainly Nursing, Engineering, and Economics and Administrative Sciences. There were 235 students whose prospective departments were various and since it could give no generalizable data as Nursing, Engineering and Economy departments, 235 students enrolled in other departments were excluded in this study.

Table 7.

Total population of Erciyes University the School of Foreign Languages in 2013/2014

	Nursing	Engineering	Economy	Others
Female	330	425	530	-
Male	160	845	720	-
Total (N=3245)	490	1270	1250	235

The study was conducted with preparatory class students at the School of Foreign Languages, Kayseri, Turkey (N=90). Students were randomly selected and divided into

3 groups (*Face to Face Training Group*, *Online Self-training Group*, and *Control Group*) as a result of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). It was displayed in Table 8 that 16 of female students were studying at the nursing department, 13 at the engineering and another 17 at the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (Female N = 46). The number male students in the study was 44, 10 of whom were studying at the Nursing Department, another 14 at the Engineering and 20 at the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (Male= 44).

Table 8.

Participants from the School of Foreign Languages

	Nursing	Engineering	Economy
Female	16	13	17
Male	10	14	20
Total (N=90)	26	27	37

The participants of this study are not distributed equally in terms of their genders. The main reason for this inequality was the total number of male and female students enrolled in these departments. For instance, the number of female students of nursing department far outnumbers the number of male students of the same department, which affects the distribution of the students in the study as well. Figure 3 clearly indicates the number of students in this study according to their departments.

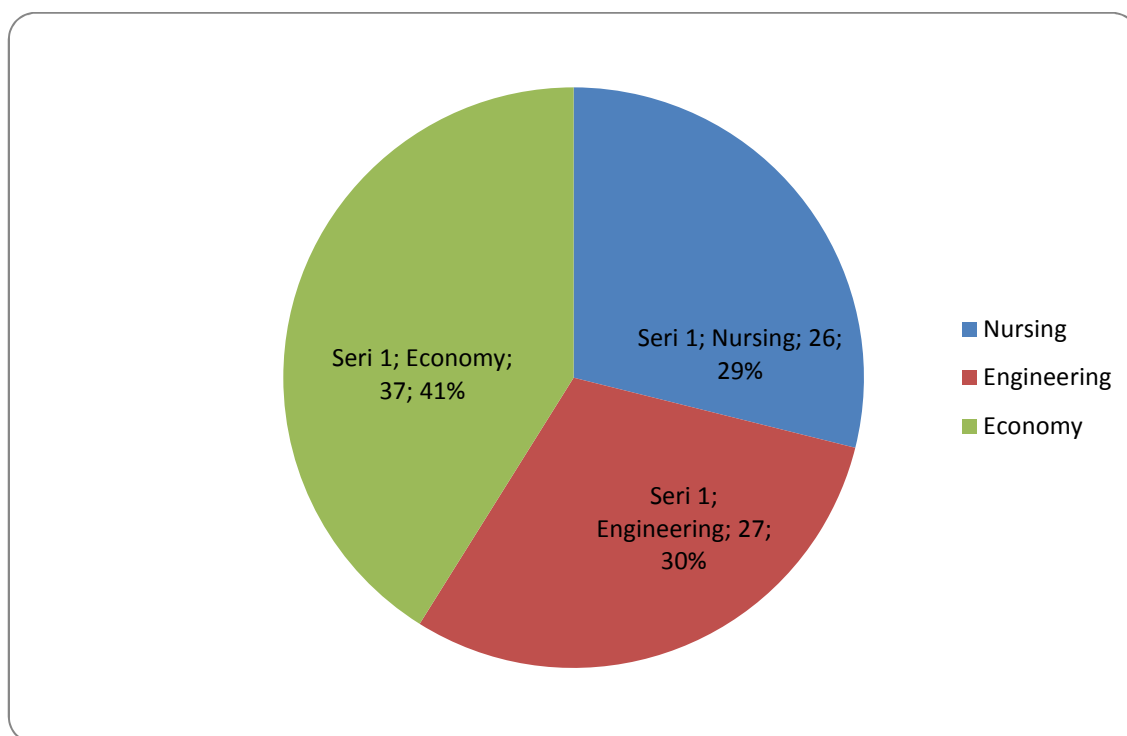


Figure 3. Percentages of participants according to their departments

Table 9 illustrates the distribution of the participants according to their prospective departments. 37 of the participants (41%) were enrolled in economy department while the number of participants in engineering department was 27 (30%) and in nursing department it was 26 (29%). All the participants (N= 90) in this study were from preparatory classes. Since they were enrolled according to their score in the university entrance exam, they shared a relatively similar educational background. They took a standardized university entrance exam, and were placed their departments in accordance with their achievement in this exam. Initially, 120 students were planned to take part in this study; yet, due to the insufficient training conditions at the School of Foreign Languages, the number of participants was reduced to 90.

The ages of the participants varied between 18 and 25. However, the variables of their age were out of the scope of this study.

Table 9.

Distribution of Participants in Research Groups

	Face to Face Training Group		Online Self-Training Group		Control group	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Nursing	3	6	3	5	4	5
Engineering	3	5	5	5	6	3
Economy	7	6	7	5	6	6
Total	30		30		30	

Totally, 90 participants (46 females and 44 males) took place in the study. Figure 4 indicates the distribution of participants' genders in percentages.

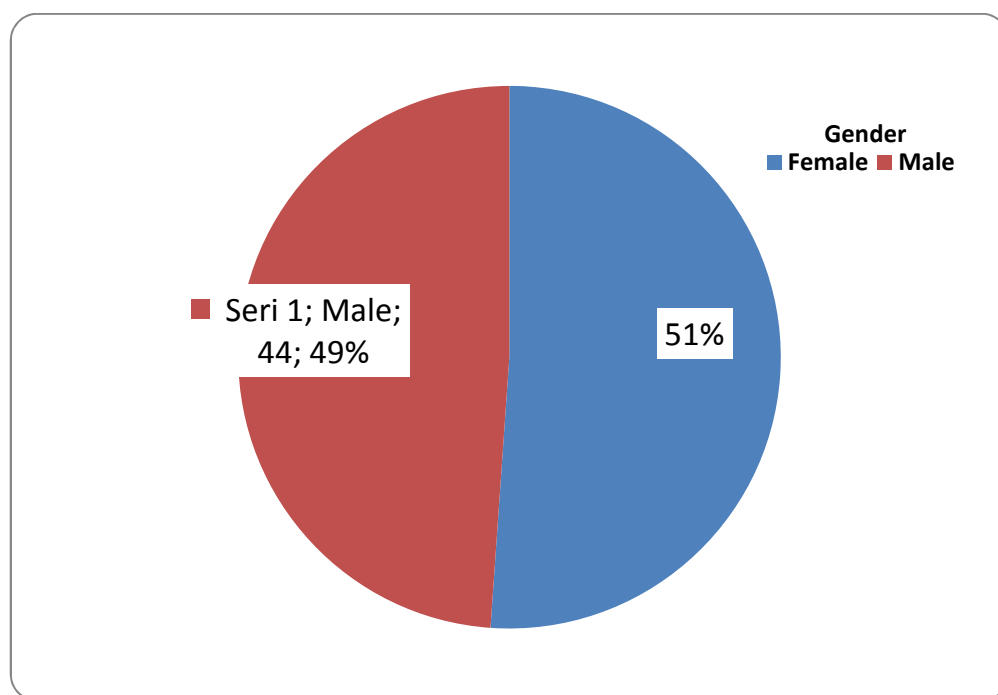


Figure 4. Percentages of genders in the study

As illustrated in Figure 4, 49% of the participants are females, 55% of the participants are males. Although, the gender aspect of the participants was explained in detail, this study focused on the effects of TTS on participants' success in a holistic manner rather than the gender effect. The information about the genders and educational

backgrounds of the participants might give light to other researchers for further studies on similar issues.

3.5 Reading Strategy Training Program

The participants in Group 1 were included in the training program (see Appendix 2) for six weeks. For this reason, this group was named as *Face to Face Training Group*. The participants in Group 2 were informed about the names of the weekly topics without giving any instruction. Instead, they were directed to search and reach about their learning source on their own. Therefore, the name of the group was decided as *Online Self-training Group*. The participants in Group 3 constituted the *Control Group* of the study.

The participants of *Face to Face Training Group* were supported with strategy training program which lasted six weeks. During the program, the participants of this group were exposed to reading strategies related to main idea question (MIQs), detail questions (DQs), vocabulary question (VocQs), reference questions (ReferQs), and inference questions (InferQs). The participants of *Online Self-training Group* were provided only with the names of the topic so that they were led to study and learn on their own. The participants of *Control Group* were not included in any training program. In the research process, the participants of *Control Group* were only provided with their regular curriculum, and with the weekly scheduled meetings of their language instructors, the researcher made it assured that these students were not exposed to any strategy training by any other instructor.

3.6 Research Questions

1. What is the nature of preparatory class students' awareness and attitudes towards language learning strategies?
2. Is there a significant difference among students' pre-reading test performance in terms of their awareness of test taking strategies?
3. Is there a significant difference among reading test performance of students who are exposed to test taking strategy training, students who are directed to study by themselves via online sources, and students who are rendered no strategy instruction?

4. What is the nature of students' perspective in dealing with a reading text as a result of the strategy training program?

3.7 Instruments

3.7.1 The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The data in this study was collected through a questionnaire adopted from the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0., which consisted of 50 items. The questionnaire was structured five point-Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me) (Cronbach Alpha 0.92) (see Appendix 1).

The 50 items in SILL were designed to assess six strategy skills cited by Oxford (1989) as memory, cognitive, compensatory, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies and item numbers are clearly indicated in Table 10.

Table 10.

Items of SILL

	Strategies	Item no
1	Memory strategies	1, 11, 15, 18, 25, 27, 32, 41, 42
2	Cognitive strategies	5, 9, 13, 19, 24, 30, 33, 37, 40, 43, 45, 46, 48, 50
3	Compensatory strategies	2, 6, 16, 26, 36, 44
4	Metacognitive strategies	4, 8, 10, 14, 20, 22, 28, 38, 47
5	Affective strategies	3, 12, 23, 29, 35, 49
6	Social strategies	7, 17, 21, 31, 34, 39

In the questionnaire, the items were graded as follows:

	value
Never or almost never true of me.....Asla bana uygun değil	1
Usually not true of me.....Bana uygun değil	2
Somewhat true of me.....Duruma göre değişebilir	3
Usually true of me.....Genelde bana uygun	4
Always or almost always true of me.....Her zaman bana uygun	5

3.7.2 Reading Comprehension Test

One of the data collection instruments used as pre- and post-test in this research was a reading comprehension test (see Appendix 3) developed by the testing committee at the School of Foreign Languages as a part of monthly exam. There were six reading passages and five questions for each text, which makes 30 questions in total. The questions were placed into five reading comprehension questions taxonomy according to their main purpose in the test. These groups were main idea questions, detail questions, vocabulary questions, inference questions, and reference questions.

