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The Department of English Language Teaching

THE EFFECTS OF USING LEARNING
STRATEGIES ON STUDENT SUCCESS AT
THE UNIVERSITY OF GAZİANTEP

(A CASE STUDY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF GAZİANTEP)

A Master's Thesis By

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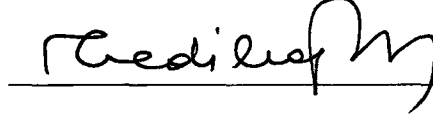
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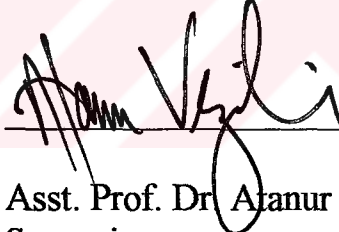


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I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Masters of Arts.

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We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in English Language Teaching.



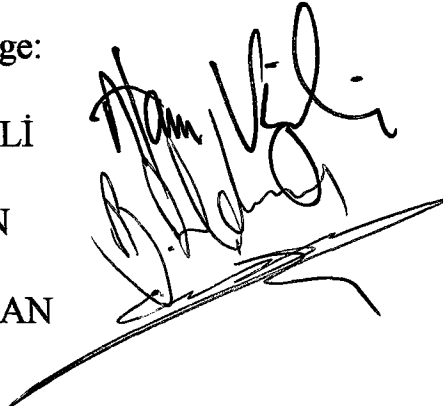
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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF USING LEARNING STRATEGIES ON STUDENT SUCCESS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF GAZİANTEP

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This study which has been carried out at the preparatory section of the University of Gaziantep is an attempt to investigate the relationship between teaching learning strategies to students and their effect in students' success afterwards. A questionnaire of 26 items was administered to 161 students at the beginning . Later on , 50 students who were given a pre-test at the beginning and a post-test at the end of the study were instructed for forty hours towards the end of the second term of the academic year 1997-1998. The t-test was conducted to research the relationship between the effect of the teaching of learning strategies and students' success. A statistically significant relationship was found.

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ÖZ

GAZİANTEP ÜNİVERSİTESİNDE ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ KULLANIMININ ÖĞRENCİ BAŞARISINA ETKİLERİ

(GAZİANTEP ÜNİVERSİTESİ MODELİ)

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Bu çalışma Gaziantep Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü Hazırlık Sınıfı öğrencileri üzerinde yapılmıştır ve öğrencilerin öğrenme stratejilerini kullanmaları ve bunların başarılarına olan etkileri arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Araştırmanın başında 161 öğrenciye 26 sorudan oluşan bir anket verilmiştir. Denek olarak 50 Hazırlık Bölümü öğrencisi alınmıştır ve bunlara çalışmanın başında bir ön-test, bitiminde de bir son-test verilmiştir. Bu çalışmanın sonucunda öğrenme stratejilerinin öğretilmesiyle öğrencilerin başarıları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki elde edilmiştir.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Presentation

The emphasis in the foreign language classroom is now on learners. This means that there has been a shift of focus from teachers and teaching to learners and learning. Researchers have become interested in the cognitive processes of learners to analyze their learning process. To understand students' learning process much research has been conducted. It has been observed that students have used different strategies, or tactics in learning a new language.

Learning strategies are behaviours, techniques or actions used by students, often consciously, to enhance their learning (Oxford, 1990) . Language learning strategies are learning strategies applied to gaining skill in a second or foreign language. Strategies can often significantly help learners attain greater proficiency by making the learning process easier, more efficient and more self-directed (Oxford et al., 1990).

1.1. Background

In reviews of research on language learning strategies, investigations have suffered from an overemphasis on cognitive and metacognitive strategies at the expense of other techniques, especially affective techniques, social strategies and communication strategies.

Despite the limited range of strategies taught in formal strategy training studies, important effects have been discovered by a number of researchers. As Oxford et al. (1990: 17) put forward “ ... Though all language students use some kind of strategies, the more effective students use them more consciously, more purposefully, more appropriately, and more frequently than do less able students. Most effective learners of a second or foreign language typically use a range of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. “

Rubin (1987: 16) stated that learning strategies were teachable and she also added that once the range of possible learning strategies was identified, the important role of the teacher would be to provide an environment which facilitated the identification by students of those strategies which worked best for them.

Stern (1975) observed that the term ‘strategy’ has been used inconsistently, and offers the definition that learning strategies refer to : general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner , leaving learning techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behaviour, more or less consciously employed by the learners. Thus, strategies are construed at a relatively high level of analysis. They embrace a number of instantiations of the strategy. Moreover , it appears that these strategies each represent some conscious choice by the learner, although the specific manifestation of the strategy may be less intentional .

Researchers have also analyzed the learning strategies of successful students and unsuccessful students. Abraham and Vann (1990) found that successful and unsuccessful students used nearly the same strategies, although they had different levels of proficiency in English.

1.2. Purpose

The aim of this study was to find out the relationship between students' use of strategies in foreign language learning and its effect on their further success in the English Preparatory Section at the University of Gaziantep.

The University of Gaziantep which was established in 1973 as the extension campus of Middle East Technical University, commenced with the Department of Mechanical Engineering where the medium of instruction was English. The Department of Electrical and Electronic Engineering was opened the following year. In 1978, the Department of Food Engineering was founded and it was followed by the Department of Engineering Physics in 1981 and the Department of Civil Engineering in 1983. the basis of the University of Gaziantep . (1997-1999 General Catalogue) .

The University of Gaziantep gained the status of an independent state university by the law number 3389 on 27th July 1987. The Faculty of Engineering and Gaziantep Vocational School of Higher Education under the auspices of METU were incorporated into the University of Gaziantep by the same law.

Preparatory School of the University of Gaziantep for engineering students with 32 teachers and 336 students, is comprised of 16 groups of about 20 students. Most of the students are false beginners. The majority of the students have had English classes at high school but just because of the

threshold of the education system. At the beginning of the academic year a placement test is given. Two teachers share a class, both having a load of 20 hours. The classes are held six hours each day. The program is based on the study of grammatical structures, reading, writing, listening and speaking skills which together form a nucleus known as “core English “. Towards the end of the first term the ESP course starts with ten hours per week. The main course book which was used at the preparatory school during the course of this study was “Look Ahead” by Andy Hopkins and Jocelyn Potter.

1.3. Problem

It has been observed by many foreign language instructors that although students study hard, some of them fail their examinations whereas others pass them easily. In interviews with the unsuccessful students, it has been found that not only do they rarely employ learning strategies, but also that these strategies were inadequate. This contributed to the fact that some students were more successful in foreign language learning than others.

Also, it has been observed by foreign language instructors that even though students in one year preparatory English course are exposed to the same input, their acquired proficiency in the target language differs to a great extent.

This difference in the success of foreign language learners have intrigued many researchers. According to Omaggio (1978) the low level of success attained by students may be caused by innumerable factors such as method of instruction, age, aptitude, socio-cultural factors and some other variables like attitude, motivation, personality, empathy and of course the effect of native language.

This study dealt generally with cognitive, metacognitive and social-affective strategy use by students and the teaching or training of these and their effects on success.

1.3.1. Good and Poor Language Learners

Early researchers tended to make lists of strategies and other features presumed to be essential for all “good L2 learners”. Rubin (1975) suggested that good L2 learners are willing and accurate guessers; have a strong drive to communicate; are often uninhibited; are willing to make mistakes; focus on form by looking for patterns and analyzing; take advantage of all practice opportunities; monitor their speech as well as that of others; and pay attention to meaning.

A number of these characteristics have been validated by subsequent research. However, the “uninhibited” aspect has not been confirmed as part of all or most good language learners. Because of language anxiety, many potentially excellent L2 learners are naturally inhibited; they combat inhibition by using positive self-talk, by extensive use of practicing in private, and by putting themselves in situations where they have to participate communicatively.

Research has shown that effective thinkers and learners have certain characteristics in common. They monitor their own thinking. They are aware of what they know, and do not know. They know what they need to know in order to solve a problem or fully understand a difficult concept.

Poor thinkers are less likely to know about the above-mentioned factors and are generally unable to describe their learning and reasoning strategies. As a result, they hesitate to “shift gears” when a particular strategy is not working and they are experiencing failure instead of success. Poor thinkers/learners do

not have to remain that way, however. Students can be taught to think and learn. The most promising way to teach these skills is through metacognition.

Individual students react to school and learn differently within groups. While good learners are outgoing and sociable and learn the second language quickly, poor learners are generally shy and quiet. Good learners do not worry about mistakes, but use limited resources to generate input from native speakers. Poor learners learn by listening and watching. They say little, for fear of making a mistake.

Nonetheless, research shows that both types of learners can be successful second language learners. In a school environment, behaviours such as paying attention and persisting at tasks are valued. Because of cultural differences, some students may find the interpersonal setting of the school culture difficult. If the teacher is unaware of such cultural differences, their expectations and interactions with these learners may be influenced. Effective instruction for students from culturally diverse backgrounds requires varied instructional activities that consider the students' diversity of experience. Teachers need to recognize that experiences in the home and home culture affect students' values, patterns of language use, and interpersonal style. Students are likely to be more responsive to a teacher who affirms the values of the home culture.

1.4. Scope

50 students in the Preparatory Section of the University of Gaziantep were selected as the subjects of the study in order to assess the significance of various factors in language learning including the number of hours of teaching, the different types of teaching methodology being employed and the success or otherwise of the procedures of evaluation.

Achievement scores of the subjects were obtained through NTC's Practice Tests for TOEFL excluding listening comprehension part. The test consisted of three components : reading and vocabulary, structure and written expression, and writing.

1.5. Limitations

A questionnaire which consisted of 26 questions dealing with the topic of learning strategies was administered to the students. The study was conducted with 50 preparatory section students, chosen at random. These students were all being taught with the same teaching materials and were given the same amount of classroom teaching. The students were divided into two groups. The experimental study took place over a six-week period.

1.6. Hypotheses

The following are the hypotheses of this research :

- 1- Programs based on specific language learning strategies are more successful for preparatory students than programs which do not entail the use of such strategies.
- 2- There is a statistically meaningful difference between preparatory students who use specific learning strategies for vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension and those who do not.
- 3- The acquisition and performance in language learning of the students who attend this training will be superior to those who do not participate in such training.

1.7. Assumptions

In this study it was assumed that :

- 1- The tools that were used in data collection were valid and reliable, for the English test was proven to be valid and reliable.
- 2- The answers given by the subjects in the questionnaire and in the pre-test and post-test were sincere.
- 3- The materials used for instruction were valid and reliable.
- 4- The instructor was assumed to demonstrate similar performance in both groups.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Presentation

This section of the study deals with the studies which are related to the effect of language learning strategies in a foreign language. What has been done in the world and in Turkey is briefly explained in the following paragraphs.

2.1. Research On Learning Strategies

Learning strategy instruction is a cognitive approach to teaching that helps students learn conscious processes and techniques that facilitate the comprehension, acquisition, and retention of new skills and concepts. The use of learning strategy instruction in second language learning is based on four main propositions :

1. Mentally active learners are better learners. Students who organize new information and consciously relate it to existing knowledge should have more

cognitive linkages to assist comprehension and recall than do students who approach each new task as something to be memorized by rote learning.

2. Strategies can be taught. Students who are taught to use strategies and provided with sufficient practice in using them will learn more effectively than students who have had no experience with learning strategies.

3. Learning strategies transfer to new tasks. Once students have become accustomed to using learning strategies, they will use them on new tasks that are similar to the learning activities on which they were initially trained.

4. Academic language learning is more effective with learning strategies. Academic language learning among students of English as a second language is governed by some of the same principles that govern reading and problem solving among native English speakers.

Studies in learning strategy applications indicate that students taught to use new strategies can become more effective learners (O'Malley, 1985). There are three major categories of learning strategies :

1. Metacognitive strategies: These involve executive processes in planning for learning, monitoring one's comprehension and production, and evaluating how well one has achieved a learning objective.

2. Cognitive strategies: The learner interacts with the material to be learned by manipulating it mentally (as in making mental images or relating new information to previously acquired concepts or skills) or physically (as in grouping items to be learned in meaningful categories or taking notes on or making summaries of important information to be remembered) .

3. Social-affective strategies: The learner either interacts with another person in order to assist learning, as in cooperation or asking questions for clarification, or uses some kind of affective control to assist learning.

The literature on learning strategies in second language acquisition emerge from a concern for identifying the characteristics of effective learners. Research efforts concentrating on the “ good language learner “ (Naiman et al. 1978; Rubin 1975) had identified strategies reported by students or observed in language learning situations that appear to contribute to learning. These efforts demonstrated that students do apply learning strategies while learning a second language and that these strategies can be described and classified. For example , Rubin (1981) proposed a classification scheme that subsumes learning strategies under two primary groupings and a number of subgroups , as illustrated in Table 1 .

TABLE 1 Classifications Of Learning Strategies In Second Language Acquisition

Author	Primary Strategy Classification	Representative Secondary Strategies	Representative Examples
Rubin(1981)	Strategies that directly affect learning	Clarification/verification Monitoring	Asks for an example of how to use a word or expression, repeats words to confirm understanding Corrects errors in own/other' pronunciation, vocabulary , spelling , grammar , style

Author	Primary Strategy Classification	Representative Secondary Strategies	Representative Examples
		Memorization	Takes note of new items, pronounces out loud , finds a mnemonic, writes items repeatedly
		Guessing/inductive inferencing	Guesses meaning from keywords, structures, pictures ,context , etc.
		Deductive reasoning	Compares native/other language to target language Groups words Looks for rules of co-occurrence Experiments with new sounds Repeats sentences until pronounced easily
		Practice	Listens carefully and tries to imitate
	Processes that contribute indirectly to learning	Creates opportunities for practice	Creates situations with native speaker Initiates conversation with fellow students Spends time in language lab , listening to TV , etc.

Author	Primary Strategy Classification	Representative Secondary Strategies	Representative Examples
		Production tricks	Uses circumlocutions , synonyms , or cognates Uses formulaic interaction Contextualizes to clarify meaning
Naiman et al. (1978)	Active task approach	Response positively to learning opportunity or seeks and exploits learning environment	Student acknowledges need for a structured learning environment and takes a course prior to immersing him/herself in target language
		Adds related language learning activities to regular classroom program	Reads additional items Listens to tapes
		Practises	Writes down words to memorize Looks at speaker's mouth and repeats
	Realization of language as a system	Analyzes individual problems	Reads alone to hear sounds
		Makes L1/L2 comparisons	Uses cognates Using what is already known
		Analyzes target language to make inferences	Uses rules to generate possibilities

Author	Primary Strategy Classification	Representative Secondary Strategies	Representative Examples
		Makes use of fact that language is a system	Relates new dictionary words to others in same category
	Realization of language as a means of communication and interaction	Emphasizes fluency over accuracy	Does not hesitate to speak Uses circumlocutions
		Seeks communicative situations with L2 speakers	Communicates whenever possible Establishes close personal contact with L2 native speakers Writes to pen pals
		Finds social-cultural meanings	Memorizes courtesies and phrases
	Management of affective demands	Copes with affective demands in learning	Overcomes inhibition to speak Is able to laugh at own mistakes Is prepared for difficulties
	Monitoring L2 performance	Constantly revises L2 system by testing inferences and asking L2 native speakers for feedback	Generates sentences and looks for reactions Looks for ways to improve so as not to repeat mistakes

(O'Malley and Chamot : 1990)

As seen in this table, Rubin's first primary category , consisting of strategies that directly affect learning , includes clarification-verification , monitoring , memorization , guessing-inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning , and practice. The second primary category , which consists of strategies that contribute indirectly to learning , include creating practice opportunities and using production tricks such as communication strategies .

