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ABANT İZZET BAYSAL UNIVERSITY
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DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES EDUCATION
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**THE EFFECT OF THE PARAPHRASING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION IN
READING SKILLS I COURSE IN AN ELT DEPARTMENT IN TURKEY ON
STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION SKILLS**

**In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
MASTER OF ARTS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

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This thesis titled as “**The Effect of the Paraphrasing Strategy Instruction in Reading Skills I Course in an ELT Department in Turkey on Students’ Reading Comprehension Skills**” and presented by İhsan ÖZDEMİR has been approved as a thesis of Master of Arts in English Language Teaching.

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF THE PARAPHRASING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION IN READING SKILLS I COURSE IN AN ELT DEPARTMENT IN TURKEY ON STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION SKILLS

by

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This study aimed to instruct the experimental group in the paraphrasing strategy and to measure the effects of the instruction in the reading courses on the students' reading comprehension skills as well as to evaluate the effectiveness of the paraphrasing strategy. The study was conducted at the Department of Foreign Languages Education, Abant İzzet Baysal University, Turkey. The participants were 62 first-year students. The experimental and the control groups both consisted of 31 students. In the first phase, a Reading Comprehension Test, a Vocabulary Test, a Grammar Test and a Paraphrasing Test were administered to the groups to determine the equivalence. The instruction was implemented for 6 weeks. In the last phase, both groups took the Paraphrasing Test and the Reading Comprehension Test as post-tests as well as the Specific Paraphrasing Test. According to the results, the experimental group learned how to use the strategy and outperformed the control group on the Paraphrasing Test (in the Specific Paraphrasing Test). Yet, there was no significant difference between the groups with respect to reading comprehension skills.

Keywords: Paraphrasing Strategy, Reading Comprehension, Instruction, English Language Teaching (ELT)

ÖZ

TÜRKİYE'DE BİR YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜNDE OKUMA BECERİLERİ I DERSİNDE GERÇEKLEŞTİRİLEN AÇIMLAMA STRATEJİSİ ÖĞRETİMİNİN ÖĞRENCİLERİN OKUDUĞUNU ANLAMA BECERİLERİNE ETKİSİ

Özdemir, İhsan

Bu çalışmada deney grubuna *açıklama* stratejisini öğretmek, bu öğretimin okuma becerileri dersindeki öğrencilerin okuduğunu anlama becerileri üstündeki etkisini ölçmek ve verilen öğretimin etkililiğini değerlendirmek hedeflenmiştir. Çalışma Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü'nde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmaya 62 I. sınıf öğrencisi katılmıştır. Gerek deney grubu gerekse de kontrol grubu 31 kişiden oluşmuştur. Gruplara ilk olarak aralarında denklik olup olmadığını saptamak amacıyla bir Okuduğunu Anlama Testi, bir Kelime Testi, bir Dilbilgisi Testi ile bir Açıklama Testi verilmiştir. Strateji öğretimi 6 hafta sürmüştür. Son aşamada her iki grup da Okuduğunu Anlama Testi ile *Açıklama* Testini sontest olarak tekrar almışlardır. Ek olarak gruplara ayrı bir Açıklama Testi daha verilmiştir. Sonuçlar deney grubunun *açıklama* stratejisini kullanmayı öğrendiğini ve *Açıklama* Testinde (Ek olarak verilen açıklama testinde) kontrol grubundan daha yüksek bir puan aldığını ortaya koymuştur. Ancak, gruplar arasında okuduğunu anlama becerileri açısından anlamlı bir farklılık ortaya konamamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Açıklama* stratejisi, okuduğunu anlama, öğretim, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi

To my beloved wife, Fatma;

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SILL: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

ELT: English Language Teaching

SOL: Speakers of Other Languages

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

For college students reading is a challenging and crucial task. Some courses require 600 to 750 pages of reading each semester (Orlando, Caverly, Swetnam, & Flippo, 1989). College-level textbooks are conceptually more sophisticated than those used at the secondary level. The materials are often unfamiliar and difficult and are assigned for a variety of reasons. In terms of cognitive processing, college reading is quite demanding considering the sheer amount, the range of topics, and the variety in the tasks (Alvermann & Qian, 1994).

Research related to students' comprehension skills prior to university suggests that many enter university with weak metacognitive skills related to reading comprehension. Bintz (1997) reports that high school students have difficulty with tasks that required them to interpret what they had read. Similarly, Vacca (1998) notes that 60% of adolescents in the United States are able to identify the main ideas and relationships among ideas in a text, but fewer than 5% of students are capable of a more sophisticated level of comprehension in which they are to elaborate on the meaning of a text. At the college level, Pressley and colleagues found that students were not efficient in selecting the appropriate learning strategies when studying a text for a test, e.g., they failed in searching for information in a text, they did not monitor their comprehension of a passage, and they did not elaborate on the facts in the text (Pressley, El-Dinary, & Brown, 1992).

In "English as a Foreign Language" (EFL) contexts, the view that reading fosters second language (L2) development in second language learners has gained increasing popularity (Day & Bamford, 1998). Levine et al. (2000) state that the capability to read academic texts is one of the most imperative skills that university students of English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) need to acquire. According to Pritchard et al., (1999) reading comprehension

has come to be the soul of academic learning in all subject areas as well as lifelong learning.

It is a fact that many students enter tertiary education underprepared for the L2 reading demands that are placed upon them. When pressed to read, they often select ineffective and inefficient strategies with little strategic intent (Saumell et al., 1999). Often this is due to their low level of reading strategy knowledge and lack of metacognitive control. Gebhard (1996) points out that, compared with ESL settings, this is particularly true in EFL settings where sources of L2 input are limited.