This test's reliability was measured with a pilot study before the research procedure and its KR-20 value was 0.85.

3.7.3 Reading Comprehension Questions Taxonomy

The earliest and best known taxonomy was that of Bloom et. al., (1956). Although it was initially designed to classify educational objectives, it was later applied to different areas of instruction and evaluation. It basically consists of three main domains which were cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains which were very influential since this taxonomy emphasized the complexity of these domains. However, Bloom's taxonomy is very comprehensive and does not implicate reading comprehension and specific processes involved in understanding of a written text (Cheryl, L. et. al., 1997). For this reason, Herber (1978) attempted to relate Bloom's categories to reading comprehension, yet this taxonomy was not also detailed enough to cover reading comprehension.

Similarly, Barrett (1972) developed another taxonomy specific to questions related to reading comprehension. Barrett's taxonomy is far more detailed than the previous taxonomies and proposes four main categories:

- (a) literal recognition or recall,
- (b) inferences,
- (c) evaluation, and
- (d) appreciation.

Literal recognition focuses on the explicitly stated ideas and information, which refers to detail and main idea questions of comprehension tests. Inferential

comprehension depends on the students' statements regarding their reading process, which might include the ideas obtained from the text, students' intuition and personal experiences. Inferential comprehension basically relates to supporting details, main ideas, sequence, comparison, and predicted outcomes in a reading text. Evaluation part requires students to compare ideas, distinguish fact and opinion, and also define appropriateness of an idea to the text. Finally, appreciation involves all the previously cited cognitive dimensions of reading, for it calls for the students to be emotionally and aesthetically sensitive to the text, hence, appreciation includes both the knowledge and emotional response to forms, styles, and structures (Tatham, 1978).

Regarding the above cited taxonomies, there have been mostly five types of comprehension which could be used to help learners become interactive readers and successful test takers. These comprehension types are not intended to cover all possible interpretation of comprehension. However, they are thought to be useful to help the participant of this study become more active in the reading comprehension tests which include questions specifically related to main idea questions, detail questions, vocabulary questions, inference questions, and reference questions which will be presented in titles below.

3.7.3.1 Main Idea Questions (MIQs)

Main idea is the central point or primary focus of reading. Some of the most common indicators of main idea questions are usually phrases like focuses on, main idea, emphasize, primarily concerned with, author's point view. One of the examples of main idea questions in the pre- and post-test was "The main idea of this text is that.....", and totally, there were six main idea questions in the test.

The ability to determine the main idea is a crucial reading comprehension skill (Aulls, 1978; Harris & Sipay, 1980; Jolly, 1974). For this reason, in almost all proficiency exams, reading tests include main idea questions. Figure 5 illustrates an example of main idea questions used in this study.

The main idea of the passage is that_____.

- a. dinosaurs were the most savage animals
- b. people could hunt and feed on ancient creatures
- c. there have always been conflict between human and nature
- d. people always fought against dinosaurs

Figure 5. An example of main idea questions

3.7.3.2 Detail Questions (DQs)

Detail questions are often related to key facts about the supporting ideas in a text. These questions are based on one of the key facts or examples in the context of the overall main idea. For this reason, this type requires reading carefully for meaning and specific information mentioned implicitly or explicitly in the text. Yousefvand & Lotfi (2011) cited that improvement in detail questions might be mainly based on the effects of scanning technique, which was presented to the students during training program. Additionally, Yeh (2006) stated that scanning technique could be used effectively by the students to increase performance in the detail question. An example of detail questions used in the pre- and post-test of this study is indicated in Figure 6.

The writer advises students to_____ when they miss their family and friends.

- a. learn some of the language
- b. ask themselves some questions
- c. chat with other people
- d. read about the life in the country

Figure 6. An example of detail questions

3.7.3.3 Vocabulary Questions (VocQs)

As Jenkins et. al. (1984) cited, vocabulary knowledge might be acquired through incidental learning of word meanings from the context. However, vocabulary questions might ask for an independent word isolated from the context. Namely, vocabulary questions might be irrelevant with the topic of the reading passage and they might assess text-independent vocabulary competence of the learners. Yet, the most common vocabulary questions in proficiency exams are usually based on the context of the passage and primarily assess the learners' ability to identify the meaning of a word from the context. An example of vocabulary questions used in the pre- and post-test of this study is illustrated in Figure 7.

The word '<u>superfluous</u>' in line 10 means _____. a. necessary b. unnecessary c. important d. difficult
--

Figure 7. An example of vocabulary questions

3.7.3.4 Inference Questions (InferQs)

Drawing inference is one of the most essential parts of the comprehension process, even among young children (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). It is certain that even the simplest of text requires inferencing (Dole et al., 1991). Hence, inference questions are inevitable parts of reading comprehension tests. Moreover, inference questions require upper level mental involvement in the question since "infer" is to draw a logical conclusion from what is known or assumed to be true, in this case from what is written in the passage (Strategies for Answering Reading Questions, 2005). Figure 8 displays an example of inference questions from the pre- and post-test applied in this study.

- It can be inferred from the passage that_____.
- a. the people on the bus was not very happy during the trip
 - b. the people on the bus was thoughtful and happy
 - c. the people at the airport was bored because of waiting
 - d. the people from London are the best passengers.

Figure 8. An example of inference questions

3.7.3.5 Reference Questions (ReferQs)

Reference questions in reading comprehension usually ask the learners to find out what the author wanted to say with a phrase, generally an adverb. This question type is also very common in reading comprehension tests and assesses the learners' understanding of insinuating phrases or expression of the passage. In literature, reference questions are also cited within the scope of inference questions as in Yousefvand & Lotfi (2011). Figure 9 presents an example of reference questions used in the pre- and post-test of the study.

- The word '**they**' in line **11** refers to_____.
- a. the people on the bus
 - b. the people in the meeting
 - c. the people at the airport
 - d. the people from London

Figure 9. An example of reference questions

3.7.4 Semi-structured Interview

Defined as a verbal interchange where the interviewer elicit information from another person by asking question (Longhurst, 2003), a semi-structured interview was conducted in this study since it allows for a detailed response from the participants

rather than a “yes or no” answer. Nevertheless, in order to eliminate their anxiety and assure the fluency of the meeting, “yes or no” questions were included as warm up at the beginning of the interviews. The questions directed to participants during the interview was designed before the meetings, and listed as below:

- 1) Do you like reading course?
- 2) Are you pleased to be involved in this course? What are the advantages of this course for you in general?
- 3) What do you think are the most useful strategies for you to apply?
- 4) For what kind of questions can you use these strategies?
- 5) What do you think are the most difficult strategies for you to figure out?
- 6) Do you think your belief and confidence has enhanced in this strategy course?
- 7) Do you have any suggestions for this course to become more effective?
- 8) Do you suggest your friends should also attend such training programs?

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

The data in this study was mainly obtained through the “Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL)”, reading comprehension test designed by the testing committee of the School of Foreign Languages and interviews held with the students at different time intervals. As cited by Demirel (2009), SILL has been referred in more than 40 studies, 12 of which were doctoral dissertation. SILL has been translated into different languages and its internal reliability (Cronbach Alpha) has changed between .93 and .98

The participants were informed that involvement in the study was completely on a voluntary basis and their responses would be kept confidential. Therefore, they were assured that, out of the scope of this study, the result would never lead to any impact on their grades. The questionnaire forms were distributed to the participants by the instructors after official permission was obtained from the rector office of Erciyes University, Kayseri, Turkey (see Appendix 5).

In the research procedure, the reading test was applied with each group separately so that they would be isolated from the characteristic of other groups. The participants were unaware of the fact that they would take the same exam as a post-test

at the end of the procedure; therefore, they had no attempt to memorize the questions or pay more attention to keep the questions in their minds.

The interview was designed as semi-structured (see Appendix 4) and interview meetings were held in neutral context so as to prevent any hesitant response from the participants to be interviewed individually for almost 20 minutes. The proceedings were audio recorded and transcribed by two Turkish Language instructors excluding the researcher, and the records decoded were processed with content analysis. Initially, it was planned to video record the interviews; yet, some participants could have felt hesitant, distracted from the questions or behaved differently if they had known about video recording. Hence, the video recording was omitted from the interview process.

3.8.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

SPSS 16.0 statistical program was used in the data analysis part of the research. Descriptive statistics were taken from SPSS to present frequencies and percentage. Moreover, one-way ANOVA was applied to analyse the data obtained via third research questions since it is one of the most reliable ways of comparing more than two groups in statistic. Process of data collection and data analysis for each research question is presented in the following tables:

Table 11.

Data Analysis procedure for RQ1

Research Question 1	Instrument	Data Analysis Procedure
<i>What is the nature of preparatory class students' awareness and attitudes towards language learning strategies?</i>	Descriptive Analysis	To analyse the nature of preparatory class students' awareness and attitudes, descriptive statistic such as frequency and mean scores were computed via SPSS 16.0. The data obtained from the SILL were processed through descriptive statistic for each participant. Then, depending on the mean score, the participants who performed below the mean score of the population were randomly divided into groups so that the profile of participants would be relatively homogenous.

Table 12.

Data Analysis procedure for RQ2

Research Question 2	Instruments	Data Analysis Procedure
<i>Is there a significant difference among students' pre-reading test performance in terms of their awareness of test taking strategies?</i>	ANOVA	The data obtained from pre-test were analysed via descriptive statistic in order to investigate whether there is a significant difference among students' pre-reading test performance in terms of their awareness of test taking strategies. The findings of this research question were obtained via SPSS 16.0., and ANOVA was conducted to analyse the data.

Table 13.

Data Analysis procedure for RQ3

Research Question 3	Instrument	Data Analysis Procedure
<i>Is there a significant difference among reading test performance of students who are exposed to test taking strategy training, students who are directed to study by themselves via online sources, and students who are rendered no strategy instruction?</i>	ANOVA	Reading test performance of <i>Face to Face Training Group</i> and <i>Control Group</i> were analysed with one-way ANOVA in order to investigate the impacts of face to face strategy training on students test scores. Reading test performance of <i>Online Self-training Group</i> and <i>Control Group</i> were processed through one-way ANOVA to find out whether directing students to search and learn RTTS could give rise to an increase in students' reading test performance. Reading test performance of <i>Face to Face Training Group</i> and <i>Online Self-training Group</i> were investigated via one-way ANOVA to ascertain how strategy training would be more beneficial: face to face or self training.