In the same table , Naiman's (1978) classification scheme is also shown. It contains five broad categories of learning strategies and a number of secondary categories. According to Naiman et al. (1978) the primary strategies were common to all good language learners whereas the secondary strategies were represented only in some of the good learners. The primary classification includes an active task approach , realization of language as a system , realization of language as a means of communication and interaction , management of affective demands , and monitoring of second language performance.

According to Reid (1987), the research findings of the Dunns and their colleagues verify that most students do correctly identify their learning strengths, particularly when an element is strongly preferred or rejected (11. Dunn, 1984). Dunn and Dunn (1979) found that only 20-30% of school age children appear to be auditory learners, that 40% are visual, and that the remaining 30-40% are tactile/kinesthetic, visual/tactile, or some other combination. Price, Dunn, and Sanders (1980) found that very young children are the most tactile/kinesthetic, that there is a gradual development of visual strengths through the elementary grades, and that only in fifth or sixth grade can most youngsters learn and retain information through the auditory sense. Carbo (1983), investigating the perceptual styles of readers, found that good readers prefer to learn through their visual and auditory senses, while poor readers have a stronger preference for tactile and kinesthetic learning.

In the same article, Farr (1971), who asked postsecondary students to identify their learning style preferences through self-reporting questionnaires, reported that their preferred learning styles paralleled their actual learning strengths. In another postsecondary study, Domino (1979) found that college students taught in preferred learning styles scored higher on tests, fact knowledge, attitude, and efficiency than those taught in instructional styles different from their preferred styles.

2.1.1. Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are various instructional methods, techniques, and instructional resources to help students learn most effectively in any given instructional setting. A combination of methods, techniques, and resources constitute a learning strategy for a given body of information. The object of well-designed learning is to maximize the students' acquisition of desired knowledge, skills, and abilities. The design and application of good learning strategies ensure that the instruction is efficient, effective, and appealing.

Learning strategies are divided into three : Cognitive, metacognitive and social-affective learning strategies.

2.1.1.1. Cognitive Learning Strategies

Cognitive strategies refer to the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving that requires direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Cognition consists of those processes or strategies through which an individual obtains knowledge or conceptual understanding.

Rubin (1981) identified six general strategies which may contribute directly to language learning :

- 1- Clarification/verification refers to those strategies which learners use to verify or clarify their understanding of the new language. In the process of creating or confirming rules in a new language, they may seek confirmation of their understanding of the language, they may ask for validation that their production of words, phrases, or sentences is consistent with the new language.
- 2- Guessing / inductive inferencing refers to strategies which use previously obtained linguistic or conceptual knowledge to derive explicit hypothesis about the linguistic form, semantic meaning or speaker's intention. To determine the speaker's intention, it involves using hunches from a wide range of possible sources. Thus, learners can use what they know about their own or a second language to infer meaning.
- 3- Deductive reasoning is a problem solving strategy in which the learner looks for and uses general rules in approaching the foreign or second language. The learner uses previously acquired linguistic or conceptual knowledge to derive specific hypothesis about the linguistic form, semantic meaning or speaker's intention. The difference between inductive and deductive reasoning is that in inductive reasoning the learner is looking for a specific meaning or specific rule whereas in deductive reasoning the learner is looking for and using more general rules.
- 4- Practice refers to strategies which contribute to the storage and retrieval of language while focusing on accuracy of usage. It involves strategies such as : repetition, rehearsal, experimentation, application of rules, imitation, and attention to detail.
- 5- Memorization also refers to strategies which focus on the storage and retrieval of language but here attention is paid to the storage

and retrieval process. The goal of these strategies is organization. Finding some sort of association or grouping (phonetic, semantic, visual, auditory, kinesic, sensory), using one item to recall a number of others (called key word), using some sort of mechanical means to store the information (taking notes, writing out items with or without context, etc.), or selective attention in which students focus on certain details to aid in recall, or directed physical response in which students aid retention by associating the item with their own physical movement are some of these strategies.

- 6- Monitoring refers to strategies in which the learner notices errors, observes how a message is received and interpreted by the addressee, and then decides what to do about it.

2.1.1.2. Metacognitive Learning Strategies

Metacognition is thinking about thinking, knowing “what we know” and “what we do not know.” Just as an executive’s job is management of an organization, a thinker’s job is management of thinking. The basic metacognitive strategies are:

- 1-Connecting new information to former knowledge.
- 2-Selecting thinking strategies deliberately.
- 3-Planning, monitoring, and evaluating thinking processes. (Dirkes, 1985)

A thinking person is in charge of her behavior. She determines when it is necessary to use metacognitive strategies. She selects strategies to define a problem situation and researches alternative solutions. She tailors this search for information to constraints of time and energy. She monitors, controls and judges her thinking. She evaluates and decides when a problem is solved to a

satisfactory degree or when the demands of daily living take a temporary or permanent higher priority.

Studies show that increases in learning have followed direct instruction in metacognitive strategies. These results suggest that direct teaching of these thinking strategies may be useful, and that independent use develops gradually (Scruggs, 1985).

Learning how to learn, developing a repertoire of thinking processes which can be applied to solve problems, is a major goal of education. The school library media center, as the hub of the school, is an ideal place to integrate these types of skills into subject areas or students' own areas of interest. When life presents situations that cannot be solved by learned responses, metacognitive behavior is brought into play.

Metacognitive skills are needed when habitual responses are not successful. Guidance in recognizing, and practice in applying metacognitive strategies will help students successfully solve problems throughout their lives.

Blakey and Spence (1990) define strategies for developing metacognitive behaviours as follows :

1-Identifying “what you know” and “what you don’t know.”

At the beginning of a research activity students need to make conscious decisions about their knowledge. Initially students write “What I already know about...” and “What I want to learn about....” As students research the topic, they will verify, clarify and expand, or replace with more accurate information, each of their initial statements.

2-Talking about thinking.

Talking about thinking is important because students need a thinking vocabulary. During planning and problem-solving situations, teachers should think aloud so that students can follow demonstrated thinking processes. Modeling and discussion develop the vocabulary students need for thinking and talking about their own thinking. Labelling thinking processes when students use them is also important for student recognition of thinking skills.

Paired problem-solving is another useful strategy. One student talks through a problem, describing his thinking processes. His partner listens and asks questions to help clarify thinking. Similarly, in reciprocal teaching (Palincsar, Ogle, Jones, Carr, & Ransom, 1986), small groups of students take turns playing teacher, asking questions, and clarifying and summarizing the material being studied.

3-Keeping a thinking journal.

Another means of developing metacognition is through the use of a journal or learning log. This is a diary in which students reflect upon their thinking, make note of their awareness of ambiguities and inconsistencies, and comment on how they have dealt with difficulties. This journal is a diary of process.

4-Planning and self-regulation.

Students must assume increasing responsibility for planning and regulating their learning. It is difficult for learners to become self-directed when learning is planned and monitored by someone else.

Students can be taught to make plans for learning activities including estimating time requirements, organizing materials, and scheduling procedures necessary to complete an activity. The resource center's flexibility and access to a variety of materials allows the student to do just this. Criteria for evaluation must be developed with students so they learn to think and ask questions of themselves as they proceed through a learning activity.

5-Debriefing the thinking process.

Closure activities focus student discussion on thinking processes to develop awareness of strategies that can be applied to other learning situations.

A three step method is useful. First, the teacher guides students to review the activity, gathering data on thinking processes and feelings. Then, the group classifies related ideas, identifying thinking strategies used. Finally, they evaluate their success, discarding inappropriate strategies, identifying those valuable for future use, and seeking promising alternative approaches.

6-Self-Evaluation.

Guided self-evaluation experiences can be introduced through individual conferences and checklists focusing on thinking processes. Gradually self-evaluation will be applied more independently. As students recognize that learning activities in different disciplines are similar, they will begin to transfer learning strategies to new situations.

In this rapidly changing world, the challenge of teaching is to help students develop skills which will not become obsolete. Metacognitive strategies are essential for the twenty-first century. They will enable students to successfully cope with new situations. Teachers and school library media specialists capitalize on their talents as well as access a wealth of resources that will create a metacognitive environment which fosters the development of good thinkers who are successful problem-solvers and lifelong learners.

2.1.1.3. Social/affective Learning Strategies

Social/affective strategies represent a broad grouping that involves either interaction with another person or ideational control over affects.

Generally they are considered applicable to a variety of tasks (O'Malley and Chamot 1990).

According to this approach learning depends on the following basic conditions :

1. Motivation to learn : motivation must probably be based on the need for the subject matter for creative construction to take place.
2. Internal representation of the crucial features of the behaviour to be learned : here, the features to be internalised are discovered by the learners themselves, from the language environment around them.
3. Practice in converting this internal representation into actual performance : when practice is free from artificial constraints the learning process is said to be successful. The practice is controlled only by the meanings which learners wish to communicate and the linguistic resources at their disposal.
4. Feedback about the success of the resulting behaviour : the learner needs to refine his competence in his field (Littlewood, 1989).

Wong-Fillmore (1976) identified two social strategies : joining a group and acting as if one understands what is going on, even if he doesn't. Although these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute only indirectly to learning because they don't lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving and using of language.

Rubin (1981) listed some other activities which may contribute indirectly to learning, all of them under the rubric : “ creates opportunity for practice “. The list includes : creates situation with natives in order to verify/test/practice ; initiates conversation with fellow student/teacher/native speaker ; answers to self, questions to other students ; spends extra time in

language lab; listens to television/radio, attends movies or parties or uses advertisements, reads extra books often first in native language, then in target language; and identifies learning preferences and selects learning situations accordingly. (Candlin, 1987)

A research of the mid-1970s has led to some very careful defining of specific learning strategies. Michael O'Malley and Anna Chamot and colleagues (O'Malley et al., 1990) have studied the use of strategies by learners of English as a second language in the United States. They divided strategies into three main categories, as seen in Table 2. "Metacognitive" is a term which is used in information-processing theory to indicate an "executive" function, strategies that involve planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. "Cognitive" strategies are more limited specific learning tasks and they involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. "Social-affective" strategies are related with social-mediating activity and transacting with others.

TABLE 2 Learning Strategies (O'Malley et al. 1990)

<u>LEARNING STRATEGY</u>	<u>DESCRIPTION</u>
METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
Advance Organizers	Making a general but comprehensive preview of the organizing concept or principle in an anticipated learning activity
Directed Attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distractors
Selective Attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that will cue the retention of language input.

LEARNING STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION
Self-Management	Understanding the conditions that help one learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions.
Functional Planning	Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary to carry out an upcoming language task.
Self-Monitoring	Correcting one's speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar , vocabulary, or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who are present
Delayed Production	Consciously deciding to postpone speaking in order to learn initially through listening comprehension
Self-Evaluation	Checking the outcomes of one's own language learning against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy

COGNITIVE STRATEGIES

Repetition	Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal
Resourcing	Using target language reference materials
Translation	Using the first language as a base for understanding and/or producing the second language
Grouping	Reordering or reclassifying, and perhaps labeling, the material to be learned based on common attributes
Note Taking	Writing down the main idea, important points, out line, or summary of information presented orally or in writing
Deduction	Consciously applying rules to produce or understand the second language
Recombination	Constructing a meaningful sentence or larger language sequence by combining known elements in a new way
Imagery	Relating new information to visual concepts in memory via familiar, easily retrievable visualizations, phrases, or locations
Auditory Representation	Retention of the sound or a similar sound for a word, phrase, or longer language sequence

LEARNING STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION
Keyword	Remembering a new word in the second language by (1) identifying a familiar word in the first language that sounds like or otherwise resembles the new word and (2) generating easily recalled images of some relationship between the new word and the familiar word
Contextualization	Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence
Elaboration	Relating new information to other concepts in memory
Transfer	Using previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge to facilitate a new language learning task
Inferencing	Using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information

SOCIOAFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

Cooperation	Working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, or model a language activity
Question for Clarification	Asking a teacher or native speaker for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation, and/or examples

(Brown : 1994)

Use of appropriate learning strategies enables students to take responsibility for their own learning by enhancing learner autonomy, independence, and self-direction (Oxford and Nyikos : 1989). Cognitive psychology shows that learning strategies help learners to assimilate new information into their own existing mental structures or schemata. Toward language proficiency, language learners develop their own understandings or models of the second or foreign language and its surrounding culture.

2.2. Foreign Language Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are steps taken by students to enhance their own learning. Strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active , self-directed involvement , which is essential for developing communicative competence. Appropriate language learning strategies result in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence (Oxford , 1990).

According to Wenden , the term learner strategies refers to language learning behaviours learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language , and these language learning behaviours have been called strategies.

There is not only one way in learning or teaching foreign languages. Different learners in different situations learn a foreign language in different ways. But it can be mostly seen that in foreign language education most standard texts and curricula include some introductory material in first language acquisition. In fact there are a number of approaches , methods, and techniques for the teaching of a foreign language. Every approach in language teaching is based on a theory. The differences between approaches in language teaching are related to debate between philosophical empiricists and rationalists (Mc Donough, Steven H. , 1985) .

Teachers and researchers have all observed that some students approach the language learning task in more successful ways than others. That is, all other things being equal , some students will be more successful than others in learning a second or foreign language. The learning strategies literature assumes that some of this success can be attributed to particular sets of cognitive and metacognitive behaviours which learners engage in. Further , it is assumed that successful learners will differ to some extent in the particular

sets of cognitive processes and behaviours which they use to enable them to be successful. For example , given the same learning environment , the same target language , the same native language , and the same language level , some learners will be more analytic in their approach to the learning task while others will be more intuitive ; some learners will prefer to use written materials to access a foreign language while others will prefer to hear the language . It is assumed that there will be several paths to success depending on the individual's learning style . However it is assumed that some approaches will not promote success for any learner. (Wenden and Rubin : 1987)

It is known that instruction does not lead to learning automatically. The learning activities that students employ determine to a large extent the quality of the learning outcomes they achieve. Learning activities are viewed as thinking activities that people employ to learn, learning strategies as particular, often used combinations of learning activities. The majority of study strategies research in higher education has focused on cognitive processing strategies and motivation but recently, attention has been drawn to the importance of metacognition. Metacognition refers to learners' views and beliefs about learning and to the active regulation of their learning processes. Cognitive processing activities are those thinking activities that people used to process learning content. They lead directly to learning results in terms of knowledge, understanding, skill and so on. Examples are : looking for relations among parts of the subject matter (relating), distinguishing main and minor points (selecting), thinking of examples (concretizing), and looking for applications (applying). Affective learning activities are directed at coping with the feelings that arise during learning, and lead to an emotional state that may positively, neutrally or negatively affect the progression of a learning process. For example: motivating oneself, attributing learning results to causal factors, attaching subjective appraisals to learning tasks and getting blocking emotions under control are types of (social) affective learning activities. The striking point is that metacognitive regulation activities are directed at regulating the cognitive and affective learning activities and therefore indirectly lead to

learning results. Examples are as follows : orienting on a learning task, monitoring whether the learning process proceeds as planned, diagnosing the cause of difficulties and adjusting learning processes when needed (Vermunt : 1996).

2.2.1. Reading Strategies

How to teach reading has been the subject of much debate over the years. One reason may be because, to the reading public, reading seems to be a fairly easy and natural thing to do. However, this apparent ease masks the very real and complex processes involved in the act of reading.

The truth is that learning to read is anything but natural. In fact, it does not develop incidentally; it requires human intervention and context. While skillful readers look quite natural in their reading, the act of reading is complex and intentional; it requires bringing together a number of complex actions involving the eyes, the brain, and the psychology of the mind (e.g., motivation, interest, past experience) that do not occur naturally.

Researches have made it clear that, for those students who fall behind in reading, opportunities to advance or catch up diminish over time. Therefore, the teaching of beginning reading is of supreme importance and must be purposeful, strategic, and grounded in the methods proven effective by researches.