It will be appropriate, then, to say that reading comprehension is the key to success in the academic life for university students. The better students interpret the meaning of a text or a number of texts in a given course book, the higher the chances that they will get better grades from that course.

It is the researcher's observation that students who attend courses where medium of instruction is a language other than their native tongue – English, as in the example of some universities and/or certain departments of universities in Turkey - inevitably encounter this difficulty.

The researcher is in the opinion that most freshmen in the Turkish universities lack the basic reading skills. The university entrance exam which they prepare for all through the high school years imposes on them an inflexible way of reasoning which mainly fits the multiple-choice type tests. Like robots, they can do well on these tests; yet, when it comes to reading the types of texts they are not used to, particularly the course material at the university, their efforts to overcome this setback typically fail.

The solution to the problem seems to lie in the teaching of reading strategies to these students. Explicit instruction of certain reading strategies will improve their reading comprehension skills, which will, in turn, increase their level of academic achievement, for, the better they grasp the meaning of the course content, the better they will reason it out (Alexander, 1996).

1.2 The Problem

Learners of a foreign language employ a variety of reading strategies to help them when they have to read in that language. They apply some strategies which, it seems, they themselves have discovered, since, as far as we know, they are not taught these strategies explicitly in high schools.

The teaching of learning strategies has been an essential part of instruction in the world for the last few decades, because it is often the case that the majority of students do not have the competence to properly employ the strategies themselves. They need to be directed and guided to do so.

The problem dealt with in the current study is how students can be instructed on paraphrasing strategy and how their reading comprehension skills can be improved through the teaching of paraphrasing strategy.

1.3 Scope of the Study

The scope of this study is to see whether or not experimental group's reading comprehension skills will improve as compared with those of the control group as a result of the teaching of a specific reading strategy, i.e. the paraphrasing strategy. In the light of the findings, pedagogical implications for classroom practice and suggestions for further research will be discussed.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were constructed for the purposes of the present study.

Hypothesis-1. After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the 'Meaning Subdimension' of the Specific Paraphrasing Test.

Hypothesis-2. After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the 'Structure Subdimension' of the Specific Paraphrasing Test.

Hypothesis-3. After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the ‘Vocabulary Subdimension’ of the Specific Paraphrasing Test

“Hypothesis-4. After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the Reading Comprehension Post-test.

1.5 Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to 6 weeks – 1 class hour of instruction per week – of instruction.

The population of the study was limited to 62 first-year students at the ELT Department, AIBU.

The study was limited, also, to the teaching of just one strategy, i.e. the paraphrasing strategy.

1.6 Significance of the Study

Mastery of reading comprehension is an advantage for ELT students. These students need to have a good command of the English language in order that they will be effective teachers in classroom settings after their graduation. Reading is the starting point of every academic study. The content of any academic field is accessible to students mostly through reading. Good reading skills open a gate to better overall comprehension of the content, which means success in courses.

The explicit teaching of certain strategies to students in reading classes is preferable over an approach in which students are naively expected to master them all by themselves without getting such an instruction. Instruction of the strategies needs to be an integral part of the curriculum in an ELT department.

The findings of the study may guide other researchers interested in reading & paraphrasing-related topics.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter will present a relevant history of the research on strategy instruction in learning in order to provide a background to the current study. Due to existence of comprehensive data in the literature of language learning strategies, three different literature reviews – literature review on language learning strategies, literature review on L2 reading strategies and literature review on the paraphrasing strategy - will be dwelt upon – individually – from more generic to more specific.

2.1 Language Learning Strategies

In recent years, it has been widely accepted that learning is a process and that responsibility mostly lies with the teacher to facilitate that process Wong (2005). Researchers (O'Malley and Chamot 1990; Oxford 1990) have attempted to identify and categorize language learning strategies of good language learners with a view to later teaching them to poor language learners.

Since 1970s, a considerable amount of research conducted in second or foreign language learning focused on identification of individual differences in language learners Hsiao & Oxford (2002). As a result, the topic “L2 learning strategies” has gained growing popularity among researchers and teachers interested in figuring out how a second or foreign language was learned (Chamot, et al., 1999; Cohen, 1998). The findings of the cognitive language learning theory which assumes human brain as a processor of information have also enabled language learning strategies to become popular in ELT in recent years (*Cephe & Yesilbursa, 2006*).

Lenz (2006) states that, for the past 25 years, our understanding of learning strategies—how they can influence learning and how they can be taught—has increased dramatically, and Zhang (2003) concludes that ‘a good language learner is someone who is metacognitively aware of the processes in language learning and uses metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective strategies flexibly and effectively.

According to Wenden and Rubin (1987), the initial questions that led the researchers to work on language learning strategies were as follows:

- 1) What do L2 learners do to learn a second language?
- 2) How do they *manage* or *self-direct* these efforts?
- 3) What do they *know* about *which* aspects of their L2 learning process?
- 4) How can their learning skills be refined and developed?

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers have found the role of the learning strategies quite significant. Skehan (1989) viewed language learning strategies as a crucial factor explicating the individual differences in language learning. In the model developed by Gardner and McIntyre (1993), learning strategy use was one of the factors, along with situational variables and language learner characteristics that determined L2 proficiency. Dickinson (1987) looks at learning strategies as an important determinant in the development of learner autonomy, because the use of these strategies enables learners to take more responsibility for their own learning.

2.1.1 Definition of Strategy

In broad modern usage, a strategy is a plan that is consciously aimed at meeting a goal. It involves conscious control, intention, and goal-directedness.

Lenz (2006) states that any approach to a task that the student consciously selects and implements can be a strategy. As teachers, it is important to teach students the best strategy to use for a given task that leads to the most effective and efficient performance.