3.8.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

The main purpose of the fourth research question was to provide qualitative data which was obtained through content analysis of audio records transcripts recorded during interview meetings. Table 14 clearly indicates the qualitative data analysis procedure:

Table 14.

Data Analysis procedure for RQ4

Research Question 4	Instrument	Data Analysis Procedure
<i>What is the nature of students' perspective in dealing with a reading text as a result of the strategy training program?</i>	Content Analysis	In the analysis of the qualitative data, the participants' responses in the semi-structured interviews were transcribed and processed through content analysis to find out the impact of strategy training program on the participants' point of view in dealing with a reading text.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Data Analysis Procedure

Data analysis procedure of this thesis consists of four steps, which are listed as questionnaire, reading comprehension pre-test, reading comprehension post-test, and semi-structured interview.

4.1.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study was adopted from Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL) Version 7.0 (Oxford, 1989) (see Appendix 1). The main purpose of the questionnaire was to find out the level of TTS awareness of the students. The questionnaire was structured five point-Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me) (see Appendix 1). 250 students who were enrolled and attending the school of foreign languages were given the questionnaire, and the Cronbach α of the SILL in this study was found as .93.

In the questionnaire, the items were graded as follows:

	value
Never or almost never true of me.....Asla bana uygun değil	1
Usually not true of me.....Bana uygun değil	2
Somewhat true of me.....Duruma göre değişebilir	3
Usually true of me.....Genelde bana uygun	4
Always or almost always true of me.....Her zaman bana uygun	5

As a result of the descriptive analysis of questionnaire, 119 students were below the mean score (M= 3.12 out of 5). From these students who were below the mean score, 30 students were randomly chosen as Group- 1 “*Face to Face Strategy Training Group*”, other 30 were randomly chosen as Group-2 “*Online Self-Training Group*” and 30 were again randomly chosen as Group-3 “*Control Group*”.

4.1.2 Reading Comprehension Pre- and Post- Test

The reading comprehension test consists of six reading passages, each of which has five questions related to several cognition aspects (see Appendix 3). Total number of questions in this test is 30. The questions are divided into five categories according to what they are planned to measure:

- Six Main Idea Questions (MIQs)
- Six Detail Questions (DQs)
- Six Vocabulary Questions (VocQs)
- Six Inference Questions (InferQs)
- Six Reference Questions (ReferQs)

4.1.3 Semi-Structured Interview

The participants in the *Face to Face Training Group* were interviewed at different time intervals (see Appendix 4). The main topic of the interview was learners' thoughts on strategies and strategy training in dealing with a reading text as a result of the strategy training program, and they were allowed to bring up new ideas during the interview. The participants were interviewed individually at intervals, which lasted approximately 20 minutes. The interview sessions were audio recorded and transcribed by two Turkish Language instructors excluding the researcher; the records were processed and categorized according to specific cognitive aspects with content analysis in order to elaborate the findings with qualitative data.

4.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

4.2.1 Analysis of Reading Comprehension Pre- and Post-test Results among Groups

The reading comprehension test was conducted with 90 students (*Face to Face Training Group*, *Online Self-training Group*, and *Control Group*) on the same day.

Table 15.

Pre-test Results of Participants out of 30 questions

Study Groups	N	Min.	Max.	M	Std. Deviation
Face to Face Training Group	30	9,00	16,00	11,9333	1,92861
Online Self-training Group	30	9,00	17,00	12,0667	1,91065
Control Group	30	8,00	16,00	12,0333	1,95613
Valid N (listwise)	30				

Note. N= number of participants, Min. = minimum score, Max. = Maximum score, M = Mean, Std. Deviation = Standard Deviation

The results in Table 15 demonstrate that the average number of correct answers out of 30 questions was 12.01 for all groups, each of which was as listed below:

- Mean (*Face to Face Training Group*) : **11.93**
- Mean (*Online Self-training Group*) : **12.07**
- Mean (*Control Group*) : **12.03**

The post-test was conducted at the end of the strategy training program. The results of post-test were recorded via optical scanner and the data were processed through descriptive statistic.

Table 16.

Post-Test Results of Participants out of 30 questions

Study Groups	N	Min.	Max.	M	Std. Deviation
Face to Face Training Group	30	13,00	26,00	20,1667	3,89592
Online Self-training Group	30	8,00	23,00	17,7333	3,82310
Control Group	30	7,00	21,00	15,5333	3,67408
Valid N (listwise)	30				

Note. N= number of participants, Min. = minimum score, Max. = Maximum score, M = Mean, Std. Deviation = Standard Deviation

Having a look at Table 16, it can be concluded that maximum increase in mean scores was seen in the results of *Face to Face Training Group* ($M = 20, 17$). However, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted on SPSS computer program to find out whether the differences between these groups are statistically meaningful or not.

4.2.2 Results of ANOVA

ANOVA is used to compare three or more groups of participants that are separate from one another. The groups of participants are independent from one another; that is, participants in one group have no relationship to participants in the other groups. In this study, there are three groups, each consisting of 30 participants who have no interrelations. Hence, one way between subjects ANOVA is the most suitable statistical analysis method for this research.

The reading comprehension test includes five different types of questions that were classified as six main idea questions (MIQs), six detail questions (DQs), six vocabulary questions (VocQs), six inference questions (InferQs) and six reference questions (ReferQs). The groups were analysed according to number of their correct answers from each question category with ANOVA on SPSS 16.0 computer program.

4.2.2.1 Results of One Way ANOVA for Main Idea Questions (MIQs)

Main idea question is a prevalent kind of comprehension measure, which was described as a crucial reading comprehension skill by some researchers (e.g. Aulls, 1978; Harris & Sipay, 1980; Jolly, 1974). In this vein, the reading comprehension test applied as pre- and post-test in this study included six main idea questions. As a result of the comparison of pre- and post-test, there was an increase in the mean scores of all the groups out of six MIQs. The mean for the face to face training condition is 1.67. The mean for the online self-training condition is 1.30 and the mean for the control condition is 0.77. The standard deviation for the face to face training condition is 0.55, the standard deviation for the online self-training condition is 0.60 and the standard deviation for the control condition is 0.77 (when rounded). The number of participants in each condition (N) is 30 and the number of questions is six.

Table 17.

Mean Values for the Correct Answer Increase in Main Idea Questions (MIQs)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Face to Face Training Group	30	1,6667	,54667
Online Self-training Group	30	1,3000	,59596
Control Group	30	,7667	,81720
Total	90	1,2444	,75418

Note. Number of total questions= 6, N= number of participants

The results in Table 17 demonstrate that there is an increase in the mean scores of all the groups, but the level of increase in each group is different. In order to determine whether the differences are statistically meaningful or not, MIQs results have been analysed with one way ANOVA, which is illustrated in Table 18.

Table 18.

ANOVA for Correct Answer Increase in MIQs

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12,289	2	6,144	13,945	,001
Within Groups	38,333	87	,441		
Total	50,622	89			

Note. Sig. = significance

Table 18 clearly indicates that the difference in the increase level in main idea questions was statistically meaningful for face to face training, online self-training and control conditions. There was a statistically significant effect of the independent variable, which was strategy training in this case, on test scores in main idea questions at the $p < .05$ level for the three conditions [$F(2, 87) = 13.95, p = 0.001$].

The impact of strategy training on answering main idea question was found to be statistically meaningful. However, because of the fact that ANOVA was not enough to

find out the source of difference among the groups, post hoc comparison using Tukey HSD statistic was also conducted.

Table 19.

Tukey HSD Correct Answer Increase in MIQs

(I) Experiment Groups	(J) Experiment Groups	Mean		Sig.
		Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	
face to face training	online self-training	,36667	,17139	,088
	control group	,90000*	,17139	,001
online self-training	face to face training	-,36667	,17139	,088
	control group	,53333*	,17139	,007
control group	face to face training	-,90000*	,17139	,001
	online self-training	-,53333*	,17139	,007

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test which is presented in Table 19 indicates that the mean score for the face to face training ($M = 1.67$, $SD = 0.55$) and the online self-training condition ($M = 1.30$, $SD = 0.60$) are significantly different from the control condition ($M = 0.77$, $SD = 0.82$). However, the face to face training condition ($M = 1.67$, $SD = 0.55$) indicate no difference when compared to the online self-training condition ($M = 1.30$, $SD = 0.60$), ($sig. = 0.088$, $p > .05$).

Taken together, these results suggest that face to face strategy training does really have an effect on students' performance in main idea questions. Specifically, the results suggest that when face to face strategy training is presented to participants along with reading lessons, the test performance of participants in MIQs tends to increase. It should be also noted that choosing online self-training might also have the same positive effect as the face to face training on participants' performance in MIQs. As a result, inserting strategy training into curriculum via either classroom sessions or individual learning might be beneficial for participants' performance in terms of MIQs.

The results of this analysis comply with research done by Du Plooy (1996) in terms of the effects of strategy training on main idea questions. Du Plooy (1996) states

that the reason why students learn and remember main idea strategies is that students find it easier because of their traditional reading comprehension activities which usually ask for main idea, theme of the passage or what the author tries to say. On the other hand, the findings displayed in Table 19 are not parallel with the study of Yousefvand & Lotfi (2011) who stated in their research that the students were most successful in detail questions rather than MIQs. They also attributed the low success in MIQs to insufficient vocabulary knowledge and the habit of reading every word in the passage.

4.2.2.2 Results of One Way ANOVA for Detail Questions (DQs)

There was an increase in the mean scores of all groups in DQs depending on the results of pre- and post-test. Having a look at Table 20, it can be seen that the least increase was seen in the *Control Group*. The mean for the face to face training condition is 1.3. The mean for the online self-training condition is 0.93 and the mean for the control condition is 0.3. The standard deviation for the face to face training condition is 0.47, the standard deviation for the online self-training condition is 0.52 and the standard deviation for the control condition is 0.60 (when rounded). The number of participants in each condition (N) is 30 and the number of questions is six.

Table 20.

Mean Values for the Correct Answer Increase in DQs

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
face to face training	30	1,3000	,46609
online self-training	30	,9333	,52083
control group	30	,3000	,59596
Total	90	,8444	,66891

Note. Number of total questions= 6, N= number of participants

As it is seen from Table 20, the mean values are different for each condition. In order to determine whether the differences are statistically meaningful, DQs results have been analysed with one way ANOVA, which can be seen in Table 21 below.

Table 21.