Armbruster et al. (1983) present reading to learn from a metacognitive perspective as it relates to four variables : texts, tasks, strategies, and learner characteristics.

2.2.1.1. Metacognitive Reading

The first variable, text, refers to the textual features of learning materials which influence comprehension and memory. Factors such as arrangement of ideas in texts, vocabulary, syntax, clarity of author's intentions, and reader's interest and familiarity with a text all have an effect on students' learning. Salient findings from the research include three basic points: (1) text structures influence learning even if the learner is unaware of their effect; (2) knowledge of the effect of text structures on learning is dependent on age and ability; and (3) a reader can optimize learning by becoming aware of text structures and the resultant effect they have on learning.(Collins, 1994)

Armbruster's (1983) research suggests that younger and less mature readers do not concentrate on textual features because they are not aware of the impact text structures have on learning. Researchers contend that knowledge of the effect of text structures on learning is prerequisite to conscious control of strategies. Teachers need to instruct students to use text structure to enhance learning.

Another area of research in the development of metacognition of text features is related to the recognition of inadequacies in prose. Ambiguous words or confusions within the text affect cognitive processing. Experienced readers will adjust their reading rate for anomalous texts and may return to an inconsistent sentence or passage several times, comparing what they know with what is written in the text. Older and more fluent readers are more aware of text inconsistencies and can judge whether or not their comprehension is altered because of such inconsistencies. .

Another variable of metacognition in reading to learn pertains to the task that the reader is required to perform. For example, locating a specific detail in a text requires a different process than that needed to write a critical analysis of

the text. As with other facets of metacognition, mature and immature learners differ with respect to their knowledge of, and ability to control, task variables.

Fundamental to any task in reading is the derivation of meaning from the text. In order for learning to occur, students must be aware that the purpose of reading is to construct meaning. The reader must learn how to adapt reading behavior to specific tasks.

A related index of metacognitive development with regard to the task is the reader's ability to accurately predict his or her performance on the task. For young readers, this may be quite difficult, but with age and reading experience, readers begin to pick up cues which give them information about how well they have performed; these are important variables in metacognition of reading.

An additional category of metacognitive knowledge and control involves knowing how to remedy comprehension failures. It is not enough to be aware of one's understanding or failure to understand--a learner must be able to self-regulate his or her reading process in order to read for comprehension. The reader needs knowledge about metacognition strategies.

Researchers cite two different categories of strategies: "fix-up" strategies to resolve comprehension failures and studying strategies to enhance storage and retrieval when comprehension failure is not necessarily an issue (Armbruster, 1983). Tei and Stewart (1985) discuss several strategies for improving comprehension. These include forming a mental image, rereading, adjusting the rate of reading, searching the text to identify unknown words, and predicting meaning that lies ahead.

It is proven that readers use many strategies, but that a distinction exists between good readers and poor readers. Good readers tend to use the most effective strategy that leads to a thorough processing of the text. The research

also supports that readers can be taught to develop self-awareness and control of learning.

Study strategies are important in reading to learn and can be applied to enhance text processing. Common studying strategies include underlining, outlining, notetaking, summarizing, and self-questioning. Many of these strategies are complex and best handled by older and more experienced readers.

A final category of metacognition in reading to learn is the awareness of the learner of his or her own characteristics--such as background knowledge, degree of interest, skills, and deficiencies--and of how these affect learning. Again, the reader must be able to take that awareness and translate it into a change in reading behavior. Research suggests that successful students tend to relate information in texts to previous knowledge; less successful students showed little tendency to use their knowledge to clarify the text at hand.

Thus, learner characteristics, like texts, tasks, and strategies, are age and experience dependent. The development of metacognition appears to be linked to proficiency in learning. A related conclusion about metacognitive development is that knowledge precedes control. The researchers suggest that learners must first become aware of structures of text, as well as knowledge of the task and their own characteristics as learners, before they can strategically control the learning process to optimize the influence of these factors (Armbruster, 1983).

Awareness of metacognitive skills can be gleaned through instruction. Teachers can help their students learn from reading: they can encourage students to take an active role in reading. The goal is to develop active, independent learners. Integrating metacognitive skills into classroom instruction can make that goal attainable.

Cummins (1983, 1986) has made some striking research. He formulated two hypotheses pertinent to native language literacy.

First, the Interdependency Hypothesis states that “to the extent that instruction through a minority language is effective in developing academic proficiency in the minority language, transfer of this proficiency to the majority language will occur given adequate exposure and motivation to learn the majority language” (Cummins, 1986). In other words, language skills, once learned, transfer globally from one language to another.

Second, the Common Underlying Proficiency Hypothesis holds that the development of first language reading skills provides a deep conceptual and linguistic proficiency that is strongly related to the development of literacy and general academic skills in the second language. This common underlying proficiency makes possible the transfer of cognitive and academic or literacy-related skills across languages (Cummins, 1983).

When adults are taught to read in the language they already know, they can use the linguistic strengths they bring into the program and draw upon the knowledge and skills they have acquired in their first language (Rivera, 1988). This approach is consonant with one of the underlying tenets of adult education: New skills and knowledge are best acquired when they build on the already existing knowledge and skills of the adult learner. Ovando and Collier (1985) state that even when two languages use different writing systems, readers are able to apply the visual, linguistic, and cognitive strategies they use in their first language to reading in the second language. Students transfer what they know about reading in one language to the other, and in so doing maximize the linguistic strengths they already possess.

2.2.1.2 Reciprocal Teaching

Reciprocal teaching is a well researched method of teaching students to be active readers. It was originally developed by Palincsar and Brown (1987) as an explicit meta-cognitive procedure to increase reading comprehension for students with learning disabilities. Reciprocal teaching has been demonstrated to be effective for normally developing students as well as students with mental retardation, students with emotional disturbance, and students who are learning a second language.

According to Palincsar (1986) the concept of reciprocal teaching is an instructional activity that takes place in the form of a dialogue between teachers and students regarding segments of text. The dialogue is structured by the use of four strategies: summarizing, question generating, clarifying, and predicting. The teacher and students take turns assuming the role of teacher in leading this dialogue.

The purpose of reciprocal teaching is to facilitate a group effort between teacher and students as well as among students in the task of bringing meaning to the text. Each strategy was selected for the following purpose:

Summarizing provides the opportunity to identify and integrate the most important information in the text. Text can be summarized across sentences, across paragraphs, and across the passage as a whole. When the students first begin the reciprocal teaching procedure, their efforts are generally focused at the sentence and paragraph levels. As they become more proficient, they are able to integrate at the paragraph and passage levels.

Question generating reinforces the summarizing strategy and carries the learner one more step along in the comprehension activity. When students generate questions, they first identify the kind of information that is significant

enough to provide the substance for a question. They then pose this information in question form and self-test to ascertain that they can indeed answer their own question. Question generating is a flexible strategy to the extent that students can be taught and encouraged to generate questions at many levels. For example, some school situations require that students master supporting detail information; others require that the students be able to infer or apply new information from text.

Clarifying is an activity that is particularly important when working with students who have a history of comprehension difficulty. These students may believe that the purpose of reading is saying the words correctly; they may not be particularly uncomfortable that the words, and in fact the passage, are not making sense. When the students are asked to clarify, their attention is called to the fact that there may be many reasons why text is difficult to understand (e.g., new vocabulary, unclear reference words, and unfamiliar and perhaps difficult concepts). They are taught to be alert to the effects of such impediments to comprehension and to take the necessary measures to restore meaning (e.g., reread, ask for help).

Predicting occurs when students hypothesize what the author will discuss next in the text. In order to do this successfully, students must activate the relevant background knowledge that they already possess regarding the topic. The students have a purpose for reading: to confirm or disprove their hypotheses. Furthermore, opportunity has been created for the students to link the new knowledge they will encounter in the text with the knowledge they already possess. The predicting strategy also facilitates use of text structure as students learn that headings, subheadings, and questions imbedded in the text are useful means of anticipating what might occur next.

In summary, each of these strategies was selected as a means of aiding students to construct meaning from text as well as a means of monitoring their reading to ensure that they are in fact understanding what they read.

2.2.2. Writing Strategies

Writing is a continuing process of discovering how to find the most effective language for communicating one's thoughts and feelings. It can be challenging, whether writing in one's native language or in a second language. Yet, as adult English as a second language (ESL) learners put their thoughts on paper, see their ideas in print, and share them with others, they find they develop a powerful voice in their new culture (Peyton, 1993; Tran, 1997). Writing also enhances language acquisition as learners experiment with words, sentences, and larger chunks of writing to communicate their ideas effectively and to reinforce the grammar and vocabulary they are learning in class (Bello, 1997).

There are two general approaches to writing: free writing, which is not necessarily edited or worked on further, and a more extended process approach. In addition, the language experience approach (LEA) is often used with beginning literacy learners to provide opportunities for reading and writing through personal experiences and oral language (Taylor, 1992).

“Free Writing”: Learners write for a period of time in class on a topic of interest to them. This writing can take many forms, including quick writes, which are time-limited, done individually, and not always shared; and dialogue journals, written to a teacher, a classmate or other partner who then responds (Peyton & Staton, 1996). These writings may be kept in a portfolio or notebook. From these pieces, themes may emerge that can act as springboards for more extensive writing that is discussed, revised, edited, and published.

“Process Writing”: Process writing usually begins with some form of “pre-writing activity” in which learners work together in groups to generate ideas about a particular topic. This could include sharing the free-writing piece described above, brainstorming, making a list or timeline, or simply reflecting

on an experience. Each group member then works alone to compose a “first draft,” concentrating on getting ideas down on paper, without worrying about spelling or grammar. They then read their drafts to each other in pairs or small groups. They encourage each other with constructive comments and questions as they seek better understanding of what each other is trying to write. They might discuss the purpose of the writing, what the author learned or hopes others will learn, and what the reader likes best or has trouble with (Crandall & Peyton, 1993).

“Revising” begins based on these comments and responses. Now the main concern is clarity as the writer looks at organization and sequencing of ideas, the need for additional information or examples, areas of confusion, and words or phrases that could make the writing clearer (Cheatham et al, 1994). Revisions should be shared until the ideas seem clear. Then, “editing” can begin as the focus moves to spelling, grammar, punctuation, transition words (first, next), and signal words (for example, another reason is...). Learners should be encouraged to edit what they know or have studied. A checklist can help them focus on specific points. They should use each other and the teacher as resources, in addition to the dictionary and grammar books. When the learner and the teacher feel satisfied with a particular piece of writing, it should be “shared with a wider audience”--the whole class, family and friends, or the community. Pieces can be displayed around the room or compiled and published as a book, magazine, newsletter, or newspaper. Learners should be encouraged to read each other’s work and comment on final products.

Depending on the amount of class time available for writing, the demands of the curriculum, the needs of the learners, and the comfort level of the learners and the teacher, variations in the process might occur. For example, pre-writing activities such as brainstorming can be done orally or in writing, individually or as a whole class. Learners might prepare their first draft in class or as homework, depending on how much time they have outside class to write. Rather than having learners work in groups to respond to drafts, the teacher

might hold conferences with individual learners to discuss their writing and ask questions to clarify ideas. As issues arise (e.g., trouble with topic sentences, the use of quotation marks), the teacher might spend class time working on specific points with the entire class.

“Language Experience Approach”: Although there are many variations in the application of LEA, the basic process remains constant: learners relate individual or group experiences to a teacher, aide, or fellow learner, who transcribes these contributions for use in reading and writing activities. In a class situation, the experience may stem from something that the learners did together or have in common. Before any writing occurs, the experience is discussed. Then the class works together to develop a written text. Often the exact words of the learners are recorded as dictated, without transcriber corrections to grammar or vocabulary so that the focus is on the content. The text is then read aloud and opportunities are provided for learners to practice reading it. Extension activities that encourage further writing can be developed to accommodate learners at different proficiency levels. For example, beginning learners may simply copy the story or make their own illustrated dictionary of vocabulary words. More advanced learners may produce their own individual written pieces on the same experience.

In order to write a composition effectively, the students’ fear of writing has to be dispelled, they have to be given something to write about to encourage them to write with success, and in each student, self-confidence, dignity, and a sense of self-worth have to be instilled.

2.2.3. Reading-Writing Strategies

Reading and writing exist only in relation to each other. Writing is to reading as waking is to sleeping, as giving is to receiving. The one act

definitive reading style. Yet, when taught discrete skills out of a meaningful context in this way, many students eventually get into the habit of reading only for “information retrieval”; consequently, they miss many of the ideas implied in a text (Kirby et al, 1986). All in all, this kind of instructional approach to reading is simply ineffective, for it accommodates the analytic reading style more or less to the exclusion of global, kinesthetic, and auditory styles (Carbo, 1987). Notably, for global--visually oriented, whole-to-part reading styles--and for kinesthetic--touch-oriented, experiential reading styles, one of the recommended activities is writing in response to reading. Furthermore, for “poor readers,” those who are uncomfortable with the analytic styles, one of the recommended activities is also writing in response to reading (Carbo, 1987).

The followings are examples of activities which deal with both reading and writing at the same time.

2.2.3.1. Relating ESL Literacy Instruction To Learner Differences

The ways reading and writing are used in adult ESL programs must be influenced by learners’ various language proficiencies, backgrounds, and needs. “Initial literacy” activities are used with learners who have had limited schooling in their first language or whose first language does not have a written form. Some ESL literacy programs provide oral English instruction in a way that is accessible to learners with limited reading ability, as well as initial literacy instruction in English.

“Reading and writing for language acquisition” is used with learners who have completed a basic education in their first language. Reading texts that match learner interests and English proficiency provide learners with comprehensible language input--a chance to learn new vocabulary in context and to see the syntax of the language. Writing allows learners opportunities to

presupposes the other act. Together, the two acts are one act, and yet each remains a separate act, at the same time. Literally, to write and read, we must give and receive.

Listening, speaking, reading, and writing, the four modes of language, are inextricably related (Thaiss, 1984). In particular, listening/speaking and reading/writing are interdependent pairs, the latter being a clever human extension of the former. If ability in half of a communications pair languishes, so does ability in the other half. To comprehend our perceptions and communicate forcefully, then, we would do well to speak in response to what we hear, and write in response to what we read.

Reading and writing play a larger role in language instruction for adult learners today than they have in the recent past. Reading and writing were never completely removed from adult English as a Second Language (ESL) curricula, but during the early 1980s there was a shift toward oral/aural instructional goals and practices. That shift was motivated by learners' needs; many adults had a limited amount of time to spend in a program, and their most immediate need seemed to be oral communication. Some learners came to adult programs with very limited formal schooling, and an oral/aural approach allowed them more opportunities to participate in class. In fact, oral communicative ability is still a primary goal of much adult ESL instruction, but the pendulum is swinging back toward a greater emphasis on reading and writing.

Unfortunately, in the usual instructional approaches to reading, writing plays little or no role. Mostly, reading is taught as a sequence of discrete skills to be mastered one-at-a-time by students. For example, in the phonics approach, isolated letter sounds or letter clusters are studied sequentially and blended to form words. In the linguistic approach, patterns of letters are studied and combined to form words (Carbo, 1987). Usually, the analytic reading style necessary to approaches such as phonics and linguistics is taught as the

experiment with the language and try different constructions to make themselves understood.

“More complex reading and writing tasks” are appropriate for learners with some literacy background in their own language or in English. Many ESL programs now use a process approach to writing instruction, and some regularly publish collections of learner writing .

For reading activities, many of the high/low books written for adult new readers are appropriate for ESL learners as well, although care needs to be taken that cultural concepts and idiomatic expressions are accessible. When the text is written at an accessible level and the story is engaging, readers usually get past unfamiliar words and derive meaning from the context.