2.1.2. Definition of Language Learning Strategies

Despite the prolific research in the area, it has been difficult for researchers to come to a consensus on a definition of language learning strategies due to their

elusive nature. Bialystok (1983:100) states that “there is little consensus in the literature concerning either the definition or the identification of language learning strategies”.

Following is a selection of definitions:

Tarone (1983), cited in Lessard-Clouston, (1997: 2) refers to learning strategies as “an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language...to incorporate these into one’s interlanguage competence”. According to Weinstein and Mayer (1986, p.315), cited in Lessard-Clouston, (1997), learning strategies are “behaviors or thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner’s encoding process.

In line with the cognitive theory, Wenden (1987a: 6) describes them as “the techniques actually used to manipulate the incoming information and, later to retrieve what has been stored”.

According to Rubin (1987: 23), in (Wenden & Rubin, 1987) language learning strategies “contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly”. Wenden also (1987) defines learning strategies as the “learning behaviors learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language”. O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 1) call them “the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information”.

Oxford defines language learning strategies as conscious “steps taken by students to enhance their own learning” (Oxford 1990: 1); and more particularly as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford 1990: 8). According to her, language learning strategies are specific methods or techniques used by individual learners to facilitate the comprehension, retention, retrieval and application of information in the second or foreign language (Oxford 1990). They in general are behaviors, steps, operations or techniques employed by

learners to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information (Oxford, 1990b).

Finally, Nyikos (1996: 111) calls them “deliberate steps taken by learners to make learning easier and retrieval more efficient through planful approaches”.

What these entire quotes share in common is that they are all firmly based on cognitive theory. However, it is interesting to note Tarone’s description, which includes sociolinguistic competence along with linguistic competence, an essential part of the more contemporary communicative approaches.

Another point to take into consideration is the major emphasis on the learner in all these quotations, which reflects the turning point in foreign language teaching methodology from being teacher-centered to learner-centered, and the move towards learner autonomy. They also show the change in focus from the earlier product-oriented approaches to foreign language teaching to the contemporary process-oriented approaches.

2.1.3. Definition of Second Language Learning Strategies

L2 Learning Strategies are defined as any strategies related to the L2, including strategies for learning or using the L2 (Cohen 1998). *L2 learning strategies* are “specific actions, behaviors, steps, techniques [or thoughts] – such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task – used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella & Oxford 1992: 63). Cohen (1998: 4) also defines them as processes consciously chosen by students that result in action “taken to enhance the learning or use of a second language . . . through storage, retention, recall, and application”.

Examples of L2 learning strategies are planning for a language task, evaluating one’s own learning, employing analysis to find the meaning of a word or expression, and asking questions (Cohen, 1998).

L2 learning strategies can help learners improve their own perception, reception, storage, retention, and retrieval of language information. A few examples of learning strategies for second and foreign language learning are finding a conversation partner, planning one's learning, analyzing words and sentences to find the meaning, previewing a reading passage, and asking for clarification or verification (Oxford, et. al., 2004).

2.1.4. Second Language Learning in Cognitive Theory

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990):

- 1) Learning is an active and dynamic process in which individuals make use of a variety of information and strategic modes of processing,
- 2) Language is a complex cognitive skill that has properties in common with other complex skills in terms of how information is stored and learned,
- 3) Learning a language entails a stagewise progression from initial awareness and active manipulation of information and learning processes to full automaticity in language use, and
- 4) Learning strategies parallel theoretically derived cognitive processes and have the potential to influence learning outcomes in a positive manner.

The researchers in the field of Cognitive Theory argue that in order to understand the way in which a foreign language is learned, it is essential to refer to the interaction that occurs between language and cognition (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 16).

Bley-Vroman (1989) claims that while the learning of the mother tongue might be innate, the learning of a foreign language depends on cognitive mechanisms.

They state the advantages of an approach that accepts foreign language learning as a complex cognitive skill. The advantages are as follows:

According to Svinicki in *Memory Enhancement* (1997), six principles of cognitive learning can be directly applied to learning as follows:

1) Students must see the information to be learned as important to their lives.

Implication: the instructor must show the students how this information is beneficial.

2) During learning, learners act on information to make it more meaningful.

Implication: Instructors and students should clarify information through examples, images, elaborations and links to prior knowledge.

3) Learners store information in long-term memory in an organized fashion related to their existing understanding of the world.

Implication: Instructors should provide an organized structure in their presentation of information.

4) Learners constantly check understanding which results in refinement of what is retained.

Implication: Instructors should provide opportunities.

5) Transfer of learning to new contexts is not automatic; it results from exposure to multiple applications.

Implication: Instructors should provide links for later transfer.

6) Learners who are aware of their learning strategies and monitor their learning habits will learn more rapidly.

Implication: Instructors should help students become aware of how they learn.

2.1.5. Language Learning Strategies

2.1.5.1 Nature of Language Learning Strategies

Fox and Matthews (1991) state the view that learning strategies are 'concerned with how learners use their brains consciously and purposefully to handle their learning and make it more effective'. According to Pressley & McCormick (1995:28), "Strategies must be controllable", because they are steps that learners take in order to manage their learning and achieve desired goals.

A learning strategy cannot, a priori, be categorized as either good or bad. What makes a strategy positive for a given person is that it meets the following conditions:

- 1) The strategy relates well to the L2 task at hand;
- 2) The student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies for doing the task; and,
- 3) The strategy coordinates with the student's general learning style preferences to one degree or another.

Oxford, (1990: 8) states that strategies that fit the above conditions "make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations"

2.1.5.2. Second Language vs. Foreign Language

Oxford (2003) puts forth the distinction between *second* and *foreign language* learning environments. A second language (e.g., German learned by a non-native speaker in Germany) is a language studied in a setting where that language is the main vehicle of everyday communication, where abundant input exists in that language, where the language is normally essential for survival, and therefore where motivation is typically strong to learn the language.