ANOVA for Correct Answer Increase in DQs

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	15,356	2	7,678	27,301	,001
Within Groups	24,467	87	,281		
Total	39,822	89			

Note. Sig. = significance

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of strategy training on detail question scores for face to face training, online self-training and control conditions as seen in Table 21. There was a significant effect of strategy training on test scores in detail questions at the $p < .05$ level for the three conditions [$F(2, 87) = 27.30, p = 0.001$].

The effect of strategy training in answering detail question was found to be statistically meaningful. In order to determine the source of difference among the groups, post hoc comparison using Tukey HSD statistic was conducted and the values obtained from Tukey HSD analysis are given below in the Table 22.

Table 22.

Tukey HSD Correct Answer Increase in DQs

(I) Experiment Groups	(J) Experiment Groups	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.
		Difference (I-J)		
face to face training	online self-training	,36667*	,13692	,024
	control group	1,00000*	,13692	,001
online self-training	face to face training	-,36667*	,13692	,024
	control group	,63333*	,13692	,001
control group	face to face training	-1,00000*	,13692	,001
	online self-training	-,63333*	,13692	,001

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the face to face training ($M = 1.3$, $SD = 0.47$) and the online self-training condition ($M = 0.93$, $SD = 0.52$) and the control condition ($M = 0.30$, $SD = 0.60$) were significantly different from one another. These results suggest that face to face strategy training does really have a positive effect on participants' performance in detail questions when compared to online self-training ($\text{sig.} = .024$, $p < .05$) and control condition ($\text{sig.} = .001$, $p < .05$). The difference between online self-training and control condition is also statistically meaningful ($\text{sig.} = 0.001$, $p < .05$), which suggests that online self-training might also be an alternative for face to face training.

Specifically, the results suggest that face to face strategy training in reading lessons increases the performance in detail questions, which is also same for online self strategy training. The result of this analysis is similar to the result of the study conducted by Yousefvand & Lotfi (2011). In their study, observed that Iranian EFL learners showed increase in the detail question after the strategy training process. As in the study conducted by Yousefvand & Lotfi (2011), improvement in detail questions might be mainly based on the effects of scanning technique, which was presented to the students during training program. Also in Yeh's study (2006), the participants' perspective were taken into consideration and it showed that scanning technique was used effectively by the students, which might be the reason of increase in the detail question performance.

4.2.2.3 Results of One Way ANOVA for Vocabulary Questions (VocQs)

Upon the comparison of pre- and post-test scores in terms of vocabulary questions, it was found that there was an increase in the mean values for all the groups. It can be seen in Table 23 that the mean for the face to face training condition is 0.97. The mean for the online self-training condition is 0.80 and the mean for the control condition is 0.70. The standard deviation for the face to face training condition is 0.56, the standard deviation for the online self-training condition is 0.41 and the standard deviation for the control condition is 0.60 (when rounded). The number of participants in each condition (N) is 30 and the number of questions is six.

Table 23.

Mean Values for the Correct Answer Increase in VocQs

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
face to face training	30	,9667	,55605
online self-training	30	,8000	,40684
control group	30	,7000	,59596
Total	90	,8222	,53165

Note. Number of total questions= 6, N= number of participants

The mean values were different for each condition, but to find out whether the differences were statistically significant, one way ANOVA was conducted in this case and results are presented in Table 24 below.

Table 24.

ANOVA for Correct Answer Increase in VocQs

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1,089	2	,544	1,968	,146
Within Groups	24,067	87	,277		
Total	25,156	89			

Note. Sig. = significance

One way ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of strategy training on vocabulary question scores for face to face training, online self-training, and control conditions. It can be concluded from the results illustrated in Table 24 that there was not a significant effect of strategy training on test scores in terms of vocabulary questions at the $p < .05$ level for the three conditions [$F(2, 87) = 1.97$, $p = 0.146$]. Since the difference is not statistically meaningful, it was unnecessary to apply a post hoc comparison.

These findings suggest that the differences between the means of vocabulary test scores are non-directly caused by strategy training manipulation. This result complies with the findings of Çiçekoğlu (2003), which revealed that reading strategy instruction

failed to cause any significant difference on students' performance after two weeks of strategy instruction.

However, the results obtained from ANOVA for correct answer increase in VocQs are in contradiction with the result of the research done by Du Plooy (1996), since in that research it was found out that strategy training would increase students' competence especially when guessing meaning of a word from the context and finding the main idea in a passage.

Although strategy training seems unnecessary in terms of increasing vocabulary question performance, it would have different results under different circumstance as there are several studies which found out otherwise.

4.2.2.4 Results of One Way ANOVA for Inference Questions (InferQs)

As indicated in Table 25, descriptive analysis results showed that the mean for the face to face training condition is 1.67. The mean for the online self-training condition is 1.23 and the mean for the control condition is 0.8. The standard deviation for the face to face training condition is 0.60, the standard deviation for the online self-training condition is 0.50 and the standard deviation for the control condition is 0.85 (when rounded). The number of participants in each condition (N) is 30 and the number of questions is six.

Table 25.

Mean Values for the Correct Answer Increase in InferQs

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
face to face training	30	1,6667	,60648
online self-training	30	1,2333	,50401
control group	30	,8000	,84690
Total	90	1,2333	,75028

Number of total questions: 6, N= number of participants

The mean values were different for each condition; nevertheless, in order to find out whether the differences were statistically significant, one way ANOVA was conducted and results are presented in Table 26 below.

Table 26.

ANOVA for Correct Answer Increase in InferQs

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	11,267	2	5,633	12,621	,001
Within Groups	38,833	87	,446		
Total	50,100	89			

Note. Sig. = significance

As seen in Table 26, one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of strategy training on inference question scores for face to face training, online self-training and control conditions. There was a significant effect of strategy training on test scores in inference questions at the $p < .05$ level for the three conditions [$F(2, 87) = 12.62, p = 0.001$].

The effect of strategy training in answering InferQs was found to be statistically meaningful. In order to determine the source of difference among the groups, post hoc comparison using Tukey HSD statistic was conducted. The values obtained from Tukey HSD analysis are presented in Table 27.

Table 27.

Tukey HSD Correct Answer Increase in InferQs

(I) Experiment Groups	(J) Experiment Groups	Mean		Sig.
		Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	
face to face training	online self-training	,43333*	,17250	,037
	control group	,86667*	,17250	,001
online self-training	face to face training	-,43333*	,17250	,037
	control group	,43333*	,17250	,037
control group	face to face training	-,86667*	,17250	,001
	online self-training	-,43333*	,17250	,037

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the face to face training ($M = 1.6$, $SD = 0.61$) and the online self-training condition ($M = 1.2$, $SD = 0.50$) and the control condition ($M = 0.80$, $SD = 0.85$) were significantly different from one another. These results suggest that face to face strategy training does really have an effect on students' performance in inference questions when compared to online self-training ($\text{sig.} = .037$, $p < .05$) and control condition ($\text{sig.} = .001$, $p < .05$). The difference between online self-training and control condition is also statistically meaningful ($\text{sig.} = 0.037$, $p < .05$).

Given together, the results suggest that face to face strategy training in reading lessons increases the performance in inference questions, which is also same for online self strategy training. However, face to face strategy training is found to increase the performance more than online self-training does ($\text{sig.} = .037$, $p < .05$).

Although there are relatively few studies related to inference question in reading text, some studies such as Brown, Pressley, Van Meter, and Schuder's (1996) and Sporer, Brunstein, and Kieschke (2009) have mentioned in general context the effects of strategy instruction on inference question performance. In terms of inference question the results of this study supported the findings of Brown, Pressley, Van Meter, and Schuder's (1996) and Sporer, Brunstein, and Kieschke (2009).

4.2.2.5 Results of One Way ANOVA for Reference Questions (ReferQs)

As a result of the comparison of pre- and post-test, there was an increase in the mean scores of all the groups out of six ReferQs, which can be seen in Table 28. The mean for the face to face training condition is 1.83. The mean for the online self-training condition is 1.40 and the mean for the control condition is 0.93. The standard deviation for the face to face training condition is 0.59, the standard deviation for the online self-training condition is 0.67 and the standard deviation for the control condition is 0.58 (when rounded). The number of participants in each condition (N) is 30 and the number of questions is six.

Table 28.

Mean Values for the Correct Answer Increase in ReferQs

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
face to face training	30	1,8333	,59209
online self-training	30	1,4000	,67466
control group	30	,9333	,58329
Total	90	1,3889	,71413

Number of total questions: 6, N= number of participants

As indicated in Table 28, the mean values are different for each condition. In order to determine whether the differences are statistically meaningful, ReferQs results have been analysed with one way ANOVA, which can be seen in Table 29 below.

Table 29.

ANOVA for Correct Answer Increase in ReferQs

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12,156	2	6,078	15,911	,001
Within Groups	33,233	87	,382		
Total	45,389	89			

Note. Sig. = significance

As a result of a one-way between subjects ANOVA, which was conducted to compare the effect of strategy training on reference question scores for face to face training, online self-training and control conditions, there was a significant effect of strategy training on test scores in reference questions at the $p < .05$ level for the three conditions [$F(2, 87) = 15.91, p = 0.001$].

The effect of strategy training in answering reference questions was found to be statistically meaningful. Post hoc comparison using Tukey HSD statistic was conducted to find out the source of difference among the groups, which can be seen in Table 30.

Table 30.

Tukey HSD Correct Answer Increase in ReferQs

(I) Experiment Groups	(J) Experiment Groups	Mean		Sig.
		Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	
face to face training	online self-training	,43333 [*]	,15958	,022
	control group	,90000 [*]	,15958	,001
online self-training	face to face training	-,43333 [*]	,15958	,022
	control group	,46667 [*]	,15958	,012
control group	face to face training	-,90000 [*]	,15958	,001
	online self-training	-,46667 [*]	,15958	,012

^{*}. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the face to face training ($M = 1.83$, $SD = 0.59$) and the online self-training condition ($M = 1.4$, $SD = 0.67$) and the control condition ($M = 0.93$, $SD = 0.58$) were significantly different from one another. These results suggest that face to face strategy training does really have an effect on participants' performance in terms of reference questions when compared to online self-training ($\text{sig.} = .022$, $p < .05$) and control condition ($\text{sig.} = .001$, $p < .05$). The difference between online self-training and control condition is also considered statistically meaningful ($\text{sig.} = 0.012$, $p < .05$).

Given together, the results suggest that face to face strategy training in reading lessons increases the performance in ReferQs, which is also same for online self strategy training. However, face to face strategy training is found to increase the performance more than online self-training does ($\text{sig.} = .022$, $p < .05$).