For writing activities, process writing is beginning to play a larger role in ESL classes as well. From a process writing perspective, writing is a communicative act with an intended purpose and audience. The teacher and other learners help the writer find a topic and revise drafts of a written piece until it conveys the intended meaning. Learners are encouraged to take risks and try out new language. As they continue to work to make their meanings clear, learners acquire competence using the style, syntax, grammar, and surface features of the language. Sometimes language rules are taught in teacher-led mini-lessons, but always in the context of expressing the learner’s own ideas.

2.2.3.2. Reading/Writing Assignments

Before students make an entry in their reading log, the teacher must ensure that they know how to use it. Before every assignment, the teacher could discuss the type of reading and the purpose for reading, as well as the

procedures for the particular assignment. Most importantly, the teacher could write and distribute a sample entry that illustrates careful questioning of and personal involvement with a reading assignment. Likewise, before students work with partners or in small groups, the teacher should ensure that they know their responsibilities so that they ask specific questions and make specific suggestions about one another's responses. The teacher could review the process with each assignment and emphasize the purpose of collaboration and discussion: to clarify and refine one's ideas about a reading. Finally, to evaluate the students' use of the reading log, the teacher should consider the thoroughness and thoughtfulness of the entries. In evaluating a particular assignment, the teacher could write in the margins "probes," content-oriented questions that demand specific answers.

All the activities arranged before, during, and after a reading and all the specific writing assignments made along with the reading are based upon the premise that students assimilate their perceptions of a text most fully by writing in response to reading.

Through activities such as notetaking, goal-setting, and various response-writing activities, students clarify their thoughts. Upon completing a reading/writing assignment, they have something to show for their work--something to "give"; namely, they have a written record of their responses to a reading.

2.2.4. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Vocabulary is an ongoing process. It continues throughout one's life. From a teacher's point of view the issue in the classroom usually revolves around how to improve the student's reading comprehension, whether it be in content area reading or in the language arts. Should the teacher teach

vocabulary directly or incidentally? That is, should words be targeted for the learners or should they develop naturally through reading and the learner's desire to clarify concepts? Evidence falls in both directions. Certainly vocabulary knowledge can be acquired through reading and discussions about certain contexts (Nagy et al, 1985). But it appears that direct instruction is more effective than incidental learning for the acquisition of a particular vocabulary, and also more efficient (McKeown and Beck, 1988). However, in one study of fourth graders that examined whether a context or a definitional approach was better for vocabulary development, Szymborski (1995) found that there was no significant difference in raw scores between the samples using the two different approaches.

2.2.4.1. Instructional Techniques

It is generally accepted that students learn vocabulary more effectively when they are directly involved in constructing meaning rather than in memorizing definitions or synonyms. Thus, techniques such as webbing that involve students' own perspectives in creating interactions that gradually clarify targeted vocabulary may be a way to combine direct teaching and incidental learning in one exercise. Teachers can use students' personal experiences to develop vocabulary in the classroom. Through informal activities such as semantic association students brainstorm a list of words associated with a familiar word, pooling their knowledge of pertinent vocabulary as they discuss the less familiar words on the list. Semantic mapping goes a step further, grouping the words on the list into categories and arranging them on the visual "map" so that relationships among the words become clearer. In semantic feature analysis, words are grouped according to certain features, usually with the aid of a chart that graphically depicts similarities and differences among features of different words. Finally,

analogies are a useful way of encouraging thoughtful discussion about relationships among meanings of words.

2.2.4.2. Content Area Reading

In content area reading, the development of vocabulary as a study of relationships seems particularly pertinent. Recognition of isolated information in an article on mechanization, for instance, may represent little understanding of the changes that are occurring as industry moves from human labor to robotics. Barton and Calfee (1989) suggest using a vocabulary matrix to establish the dimensions of a subject. The power of any vocabulary matrix lies in its image of connected ideas, in its process of discovering context for a new word, and in its visual reminder of gaps in our understanding.

Vocabulary development in any subject can proceed by asking students to reveal any vocabulary framework that they already have. Those known words may help them associate meaning with new vocabulary. In that way, definitions and the particular meaning within a given sentence have a context and a set of relations to build on.

One group technique that enables students to list synonyms and/or definitional phrases that they already associate with the topic involves the construction of a simple T-bar chart. For example, an article on protecting the environment includes the word “menace.” The teacher lists words that students associate with threats to the environment. Associated terms and synonyms are then listed in the T-bar chart.

With this kind of visual representation of a word and related terms, a matrix is begun for most students and the definition is enriched. The semantic context may now be rich enough for the reader to use this word in its context

(Moore et al, 1989). To build background and to understand vocabulary in content area reading, students need the benefit of seeing multiple relationships.

2.2.4.3. Teaching Vocabulary

Christen and Murphy (1991) contend that research clearly emphasizes that for learning to occur, new information must be integrated with what the learner already knows. They feel that teaching vocabulary as a prereading step is an instructional intervention that should be considered when readers lack the prior or background knowledge to read in a content area. Kueker (1990) also argues that prereading activities help enormously in reading comprehension.

Another technique to help students see a word in a broader context is to have them answer the following questions: (1) what is it?; (2) what is it like?; (3) what are some examples? Schwartz and Raphael (1985) believe that this list of 3 questions helps students see relationships between familiar and less familiar terms and also brings the meaning of an unknown term into focus by requiring analogies and examples.

2.2.4.3.1. Learning From Dictionary Definitions

When students encounter words whose meanings they are unfamiliar with, they are usually encouraged by teachers to consult with dictionaries to check the meanings of the words. Dictionaries are thought to be the most useful and reliable information source about word meanings. But the kind of roles dictionaries play in vocabulary learning is yet an open question.

Watson and Olson (1987) indicated that dictionary definitions have conventional forms which are different from normal discourse patterns and they are biased by “literate” cultures. According to their views, students have difficulty with the patterns of definitions because they belong to a discourse community different from their everyday one.

Miller and Gildea (1987) reported that fifth and sixth grade students who had been given dictionary definitions of unfamiliar words generated many incorrect sentences containing those words because of the inaccurate understandings of the word meanings.

They called the common type of errors the students made “substitution errors”, which included the following sequence of steps (Gildea et al., 1990):

1. find the target word in the dictionary;
2. read the definition;
3. select some short, familiar segment of the definition;
4. compose a sentence using the selected segment; and
5. substitute the target word for the selected segment in the sentence.

Scott and Nagy (1991) showed that the students’ failure of appreciating the overall structure of the definition (fragmentation error as they called it) was not an artifact of generation tasks Miller and his colleagues used, but that such errors were observed in comprehension tasks too. They further examined the effect of changes in definitional formats on the fragmentation errors. They prepared three different forms of word information. The first kind was a conventional format of dictionary definitions taken from a traditional children’s dictionary. The second one was the conventional definitions plus an illustrative example sentence to each word. The third one was an unconventional format of dictionary definitions which are used in the Sesame Street Dictionary (Hayward, 1980) and the Collins Cobuild dictionary (1987). In their experiment, both fourth- and sixth-grade students were found to accept many inappropriate fragments of definitions as the entire meaning for new words. And this tendency was observed with all the three formats they used.

McKeown (1991) gave fifth graders conventional definitions and compared their understandings of the meanings. The result indicated that the responses to the conventional dictionary definitions matched the misinterpretations anticipated by the analysis of definition problems and that the responses to the revised definitions went a long way toward capturing the essence of the word meanings. But it can not be concluded from this result that students could learn word meanings well if they were given good definitions. Even subjects given revised definitions still made many errors.

These studies seem to indicate some important points about vocabulary learning from dictionary definitions. First of all, it is very difficult to learn word meanings only from dictionary definitions. Second, one reason for this is the conventional formats of dictionary definitions which are unfamiliar to students and difficult to understand. Third, even if we revise formats and contents of dictionary definitions, learners' vocabulary learning can improve only a little. These points suggest that we need to look into other sources of information in vocabulary learning too.

2.2.4.3.2. Learning From Context

Another kind of important information for vocabulary acquisition is words and sentences around unfamiliar words as contexts. In everyday situations, people acquire vocabulary at an amazing rate everyday without being given formal instruction. This fact seems to suggest that they can easily pick up the meanings of unfamiliar words from their contexts. But things are not so easy. To what extent can students infer word meanings from contexts and how well they can learn words from contexts without explicit instruction are not clearly answered questions.

Nagy, Herman and Anderson (1985) undertook an experiment attempting to determine whether students acquire knowledge about unfamiliar words while reading natural texts. After reading either an expository or a narrative text, eighth-grade students were given an individual interview and a multiple choice test which were designed to detect their gains in partial knowledge of target word meanings. Results showed small but statistically reliable gains in word knowledge during reading natural text. Nagy, Anderson and Herman (1987) and Herman, Anderson, Pearson and Nagy (1987) also investigated this kind of incidental vocabulary learning.

On the other hand, Schatz and Baldwin (1986) undertook three experiments to examine whether or not contextual clues help readers to identify the meanings of low-frequency words in naturally occurring prose. They concluded that contextual clues did not reveal the meanings of low-frequency words in natural prose, that contextual clues appeared to be just as likely to result in confusion as in the correct identification of word meaning, and that contextual clues worked best when the target word was redundant with the rest of the context and contributed little new information to the passage.

The apparent contradiction between these two studies is due to the nature of the experimental materials and the measures they used. One conclusion we can draw from these studies is that kids can pick up word meanings from contexts, but the amount and quality of such learning can not be said to be high.

Sternberg (1987) stated that “Most vocabulary is learned from context. What this claim does imply is that teaching people to learn better from context can be a highly effective way of enhancing vocabulary development. What the claim does not imply is that teaching specific vocabulary using context is the most effective, or even a relatively effective, way of teaching that vocabulary.” In order to have vocabulary learners acquire accurate and sufficient word knowledge, just giving contextual sentences, even in meaningful texts, would not be enough. As Stahl and Fairbanks (1986)

concluded from their meta-analysis of research on vocabulary instruction, “the methods that did appear to produce the highest effect on comprehension and vocabulary measures were methods that included both definitional and contextual information about each to-be-learned word (or “mixed” methods)”. How word learners use contextual information and other information is an important question, though not well investigated so far.

2.2.5. Grammar Learning Strategies

Grammar is often misunderstood in the language teaching field. The misconception lies in the view that grammar is a collection of arbitrary rules about static structures in the language. Further questionable claims are that the structures do not have to be taught, learners will acquire them on their own, or if the structures are taught, the lessons that ensue will be boring.(Larsen-Freeman ,1997)

Consequently, communicative and proficiency-based teaching approaches sometimes unduly limit grammar instruction. It is true that some learners acquire second language grammar naturally without instruction. For example, there are immigrants to the United States who acquire proficiency in English on their own. This is especially true of young immigrants. However, this is not true for all learners. Among the same immigrant groups are learners who may achieve a degree of proficiency, but whose English is far from accurate. A more important question may be whether it is possible with instruction to help learners who cannot achieve accuracy in English on their own.

It is also true that learning particular grammatical distinctions requires a great deal of time even for the most skilled learners. Carol Chomsky (1969) showed that native English speakers were still in the process of acquiring

certain grammatical structures in English well into adolescence. Thus, another important question is whether it is possible to accelerate students' natural learning of grammar through instruction. Research findings can be brought to bear on this question from a variety of sources (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Pienemann (1984) demonstrated that subjects who received grammar instruction progressed to the next stage after a two-week period, a passage normally taking several months in untutored development.

While the number of subjects studied was admittedly small, the finding, if corroborated, provides evidence of the efficacy of teaching over leaving acquisition to run its natural course.

With regard to whether instruction can help learners acquire grammar they would not have learned on their own, some research, although not unequivocal, points to the value of form-focused instruction to improve learners' accuracy over what normally transpires when there is no focus on form (Larsen-Freeman, 1995).

It is generally thought that grammar can only be taught through repetition and other rote drills. Teaching grammar does not mean asking students to repeat models in a mindless way, and it does not mean memorizing rules. Such activities can be boring and do not necessarily teach grammar. This does not mean there is no place for drills, but drills should be used in a meaningful and purposeful way. For example, to practice past-tense yes/no sentences in English, the teacher may ask her students to close their eyes while she changes five things about herself. She takes off one shoe, takes off her watch, puts on her glasses, puts on her sweater, and takes off her ring. Students are then asked to pose questions to figure out the changes she has made. Students may ask, "Did you take off a shoe?" or "Did you put on a sweater?" This kind of activity can be fun and, more importantly, engages students in a way that requires them to think and not just provide mechanical responses.

Teaching grammar in a way that engages students may require creativity, but the teaching need not and should not be boring.

As mentioned before, students have different learning styles. Not all students can learn grammar. Research shows that some people have a more analytical learning style than others. According to Hatch (1974), some learners approach the language learning task as “rule formers.” Such learners are accurate but halting users of the target language. Others are what Hatch calls “data gatherers,” fluent but inaccurate producers of the target language. This observation by itself does not address whether or not all students can learn grammar. While it may be true that learners approach language learning differently, there has been no research to show that some students are incapable of learning grammar. Students have different strengths and weaknesses. It is clear that all students can learn grammar as is evident from their mastery of their first language. As grammar is no different from anything else, it is likely that students will learn at different rates.

Teachers may teach one grammar structure at a time, and students may focus on one at a time, but students do not master one at a time before going on to learn another. There is a constant interaction between new interlanguage forms and old. Students may give the appearance of having learned the present tense, for example, but when the present progressive is introduced, often their mastery vanishes and their performance declines. This backsliding continues until the grammar they have internalized is restructured to reflect the distinct uses of the two tenses. We know that the learning curve for grammatical structures is not a smoothly ascending linear one, but rather is characterized by peaks and valleys, backslidings and restructurings.

2.3. Related Studies Abroad

The literature survey in the field of “language learning strategies” proves that the number of the researches in this field is quite limited . But there are some valuable sources which should not be ignored .

Lavine (Oxford 1990:225) used formal presentations about strategies but soon found that students’ strategies improved most when strategy training was integrated into regular classroom activities in an informal , natural way. She stated that the great majority of students showed an openness and willingness to try things , and that they gained an awareness of an attitude for life , for learning in general.

Wenden (1987) explored a variety of language learning aspects in a project at the intensive American Language Program of Columbia University. One of these language learning aspects was learning strategies. According to her , the goal was to sharpen and expand student awareness of various aspects of their language learning experience. She used materials which integrated the students much more closely with the language tasks and objectives , and thus the students became much more interested , and the results were very successful.

2.4. Related Studies In Turkey

Also in Turkey studies related with “language learning strategies” are quite limited. Yet, there were more studies available.

Kahraman (1988) , for instance , conducted a research on learner factors affecting students’ success in EFL at the Preparatory Section at the University

of Gaziantep . She found that the students with good study habits were more successful than the students without these habits .

In her study with preparatory students of Bilkent University, Yüzbaşıoğlu (1991) stated that most of the language learners have metacognition-related problems , especially self-management and self-evaluation strategies . She observed that many of the students in her study found it difficult to self-direct their learning and expressed a need for strict guidance from the teacher and administrators .

Also Köksal (1992) , applied a research on the relationship between certain in-class behaviour of the Preparatory Section students at the University of Gaziantep and their achievement in FL . She found that good language learners employ certain strategies related to in-class behaviour .

Similarly , Şanal(1992) , made an attempt to find out the language learning strategies that are used by the students at the Preparatory Section of the University of Gaziantep . She came to the conclusion that most of the students do not employ learning strategies consciously and effectively , and are not aware of their importance in FL learning .