In contrast, a foreign language (e.g., German learned in Australia) is a language studied in an environment where it is not the primary vehicle for daily interaction, where input in that language is limited, where the language is not usually needed in order to survive, and thus where motivation to learn the language might be quite variable. The difference between second and foreign language learning environments sometimes proves to be crucial with reference to learning styles, strategies, motivation, and other factors in language learning (Oxford, 2003).

2.1.5.3. Some Recent Research on Language Learning Strategies

O'Malley et al (1985) aimed to identify the range and frequency of learning strategy use by learners of English, and then to discover the effects of training in learning strategies on the skills of listening and speaking. They focused on “good” learners, and stated that learners did apply strategies that could be described and classified. They suggest that the strategies used in foreign language learning were similar to those used in non-language tasks.

In 1987, Wenden and Rubin edited a collection of studies that investigated the strategies and beliefs of foreign language learners, and how it might be possible to incorporate strategy training in the classroom in order to promote learner autonomy. This work counteracted two tendencies that were predominant at that time: the tendency to render learners dependent on teachers, course materials, and strictly controlled methods; and the emphasis on “unconscious acquisition processes which are largely beyond the learners’ or teachers’ control.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) aimed to integrate findings of cognitive psychology with those of research on foreign language learning. They present learning strategies from a perspective of cognitive theory, give accounts of studies that describe the learning strategies used by foreign language learners, and discuss the issues of strategy instruction.

Oxford's (1990) work of the same year is a practical guide for teachers, and includes a classification of learning strategies with concrete examples collected from

research, a model for strategy training, and inventories for assessing learners' strategies.

Mullins (1992) found high use of compensation, cognitive and metacognitive strategies and medium use of the social, memory and affective strategies among 110 Thai university EFL students. She reports a positive association between the use of compensation and metacognitive strategies and proficiency.

Ehrman and Oxford (1995) studied 262 English native-speaker government employees studying different foreign languages at the U.S. Foreign Service Institute. They found that the most frequently used strategies were from the compensation category followed by social and cognitive, then metacognitive, memory and affective strategies. Only compensation strategies were associated (weakly) with proficiency.

Green and Oxford (1995) surveyed 374 tertiary-level Puerto Rican ESL students split equally among three courses (pre-basic, basic, and intermediate). They report significantly higher strategy use among more proficient students in the cognitive, compensation, metacognitive and social categories. Seventeen individual strategies were used significantly more often by more proficient students; one was used significantly less often. They also report higher strategy use among females in the memory, metacognitive, affective and social categories.

Bedell and Oxford (1996) reported in their study of 353 secondary and tertiary students studying English in China that the most frequently used category was compensation. Memory strategies were used least.

Ku (1997) used SILL with 335 college students in Taiwan. She reports that compensation strategies were the most frequently used, followed by cognitive, metacognitive, memory, social and affective. She reports higher strategy use overall among more proficient students and among females but does not report separate results for individual strategies or the statistical significance of her findings.

Goh and Foong (1997) researched 175 ESL students from China. Metacognitive and compensation strategies were the most used categories, and

memory and social the least. Females used compensation and affective strategies significantly more often than did males.

Yang (1999), in a questionnaire survey of 505 university students in Taiwan, investigated the relationship between learner beliefs about language learning and strategy use (the latter using a modified version of SILL). The correlations suggest that there is a link between beliefs and strategy, e.g. between a belief in the importance of the need to practice a lot when learning an L2 and the strategies of practicing a lot and paying attention when someone is speaking.

Rong (1999) investigated language learning strategy use among tertiary-level students in China and reports that compensation and metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used; memory and cognitive were used least. Frequency of strategy use was higher among more proficient learners. Students majoring in English used significantly more strategies in four categories (cognitive, compensation, affective and social) than did science students. No significant differences were found by gender, and she does not report results for individual strategies.

Mochizuki (1999) reports that Japanese university students used compensation strategies most frequently and affective the least. Female students used strategies more frequently than males in all six categories. Students studying English used compensation strategies, social strategies and metacognitive strategies significantly more often than did science students

Bremner (1999) explored strategy use among 149 primary education students studying in a Hong Kong university. He found that compensation and metacognitive strategies were the most used, and affective and memory the least. Strategy use was significantly higher among more proficient learners for 11 out of 50 strategies (mostly cognitive).

Peacock (2001) used SILL with 140 science, maths and engineering students in a Hong Kong university. He reports that students always or frequently used 18 of the 50 strategies, primarily cognitive and compensation. The use of nine strategies was

associated with proficiency. Physics students used significantly fewer cognitive strategies than students from the other two disciplines did, and maths students used significantly fewer metacognitive strategies. He does not report discipline differences for individual strategies.

Common findings in previous research, then, are:

- 1) The most frequently used categories are compensation, cognitive, and metacognitive,
- 2) There is often a positive association between strategy use and proficiency,
- 3) Frequency of strategy use is often higher for females, and,
- 4) Frequency of strategy use is often higher among humanities students than among science and engineering students.

2.1.5.4. Language Learning Strategy Research in Turkey

Yuzbasioglu (1991) investigated whether or not there was a systematic relationship between the beliefs of Turkish university EFL students and the metacognitive strategies they reported to use. She found that Turkish learners had metacognition-related problems, especially concerning self-management and self-evaluation, and also self-direction, saying that they felt they needed constant guidance from the teacher.