A similar analysis of reference question as a result of pre- and post-test scores depending on the strategy training was available in Yousefvand & Lotfi's (2011) research. Their findings revealed that strategy instruction had positive impact on students' performance in reading test especially in detail questions. They also stated that students' performance was not statistically meaningful in main idea, inference and vocabulary questions. Although reference question results in pre- and post-test were shown in their study, there were not any discussions or comments about the percentages

of correct answers in reference questions, which were 46% and 50% in pre-test, 54% and 50% in post-test.

4.3 Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data of this thesis were obtained via a semi-structured interview held with participants in face to face training group one by one at different time intervals in a neutral context. The aim of this interview was to find out the possible impact of strategy training on participants' confidence and autonomy when dealing with a reading text.

Interview meetings were held in neutral context so as to prevent any hesitant response to the questions: "1) *Do you like reading course?* 2) *Are you pleased to be involved in this course? What are the advantages of this course for you in general?* 3) *What do you think are the most useful strategies for you to apply?* 4) *For what kind of questions can you use these strategies?* 5) *What do you think are the most difficult strategies for you to figure out?* 6) *Do you think your belief and confidence has enhanced in this strategy course?* 7) *Do you have any suggestions for this course to become more effective?*, and 8) *Do you suggest your friends should also attend such training programs?*" The participants were interviewed individually for almost 20 minutes with these eight questions. The proceedings were audio recorded and transcribed by the researcher, and the records were processed with content analysis.

The participants in *Face to Face Training Group* were interviewed individually and they were asked eight questions related to the instruction procedure in order to get their ideas. Most of the participants stated that the instruction procedure was very beneficial for them. For instance, P21 stated that "...*This training program was very useful for me. I wish I had attended such a program when I was at high school...*" However, some of the participants expressed that instead of applying this course as a separate lesson, integrating it with the regular schedule would result in better scores in favour of the learners. For instance, P02 stated that "*Why don't we learn these strategies in the reading lessons? I could have the chance to learn and apply the strategies in different passages.*"

During the interview, each participant was directed eight questions some of which were dramatically emphasized by the participants. Mostly, they reported the strategies as useful and practical, and difficult to apply for them. The participants'

perspectives were grouped as “*The Strategies Reported as Useful and Practical in the Interview*”, and “*The Strategies Reported as Difficult to Apply in the Interviews*”, which are indicated in Table 31 and Table 32.

Table 31.

The Strategies Reported as Useful and Practical in the Interviews

Strategies Reported as Useful and Practical	NP
Finding the main idea	16
Detecting the question types	13
Skimming	8
Scanning	8
Switching reference word to crosscheck the answer	6
Guessing the vocabulary in the context	2
Using background knowledge	2
Drawing inference	2

Note. NP = The number of participants

As illustrated in Table 31, the participants’ responses revealed that the most useful and practical strategies were finding the main idea and detecting the question types since they were the most frequently repeated strategies. Reported by 16 participants, finding the main idea was found to be the most useful and practical strategy as exemplified by the participants in the following excerpts:

P03: *If we know the main idea of a text, then I can answer almost every question related to it. Before the instruction, I was able to answer the main idea questions as well. However, now I am aware of the strategies so that I can crosscheck my answers. Since they are the most common question types in our exams, finding the main idea is the most useful and practical strategy for us.*

P12: *Finding the main idea and Detecting the question types are very easy but useful strategies. You don’t have to read all the long text to find the main idea. Even just by reading the first and last sentences, one can find main*

idea of a passage in the reading exams. For this reason, these strategies are very practical to save time.

As P03 and P12 reported in the interview, finding the main idea and detecting the question types were the most useful and practical strategies as main idea questions were very common and easy to answer in the exams, which, they assumed, facilitated saving time in reading exams.

Detecting the questions types are the second primarily important strategy stated by the participants as useful and practical ones as given by the following excerpt:

P07: *Detecting the question types, I think, is the most important strategy that we learned in this program. The reason is very clear: if we don't know what type of question we come across, then, we fail to choose appropriate strategy to apply.*

Skimming and scanning were also reported as useful and practical by the participants. Eight participants reported these two strategies together, which might be easy for them to remember skimming and scanning combined. The following excerpt displays why skimming and scanning were useful for participants.

P21: *Skimming and scanning are very useful for us since they help us a lot to understand the text actually. If one can apply skimming and scanning, he can understand the text and answer even the detail questions about it. For this reason, skimming and scanning are the most useful strategies.*

As reported by P21, some participants found skimming and scanning very useful and practical since they made the detail questions easy to answer for them.

The strategies which were less frequently reported as useful and practical are switching reference word to crosscheck the answer, guessing the vocabulary in the context, using background knowledge and drawing inference respectively. These strategies were also instructed to participants during the strategy instruction in detail. However, the participants probably did not recall these strategies during the interview. This finding illustrates that participants might neglect them during the exams as well.

One of the excerpts about switching reference word to crosscheck the answer was recorded as below:

P13: *I learned how to check my answers in reference questions by switching the reference word. It is very practical for me since I had to read all the passage before I learned this strategy.*

Guessing the vocabulary in the context was mentioned by merely two participants, which strengthened the findings of post-test in which there were not statically meaningful impacts of strategy training on vocabulary question scores. However, although drawing inference and switching reference word to crosscheck the answer were among the less frequently repeated strategies, post-test exam results contradict with this finding, because there was statistically meaningful impact of strategy instruction on participants' performance in reference and inference questions. The reason for this contradiction might be due to the fact that the participant probably forgot the names of the strategies even if they applied it in the exams, or they might have accepted these strategies as difficult ones while learning in training program.

Table 32.

The Strategies Reported as Difficult to Apply in the Interviews

Strategies Reported as Difficult to Apply	NP
Guessing the vocabulary in the context	14
Drawing inference	10
Switching reference word to crosscheck the answer	5

Note. NP = The number of participants

The most difficult strategies to apply for participants are guessing the vocabulary in the context and drawing inference, which was shown in Table 32. Reported by 14 participants, guessing the vocabulary in the context was thought to be the most difficult reading strategy among participants as exemplified by the following excerpts:

P19: *Actually, the most difficult questions are vocabulary questions in the reading tests, because if you don't know the meaning, then there is*

nothing to do. I know, guessing the vocabulary in the context is a very useful strategy for this problem but it is not easy to apply because mostly there are some other words in the context that I don't know the meaning.

As reported by P19 and some other participants, they had difficulty in answering vocabulary questions since they had failure to guess the meaning of the neighbour words in the context as well.

P29: *Guessing the vocabulary in the context seemed to be easy at first during the training program. However, I realized that in the monthly exam that I could not apply it because there were a lot of words with difficult meanings in the passage. I could understand the main ideas but vocabulary questions were generally disadvantageous for me.*

As reported in the excerpts of P19 and P29, participants had difficulty in applying vocabulary question strategies and answering vocabulary questions as a result. The participants' reports in the interview complied with the post-test results. According to post-test results, which were displayed in quantitative data analysis part, the strategy training had a failure to create a meaningful impact on participants' performance in vocabulary question and the content analysis of the interview revealed that participants were aware of both this fact and their performance.

According to post-test results, there was a statistically significant increase in participants' performance in inference questions. However, reported by 10 participants, drawing inference was accepted as one of the most difficult strategies for the participants. This might be because although participants had difficulty in applying inference strategies, they could answer inference questions in the post-test successfully.

The data obtained from qualitative analysis indicated that participants formed different ideas on strategies during the training program. It was clear that they gained a perspective regardless of their positive or negative attitudes toward strategies. These findings were in the same vein with the Kantarcı's (2006) and Lie's (2011) in terms of strategy awareness and practicality of successful learners.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1 Overview of the Study

The aim of this study was to find out the effects of reading test taking strategies on participants reading test performance at preparatory class level. The number of research on this topic is very limited in Turkey and for this reason; this thesis was believed to be beneficial to understand and get familiar with the possible effects of strategy training along with the regular curriculum on participants' reading test achievement.

The study was carried out with 90 preparatory class students at School of Foreign Languages, Erciyes University, Kayseri, Turkey. All the participants in the study were chosen and divided into groups randomly. The data obtained in this thesis were analysed with both qualitative and quantitative methods. The quantitative data were processed through SPSS 16.0 for Windows and the qualitative data gathered from the semi-structured interview were analysed considering the basis of content analysis.

The study also analysed the participants' attitudes towards strategies in terms of difficulty and practicality. The semi-structured interview conducted at the end of the strategy training instruction gave substantial data in this vein.

The data gathered in this study were collected through three instruments: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1989), reading pre- and post-test, and semi-structured interview. The first data collection instrument was SILL, the validity and reliability of which was measured by Demirel (2009) as well. The reliability of SILL was found .93 in this study, which was in accordance with previous studies' findings. The second data collection instrument was the reading test including 30 questions based on main idea, vocabulary, inference, reference and detail. The KR-20 value of this reading test was found as 0.85 in the study. This test was conducted prior to the strategy training program as the pre-test and at the end of the strategy training program as the post-test. The last data collection instrument was a semi-structured interview dealing with the students' attitudes towards strategy training program and strategies instructed to them during the training process.

The data obtained from the SILL were processed through descriptive statistic for each participant. Then, depending on the mean score, the students who performed below the mean score of the population were randomly divided into three groups: *Face to Face Training Group*, *Online Self-training Group*, and *Control Group*.

5.2 Conclusions and Discussions

5.2.1 What Is The Nature Of Preparatory Class Students' Awareness And Attitudes Towards Language Learning Strategies?

With regard to the first research question about the nature of preparatory class students' awareness and attitudes towards language learning strategies, 250 students were given SILL in order to determine the students who were below the mean point of awareness. The results of the questionnaire indicated that almost half of the students who took the questionnaire were below the mean score. 119 students were below the mean score ($M = 3.12$) out of 5 points. From these students, three groups (*Face to Face Training Group*, *Online Self-training Group*, and *Control Group*) each consisting of 30 students were randomly formed.

Upon considering the qualitative data obtained via SILL, it was found that a big part of the students (46.2%) were either not informed well enough on language learning strategies or were not aware of what the language learning strategies meant, and even had no idea about how they were applied in their learning processes. This data came out as a result of the group formation of this study which was mainly based on the results of SILL (Oxford, 1989) and the answer to the first research question.

5.2.2 Is There A Significant Difference Among Students' Pre-Reading Test Performance In Terms Of Their Awareness Of Test Taking Strategies?

Upon considering the second research question of whether there was a significant difference among students' pre-reading test performance in terms of their awareness of test taking strategies, it was found that all the groups had very close scores from the pre-test and this might be an indicator of SILL's compliance with the pre-test used in this study, because the students whose results were low in SILL had also low marks in the pre-test. This outcome seems parallel with the results of the findings by Lie (2011) who claimed that test takers with high scores used strategies significantly more frequently than test takers with low scores. Additionally, in this study, it was observed

that strategies such as identification of important information by the discourse structure, vocabulary/sentence in context, and multiple-choice test-management were used significantly more frequently by test takers with high scores.