A likewise study was conducted by Balkan (1993) who investigated the learning style differences of EFL learners at the University of Gaziantep. Two analyses were done on the subject of that study. First the learning style differences between the male students and female students were investigated. Then, learning style differences between the preparatory class students and the students of freshman class were analysed. According to the results, there are statistically significant differences between the male students and female students on the topics of note taking, reading aloud, speaking with native speakers, effect of noise, and preferable learning ways. Some statistically significant differences between the preparatory class students and the freshman students on the topics of the use of the supplementary books, what the students

do when they have a problem in English classes, plus activities, summarizing, preferable learning ways, reading aloud, silent reading, effect of noise were also observed in the same study.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.0. Presentation

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the training of language learning strategies and the effect of these strategies on students' success. To assess the degree of the relationship between these two aspects, a pre-test and post-test were administered to the Preparatory Section students after the questionnaire had been applied.

3.1. Setting and Subjects

This study was conducted at the English Preparatory Section of the University of Gaziantep owing to the fact that the researcher would be able to have a better control over the research conditions.

At the beginning, a questionnaire of 26 questions was applied to 161 students of the Preparatory Section of the University of Gaziantep. The purpose of applying this questionnaire to find out whether the students used any language learning strategies or not. The subjects of this study consisted of 50 students of Preparatory Section. These students were chosen after the results of

the questionnaire were analyzed which was done very easily because the majority of the students did not have any language learning strategies. The students who the research was conducted with were one's who rarely (if ever) used any learning strategies. The tests were administered to these students. The experimental study about students' language learning strategies took place over a six-week period.

3.2. Tools

The questionnaire which was used to collect necessary data for the research was adopted from Rebecca Oxford's book "What Every Language Teacher Should Know". In fact there were lots of statements related with listening, speaking, reading, writing. But because of the main point of this study, only statements about grammar, reading, writing and vocabulary were chosen. The questionnaire, investigating whether the students utilized any learning strategies or not, was given to 161 students who were in the odd numbered groups of the preparatory section (see Appendix A). After the answers of the respondents to the questionnaire were classified, 50 students were chosen to carry out the study. These 50 students were the ones who mostly scored the option "strongly disagree" which means that these students generally did not use any strategies in language learning. They were given the same test at the beginning and end of the study (pre-test, post-test) (see Appendix C). The test which has been proven to be valid and reliable consisted of three components : (1) structure, (2) vocabulary and reading, (3) writing. It was gathered from the original standard practice tests for TOEFL taken from NTC publishing.

3.3. Data Collection

At the beginning of the study a proficiency test was administered to 50 students. After the evaluation of the test, the programme started. The programme lasted six weeks. At the end of the study the same proficiency test was administered to the same 50 students. The difference between the two test scores was considered as the students' success in FL learning after strategy use instruction.

All the learners were informed about the purpose and methodology of training they were going to be exposed to. All the components (reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary) and the suitable learning styles for them were explained.

To start with reading comprehension, the students were exposed to many language learning strategies such as repeating, practising naturalistically, summarizing, skimming, scanning, getting the idea quickly etc. Mostly, the students were asked to read a passage more than once, or quickly, or in parts. Later the students were tested by the help of the post test, to see if these language learning strategies related with reading had done them any good.

In the writing process students were asked to write frequently especially in the style of diaries and they were also asked to read frequently something that they expected to write about. Having pen pals was an advised point but because of the period of the study this was not possible.

In the grammar process some strategies like keeping a notebook of important structures, applying the known rules to the new aspects of the language were emphasized. Students approached this process more willingly when compared with reading comprehension and writing process, since most of

them considered grammar rules fundamental to successful learning for it is the building block of English.

On the other hand, vocabulary was taught by the help of dictionary definitions which were then inserted into a paragraph. Also, direct instruction method and content area reading were applied.

3.4. Procedures of Data Analysis

The statistical technique mainly utilized in this study to assess the degree of relationship between the students' strategy training and their success in learning English in Preparatory School at the University of Gaziantep was the t-test. The subjects' performances were evaluated through a practice test for TOEFL.

To assess the degree of relationship between students' proficiency in strategy use and their success on the tests "t-test" technique was used and it has also been investigated if the result of the t-test was in the 95 % Confidence Interval of the Difference .

After the collection of appropriate data through instruments which were mentioned previously, they were sorted and evaluated in the computer environment using SPSS standard statistical analysis programme.

In this study, the arithmetical means of pre-test and post-test scores were calculated and later, a t-test has been applied to see if the difference between these two components was statistically significant or not.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

4.0. Presentation

According to Gay (1981), the aim of the t-test is to determine whether two means are significantly different at a selected probability level. This is to say that for a given sample size the t indicates how often a difference as large or larger would be found when there is no true population difference. In this study the result of the t-test is supported by the 95 % confidence interval of the difference.

4.1. Analysis of the Collected Data

After analysing the responses for each question in the questionnaire, they were presented under frequency and percentage values in tables to give more obvious information about the students' use of language learning strategies. In the table the options which took place in the questionnaire are shown as capital letters. "S.D." stands for "strongly disagree", "D" stands for "disagree", "N.I.E." means "no idea either way", "A." means "agree" and "S.A." means

“strongly agree”. The frequency column shows the number of students who scored the options, the percentage column shows their rate.

Table 3

Item 1 : I say or write new English words several times.

Item 2 : I read a story or dialogue several times until I can understand it .

Item 3 : I use familiar words in different conditions to make new sentences.

	Options	Frequency	Percentage
ITEM 1	S. D.	35	21,7
	D.	23	14,3
	N. I. E.	49	30,4
	A.	35	21,7
	S. A.	19	11,8
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 2	S. D.	18	11,2
	D.	32	19,9
	N. I. E.	57	35,4
	A.	36	22,4
	S. A.	18	11,2
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 3	S. D.	50	31,1
	D.	26	16,1
	N. I. E.	48	29,8
	A.	24	14,9
	S. A.	13	8,1
Total		161	100,0

According to Table 3-Item 1, 35 students with a percentage of 21,7 % strongly disagreed that they said or wrote new English words several times. 23 students with a percentage of 14,3 % disagreed with this statement. 49 students, that is 30,4 % students stated that this was somewhat true of them. 35 students of percentage 21,7 % agreed that they say or write new English words

several times. 19 students forming a percentage of 11,8% strongly agreed with this point.

As can be seen, the majority of students stated that they had no idea about the act of saying or writing new English words several times; that is, the majority of students were not aware of whether they were saying or writing new words several times or not.

In Table 3-Item 2, it can be seen that 18 students with a percentage of 11,2 % strongly disagreed with reading a story or dialogue several times until they could understand it. 32 students with a percentage of 19,9 % disagreed with this statement. 57 students with a percentage of 35,4 % stated that they had no idea about this point. 36 students with a percentage of 22,4 % agreed with this statement. 18 students of percentage 11,2 % strongly agreed with this statement.

After examining this table, it can be stated that the majority of students did not have an idea about reading a story or dialogue several times until they could understand it. Again, it can be concluded that the students were not aware of how they studied reading.

According to Table 3-Item 3, 50 students of percentage 31,1 % stated that they never used familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences . 26 students of percentage 16,1 % said that they usually did not use familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences. 48 students of percentage 29,8 % stated that they had no idea. 24 students said that they usually used familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences of percentage 14,9 %. 13 students of percentage 8,1 % stated that they always applied this strategy.

By looking at this table, it can be concluded that the majority of students did not use familiar words in different conditions to make new sentences. But the minority of students stated that they always used this strategy.

Table 4

Item 4 : I read for pleasure in the new language.

Item 5 : I write personal notes, messages, letters or reports in the new language.

Item 6 : I skim the reading passage first to get the idea, then I go back and read it more carefully.

	Options	Frequency	Percentage
ITEM 4	S. D.	33	20,5
	D.	13	8,1
	N. I. E.	50	31,1
	A.	46	28,6
	S. A.	19	11,8
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 5	S. D.	58	36,0
	D.	31	19,3
	N. I. E.	37	23,0
	A.	17	10,6
	S. A.	18	11,2
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 6	S. D.	21	13,0
	D.	15	9,3
	N. I. E.	23	14,3
	A.	44	27,3
	S. A.	58	36,0
Total		161	100,0

According to Table 4-Item 4, 33 students of percentage 20,5 % said that they never read for pleasure in the new language. 13 students reported that they

usually did not read for pleasure in the new language of percentage 8,1 %. 50 students of percentage 31,1 % showed that they had no idea; 46 students of percentage 28,6 % stated that they usually read in the new language and 19 students of percentage 11,8 % stated that they always read for pleasure in the new language.

It can be said that the majority of students did not read for pleasure in the new language. But anyway, a group of percentage 28,6 % stated that they usually read in the new language which is very close to the majority group and a remarkable point.

In Table 4-Item 5, it can be seen that 58 students with a percentage of 36 % strongly disagreed with this point. 31 students with a percentage of 19,3 % stated that usually did not write any personal notes, messages, letters or reports in the new language . 37 students with a percentage of 23 % stated that they had no idea; 17 students of percentage 10,6 % stated that they usually wrote personal notes, messages, letters or reports in the new language and similarly 18 students of percentage 11,2 % stated that they always applied this strategy.

As the result of the analysis of this table, it is very obvious that the majority of students strongly disagreed with writing personal notes, messages, letters or reports in the new language. Thus it can be stated that the majority of students did not use any writing strategies at all.

According to Table 4-Item 6, 21 students with a percentage of 13 % stated that they strongly disagreed with this strategy. 15 students of 9,3 % stated that they usually did not skim the reading passage first, 23 students of percentage 14,3 % stated that they had no idea about this strategy. 44 students of percentage 27,3 % usually skimmed the passage and 58 students with percentage of 36 % stated that they always skimmed the reading passage first to get the main idea.

usually did not read for pleasure in the new language of percentage 8,1 %. 50 students of percentage 31,1 % showed that they had no idea; 46 students of percentage 28,6 % stated that they usually read in the new language and 19 students of percentage 11,8 % stated that they always read for pleasure in the new language.

It can be said that the majority of students did not read for pleasure in the new language. But anyway, a group of percentage 28,6 % stated that they usually read in the new language which is very close to the majority group and a remarkable point.

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As the result of the analysis of this table, it is very obvious that the majority of students strongly disagreed with writing personal notes, messages, letters or reports in the new language. Thus it can be stated that the majority of students did not use any writing strategies at all.

According to Table 4-Item 6, 21 students with a percentage of 13 % stated that they strongly disagreed with this strategy. 15 students of 9,3 % stated that they usually did not skim the reading passage first, 23 students of percentage 14,3 % stated that they had no idea about this strategy. 44 students of percentage 27,3 % usually skimmed the passage and 58 students with percentage of 36 % stated that they always skimmed the reading passage first to get the main idea.

After analysing Item 6, it can be said that the majority of students skimmed the reading passage first to get the idea, then they went back and read it more carefully, whereas the minority of students just disagreed with applying this strategy.

Table 5

Item 7 : I seek specific details in what I hear or read.

Item 8 : I use reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries to help me use the new language.

Item 9 : I take notes in class in the new language.

	Options	Frequency	Percentage
ITEM 7	S. D.	28	17,4
	D.	18	11,2
	N. I. E.	45	28,0
	A.	42	26,1
	S. A.	28	17,4
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 8	S. D.	20	12,4
	D.	19	11,8
	N. I. E.	33	20,5
	A.	45	28,0
	S. A.	44	27,3
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 9	S. D.	34	21,1
	D.	18	11,2
	N. I. E.	50	31,1
	A.	28	17,4
	S. A.	31	19,3
Total		161	100,0

As can be seen in Table 5-Item 7, 28 students with a percentage of 17,4 % stated that they never seeked specific details in what they hear or read. 18 students stated that they usually did not of percentage 11,2 % seek specific

details, 45 students of percentage 28 % stated that they did not have an idea, 42 students of percentage 26,1 % stated that they agreed with this point, and 28 students of percentage 17,4 % indicated that they always seek specific details in what they hear or read.

From this part of the table, it can be concluded that the majority of students had no idea of seeking specific details in what they heard or read. The minority of students stated that they did not look for specific details in what they heard or read.

According to Table 5-Item 8, 20 students, that is 12,4 % said that they never used reference materials to help them use the new language ; 19 students of percentage 11,8 % said that they usually did not use any reference materials and 33 students of percentage 20,5 % stated that they did not have any idea about this strategy. 45 students with a percentage of 28 % said that they usually used glossaries or dictionaries and 44 students with a percentage of 27,3 % stated that they always used reference materials to help them use the new language.

Table 5-Item 8 shows that the majority of students generally used reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries to help them use the new language. So, it can be stated that the majority of students used this strategy in vocabulary activities.

In Table 5-Item 9, it can be seen that 34 students with a percentage of 21,1 % indicated that they never took notes in class in the new language . 18 students with a percentage of 11,2 % stated that they usually did not take notes in the new language. 50 students with a percentage of 31,1 % stated that they had no idea, 28 students of percentage 17,4 % said that they usually took notes in the new language and 31 students with a percentage 19,3 stated that they always took notes in class in the new language.

In the same table, it can be stated that the majority of students had no idea of taking notes in class in the new language, whereas the minority of students stated that they did not use this strategy.

Table 6

Item 10 : I make summaries of the new language material.

Item 11 : I apply general rules to new situations when using the language.

Item 12 : I find the meaning of a word by dividing the word into parts which I understand.

	Options	Frequency	Percentage
ITEM 10	S. D.	53	32,9
	D.	30	18,6
	N. I. E.	28	17,4
	A.	23	14,3
	S. A.	27	16,8
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 11	S. D.	16	9,9
	D.	14	8,7
	N. I. E.	46	28,6
	A.	64	39,8
	S. A.	21	13,0
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 12	S. D.	24	14,9
	D.	24	14,9
	N. I. E.	46	28,6
	A.	40	24,8
	S. A.	27	16,8
Total		161	100,0

According to Table 6-Item 10, 53 students with a percentage of 32,9 % stated that they never summarized the new language material , 30 students with a percentage of 18,6 % revealed that they usually did not make any summaries of the new language material. 28 students of percentage 17,4 % indicated that

they sometimes made summaries. 23 students that is 14,3 % said that they usually summarized the new language material and 27 students of percentage 16,8 % said that they always summarized the new language material.

The results of Table 6-Item 10 show that the majority of students did not make summaries of the new language material, yet the minority of students somewhat applied this strategy.

In Table 6-Item 11, it can be seen that 9,9 % of the students, that is 16 students total, indicated that they never applied general rules to new situations when using the language. 14 students which means 8,7 % stated that they usually did not apply general rules to new situations. 46 students with a percentage of 28,6 % stated that they had no idea about this point. 64 students which makes a percentage of 39,8 % stated that this was usually true of them. 21 students with a percentage of 13 revealed that they always applied this strategy.

The results of Item 11 indicate that the majority of students somewhat applied general rules to new situations when using the language whereas the minority of students did not.

According Table 6-Item 12, 24 students of percentage 14,9 % strongly disagreed that they found the meaning of a word by dividing it into parts which they understood. 24 students with a percentage of 14,9 % disagreed with this statement. 46 students of percentage 28,6 % stated that they had no idea about this point. 40 students of percentage 24,8 % said that they agreed with this statement. 27 students of percentage 16,8 % strongly agreed with this point.

From the results of Item 12, it can be said that the majority of students did not have an idea of whether they found the meaning of a word by dividing it into parts which they understood or not.

Table 7

Item 13 : I look for similarities and contrasts between the new language and my own.

Item 14 : I try to understand what I have (heard or) read without translating it word-for- word in to my own language.

Item 15 : I am cautious about transferring words or concepts directly from my language to the new language.