Diken (1993) presented six case studies of EFL first year university students' metacognitive strategies in reading. She noted that the main factor that differentiated between the good and poor readers was not experience with English, but the effective use of metacognitive strategies. The data gathered from the good comprehenders also showed that they did what they said they did. She found that the average comprehenders did not lack in knowledge of metacognitive strategies, but they did not use them during reading. The poor comprehenders both lacked in strategic knowledge and text processing behaviors.

In 1994, Tunçman conducted a study to investigate the effects of training university EFL students in the metacognitive strategy of *semantic mapping* on reading comprehension. The results showed that students who had received training in this strategy outperformed those who had not.

Sayram (1994) investigated the effects of training university EFL students in the strategies of self-questioning and prediction, hypothesizing that students receiving training in these strategies would outperform those who did not, and that strategy training would help these students to retain the information gained from the reading passages. The results showed, however, that the subjects receiving treatment did not outperform those of the control group significantly, while they did perform better on the recall test.

Özbilgin (1993) set out to investigate the effect of training a group of students in the metacognitive strategy of self-questioning for listening comprehension, hypothesizing that subjects receiving such treatment would outperform those who did not on achievement tests, and then continue to use the strategy after training. Even though a slight improvement was reported in the post-test results of the experimental group, it was not significant. Similarly, it was found that the students did not continue to use the strategy after training, though students' comments after training reported that they were aware of using the strategy.

2.1.5.5. Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) divides strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect. These two classes are further divided into six subgroups: the direct class into memory, compensation, and cognitive; the indirect class into metacognitive, social, and affective. Oxford emphasizes that these strategies support each other, likening the direct strategies to a “Performer” and the indirect strategies to a “Director” in a stage play. The important point is that, unlike traditional teaching methods, the “Director” is the learner’s internal guide, that is, the learner is both the “Performer” and the “Director”, and can therefore accept greater responsibility for his or her own learning. Oxford points out, however, that this is by no means an exhaustive system,

and reminds us again that there is no consensus on exactly what strategies are, how many there are, and how they should be classified. There is also some overlap of strategies, what one researcher might classify as a direct strategy, another might refer to as an indirect strategy.

2.1.5.5.1. Classification of Second/Foreign Language Learning Strategies

Rubin (1981) distinguished between strategies that directly enhance second/foreign language (L2) learning and that are indirectly involved in it. She reported six direct strategies plus two indirect. The direct strategies she drew attention to are:

- 1) clarification/verification,
- 2) monitoring,
- 3) memorization,
- 4) guessing/inductive inferencing,
- 5) deductive reasoning, and
- 6) practice.

The indirect strategies are:

- 1) creating opportunities for practice, and,
- 2) production tricks.

O'Malley & Chamot's (1990) strategy classification method presents three distinct categories of L2 learning strategies:

- 1) cognitive,
- 2) metacognitive, and,
- 3) socioaffective.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990) is a self-report questionnaire that has been widely used to collect and analyze information from large numbers of students. The SILL questionnaire measures the frequency with which a student uses memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social language learning strategies. It is used to identify the level of strategy use (low, medium or high) for each strategy class.

The six groups of strategies listed in the “speakers of other languages” (SOL) version of the SILL are as follows:

1) memory strategies: These are the strategies related to how students remember the linguistic input they have learned, such as “I use flashcards to remember new English words” or “I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.”

2) cognitive strategies: These describe the actual process of thinking during learning. E.g., “I try to find similar patterns in English” or “I try to anticipate information in the text”.

3) compensation strategies: These enable the learners to make up for their limited linguistic knowledge. E.g., “To understand unfamiliar English words I make guesses” or “If I can’t think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.”

4) metacognitive strategies: These help learners to manage their own learning processes. E.g., “I notice my mistakes in English and use that information to help me do better” or “I think about my progress in learning English.”

5) affective strategies: these are related to learners’ feelings, such as “I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English” or “I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.”

6) social strategies: These help learners to learn the language in interaction with others. E.g., “I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk” or “I ask for help from English speakers.”

Following Oxford (1990), Glenn (2000) makes a very similar classification:

- 1) Memory strategies help learners enter information in the long-term memory and retrieve it when necessary to communicate (e.g., using imagery, sounds or both to remember new words).
- 2) Cognitive strategies involve formation and revision of internal mental models (e.g., reasoning, analyzing and summarizing).
- 3) Compensation strategies are used to overcome lack of knowledge of the target language (e.g., using circumlocution).
- 4) Metacognitive strategies help learners manage their learning (e.g., monitoring errors).
- 5) Affective strategies enable learners to control emotions and attitudes related to language learning (e.g., reducing anxiety).
- 6) Social strategies facilitate interaction with others (e.g., cooperating with others, asking questions and becoming culturally aware).

Cohen (2003) distinguishes between *language learning strategies* and *language use strategies*. The former are “the conscious or semi-conscious thoughts and behaviors used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language” whereas the latter “come into play once the language material is already accessible, even in some preliminary form”. It is clear that the former are used with an explicit goal of facilitating the learning process of a given language, and the latter focus primarily on helping students utilize the language that they have already learned to a certain degree.

Cohen (2003) classifies language learning strategies as follows:

- 1) *cognitive strategies* for memorizing and manipulating target language structures,

- 2) *metacognitive strategies* for managing and supervising their strategy use,
- 3) *affective strategies* for gauging their emotional reactions to learning and lower anxieties, and,
- 4) *social strategies* for enhancing learning, such as cooperating with other learners and seeking opportunities to interact with native speakers.

Language use strategies include:

- 1) strategies for retrieving information about the language already stored in memory,
- 2) strategies for rehearsing target language structures,
- 3) cover strategies for not looking stupid or unprepared in the language classroom, and,
- 4) strategies for communicating in the language despite gaps in target language knowledge.