The findings related to second research question, though in compliance with the finding of Lie (2011), do not seem parallel with the results of the findings by Xia (2011) who claimed that total number of strategy use is not related to test performance since the findings of this study revealed that unsuccessful students were observed to use more metacognitive strategies than successful learners. In the same study, it was also revealed that poor language proficiency, lack of automaticity and low reading rate would be the most obvious reading obstacles.

Taking into account the second research question of whether there was a significant difference among students' pre-reading test performance in terms of their awareness of test taking strategies, it can be concluded that the similarity of the students' pre-test results at the very beginning of the study may result from the group formation which was done according to students' scores in SILL (Oxford, 1989).

5.2.3 Is There A Significant Difference Among Reading Test Performance Of Students Who Are Exposed To Test Taking Strategy Training, Students Who Are Directed To Study By Themselves Via Online Sources, And Students Who Are Rendered No Strategy Instruction?

Regarding the third research question, which investigated whether there was a significant difference among reading test performance of students who are exposed to test taking strategy training, students who are directed to study by themselves, and students who do not receive any strategy instruction, the students who took test taking strategy instruction were named as *Face to Face Training Group*, the students who were directed to study by themselves were named as *Online Self- Training Group*, and the other group who do not take any instruction was formed as the *Control Group* of the study.

5.2.3.1 Face to Face Training vs. Control Group

A statistically significant difference was found in terms of main idea, inference, reference, and detail questions results of *Face to Face Training Group* and *Control Group*. However, there was not a statistically significant difference in terms of

vocabulary questions. The details of the findings are given below for each question type:

Main idea questions: The effect of strategy training on students' performance in main idea questions was found to be statistically significant at .001 levels. The performance increase in *Face to Face Training Group* ($M = .77$, $SD = .82$) was found to be higher than the *Control Group* ($M = 1.67$, $SD = .55$). This finding seems to be in parallel with the study conducted by Du Plooy (1996) in terms of the effects of strategy training on main idea questions. This might stem from their traditional reading comprehension activities which usually ask for main idea, theme of the passage or what the author implies.

Detail questions: Strategy training was found to have statistically significant effects on students' performance in detail questions at .001 levels. The performance increase in *Face to Face Training Group* ($M = 1.30$, $SD = .47$) was found to be higher than the *Control Group* ($M = .30$, $SD = .60$). The findings in this vein comply with the findings of the study conducted by Yousefvand & Lotfi (2011) which claimed that the reason of significant performance increase of detail questions might be the scanning technique which was reported to be useful and practical by most of the students in the study. The findings were also in parallel with the study conducted by Yeh (2006) which found out that scanning technique was used effectively by the students.

Vocabulary questions: There was no significant effect of strategy training on test scores in terms of vocabulary questions; in other words, strategy training failed to cause any meaningful difference in the performance of *Face to Face Training Group* when compared to *Control Group*. As a result of ANOVA ($\text{sig} = .146$), it was revealed that the difference was not caused by strategy training. In this context, the results were in parallel with the findings of Çiçekoğlu (2003), which were based on the fact that reading strategy instruction failed to bring about any significant difference on students' performance after two weeks of strategy instruction. However, the time constraints in this study might also be a negative factor; because the findings of Du Plooy (1996) displayed that strategy training would increase students' competence especially when guessing meaning of a word from the context. For this reason, vocabulary might still be a crucial part of reading strategy training although it was found to be ineffective in this study. Moreover, a more detailed and long-term study would be suggested to investigate vocabulary question since vocabulary strategies might ask for a longer period of time to perform after learning.

Inference questions: As a result of the statistical analysis, it was found that strategy training was affirmative in enhancing scores in inference questions at .001 levels. The performance increase in *Face to Face Training Group* ($M = 1.67$, $SD = .61$) was found to be higher than the *Control Group* ($M = .80$, $SD = .85$), which was statistically significant at .001 levels. In this vein, the findings were in parallel with the findings of study conducted by Sporer et al. (2009), which indicated that students who practiced reciprocal teaching in small groups had better scores than instructor-guided and traditional instruction groups on a standardized reading comprehension test.

Reference questions: The effect of strategy training on students' performance in reference questions was found to be statistically significant at .001 levels. The performance increase in *Face to Face Training Group* ($M = 1.83$, $SD = .59$) was found dramatically higher than the *Control Group* ($M = .93$, $SD = .58$). These findings were indirectly in parallel with the results of study conducted by Yousefvand & Lotfi's (2011) because there was a slight increase in the reference question performance; however, there were no single discussion or comment of correct answers in their study while the percentages of increase were 46% and 50% in pre-test, 54% and 50% in post-test.

5.2.3.2 Online Self-Training vs. Control Group

Another purpose of the third research question was to find out if there would be differences between *Online Self-training Group* and *Control Group*. The findings revealed that there were statistically meaningful differences in main idea, detail, inference and reference questions. It seems to be merely the vocabulary part which was not affected by self-training activity. The findings of this research question were in parallel with those of third research question which is based on whether there was significant difference between reading test performance of students who are exposed to test taking strategy training and students not exposed to this instruction; because strategy training had positive effects on students reading test score whether it was face to face or self-directed. These findings also comply with the studies conducted by Baier (2005); Çiçekoğlu (2003); Du Plooy (1996); Lie (2011); Singhal (1999); Xia (2011); and Yousefvand & Lotfi (2011), which supported reading strategy training in terms of enhancing test scores.

5.2.3.3 Face to Face Training vs. Online Self-training

The final aim of the third research question was to investigate if there would be any possible difference between *Face to Face Training Group* and *Online Self-training Group*. The findings obtained from ANOVA revealed that the students in *Face to Face Training Group* attained higher scores than *Online Self-training Group* in inference, reference, and detail questions. In vocabulary and main idea parts, there appeared no statistically significant difference between these two strategy training groups. Although face to face instruction failed to bring about a significant difference in vocabulary and main idea questions in this thesis, many studies in literature (e.g. Baier, 2005; Çiçekoğlu, 2003; Du Plooy, 1996; Lie, 2011; Singhal, 1999;; Yousefvand & Lotfi, 2011; Xia, 2011;) were conducted in classroom environment and found the impacts of face to face strategy instruction on test performance. Accordingly, face to face training was found to be more effective than online self-training in terms of inference, reference, and detail questions.

5.2.4 What Is The Nature Of Students' Perspective In Dealing With A Reading Text As A Result Of The Strategy Training Program?

Concerning the fourth research question, which investigated whether the participants gain confidence and autonomy in dealing with a reading text as a result of the strategy training program, the participants' perspective regarding the strategies were analysed as a result of the semi-structured interviews. Finding the main idea, detecting the question types, skimming and scanning were found to be easy to understand by the participants. It might be an indicator of how participants' belief and attitudes towards strategies and reading tests had changed. Most of the participants reported that their hesitation especially about main idea and detail questions disappeared after the strategy instruction.

The students were also asked about the difficulties related to using reading test taking strategies presented in the training program. The most difficult strategies to apply for students were guessing the vocabulary in the context and drawing inference. Although students reported that drawing inference was one of difficult strategies, their test scores of inference questions were statistically higher than the *Control Group*. Because of this reason, students should be informed by their language teachers about

their scores related to each question type in reading tests in order to enhance their confidence.

Vocabulary post-test results were in parallel with students' beliefs. In other words, students reported "guessing the vocabulary in the context" as the most difficult strategy and their performance in vocabulary questions were not enhanced by the strategy training. This shows that students' belief and real performance might be consistent with one another. For this reason, teachers should also raise students' awareness in order to develop attitudes affirmatively.

5.3 Implications and Recommendations for Further Research

The scope of this study is a rare one conducted at school of foreign languages in Turkey. In order to obtain a more generalized data, similar studies are likely to be carried out at different contexts. Further studies could also focus on the effects of gender and age, which might provide a deeper understanding in the effects of strategy training. Moreover, cultural and educational backgrounds of the participants were not taken into consideration in this study, which might be investigated in further studies.

In this study there were three groups, namely *Face to Face Training Group*, *Online Self-training Group* and *Control Group*. *Face to Face Training Group* was exposed to strategy training and attendance was compulsory. However, *Online Self-training Group* was only given the weekly topics related to strategies and asked to search and learn them on their own. The group name (*Online Self-training Group*) was decided after the students were asked about their most frequent source of data for research. It was not easy to keep the members of this group under control all the time. Some of them were unwilling even to follow the weekly topics conveniently. For this reason, a well-organized internet based environment could be very useful to follow students who are instructed to do research on their own. Such a facility could also enable students to share their search results with each other, which is commonly suggested in educational context as peer learning.

Test taking strategies include a wide range of area since there are other skills such as writing, listening and speaking. A strategy training program on listening and speaking skills can be also exciting to investigate at universities. Moreover, a further research combining test taking strategies with ESP can be conducted, which might be

observed and evaluated more specifically with respect to students' prospective professions.

Applying SILL to determine students' strategy awareness was a practical solution. However, depending only on SILL for this aim might be insufficient since participants might not be honest all the time. Students were told about the procedure and motivated to give the most suitable answers, though.

In this study, strategy training was found to enhance students' performance in reading tests. For this reason, depending on the findings of the study, it can be suggested that strategy training should be a main component of the regular curriculum not only at schools of foreign languages but also at all levels of education. In this vein, since strategy training increases performance in tests, strategy training should also take place in the regular curriculum of MEB (Ministry of National Education) schools in Turkey and similar countries where tests are used as a means of assessment and evaluation.

Strategy training can also be conducted via directing learners to search and learn on their own. In this vein, self-learning and peer interaction should be encouraged among students in EFL classrooms. In order to foster self-learning, technology can also be very effective and should be integrated to engage language learners in the learning process.

It is a well-known fact that pedagogic information might be forgotten and should be revised from time to time. This is also true for Language Learning Strategies (LLS). For this reason, LLS and TTS courses should be given at an undergraduate level even starting from the very early stages of formal education.

Reading theories and strategies should be integrated with the regular reading courses with an inter-disciplinary model, which might enable learners to learn and apply reading strategies on various reading passages.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1A: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

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Directions

This form of the STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. On the separate worksheet, write the response (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE OF ME means that the statement is very rarely true of you.

USUALLY NOT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true less than half the time.

SOMEWHAT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you about half the time.

USUALLY TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true more than half the time.

ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you almost always.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Answer in terms of *how well the statement describes YOU*. Do not answer how you think you *should* be, or what *other* people do. *There are no right or wrong answers to these statements*. Put your answers on the separate Worksheet. Please make no marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. This usually takes about 20-30 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, let the teacher know immediately.

EXAMPLE

I actively seek out opportunities to talk with native speakers in English.

On this page, put an "X" in the blank underneath the statement that best describes what you actually do in regard to English now. Do not make any marks on the Worksheet yet.

Never or Almost Never	Generally Not True of Me	Somewhat True of Me	Generally True of Me	Always or Almost Always True of Me
1 _____	2 _____	3 _____	4 _____	5 _____

If you have answered the question above, you have just completed the example item.

Now wait for the teacher to give you the signal to go on to the other items. When you answer the questions, work carefully but quickly. Mark the rest of your answers on the Worksheet, starting with item 1.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Write answers on Worksheet**Part A- Memory Strategies**

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.

6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.
7. I physically act out new English words.
8. I review English lessons often.
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

Part B- Cognitive Strategies

10. I say or write new English words several times.
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.
12. I practice the sounds of English.
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.
14. I start conversations in English.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
16. I read for pleasure in English.
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
20. I try to find patterns in English.
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

Part C- Compensatory Strategies

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
27. I read English without looking up every new word.
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Part D- Metacognitive Strategies

- 30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
- 31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
- 32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
- 33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
- 34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
- 35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
- 36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
- 37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
- 38. I think about my progress in learning English.

Part E- Affective Strategies

- 39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
- 40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
- 41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
- 42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
- 43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
- 44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Part F- Social Strategies

- 45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
- 46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
- 47. I practice English with other students.
- 48. I ask for help from English speakers.
- 49. I ask questions in English.
- 50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

APPENDIX 1B: Dil Öğrenme Strateji Envanteri

Dil Öğrenme Strateji Envanteri

Versiyon 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

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Değerli Öğrenci;

Bu uygulamanın amacı sınavlara hazırlanırken ve sınav anında kullandığınız yanıtlama stratejilerini belirlemektir. Bu amaçla formda 50 ifade yer almaktadır. Her bir ifadeyi okuyarak sizin yaptıklarınıza karşılık gelme derecesini işaretleyiniz. Katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkür eder sınavlarınızda başarılar dilerim.

Mehmet TUNAZ

Size sunulan maddelerin sayısal değerleriaşağıda verilmiştir. Sizi en çok tanımlayan değeri seçmeniz çalışmanın objektifliği açısından önem taşımaktadır.

	Değer
Never or almost never true of me.....Asla bana uygun değil	1
Usually not true of me.....Bana uygun değil	2
Somewhat true of me.....Duruma göre değişebilir	3
Usually true of me.....Genelde bana uygun	4
Always or almost always true of me.....Her zaman bana uygun	5

İFADELER

Asla uygun değil(1) → Her zaman bana uygun(5)

1.	İngilizcede yeni öğrendiğim şeylerin önceden bildiklerimle olan ilişkilerini merak eder sorgularım.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Bilmediğim İngilizce kelimelerin anlamlarını tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	İngilizce kullanmaktan korktuğum zamanlarda rahat olmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

4.	İngilizce kullanabileceğim imkânları olabildiğince sık yaratmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri birkaç kez söyler ya da yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Konuşma anında İngilizce bir kelimeyi hatırlamadığım zamanlarda jest ve mimikler kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	İngilizce konuşurken anlamadığım noktalar olduğunda konuşmacıdan yavaşlamasını ya da tekrar etmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	İngilizce hatalarımı fark ederek, bu hatalardan ders çıkarırım.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Anadili İngilizce olan kişilerle konuşmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	İngilizce konuşan birisi olduğunda tüm dikkatimle ona odaklanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için resimli kartlar kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Hata yapmaktan korktuğum anlarda dahi İngilizce konuşmak için kendimi cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	İngilizce kelimelerin seslerini pratik yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	İngilizceyi daha iyi öğrenmek için neler yapılması gerektiğini araştırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri hatırlamak amacıyla cümle içinde kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	İngilizce 'de bilmediğim kelimelerin yerine kelimeler oluşturmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	İngilizce konuşurken yaptığım hataları İngilizce bilen kişilerin düzeltmesi isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimenin telaffuzunu, bu kelimeye ait bir resim ya da görüntü ile eşleştirerek aklımda tutmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Bildiğim İngilizce kelimeleri farklı şekillerde kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Programı İngilizceyi yeterince çalışabilecek şekilde	1	2	3	4	5

	ayarlamaya çalışırım.					
21.	Diğer öğrencilerle İngilizce pratik yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	İngilizce konuşabileceğim insanlar ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	İngilizcede başarılı olduğum zamanlarda kendimi ödüllendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	İngilizce diyalog başlatarak diyalog kurmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Yeni kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için ses benzerliklerinden yararlanırım (kafiye).	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Her kelimeye tek tek bakmadan İngilizce okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri fiziksel canlandırmalar/roller yaparak aklımda tutmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Olabildiğince sık İngilizce okuma fırsatları ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	İngilizce çalışırken ya da konuşurken gergin olursam bunu fark ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	İngilizce konuşulan TV programlarını ya da sinemaları izlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	İngilizce konuşan kişilerden İngilizce hakkında yardım isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	İngilizce dersini sık sık tekrar ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Eğlence amaçlı İngilizce yazılar okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	İngilizce soru sorarım.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Dil öğrenme duygularımı bir günlüğe yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	İngilizce diyaloglarda konuşan kişinin bir sonraki ifadesini tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	İngilizce notlar, mesajlar, mektuplar ya da raporlar yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	İngilizce yeteneğimi geliştirmek için belirli amaçlarım vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	İngilizce konuşan kişilerin kültürlerini de öğrenmeye çabalarım.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	İngilizce bir paragrafı okurken önce paragrafı yüzeysel olarak okurum, daha sonra detaylı bir şekilde okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri aklımda tutmak amacıyla	1	2	3	4	5

	görsellerden yararlanırım.					
42.	Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için, bu kelimelerin sayfada, tahtada ya da bir levhadaki yerlerini hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Kendi ana dilimde olup da İngilizce kelimelere benzeyen kelimeleri keşfetmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
44.	İngilizce bir kelimeyi hatırlayamadığım zamanlarda, aynı anlama gelen başka kelime ya da ifadeler kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
45.	İngilizce yeni kalıplar bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
46.	İngilizce bir kelimenin anlamını bulmak için, anlayabileceğim parçalara bölerim.	1	2	3	4	5
47.	İngilizce öğrenmedeki gelişimimi sorgularım.	1	2	3	4	5
48.	Bire bir kelime çevirisi yapmamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
49.	İngilizce öğrenme sürecindeki duygularımı başkalarıyla paylaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
50.	Duyduğum ya da okuduğum İngilizce bilgilerin özetini çıkarmaya çabalarım.	1	2	3	4	5

**APPENDIX 1C: Strateji Çeşitlerine Göre Sınıflandırılmış Dil Öğrenme Strateji
Envanteri**

	Stratejiler	Madde numaraları
1	Bölüm A Hafıza Stratejileri (Memory Strategies)	1. İngilizcede yeni öğrendiğim şeylerin önceden bildiklerimle olan ilişkilerini merak eder sorgularım. 11. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için resimli kartlar kullanırım. 15. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri hatırlamak amacıyla cümle içinde kullanırım. 18. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimenin telaffuzunu, bu kelimeye ait bir resim ya da görüntü ile eşleştirerek aklımda tutmaya çalışırım. 25. Yeni kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için ses benzerliklerinden yararlanırım (kafiye). 27. Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri fiziksel canlandırmalar/roller yaparak aklımda tutmaya çalışırım. 32. İngilizce dersini sık sık tekrar ederim. 41. Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri aklımda tutmak amacıyla görsellerden yararlanırım. 42. Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için, bu kelimelerin sayfada, tahtada ya da bir levhadaki yerlerini hatırlarım.

2	Bölüm B Bilişsel Stratejiler (Cognitive Strategies)	10. Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri birkaç kez söyler ya da yazarım. 11. Anadili İngilizce olan kişilerle konuşmaya çalışırım. 12. İngilizce kelimelerin seslerini pratik yaparım. 13. Bildiğim İngilizce kelimeleri farklı şekillerde kullanırım. 14. İngilizce diyalog başlatarak diyalog kurmaya çalışırım. 15. İngilizce konuşulan TV programlarını ya da sinemaları izlerim. 16. Eğlence amaçlı İngilizce yazılar okurum. 17. İngilizce notlar, mesajlar, mektuplar ya da raporlar yazarım. 18. İngilizce bir paragrafı okurken önce paragrafı yüzeysel olarak okurum, daha sonra detaylı bir şekilde okurum. 19. Kendi ana dilimde olup da İngilizce kelimelere benzeyen kelimeleri keşfetmeye çalışırım. 20. İngilizce yeni kalıplar bulmaya çalışırım. 21. İngilizce bir kelimenin anlamını bulmak için, anlayabileceğim parçalara bölerim. 22. Bire bir kelime çevirisi yapmamaya çalışırım. 23. Duyduğum ya da okuduğum İngilizce bilgilerin özetini çıkarmaya çabalarım.
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3	Bölüm C Telafi Edici Stratejiler (Compensatory Strategies)	2. Bilmediğim İngilizce kelimelerin anlamlarını tahmin etmeye çalışırım. 6. Konuşma anında İngilizce bir kelimeyi hatırlamadığım zamanlarda jest ve mimikler kullanırım. 16. İngilizce 'de bilmediğim kelimelerin yerine kelimeler oluşturmaya çalışırım. 26. Her kelimeye tek tek bakmadan İngilizce okurum. 36. İngilizce diyaloglarda konuşan kişinin bir sonraki ifadesini tahmin etmeye çalışırım. 44. İngilizce bir kelimeyi hatırlayamadığım zamanlarda, aynı anlama gelen başka kelime ya da ifadeler kullanırım.
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4	Bölüm D Üst bilişsel Stratejiler (Metacognitive Strategies)	4. İngilizce kullanabileceğim imkânları olabildiğince sık yaratmaya çalışırım. 8. İngilizce hatalarımı fark ederek, bu hatalardan ders çıkarırım. 10. İngilizce konuşan birisi olduğunda tüm dikkatimle ona odaklanırım. 14. İngilizceyi daha iyi öğrenmek için neler yapılması gerektiğini araştırırım. 20. Programı İngilizceyi yeterince çalışabilecek şekilde ayarlamaya çalışırım. 22. İngilizce konuşabileceğim insanlar ararım. 28. Olabildiğince sık İngilizce okuma fırsatları ararım. 38. İngilizce yeteneğimi geliştirmek için belirli amaçlarım vardır. 47. İngilizce öğrenmedeki gelişimimi sorgularım.
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5	Bölüm E Duygusal Stratejiler (Affective Strategies)	3. İngilizce kullanmaktan korktuğum zamanlarda rahat olmaya çalışırım. 12. Hata yapmaktan korktuğum anlarda dahi İngilizce konuşmak için kendimi cesaretlendiririm. 23. İngilizcede başarılı olduğum zamanlarda kendimi ödüllendiririm. 29. İngilizce çalışırken ya da konuşurken gergin olursam bunu fark ederim. 35. Dil öğrenme duygularımı bir günlüğe yazarım. 49. İngilizce öğrenme sürecindeki duygularımı başkalarıyla paylaşıyorum.
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6	Bölüm F Sosyal Stratejiler (Social Strategies)	7. İngilizce konuşurken anlamadığım noktalar olduğunda konuşmacıdan yavaşlamasını ya da tekrar etmesini isterim. 17. İngilizce konuşurken yaptığım hataları İngilizce bilen kişilerin düzeltmesi isterim. 21. Diğer öğrencilerle İngilizce pratik yaparım. 31. İngilizce konuşan kişilerden İngilizce hakkında yardım isterim. 34. İngilizce soru sorarım. 39. İngilizce konuşan kişilerin kültürlerini de öğrenmeye çabalarım.
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APPENDIX 2: Strategy Training Program