	Options	Frequency	Percentage
ITEM 13	S. D.	36	22,4
	D.	30	18,6
	N. I. E.	38	23,6
	A.	33	20,5
	S. A.	24	14,9
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 14	S. D.	15	9,3
	D.	11	6,8
	N. I. E.	42	26,1
	A.	47	29,2
	S. A.	46	28,6
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 15	S. D.	24	14,9
	D.	23	14,3
	N. I. E.	37	23,0
	A.	50	31,1
	S. A.	27	16,8
Total		161	100,0

In Table 7-Item 13, it can be seen that 36 students with a percentage of 22,4 % strongly disagreed with the statement that they look for similarities and contrasts between the new language and their own. 30 students of percentage of 18,6 % disagreed with this statement. 38 students with a percentage of 23,6 % stated that they had no idea about this item. 33 students of percentage 20,5 % agreed with this statement. 24 students of percentage 14,9 % strongly agreed with this statement.

The results of Item 13 show that the majority of students did not have any idea of whether they looked for similarities and contrasts between the new language and their own language. The group following the majority stated that they did not use such a strategy.

In Table 7-Item 14, it can be seen that 15 students with a percentage of 9,3 % strongly disagreed that they try to understand what they had read without translating it word-for-word in to their own language. 11 students of percentage 6,8 % disagreed with this statement. 42 students of percentage 26,1 % stated that they had no idea about this point. 47 students of percentage 29,2 % agreed with this statement, and 46 students of percentage 28,6 % strongly agreed with this statement.

The results of this item show that the majority of students tried to understand what they have (heard or) read without translating it word- for-word into their own language. That is to say that the majority used this strategy as much as possible.

According to Table 7-Item 15, 24 students with a percentage of 14,9 % strongly disagreed with the point of being cautious about transferring words or concepts directly from their language to the new language. 23 students with a percentage of 14,3 % disagreed with this statement. 37 students of percentage 23 % stated that they had no idea about this item. 50 students of percentage 31,1 % agreed with this statement and 27 students of percentage 16,8 % strongly agreed with this point.

The results of Item 15 show that the majority of students agreed with being cautious about transferring words or concepts directly from their own language to the new language. So, it can be concluded that the majority used this strategy as much as they could.

Table 8

Item 16 : I read without looking up every unfamiliar word.

**Item 17 : When I cannot think of the correct expression to (say or) write
I find a different way to express the idea; for example, I use a
synonym or describe the idea.**

Item 18 : I make up new words if I do not know the right ones.

	Options	Frequency	Percentage
ITEM 16	S. D.	23	14,3
	D.	29	18,0
	N. I. E.	39	24,2
	A.	41	25,5
	S. A.	29	18,0
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 17	S. D.	12	7,5
	D.	16	9,9
	N. I. E.	35	21,7
	A.	48	29,8
	S. A.	50	31,1
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 18	S. D.	37	23,0
	D.	32	19,9
	N. I. E.	39	24,2
	A.	34	21,1
	S. A.	19	11,8
Total		161	100,0

According to Table 8-Item 16, 23 students with a percentage of 14,3 % strongly disagreed with the statement of reading without looking up every unfamiliar word and 29 students of percentage 18 % disagreed. 39 students with a percentage of 24, 2 % stated that they had no idea whereas 41 students of percentage 25, 5 % agreed with this point. 29 students with a percentage of 18 % strongly agreed with this statement.

In Table 8-Item 16, the majority of students can be seen as using the strategy of reading without looking up every unfamiliar word. The minority of students can also be seen as not applying this strategy.

In Table 8-Item 17, it can be seen that 12 students with a percentage of 7,5 % strongly disagreed with finding a different way to express the idea when they could not think of the correct expression to write. 16 students of percentage 9,9 % disagreed with this statement and 35 students of percentage 21,7 % stated having no idea about this point. 48 students of percentage 29,8 % agreed and 50 students of percentage 31,1 % strongly agreed with using a synonym when not being able to remember the correct expression.

By looking at the results of Item 17, it can be stated that the majority of students found a different way to express the idea such as using a synonym or describing the idea when they could not think of the correct expression to (say or) write.

According to Table 8-Item 18, 37 students of percentage 23 % strongly disagreed that they made up new words if they did not know the right ones. 32 students of percentage 19,9 % disagreed with this statement and 39 students with a percentage of 24,2 % stated that they had no idea about this point. 34 students with a percentage of 21,1 % agreed, and 19 students with a percentage 11,8 % strongly agreed with this statement.

After examining the results of Item 18, it is possible to say that the majority of students did not have any idea of making up new words if they did not know the right ones. This means that the majority of students were not aware of whether they made up new words or not if they did not know the right ones.

Table 9

Item 19 : I preview the language lesson to get a general idea of what it is about, how it is organised and how it relates to what I already know.

Item 20 : I arrange my schedule to study and practice the new language consistently, not just when there is the pressure of a test.

Item 21 : I plan my goals in language learning for instance, how proficient I want to become, or how I might want to use the language in the long run.

	Options	Frequency	Percentage
ITEM 19	S. D.	43	26,7
	D.	34	21,1
	N. I. E.	40	24,8
	A.	26	16,1
	S. A.	18	11,2
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 20	S. D.	36	22,4
	D.	31	19,3
	N. I. E.	37	23,0
	A.	34	21,1
	S. A.	23	14,3
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 21	S. D.	8	5,0
	D.	21	13,0
	N. I. E.	46	28,6
	A.	49	30,4
	S. A.	37	23,0
Total		161	100,0

Table 9-Item 19 shows that 43 students of percentage 26,7 % strongly disagreed with previewing the language lesson to get a general idea of what it was about, how it was organised, and how it related to what they already knew. 34 students of percentage 21,1 % disagreed with this statement and 40 students with a percentage of 24,8 % stated that they had no idea of this point. 26

students with a percentage of 16,1 % stated that they agreed with this statement, and 18 students with a percentage of 11,2 % strongly agreed with this statement.

According to the results of Item 19, the majority of students did not preview the language lesson to get a general idea of what it was about, how it was organised and how it related to what they already knew. Thus it can be said that the majority of students did not apply this strategy.

In Table 9-Item 20, it can be seen that 36 students of percentage 22,4 % strongly disagreed with arranging their schedule to study and practice the new language consistently, not just when there was the pressure of a test. 31 students of percentage 19,3 % disagreed with this statement and 37 students of percentage 23 % stated that they had no idea about this point. 34 students of percentage 21,1 % agreed with this statement and 23 students of percentage 14,3 % strongly agreed with this statement.

The analysis of the results of Item 20 shows that the majority of students were not aware of whether they arranged their schedule to study and practice the new language consistently or not, even if there was not the pressure of a test.

Table 9-Item 21 shows that 8 students stated that they strongly disagreed planning their goals for language learning, for instance how proficient they want to become or how they might want to use the language in the long run. This makes a percentage of 5 %. 21 students of percentage 13 % disagreed with this statement and 46 students with a percentage of 28,6 % had no idea about this point. 49 students with a percentage of 30,4 % agreed with this statement and 37 students with a percentage of 23 % strongly agree with this statement.

The results of Item 21 show that the majority of students planned their goals in language learning such as how proficient they want to become or how

they might want to use the language in the long run. So it can be concluded that the majority of students applied the strategy whereas the minority did not.

Table 10

Item 22 : I try to notice my language errors and find out the reasons to them.

Item 23 : I learn from my mistakes in using the new language.

Item 24 : I organize my language notebook to record important language information.

	Options	Frequency	Percentage
ITEM 22	S. D.	6	3,7
	D.	9	5,6
	N. I. E.	31	19,3
	A.	61	37,9
	S. A.	54	33,5
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 23	S. D.	6	3,7
	D.	11	6,8
	N. I. E.	31	19,3
	A.	61	37,9
	S. A.	52	32,3
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 24	S. D.	12	7,5
	D.	8	5,0
	N. I. E.	21	13,0
	A.	44	27,3
	S. A.	76	47,2
Total		161	100,0

According to Table 10-Item 22, 6 students of percentage 3,7 % strongly disagreed with trying to notice their language errors and finding out the reasons to them. 9 students of percentage 5,6 % disagreed with this statement. 31

students of percentage 19,3 % stated that they had no idea; 61 students of percentage 37,9 % agreed with this statement and 54 students of percentage 33,5 % strongly agreed with this statement.

After the analysis of Item 22, it is possible to say that the majority of students applied the strategy of trying to notice their language errors and find out the reasons to them. In contrast, the minority of students did not apply this strategy at all.

According to Table 10-Item 23, 6 students with a percentage of 3,7 % strongly disagreed with learning from their mistakes in using the new language. 11 students with a percentage of 6,8 % disagreed with this statement; 31 students of percentage 19,3 % stated that they had no idea about this point whereas 61 students of percentage 37,9 % agreed. 52 students with a percentage of 32,3 % strongly agree with this statement.

The results of Item 23 show that the majority of students applied the strategy of learning from their mistakes in using the new language while the minority did not apply this strategy.

Table 10-Item 24 shows that 12 students with a percentage of 7,5 % strongly disagreed with the idea of organizing their language notebook to record important language information. 8 students of percentage 5 % disagreed with the statement. 21 students of percentage 13 % stated having no idea whereas 44 students of percentage 27,3 % agreed with this item. 76 students of percentage 47,2 % strongly agreed with this statement.

In Table 10-Item 24, the majority of students can be seen to organise their language notebook to record important language information. But the minority of students did not use this strategy.

Table 11

Item 25 : I try to find out all I can about how to be a better language learner by reading books or articles, or by talking with others about how to learn.

Item 26 : When I do not understand all the words I read (or hear), I guess the general meaning by using any clue I can find, for example, clues from the context or situation.

	Options	Frequency	Percentage
ITEM 25	S. D.	35	21,7
	D.	36	22,4
	N. I. E.	43	26,7
	A.	37	23,0
	S.A.	10	6,2
Total		161	100,0
ITEM 26	S.D.	9	5,6
	D.	16	9,9
	N. I. E.	51	31,7
	A.	41	25,5
	S. A.	44	27,3
Total		161	100,0

According to Table 11-Item 25, 35 students of percentage 21,7 % strongly disagreed with the idea of trying to find out all they could about how to be a better language learner by reading books or articles or by talking with others about how to learn. 36 students of percentage 22,4 % disagreed with this statement. 43 students of percentage 26,7 % stated that they had no idea while 37 students with a percentage of 23 % agreed with this statement. 10 students of percentage 6,2 % strongly agreed with this statement.

The results of Item 25 show that the majority of students did not have any idea of trying to find out all they could about how to be a better language

learner by reading books or articles, or by talking with others about how to learn.

In Table 11-Item 26, it can be seen that 9 students of percentage 5,6 % said that they never guessed the general meaning by using some clues, 16 students of percentage 9,9 % stated that they usually did not guess the general meaning by using some clues; 51 students of percentage 31,7 % stated that they had no idea, 41 students of percentage 25,5 % said that they usually guessed the general meaning by using some clues; and 44 students of percentage 27,3 % stated that they always guessed the general meaning by using any clue they can find, for example, clues from the context or situation when they did not understand all the words they read.

The results of Table 11-Item 26 show that the majority of students did not have any idea about guessing the general meaning by using any clue they could find when they did not understand all the words they read (or heard). Yet the minority of students can be seen not to apply this rule at all.

4.2.The Program

The study took place over a six week period. The classes were held after the formal teaching session at the preparatory school was over. The study started on 4th May 1998 and finished on 13th June 1998, and it was applied on a three day basis- on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays. All the participants were voluntary. They played active role in all phases of the study and thus they helped to improve the study. The programme implemented by the same instructor, the researcher herself, during the course of this study was as follows (Table 12)

Table 29- Schedule of the study

I. Week		II. week		
Monday	Wednesday	Friday	Monday	Wednesday
Pre-test	* Formally practising with writing systems	* Paying attention	* Recognizing and using formulas and patterns	* Transferring
	* Repeating	* Setting goals and objectives * Using a circumlocution or synonym	* Overviewing and linking with already known material * Using resources for receiving and sending messages	* Self-evaluating * Self-monitoring * Making positive statements
III. Week		IV. week		
* Repeating	* Getting the idea quickly	* Summarizing	* Overviewing and linking with already known material. * Getting the idea quickly.	* Seeking practice opportunities * Using clues
* Practising naturalistically				
V. Week		VI. Week		
* Making positive statements	* Free Writing	* Taking notes	* Summarizing	* Writing a language learning diary Post-test

The first two weeks of the study were arranged as the grammar and vocabulary classes. On the first day of the study the pre-test was given assuming that none of the students had any strategy training during their education before.

On the second day of the study the students were faced with two language learning strategies. The first one was “formally practising with writing systems”. Here, the students were introduced the grammar system of the target language; for instance how it was similar to the mother tongue, how it was different from the mother tongue etc. by copying some sentences related with some tenses. The second language learning strategy was “repeating”, which involved to write the same word several times. This made the process something “automatic”.

On the third day of the study students were faced with three language learning strategies. The first one was “paying attention” where students had to decide to pay attention to the task and avoid irrelevant distractors. Also, they had to pay attention to particular details. The second language learning strategy was “setting goals and objectives” where the participants had to state their aim in the long run of learning a foreign language by writing some sentences about it with the help of the new grammar subject. The third language learning strategy on the third day of the study was “using a circumlocution or synonym” where the students used a circumlocution- that is a roundabout expression which involves several words to describe or explain a single concept -,or a synonym- that is a word which has exactly the same meaning as another word in the same language –to convey the intended meaning. This was achieved by the help of relative clauses and other structures of definition.

Three language learning strategies were presented on the fourth day of the study. The first of them was “recognizing and using formulas and patterns”. To recognize and use formulas and patterns in the target language enhanced the learners’ production by analyzing expressions and trying to use one word in

that expression with an alternative such as “Good-bye”, “How are you?”, etc. The second language learning strategy was “overviewing and linking with already known material” which involved to preview the basic principles for a new grammar subject and linking these with what the participants already knew. The third language learning strategy was “using resources for receiving and sending messages”, and it was used to find out the meaning of a new word or to produce messages in the new language. Dictionaries and word lists were ways in which to understand better what was read.

In the next session of the study two language learning strategies were introduced. The first one was “transferring” in which the participants applied their previous knowledge to facilitate new knowledge in the target language. It involved applying linguistic knowledge from the students’ own language to the new language. The second language learning strategy on the fifth day of the study was “self-evaluating” which involved gauging progress in grammar and vocabulary. Checklists and diaries helped the learners evaluate their progress, of course by the help of the instructor.

On the sixth day of the study, again two language learning strategies were applied. The first one was “self-monitoring” in which the participants were asked to write down their most significant difficulties in their notebooks and try to eliminate them. In this way the students were able to see their errors as a list and try to use them less in the future. The second language learning strategy on the last day of the study; in other words, on the last day of the grammar and vocabulary classes, was “making positive statements” which was assumed to be “useful when it was done before a potentially difficult language activity” as stated by Oxford (1990).

The third and fourth weeks of the study were programmed as the reading classes. On the seventh day of the study the students were exposed to two language learning strategies: “repeating” and “practising naturalistically”. While repeating, the students read a passage more than once to understand it

more completely. This was done by several ways such as to get the general idea of the text, to predict, to read for detail. Practising naturalistically was done by the help of authentic material in the target language such as newspapers, magazines, brochures, advertisements etc. The students were asked to find out the point the teacher asked for, to write letters to request some of the things in the materials etc.

On the eighth day of the study, the students had to get the idea of a reading passage quickly. This was done by the methods of “skimming” and “scanning”. In skimming the learners had to search for the main idea whereas in scanning they had to search for specific details in the text. To have students do this, some preview questions such as yes/no, true/false were asked first and later the main idea and some more detailed questions about the text were asked.

On the ninth day of the study, the students were exposed to “summarizing” only. Summarizing shows that the students understand the passage by making a shorter version of it.