2.1.5.5.2. Specific Language Skill Strategies

When learning strategies are associated with a specific language skill area, we tend to refer to them according to that skill area. Thus, we have “reading strategies”, “listening strategies”, and so on. Many strategies can be used across multiple skill areas (see the appendix in Oxford 1990), but some are distinctly relevant to a given skill area. For example, previewing captions and headings is particularly relevant to reading and is hence a reading strategy (Tierney, Readence, and Dishner 1995).

2.1.5.6. Use of L2 Learning Strategies

A number of factors are thought to be responsible for strategy use (Oxford, 1990a). Among them are cultural background, language studied, stage of learning, age, motivation, language learning goals, foreign language (FL) versus second

language (SL) settings, previous language learning experience, language learning styles, gender, anxiety, lack of inhibition, and career or academic specialization.

In a comparison of strategy use patterns of 47 ESL and 43 EFL adult learners, ESL learners found some strategies to be easier (Kojic-Sabo & Lightbown 1999: 189) than EFL learners did. The differences in learning environment played a clear role in these learners' strategy use. Existing research results suggest that the number and frequency of use of L2 learning strategies is usually higher in a second language setting (see, e.g., Rossi-Le 1989) than in a foreign language setting (see, e.g., Park 1994; Yang 1994). Second language learners are surrounded by the language that is being learned and often find that they must employ the language to survive; therefore, they use many learning strategies. In contrast, foreign language learners have less need for the language on a daily basis and often do not develop or use as many learning strategies (Green & Oxford, 1995).

Garner (1990) thinks that, when context varies, the nature of strategic activity often varies as well (p.26). Certain strategies would be more practical and more likely to be employed in a natural ESL setting than in an EFL context, because the former provides more opportunities than the latter. Green and Oxford (1995) also emphasized that ESL and EFL students might have different patterns of strategic use depending on the type of learning setting (ESL or EFL) in which they live.

2.1.5.7. Nature of L2 Strategy Use

Most theorists and researchers agree that some degree of consciousness or awareness is essential in strategy use (Cohen 1998). MacIntyre (1994) claims that 'the issue of intentionality is central to the strategy concept'.

The new perspective is that no single strategy is "good" or "bad" in an absolute sense. Effectiveness of strategies depends on various conditions including task purpose, task difficulty, and the learner's style, background knowledge, and prior experience. To be successful, L2 learners must select and combine relevant strategies to meet varying conditions in different situations by analyzing the tasks and themselves (Wenden 1998). Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) have shown that language

learning strategies are not inherently “good”, but depend on the context in which they are used, their combination with other strategies, frequency of use, and the learner’s proficiency level.

It was found that successful learners are not characterized by their use of special strategies that others do not use, but instead by their ability to coordinate strategies with task demands (Chamot & O’Malley 1994) and with their own learning style preferences (Ehrman, 1996). Less successful learners were actually shown to use many learning strategies, but these learners were deficient in selecting and orchestrating strategies appropriate to the task at hand (Abraham & Vann 1987; Vann & Abraham 1990) and to their style (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995).

Cohen (1998) states that “With some exceptions, strategies themselves are not inherently good or bad, but have the potential to be used effectively.” So, the inference is that various learners doing particular types of L2 learning tasks at varying proficiency levels can utilize different strategies efficiently.

It must be pointed out that the total number of strategies used and the frequency of use of each strategy “are not necessarily indicators of how successful students will be on a specific language task”, said Cohen (1998: 8–9). Vann and Abraham (1990) reached the same conclusion. The overall numeric frequency of strategy use is often important as a predictor or correlate of general L2 proficiency, but when considering how well a student performs on a particular L2 task, the appropriateness of the strategies to the task is likely to be more important than the sheer number of strategies employed.

2.1.5.8. Good L2 Learners vs. Poor L2 Learners

Mindful learners are active, generative, engaged, strategic thinkers (Langer, 1993). They plan what they will learn and the strategies they will use, and they control and self-regulate their learning. As readers, they use strategies to organize, elaborate on, and evaluate text (Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1996).

Rubin (1975), cited in Wong (2005), suggested that good L2 learners (1) are willing and accurate guessers, (2) have a strong drive to communicate, (3) are often uninhibited, (4) are willing to practice opportunities, (5) monitor their speech as well as that of others, and (6) pay attention to meaning.

More effective L2 learners intentionally and systematically select and combine strategies relevant to the language task at hand and to their own learning style preferences (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990, 1995). Less successful L2 learners pick strategies in an apparently desperate, random way and do not pay sufficient attention to the relevance of a strategy to the task at hand (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Vann & Abraham, 1990).

More successful L2 learners tend to use strategies that are relevant to specific tasks and to their own learning styles, while less successful (and often anxious) L2 learners tend to use strategies in an impulsive, almost desperate fashion, without regard to how well these strategies fit the demands of a given task or their learning style preferences (Oxford 2001b).

Successful L2 learners not only use task-appropriate strategies, but they often employ strategies in a flowing sequence that makes the parts of the task easier to accomplish. Oxford (2000) calls this a “strategy chain”, i.e., a set of strategies that fit together to meet the requirements or components of a given L2 task. Let us say, for instance, that the task at hand is reading a passage about World War II for both overall comprehension and specific details. Given this task, the successful learner might use some or all of the following strategies (or others that are relevant to the task): (1) previewing the reading passage by looking at the headings, pictures, captions, and/or first lines of paragraphs; (2) making predictions about what will be said in the reading based on this preview; (3) trying to grasp the main idea before reading closely; (4) then, while reading closely, checking whether the predictions were correct and asking specific questions to check comprehension and identify details; (5) after the reading is over, writing down a summary of the main idea and at least five or six key details; and (6) finally, evaluating task success. This is a task-appropriate “strategy chain”. Certainly not all highly successful learners would

necessarily employ every strategy in this chain, and some of these actions might no longer be used at the conscious level, but the above is a good example of how strategy chains work. The main point is how closely these strategies fit with the requirements of the task.