Strategy Training Program

Note: This program was adopted from the study conducted by Carvalho (2013, p. 112-120) retrieved in December, 2013 from

<https://repositorio.ufsc.br/bitstream/handle/123456789/106233/322077.pdf?sequence=1>

Week I:

Participants: 30 university students at preparatory class

Date: 06.02.2014

Time: 50 minutes

Training Model: Oxford's Strategy Training Model (Literature Review, p. 19- 20)

The purpose of the first week was to raise awareness of the participants about what test taking strategies are and how they could be applied in their learning process to reach success. As it was the first week, general frame of the program was introduced by the researcher to the participants.

Week II:

Participants: 30 university students at preparatory class

Date: 13.02.2014

Time: 100 minutes

Training Model: Oxford's Strategy Training Model (Literature Review, p. 19- 20)

Main Idea Questions

This session provided a detailed analysis of the three levels of comprehension: general comprehension, main points, and detailed comprehension. Each of these levels of comprehension was individually analysed and examples of how a reader can perform a reading task in any of these levels were also presented and discussed.

This session also provided a focus on the strategies such as identifying the question as a main idea question, taking notes, eliminating incorrect, irrelevant, too broad and narrow sentences, reading first and last sentences. In order to practice and reinforce the strategies regarding main idea questions, the researcher presented strategies along with example questions as also expressed by Du Plooy (1996). The strategies regarding the main idea questions were presented in the following order:

- Identifying the question as a main idea question (*main idea, emphasizing, focusing on, primarily dealing with, author's point of view*)
- Reading and taking notes
- Eliminating incorrect, irrelevant, too broad and narrow sentences
- Reading first and last sentences

Week III:

Participants: 30 university students at preparatory class

Date: 21.02.2014

Time: 100 minutes

Training Model: Oxford's Strategy Training Model (Literature Review, p. 19- 20)

Detail Questions

This session presented the reading strategies of skimming, scanning, and selectivity. Each of them was individually analysed with the readers and the readers were made aware that these strategies are essential to any reading task.

The main objective of introducing these strategies in this course is to help participants to identify the detail questions and to get information from the text without reading it in detail. The use of these strategies can rapidly lead them to the information

they want. The participants were also presented the strategies such as identifying the key words in the questions, identifying synonyms or similar phrases and finding the answer in the passage. The participants were also informed about the possible improvement in detail question as cited by Yousefvand & Lotfi (2011), and Yeh (2006). The strategies regarding the detail questions were presented in the following order:

- Identifying the key word(s) in the questions
- Skimming and scanning
- Identifying synonyms or similar phrases
- Finding the answer(s) in the passage

Week IV:

Participants: 30 university students at preparatory class

Date: 07.03.2014

Time: 100 minutes

Training Model: Oxford's Strategy Training Model (Literature Review, p. 19- 20)

Vocabulary Questions

This session presented the reading strategy identification of key words. The main objective of this unit is to train the readers in the identification of key words.

This strategy was introduced in this session since the identification of key words enables the readers to ignore linearity, to explore redundancies and to grasp the meaning of texts even when several words are unknown. The steps the readers should follow in order to identify key words are also explained in this session in accordance with Du Plooy (1996), and Kesselman-Turkel et. al. (2004).

This session also provided a detailed focus on strategies such as guessing the vocabulary from the context, using context and grammatical clues and word analysis (prefix, suffix, root etc.). The strategies regarding the vocabulary questions were presented in the following order:

- Guessing the vocabulary in the context
- Using context and grammatical clues
- Word analysis (*prefix, suffix, root etc.*)

Week V:**Participants:** 30 university students at preparatory class**Date:** 13.03.2014**Time:** 100 minutes**Training Model:** Oxford's Strategy Training Model (Literature Review, p. 19- 20)**Inference and Reference Questions**

Reference and inference strategies were studied in this session. The teaching of reference aims to make the readers aware of the devices writers use in order to avoid repetition of words or even sentences in a determined context. This means that the readers need to be able to interpret these devices adequately; otherwise, they will misinterpret some reading passages.

- The teaching of identification of main points aims to enable the readers to select what is relevant and/or what is irrelevant in any given text. Participants were given an opportunity to practice reference question strategies such as identifying the question as a reference question, identifying what word or phrase is asked for reference (*it, this, that, they, these, those, them etc.*), and crosschecking the answer by switching reference words as referred by Kesselman-Turkel et. al. (2004). The strategies regarding the inference and reference questions were presented in the following order:
- Identifying the question as an inference question (*imply, suggest, infer, assume, indicate, conclude, seem, predict*)
- Realizing the content stream of the text (*yet, but, however, except, moreover etc.*)
- Spotting the wrong answers which are unsupported in the text.
- Identifying the question as a reference question (*what does "x" refer to?*)
- Identifying what word or phrase is asked for reference (*it, this, that, they, these, those, them etc.*)
- Crosschecking the answer by switching reference words

Week VI:

Participants: 30 university students at preparatory class

Date: 20.03.2014

Time: 60 minutes

Training Model: Oxford's Strategy Training Model (Literature Review, p. 19- 20)

Revision of Previous Units

This unit was a detailed review of the previous units. It was a chance for participants who missed any of the previous lessons. The participants were presented the basic strategies and they were allowed to ask questions so that they could request the parts they did not figure out properly.

APPENDIX 3: A Sample Reading Comprehension Test

Red, white, pink, purple – what is your favourite colour? We are all sensitive to colour. There are some colours we like a lot and some we don't like at all. Some colours **sooth** us, others excite us. People are affected by colour more than they realize because colour is tied to all aspects of our lives. Experts in colorgenics, the study of the language of colour, believe that the colours we wear say a lot about us. Colorgenics experts say that we subconsciously choose to wear certain colours in order to communicate our desires, emotions, and needs. For instance, **they** claim that pink expresses peace and contentment. People who often wear pink are supposed to be warm and understanding. Red garments, on the other hand, indicate a high level of physical energy. People who wear red like to take life at a fast pace. Brown is the colour of wealth and it shows a need for independence and material security. Wearers of green have a love of nature and enjoy peaceful moments. They often like to be left alone with their thoughts. Although colorgenics may be a recent area of study, associating colours with emotions is not new. Colours have always been used to describe not only our feelings, but also our physical health and attitudes. "Red with rage" describes anger; "in the pink" means to be in good health; "feeling blue" is a sad way to feel; and "green with envy" indicates an envious attitude.

1. The word "**sooth**" in line 3 means _____.

- a) calm
- b) frighten
- c) confuse
- d) make us sad
- e) surprise

2. The word "**they**" in line 7 refers to _____.

- a) desires
- b) emotions
- c) colorgenics experts
- d) Needs
- e) people who often wear pink

3. We **cannot** infer from the passage that _____ .
- a) colorgenics can help tell about ourselves
 - b) each colour can be related to a different mood
 - c) people are influenced by colours
 - d) we subconsciously choose clothes depending on our desires, emotions and needs
 - e) colours are not liked by colorgenics.
4. According to the text, which of the following is **false**?
- a) If someone likes wearing green, he may go on long walks in the country as a free time activity
 - b) If someone is wearing a pink dress, she is in a positive mood.
 - c) If a man usually wears brown suits, he may give importance to money.
 - d) If someone prefers red clothes very often, he never hurries or does exercise.
 - e) If someone prefers green more often, he may like being on his own.
5. According to the text, which colour – feeling relationship used in daily language is **wrong**?
- a) red and being furious
 - b) brown and being aggressive
 - c) pink and being well
 - d) green and being jealous
 - e) blue and being depressed

APPENDIX 4: Semi-structured Interview Questions

- 1) Do you like reading course?
- 2) Are you pleased to be involved in this course? What are the advantages of this course for you in general?
- 3) What do you think are the most useful strategies for you to apply?
- 4) For what kind of questions can you use these strategies?
- 5) What do you think are the most difficult strategies for you to figure out?
- 6) Do you think your belief and confidence has enhanced in this strategy course?
- 7) Do you have any suggestions for this course to become more effective?
- 8) Do you suggest your friends should also attend such training programs?

APPENDIX 5: The Official Permission Document

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 03/03/2014-3427



T.C.
ERCIYES ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Müdürlüğü



Sayı :56782957-622.01/
Konu :Talep

Sayın Mehmet TUNAZ,

Çukurova Üniversitesinde yürütmekte olduğunuz yüksek lisans tez çalışmanız ile ilgili, 26.02.2014 tarihli dilekçenizle Yüksekokulumuz Müdürlüğüne bildirmiş olduğunuz, Hazırlık Sınıfı öğrencilerine "test çözme stratejileri" hakkında eğitim verme talebiniz, birimimizce uygun görülmüştür.
Bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

Fikret KARA
Müdür a.
Yüksekokul Müdürü

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PROCEEDING

1. ERDOĞAN, E., & TUNAZ, M. (2012). Determining External and Internal Demotivating Factors among Young Learners at Pozantı Regional Primary Boarding School. *Frontiers of Language and Teaching*, 3, 147-160.

CERTIFICATES

1. FOCI (Forum on Curricular Issues) Conference, May, 2014, Izmir, Turkey.
2. Comenius School Partnership, As the Contact Person of “Let’s Creeducate” Project; Turkey, Bulgaria, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and Spain, 2010- 2012.