On the tenth day of the study, the students were presented two language learning strategies. The first one was “overviewing and linking with already known materials” which was also used on the fourth day of the study in the Vocabulary class. The second learning strategy was “getting the idea quickly” which was also used on the eighth day of the study. This time the passages were a bit longer and more complex.

The eleventh day of the study was for “seeking practice opportunities”. Here, the students were asked to read what ever they found in the target language outside the class, they were explained that the duration of any class would not be enough for practising any skill, and until the lesson was over, some reading passages were dealt with by applying the beforehand learnt language learning strategies.

On the twelfth day of the study the topic was “using clues”. These clues were the introduction, summary, conclusion, title, transitions, etc. of a text. For example; phrases like “It is important that ...” , “In short ...” , “first”, “second”, “third”.

The fifth and sixth weeks of the study included the writing classes. On the thirteenth day, the students were asked to write “affirmative statements” about the given topics. This was also used on the last day of the vocabulary classes.

The fourteenth day of the study was arranged for “free writing”. Here, the students were asked to write paragraphs for three topics (one paragraph for each topic). The writings were collected and the mistakes were marked by the researcher afterwards.

The fifteenth day of the study had to do with “taking notes”. The students were asked to take the most important parts of the text being read by the teacher not as whole sentences but as notes. Later they had to read them out as whole sentences.

The sixteenth day of the study was devoted to “ summarizing” in which the participants had to make a shorter version of an original passage. This strategy was also used in the Reading classes because it was a reading-writing activity.

The seventeenth day of the study included “ writing a language learning diary” where the learners were asked to write their feelings about the language learner process in a few paragraphs if possible. They were able to write about some specific language learning strategies which they most like or which they found ineffective at all. The writings were checked by the researcher by the end before the end of the class.

On the eighteenth day of the study, the post-test was administered and after that, the evaluation period started.

4.3. Analysis of the Results of the Pre-test and Post-test

According to their answers on the questionnaire, 50 students were chosen to apply the study with. Those were the students with the lowest course scores for each item in the questionnaire. It was assumed that all the students who answered the questionnaire were sincere and thus these 50 students were accepted as the ones who never used any learning language strategies. Here are the pre-test and post-test results of the participants and their means were calculated. (see Table 13).

In the table below the subjects are numbered from 1 to 50. In the “subject no” column and their results for the pre-test and the post-test are shown in the “pre-test score” and “post-test score” columns. The arithmetical means of the pre-test and post-test results are also given at the end of the table.

Table 13. The relationship between students’ success at the beginning of the study and at the end of the study.

SUBJECT NO	PRE-TEST SCORE	POST-TEST SCORE
1	35	37
2	38	45
3	68	65
4	25	20
5	52	55
6	65	66
7	40	40
8	59	63

SUBJECT NO	PRE-TEST SCORE	POST-TEST SCORE
9	41	38
10	36	30
11	32	30
12	26	24
13	59	65
14	53	60
15	39	46
16	52	49
17	52	60
18	60	70
19	43	35
20	60	63
21	34	27
22	43	43
23	39	50
24	43	44
25	43	51
26	39	50
27	50	59
28	42	30
29	15	20
30	35	39
31	26	20
32	53	60
33	51	54
34	35	42
35	39	45
36	45	45
37	57	60

SUBJECT NO	PRE-TEST SCORE	POST-TEST SCORE
38	40	42
39	38	30
40	51	57
41	60	70
42	40	45
43	59	52
44	32	23
45	54	48
46	41	49
47	67	73
48	69	80
49	41	53
50	47	50
	$\bar{X} = 45,2600$	$\bar{X} = 47,4400$

As it can be seen from the table above, among these 50 students, 34 students achieved a higher post-test score than their pre-test score, 14 students achieved a lower post-test score than their pre-test score, and two students' pre-test and post-test scores remained the same.

As the last stage the t-test was applied to the means of pre-test and the post-test as follows (Table 14) :

Table 14: T-test scores

	95 % Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df
	Lower	Upper		
POSTTEST-PRETEST	,4162	3,9438	2,484	49

This table shows that the value of t has been found as 2,484 according to the means of pre-test and post-test results. The degree of freedom is 49, because the total of the number of participants was 50 and degree of freedom is reached by the subtraction of 1 from the total population ($n - 1 = 49$). By looking at the values for the degree of freedom 49 in the t-table, it is possible to say that the evaluated t (2,484) is bigger and since this value is in the 95 % confidence interval of the difference, the hypotheses of this study are supported and there is a statistically significant relationship between strategy training and its effect on students' success.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.0. Presentation

In this final chapter discussion of the results is concentrated on. The hypotheses which were stated at the beginning of the study will be evaluated in the light of the statistical results and some conclusions will be reached.

5.1. Comments on the Correlation between Students' Success on the Pre-test and Post-test after Strategy Training

The significance of the difference between students' success on the pre-test and post-test after strategy training was computed and the value of t has been evaluated and found as 2,484. Since the value of evaluated t is in the 95 % Confidence Interval of the Difference, the difference between students' success on the pre-test and post-test after strategy training is statistically significant. In other words the hypotheses which were stated at the beginning of

the study have been supported with the findings. According to this it can be concluded that strategy training affects students' success in a significant way.

5.2. Conclusions

The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of using learning strategies and its contribution to students' success. In the research it has been proven that strategy training accelerates learning and rises the level of long-lasting knowledge.

The results of this study investigating the significance of the difference between learners' training of strategy use and its effect on students' success on the tests indicate that :

There is a statistically significant difference between learners' training of strategy use and its effect on their success . ($t=2,484$)

According to this result it may be concluded that the hypotheses of this study have been supported. The value which was calculated as the t-test score using the arithmetical means of the pre-test and post-test results shows that strategy training helps learners facilitate their learning process.

As the study has proven, it is possible to say that many individuals can change their strategies in response to the unique contextual demands of the instruction, the context and the task.

A likewise study conducted with a group of American students learning Spanish in the U.S.A supports the idea and result of this study. This study was

administered by Roberta Lavine and the training was so successful that she kept doing it after the field test was over and has made it a standard feature in all of her classes (Oxford et. al : 1990).

In addition, it is claimed that second language learners can improve their language performance by being trained to use specific strategies.

It has also been stated that age and prior work experience influence learning styles, and it has been observed that the adult especially after age 33, learns better by doing (kinesthetic learning).

Strategy research suggests that less competent learners may improve their skills through training in strategies evidenced by more successful learners.

5.3. Recommendations

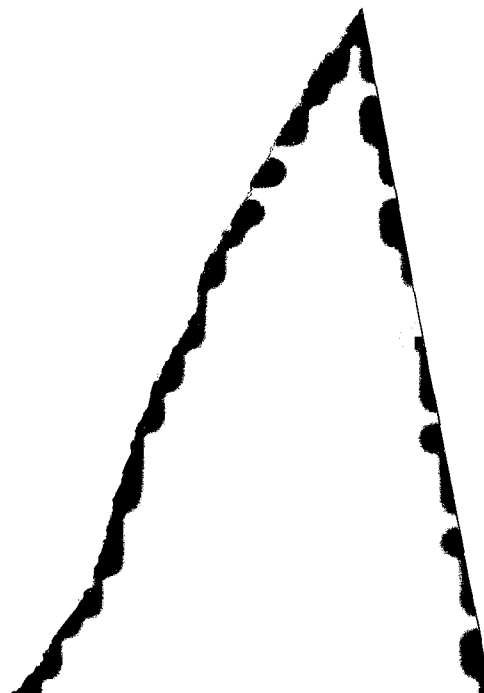
In the light of this study, it is proposed that teachers should

- 1- Emphasize the use of strategies in the foreign language classroom.
- 2- Choose strategies which support each other.
- 3- Do the teaching over a long period of time.
- 4- Include explanations, handouts, worksheets etc. in the teaching process.
- 5- Choose strategies which may help students in their future language tasks.
- 6- Make the strategy use somewhat individualized because of the different strategy needs of different students.

- 7- Create opportunities for strategy training during language classes.
- 8- Take the anxiety, motivation, beliefs and interests of students into consideration.
- 9- Provide training in both cognitive & metacognitive fields.
- 10- Evaluate learner attitudes after the teaching period is over.

It is a fact that new technologies offer many possibilities to the second language learner. But the effectiveness of these technologies depends on their appropriate use by informed educators. Neither textbooks nor technology can replace the live, unprogrammed feedback and interaction between the language teacher and the student in the language learning classroom.

As the last word, it is highly recommended that researchers apply programmes which increase the quality of education and the willingness for learning strategies because there is a need to find a more effective and more convenient type of learning strategy.



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9

APPENDICES



APPENDIX A

Strateji Kullanımına Ait Anket

Sevgili Öğrenci,

Gaziantep Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans öğrencisiyim. Aşağıdaki sorular tezimle ilgili bir ön araştırma niteliğindedir. Sizden ricam soruları okuduktan sonra size uygun olan seçeneği işaretlemenizdir. Teşekkürlerimle.

Okutman Nilüfer Evişen

	Bana hiç uymuyor.	Bana pek uymuyor.	Bana biraz uyuyor.	Bana oldukça uyuyor.	Bana tamamen uyuyor.
1- Yeni kelimeleri tekrar tekrar yazar ya da sesli okurum.	()	()	()	()	()
2- Bir hikayeyi veya diyalogu anlayıncaya kadar defalarca okurum.	()	()	()	()	()

	Bana hiç uymuyor.	Bana pek uymuyor.	Bana biraz uyuyor.	Bana oldukça uyuyor.	Bana tamamen uyuyor.
3- Yeni cümleler elde etmek için benzer kelimeleri farklı şekillerde kullanırım.	()	()	()	()	()
4- Zevk için İngilizce yazılar okurum.	()	()	()	()	()
5- Kişisel notlar , mektuplar , mesajlar veya raporlar yazarım.	()	()	()	()	()
6- Verilen bir okuma pasajının ana fikrini anlamak için önce gelişigüzel okurum , daha sonra yeniden ve daha dikkatli okurum.	()	()	()	()	()
7- Okuduğum parçada özel detaylar bulmaya çalışırım.	()	()	()	()	()
8- Parçada geçen bilinmeyen kelimelerin nasıl kullanıldığını sözlük yardımıyla öğrenirim.	()	()	()	()	()
9- Derste İngilizce not tutarım.	()	()	()	()	()
10- Yeni öğrendiğimiz konuyla ilgili özet çıkarırım.	()	()	()	()	()
11- Yeni durumlarda dili genel kurallara uygun olarak kullanmaya çalışırım.	()	()	()	()	()
12- Kelimenin manasını , onu anlayabileceğim parçalara ayırarak öğrenmeye çalışırım.	()	()	()	()	()

	Bana hiç uymuyor.	Bana pek uymuyor.	Bana biraz uyuyor.	Bana oldukça uyuyor.	Bana tamamen uyuyor.
13-Türkçe ve İngilizce arasındaki benzerlik ve farklılıkları araştırım.	()	()	()	()	()
14- Okuduğum parçayı kelime kelime değil ama, yine de Türkçe 'ye çevirerek anlamaya çalışırım.	()	()	()	()	()
15- Türkçe'den İngilizce 'ye dikkatli bir şekilde çeviri yapmaya çalışırım.	()	()	()	()	()
16- Bilmediğim her yabancı kelimeyi sözlükte araştırma yapmadan parçayı okurum.	()	()	()	()	()
17- Yazacağım kelimeyi tam olarak hatırlayamadığım (bilemediğim) durumlarda , bu kelimeyi ifade edecek başka bir yol denerim.	()	()	()	()	()
18- Doğru kelimeleri bilemezsem yeni kelimeler yaratırım	()	()	()	()	()
19- Dersi önceden gözden geçirerek ne hakkında olduğunu, ünitenin (konunun) nasıl organize edildiğini ve o ana kadar öğrendiklerimle nasıl bir bağlantısı olduğunu anlamaya çalışırım.	()	()	()	()	()
20-Ders çalışma programımı sadece sınav olduğunda değil, sınav baskısı olmadığı zamanlarda da çalışacağım şekilde düzenlerim.	()	()	()	()	()

	Bana hiç uymuyor.	Bana pek uymuyor.	Bana biraz uyuyor.	Bana oldukça uyuyor.	Bana tamamen uyuyor.
21- Dil öğrenmekteki amacımı (amaçlarımı) planlarım ; örneğin ne kadar yeterli olmak istediğimi ya da (bu) dili bu uzun süreçte nasıl kullanmak istediğimi gözden geçiririm.	()	()	()	()	()
22- Yaptığım hatalar ve bunların nedenlerini anlamaya çalışırım.	()	()	()	()	()
23- Bu yeni dili kullanırken yaptığım hatalar vasıtasıyla daha kalıcı bir şekilde öğrenmeye çalışırım.	()	()	()	()	()
24- Önemli yapıları bir deftere yazarım.	()	()	()	()	()
25- Makale ve kitaplar okuyarak daha iyi bir lisan öğrencisi olma yollarını bulmaya gayret ederim.	()	()	()	()	()
26- Okuduğum parçadaki tüm kelimeleri anlamadığım zamanlar bunları parçadan edinebileceğim ipuçlarıyla netleştirmeye çalışırım.	()	()	()	()	()

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire About Learners' Strategy Usage

Dear Student ,

I am a student at the Institute of Social Sciences of the University of Gaziantep in Partial Fulfilment for the Degree of Master of Arts in English Language Teaching . This questionnaire is a pre-research for my thesis . What I want you to do is to choose the best alternative for you.

Thank you .

Instructor Nilüfer Evişen

	Strongly disagree.	Disagree.	No idea either way.	Agree.	Strongly agree.
1- I say or write new English words several times .	()	()	()	()	()

	Strongly disagree.	Disagree.	No idea either way.	Agree.	Strongly agree.
2- I read a story or dialogue several times until I can understand it .	()	()	()	()	()
3- I use familiar words in different combinations to make new sentences .	()	()	()	()	()
4- I read for pleasure in the new language .	()	()	()	()	()
5- I write personal notes, messages, letters or reports in the new language.	()	()	()	()	()
6- I skim the reading passage first to get the main idea, then I go back and read it more carefully.	()	()	()	()	()
7- I seek specific details in what I hear or read.	()	()	()	()	()
8- I use reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries to help me use the new language.	()	()	()	()	()
9- I take notes in class in the new language.	()	()	()	()	()
10- I make summaries of the new language material.	()	()	()	()	()
11- I apply general rules to new situations when using the language.	()	()	()	()	()

	Strongly disagree.	Disagree.	No idea either way.	Agree.	Strongly agree.
12- I find the meaning of a word by dividing the word in to parts which I understand.	()	()	()	()	()
13- I look for similarities and contrasts between the new language and my own.	()	()	()	()	()
14- I try to understand what I have (heard or) read without translating it word-for- word in to my own language.	()	()	()	()	()
15- I am cautious about transferring words or concepts directly from my language to the new language.	()	()	()	()	()
16- I read without looking up every unfamiliar word.	()	()	()	()	()
17- When I cannot think of the correct expression to (say or) write I find a different way to express the idea; for example, I use a synonym or describe the idea.	()	()	()	()	()
18- I make up new words if I do not know the right ones.	()	()	()	()	()
19- I preview the language lesson to get a general idea of what it is about, how it is organized and how it relates to what I already know.	()	()	()	()	()

	Strongly disagree.	Disagree	No idea either way.	Agree.	Strongly agree.
20- I arrange my schedule to study and practice the new language consistently, not just when there is the pressure of a test.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21- I plan my goals for language learning, for instance, how proficient I want to become or how I might want to use the language in the long run.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22- I try to notice my language errors and find out the reasons to them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23- I learn from my mistakes in using the new language.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24- I organize my language notebook to record important language information.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25- I try to find out all I can about how to be a better language learner by reading books or articles, or by talking with others about how to learn.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26-When I do not understand all the words I read (or hear), I guess the general meaning by using any clue I can find, for example, clues from the context or situation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX C

PRE-TEST (POST-TEST)

I. STRUCTURE AND WRITTEN EXPRESSION

Choose the one word or phrase that best completes the sentence

1.glaciers of the world occupy about 10 per cent of the total land area.
 - (A) As the
 - (B) The
 - (C) It is the
 - (D) There are
2. Many animals use odors for identification,, sexual attraction, alarm, and a variety of other purposes.
 - (A) the territorial marking
 - (B) they mark territory
 - (C) territorial marking
 - (D) mark territory
3. Cellulose,....., is one of the many substances known as carbohydrates.
 - (A) is the building block of plant cell walls
 - (B) it's the building block of plant cell walls
 - (C) the building block of plant cell walls
 - (D) by the building block of plant cell walls
4. The name Oklahoma is synonymous with the word "Indian" as it comes from Okla-homma "red people" .
 - (A) meaning
 - (B) by meaning
 - (C) means
 - (D) to mean

5. Yosemite Valley ,, was carved out by a glacier in the Ice Age.

- (A) there is now a National Park
- (B) it is now a National Park
- (C) is now a National Park
- (D) which is now a National Park

6. Ozone extremely active chemically and succeeds in damaging any vegetation it comes in contact with

- (A) is
- (B) being
- (C) which is
- (D) by being

7. tornadoes occur in many regions of the world, they are most prevalent in the United States.