2.1.5.9. L2 Learner Autonomy

L2 learning strategies help learners to build their autonomy in learning, which requires that they take control of their own learning processes. Allwright (1990) and Littlewood (1996) suggest the following comprehensive definition of L2 learner autonomy:

- 1) willingness to perform a language task with little or no assistance, with flexibility according to the situation and with transferability to other contexts, and,
- 2) relevant action, including the use of appropriate L2 learning strategies for accomplishing the task.

2.1.5.10. L2 Learning Strategy Use and Academic Achievement in L2

It is suggested by research that more proficient language learners use more learning strategies and more types of strategies than less proficient language learners (Green & Oxford, 1995) and are better at selecting strategies appropriate to the task (Vann & Abraham, 1990).

According to research, quantity and appropriateness of strategy use are associated with successful completion of language tasks and with higher overall language achievement and proficiency (Chamot & El-Dinary 1999; Dreyer & Oxford 1996).

Research has found that L2 learning strategies are closely associated with various cognitive, affective, and demographic factors, such as motivation, learners' beliefs, language proficiency, and gender (Oxford and Nyikos 1989; Yang, 1994).

A number of SILL studies have shown that L2 strategy use is associated with proficiency (Bedell and Oxford 1996; Dreyer and Oxford 1996; Green and Oxford 2003, learning style (Ehrman & Oxford 1990; Oxford & Cohen, 2004; gender (Ehrman & Oxford 1989; Green & Oxford 1995; Gu 2002; Oxford & Nyikos 1989), motivation (Oxford & Nyikos 1989), and academic major or career choice (Ehrman & Oxford 1989; Gu 2002; Oxford & Nyikos 1989).

2.1.5.11. The Purpose of Language Learning Strategy Instruction

Language learning strategy instruction is a learner-focused approach to teaching with the goal of creating greater learner autonomy and increased proficiency (Brown 2001; Cohen 1998). LLSI helps students to become more aware of available strategies, to understand how to organize and use strategies systematically and effectively, and to learn when and how to transfer strategies to new contexts (Brown 2001; Yang 2002).

Yang (2003) states that it is important to help students to become effective and autonomous learners. It is also accepted by researchers, e.g., (Oxford 1990; Oxford and Leaver 1996) to be the goal of language learning strategy instruction.

According to Oxford and Leaver (1996), the ultimate aim of strategy training in EFL is to equip learners with a range of learning strategies that they can appropriately employ to new learning situations so that they will become more autonomous.

For students to become motivated strategy users, they need “systematically orchestrated instruction or training” (Alexander, 1996, p. 90). They need to know what strategy to use and how, when, where, and why to use it. The classroom atmosphere must be supportive of strategic approach where they will be encouraged to use strategies.

Studies have shown that strategy instruction results in more effective learning and school achievement (Adey & Shayer, 1994; Pressley *et al.*, 1995).

Beckman (2002) believes that it is important to teach children to be strategic, because the following outcomes can be expected from instruction:

- 1) Students trust their minds,
- 2) Students know there's more than one right way to do things,
- 3) They acknowledge their mistakes and try to rectify them,
- 4) They evaluate their products and behavior,
- 5) Memories are enhanced,
- 6) Learning increases,
- 7) Self-esteem increases,
- 8) Students feel a sense of power,
- 9) Students become more responsible,
- 10) Work completion and accuracy improve,
- 11) Students develop and use a personal study process,
- 12) They know how to "try", and,
- 13) On-task time increases; students are more "engaged."

2.1.5.12. Nature of Language Learning Strategy Instruction

Strategies may be taught explicitly or implicitly. Instruction is explicit when specific directions are given. It is implicit when teachers model their own thoughts (Rhoder, 2002).

It is generally assumed that making conscious learning decisions can lead both struggling and skilled learners to learn better in terms of the obtaining, storing, retrieving and use of information (Rubin, 1987). Researchers such as O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Oxford (1996) emphasize that language learning strategy use must involve some degree of consciousness, awareness, and intentionality.

According to Lenz (2006), critical characteristics that are essential to providing and maintaining quality strategy instruction are as follows:

- 1) Instruction should be provided to all students, with more explicit, intensive instruction given to students who have difficulty with learning strategies,

- 2) Strategy content should include teaching students how to use cognitive (thinking) and metacognitive (how to think about thinking) processes,
- 3) Strategies should contain elements that ensure generalization,
- 4) In both instruction and practice, students should be able to see how using these strategies creates success,
- 5) Learning strategy instruction should be guided by ongoing assessment and feedback,
- 6) Strategies are taught and used in all subject areas,
- 7) Teachers should have different expectations regarding content mastery for helping students meet standards, and,
- 8) The school should support and promote widespread use of instruction in learning strategies.

Learning strategy instruction is more effective when the educator includes information about when and where to use a strategy across situations (Pressley, Borkowski, & Schneider, 1989). That is, students must know other potential uses for a given strategy under different circumstances beyond the initial situation in which the strategy was taught. Teachers also should provide practice opportunities that require the student to use this situational information to accurately select and apply the strategy under new conditions (Ellis, Lenz, & Sabornie, 1987).

It is essential that students see the relation between strategy use and academic success in order to internalize strategy use. They must see for themselves how using the strategy helps meet personal goals. Otherwise, they will not develop the motivation to continue their efforts to use the strategy to solve problems (Lenz, 2006). Explicit instruction and practice opportunities that demonstrate the benefits of the strategy increase the likelihood that the student will continue to use and internalize a strategy (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003).