- (A) As
- (B) Although
- (C) Yet
- (D) Since

8. gold, silver, copper and platinum, nuggets of pure iron are rarely found in nature.

- (A) As unlike
- (B) Unlike the

9. Elias Howe of Massachusetts constructed a sewing machine, upon which improvements shortly were made by Isaac Singer.

- (A) It was in 1846
- (B) In 1846 he was
- (C) In 1846
- (D) In 1846 was

10. Temperature inversions often occur when in the late afternoon.

- (A) the earth's surface is cooled
- (B) earth's surface is cooled
- (C) also the earth's surface is cooled
- (D) that the earth's surface is cooled

11. Over 1900 years ago,, who worked in Alexandria, Egypt, classified the stars by their brightness.

- (A) he is a Greek astronomer named Ptolemy
- (B) it was a Greek astronomer named Ptolemy
- (C) a Greek astronomer named Ptolemy
- (D) a Greek astronomer whose name was Ptolemy

12. Transfer of information takes place in some way to the material that was originally learned .

- (A) only if the new material is similar
- (B) when is the new material similar

- (C) Unlike
(D) Unlikely

- (C) only with similar new material
(D) so the similar new material

13. By 1830 iron plows were in such great demand two factories in Pittsburgh alone turning out nearly 35,000 a year.

- (A) that was mass production
(B) that they were mass produced
(C) that were mass produced
(D) it was mass production

15. Fog is caused by the cooling of air until its vapor condenses microscopic water droplets or ice-crystals.

- (A) forms
(B) to be formed
(C) to form
(D) forming

14. Benjamin Franklin was not only a scientist, philosopher and inventor a craftsman. Humanitarian and essayist.

- (A) as well
(B) also
(C) and also
(D) but also

In the following questions each sentence has four underlined words or phrases. Identify the one underlined word or phrase that must be changed in order for the sentence to be correct.

16. Except for turkey at Thanksgiving, no single dish has gained wide enough popularity in

A

B

the U.S. to become a symbolic for the country as a whole.

C

D

17. Charcoal is odorless and tastelessness and has the ability to absorb a large quantity of gas.

A

B

C

D

18. Ginger is three time as hot as cumin, but not as hot as chili powder.

A

B

C

D

19. The Fair Labor Standards Act, signed by President Roosevelt in 1938, providing for a
 A B C
 minimum wage and a 40-hour work week.
 D
20. The sense of equilibrium depends of sense organs in the inner ear called semi-circular
 A B C D
 canals.
21. Ants find their way by following scent laid down by their previous ants .
 A B C D
22. The larger region in the U.S. for wine-growing is situated in California.
 A B C D
23. Children will walk at about the same age whether or no they are "taught" by their
 A B C D
 parents.
24. In process of photosynthesis, all green plants absorb carbon dioxide gas in the
 A B
manufacture of food.
 C D
25. Thomas Edison made improvements in the Crookes tube and became known for the
 A B C
 inventor of the fluoroscope.
 D
26. Jazz includes not only Dixieland, the original name for this music, also bebop,
 A B C D
 progressive jazz, swing and boogie-woogie.
27. The first vaccine ever developed used to combat smallpox, a disease resulting from
 A B C
 infection by a virus.
 D
28. The postwar decade marked by the advent of television, as the twenties were by that of
 A B C D
 radio.

29. Cocoa pods grow on the trunk and branch of the tree.

A B C D

30. The rust of iron and steel is essentially a chemical.

A B C D

31. Sponges attach themselves to the sea-floor and use internal moving parts to circulate water and food towards them.

A B C

D

32. In the 1840's, Joseph Henry, the most original American scientist since Benjamin Franklin, made important discovery in electromagnetism.

A B C

D

33. Before 1900, golf and tennis were almost complete participant rather than spectator sports.

A B C D

34. One of the most widespread uses of survey research today is for them rating radio and television programs.

A B C D

35. The principle of radiocarbon dating is the most important science technique to be applied to archaeological work in recent times.

A B C

D

36. Making cloth from synthetic fibers is requiring less labor than making cloth from natural fibers.

A B C D

37. Although oil and water can be mixed temporarily by sufficiently agitation, the mixture separates rapidly if allowed to stand.

A B

C D

38. Death Valley, in California, which it is 280 feet below sea level, is the lowest spot in the United States.

A B C D

39. Uncle Sam is a nickname which was used during first the War of 1812 to represent the

A B C

U.S. Government and the American people.

D

40. Charles A. Lindbergh made the first one-man, non-stopped flight across the Atlantic

A B C D

Ocean in 1927.

41. Light can travels from the sun to the earth in eight minutes and twenty seconds.

A B C D

42. Every human typically have twenty-three pairs of chromosomes in most cells.

A B C D

43. In the sport of fencing, three type of swords are used: the foil, the epee, and the sabre.

A B C D

44. The Internal Revenue Service uses computers to check tax return computations, to

A B

determine the reasonableness of deductions, and for verifying the accuracy of reported income.

C D

45. There was four groups of twenty rats each involved in the test.

A B C D

46. The type of jazz known as "swing" was introduced by Duke Ellington when he wrote and

A B C

records "It Don't Mean a Thing If It Ain't Got That Swing."

D

47. The bones of mammals, not alike those of other vertebrates, show a high degree of

A B C D

differentiation. .

48. The United States receives a large amount of revenue from taxation of a tobacco products.

A B C D

49. Much fats are composed of one molecule of glycerine combined with three molecules of

A B C

fatty acids.

D

50. The capital of the Confederacy was originally in Mobile, but its was later moved to

A B C D

Richmond.

II. VOCABULARY AND READING COMPREHENSION

Choose the one word or phrase that best keeps the meaning of the original sentence if it is substituted for the underlined word or phrase.

1. The mass of the atom is concentrated in the nucleus.
(A) contracted
(B) absorbed
(C) converged
(D) focused
2. According to Freud, dreams can be interpreted as the fulfilment of wishes.
(A) performance
(B) completion
(C) attainment
(D) conclusion
3. Students differ widely in their desire for, and ability to follow, a schedule.
(A) broadly
(B) largely
(C) greatly
(D) thoroughly
4. In all parts of the U.S. there is adequate rainfall except near the Rocky Mountains.
(A) sufficient
(B) acceptable
(C) abundant
(D) suitable
5. Viking sailors landed in North America just under a thousand years ago.
(A) upwards of
(B) not quite
(C) only just
(D) just on
6. Among any mammals, the father helps in protecting and instructing the young.
(A) teaching
(B) coaching
(C) tutoring
(D) cramming
7. Liquid or gas pressure is exerted in all directions.
(A) operated
(B) exhausted
(C) applied
(D) forced
8. The Comanche are largely of mixed-blood Indian and Spanish descent.
(A) pedigree
(B) origin
(C) race
(D) birth

9. A rating scale is a standardized device for recording personal judgements.
- (A) mechanism
 - (B) factor
 - (C) instrument
 - (D) formula
10. In the eighteenth century, Thomas Jefferson purchased the territory of Louisiana from Napoleon for 15 million dollars.
- (A) contracted
 - (B) bought
 - (C) possessed
 - (D) acquired
11. Distances in space seem incredibly great when compared to distances on earth.
- (A) unbelievably
 - (B) inaccessibly
 - (C) hopelessly
 - (D) excessively
12. If an animal seeks admittance to an already established closed society, it is initially received with great hostility.
- (A) displeasure
 - (B) contempt
 - (C) pugnacity
 - (D) disgust
13. Writing is a skill that requires consistent practice.
- (A) invariable
 - (B) orderly
 - (C) regular
 - (D) customary
14. Although the sun is the prime mover of our weather, it is forever unpredictable.
- (A) primary
 - (B) first-rate
 - (C) first
 - (D) foremost
15. Comfrey is a wild flower with leaves that can prickle the skin.
- (A) irritate
 - (B) scratch
 - (C) tickle
 - (D) aggravate
16. Natural resources have affected the history of the United States as much as the means of communication.
- (A) as far as
 - (B) in so much as
 - (C) to the same degree as
 - (D) at the same rate as

17. Harvard, established at Cambridge, Massachusetts in 1636, is the oldest college in America.
- (A) built
 - (B) originated
 - (C) authorized
 - (D) founded
18. An introverted person is inclined to be moody.
- (A) fanciful
 - (B) changeable
 - (C) depressed
 - (D) gloomy
19. Sociologists have tended to use income as the basis for attributing class position.
- (A) assets
 - (B) profits
 - (C) earnings
 - (D) benefits
20. Some species of birds, when migrating, divide according to their age and sex.
- (A) in keeping with
 - (B) conforming to
 - (C) in line with
 - (D) in relation to
21. In 1834 McCormick invented the reaper, an agricultural machine used for harvesting.
- (A) gathering
 - (B) sowing
 - (C) plowing
 - (D) planting
22. The Statue of Liberty in New York Harbor stands upon a pedestal.
- (A) foundation
 - (B) plinth
 - (C) ledge
 - (D) support
23. At one time buffalo roamed all over the United States.
- (A) Recently
 - (B) Presently
 - (C) Formerly
 - (D) Lately
24. Great granite boulders, nearly four thousand feet high, rise in Yosemite Valley
- (A) stones
 - (B) rocks
 - (C) pebbles
 - (D) cobblestones

25. Beethoven was handicapped by deafness but wrote some of the world's best music.
- (A) afflicted
 - (B) crippled
 - (C) restricted
 - (D) limited
26. An educational publisher has a responsibility to produce materials that are valid pedagogically.
- (A) genuine
 - (B) authentic
 - (C) reliable
 - (D) honest
27. Leonardo da Vinci, the fifteenth-century Italian artist, is universally recognized as the prototype of Renaissance Man.
- (A) nationally
 - (B) patriotically
 - (C) internationally
 - (D) cosmically
28. During 1781 the Americans drew up their "Articles of Confederation" to provide a working form of Government in the midst of their struggle for independence.
- (A) in the center of
 - (B) at the time of
 - (C) at the core of
 - (D) in the thick of
29. Most cloud formations occur when air masses of different temperatures collide.
- (A) touch
 - (B) smash
 - (C) bump
 - (D) clash
30. The earth is made up of at least 20 segments called plates which are rigid and constantly moving, driven by heat from within the planet.
- (A) immobile
 - (B) inflexible
 - (C) immutable
 - (D) indestructible

In the rest of this section you will read several passages. Each one is followed by several questions about it. Choose the best answer.

The origins of baseball probably stretch back to 1839 when Abner Doubleday, a civil engineering student, laid out a diamond-shaped field at Cooperstown, New York, and attempted to standardize the rules governing the playing of such games as town ball and four old cat, the ancestors of baseball. By the end of the Civil War, interest in the game have

grown rapidly. Over 200 teams or clubs existed some of which toward the country playing rivals; they belonged to a national association of “Baseball Players” that had proclaimed a set of standard rules. These teams were amateurs or semi-professionals, but as the game waxed in popularity, it offered opportunities for profit, and the first professional team, the Cincinnati Red Stockings, appeared in 1869. Other cities soon feel that professional teams, and in 1876 the present National League was organized chiefly by Albert Spalding. Soon a rival league appeared, the American Association. Competition between the two was intense, and in 1883 they played a post-season contest, the first “world’s series”. The American Association eventually collapsed, but in 1900 the American League was organized.

31. According to the passage, baseball originated in 1839 because

- (A) Abner Doubleday invented a special diamond-shaped pitch
- (B) the rules of earlier games were amalgamated and regularized
- (C) civil engineering students became interested in playing games
- (D) the old games died and a new one was needed

32. What was different about “Baseball Players” compared with earlier players ?

- (A) They travelled widely.
- (B) They belonged to many clubs.
- (C) They played by agreed rules.
- (D) They were not professional.

33. From the passage we understand that the National League was formed in 1876 to

- (A) reorganize the professional teams
- (B) enable more professional teams to be set up to
- (C) to provide a governing authority for baseball
- (D) authorize amateur and professional teams to combine

34. According to the passage, at the turn of the century the only remaining baseball organizations were

- (A) the American League and the National League
- (B) the American League
- (C) the American Association and the American League
- (D) the American Association

35. According to the passage, The Cincinnati Red Stockings were formed in 1869

- (A) because baseball had become more popular by then
- (B) to enable the amateur players to become professional
- (C) so that the public had the opportunity to profit from a professional team
- (D) to produce a means of making money

Charles Eliot, taking over at Harvard in 1869 at the age of 35, pioneered a break with the traditional curriculum. The usual course of studies at American Universities emphasized classical and humanistic courses : classical languages, mathematics, ethics, and rhetoric; and each institution prescribed a rigid program of required course. Under Eliot's leadership, Harvard dropped most of its required courses in favour of an elective system and increased its course offerings to stress the physical and social sciences, the fine arts, and modern languages. Soon other institutes in all sections of the country were following Harvard's lead. Eliot was also influential in bringing about important reforms in professional education. He renovated the Harvard medical and law schools, raising the requirements and lengthening the residence period, and again the Harvard model affected the other schools. Improve technical training in other professions accompanied the advances in medicine and law. Both state and private universities hastened to establish schools of architecture, engineering, education, journalism and business. Although Harvard was one of the first universities to found a graduate school, the recognized center for graduate study, based on the German system with the highest award, was Johns Hopkins.

36. What did Charles Eliot do at Harvard ?

- (A) he started studies under a rigid program
- (B) he introduced modern studies
- (C) he removed all classical studies
- (D) he selected students under an elective system

37. According to the passage, which of the following statements is true about technical training

- (A) it was greatly enhanced under Eliot
- (B) it was more advanced than medical and law studies
- (C) it had a lower status than professional courses
- (D) Eliot insisted it was taught alongside professional courses

38. According to the passage after, 1869 students at Harvard were

- (A) allowed to choose any subject at all to study
- (B) given a wide selection of subjects to choose from
- (C) required to study physical and social sciences
- (D) unable to follow classical and humanistic courses

40. We understand from the passage that Johns Hopkins university

- (A) offers the best graduate prices
- (B) provides an excellent German education
- (C) offers the most prestigious graduate education
- (D) has the oldest established graduate school

39 . Under Charles Eliot's influence at Harvard, students who wished to become doctors or lawyers had to

- (A) study for longer hours
- (B) conform to a required Harvard model
- (C) reach a higher academic level
- (E) act in a professional way

III. WRITING

Write a paragraph about the education of boys and girls. Which one is more important : the education of boys or girls ? Why ?