It is assumed that once the range of possible learner strategies is identified, one important role of the teacher would be to provide an environment which facilitates the identification by students of those strategies which work best for them (Rubin, 1987). Another role of the teacher put forward by Rubin is to come up with alternative strategies to enable learners to judge which ones operate best for them.

Oxford (1990: 204) presents the following eight-step model of learning strategy training. It is a model that can be adapted to learners of EFL and other foreign languages of all ages and proficiency levels.

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

Crowley and Siegler (1999) found that providing instruction that also includes information about how a student might think about, monitor the use of, redirect, or choose new strategies led to a greater rate of strategy use and academic learning.

There is a lot of research supporting the idea that language learning strategies can and should be taught. Research into strategies is important because they are readily teachable (Oxford and Nyikos 1989; Chamot 2001).

According to Griffiths and Parr (2001), the obvious rationale behind the instruction of language learning strategies is three-fold:

1) it is a fact that there are successful and less successful language learners, so, other things being equal, it is quite sensible to attribute at least some part of this apparent success to certain strategies good learners employ when confronted with a task,

2) poor learners can learn and benefit from the very strategies used by better learners, and,

3) teachers can help poor learners to learn the strategies in the classroom setting by promoting awareness of them and encouraging their use.

Discussions of the effectiveness of strategy training have often recommended that it be integrated into the normal language curriculum (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford et al., 1990). Despite the vast accumulation of research in the field of language learning strategies, integrating strategy instruction into curricula has much been neglected. As Lenz (2006) puts forth,

“... we should expect to see educators including the teaching of effective learning strategies in the classroom. This has apparently not occurred, however. Recent classroom evaluations conducted by Pressley, Wharton-McDonald, Mistretta, and Echevarria (1998) and by Taylor, Pearson, Clark, and Walpole, (2000) revealed that few research-based practices related to learning strategies have been integrated into instruction.”

2.1.5.13. Approaches to Strategy Instruction

The use of language learning strategy instruction as a methodological approach is based on four important propositions (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987):

- 1) Mentally active learners are better learners.
- 2) Strategies can be taught.
- 3) Learning strategies transfer to new tasks.
- 4) Academic language learning is more effective with learning strategies.

Perkins and Grotzer (1997) review three approaches to strategy instruction, which can be summarized as follows:

1) The *stand-alone approach* focuses on explicit instruction in thinking skills and strategies, separate from the curriculum. Generic thinking skills and strategies, such as problem solving, are taught in isolated ways. It is assumed that students will automatically transfer their “thinking skills” to content courses. Unfortunately, there is little evidence that indicates this transfer.

2) The *embedded approach* embeds explicit strategy instruction within the content of the curriculum. Subject matter is taught, but the focus is on a particular strategy. The teacher first presents the strategy in a generic, isolated example. Students learn “how to solve a problem,” “how to compare and contrast two ideas,” or “how to make a summary.” Immediately after learning the strategy in question, students practice it in an appropriate content area—solve a math problem, compare and contrast two forms of government, summarize a textbook chapter. The teacher points out explicitly the connections between the subject matter under study and the strategy required to study it. The embedded approach enables students to purposefully transfer strategies to other disciplines, and makes them aware of how being able to do this will help them learn.

3) The immersion approach is implicit—while students are absorbed in the process of reading, thinking about, and understanding something new, they are not disrupted by having to focus on the processes they are using. The tasks themselves encourage and enable strategy use.

2.1.5.14. Separate versus Integrated Training

In separate strategy training, the learners are given a list of strategies and how to apply them. It is conducted outside of normal class time with the belief that learners will learn better if they are able to focus their attention on developing their strategic processes without having to deal with the extra load of content material at the same time (Yesilbursa, 2002).

Integrated strategy training, on the other hand, allows the learners to apply the strategies with content material. Researchers in the field (Wenden, 1987b; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Chamot, 1993; Oxford and Leaver, 1996) concede that integrated training is more effective than separate training, because learning in context helps the learners to understand the relevance of what they are doing, which in turn enhances comprehension, which therefore facilitates retention of information.2.6. *L2*

2.2. Reading Strategies

Most authors agree that reading is of key importance to academic success in a university. Tercanlioglu (2004) e.g. maintains that reading comprehension is essential to academic fields, to professional success and to lifelong learning. Likewise, Levine, Ferenz and Reves (2000) state that the ability to read academic texts is considered one of the most important skills that ESL and EFL university students need to acquire. Grabe (1991) points out that the crucial importance of reading skills in academic contexts has led to considerable research on reading in a second language.

According to Anderson (2003), it is an essential skill for learners of English and for most of learners it is the most important skill to master in order to ensure success in learning. With strengthened reading skills, learners of English tend to make greater progress in other areas of language learning.

In the last two decades, attention has been paid to understanding what proficient readers typically do while reading, including identifying the strategies they use and how and under what conditions they use those strategies. This line of research has been useful in instructing non-proficient first and second-language readers to increase their awareness and use of reading strategies to improve comprehension (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001).

For successful reading, students are required to understand the meaning of text, critically evaluate the message, remember the content and apply the new-found knowledge flexibly (Pressley, 2000). Applying strategic behavior in reading requires that readers intentionally engage in planned actions under their control (Alexander, Graham & Harris, 1998).

2.2.1. Definitions

Many applied linguists, (for example, Ellis, 1994), have commented on the lack of consensus about the definition of the term 'reading strategies'. This diversity

is largely due to the way the term has been used in different contexts, such as first, second or foreign language learning (Cohen, 1998).

There are, therefore, numerous definitions of reading strategies. Some of them are listed below:

- Reading strategies are the cognitive activities which readers can undertake before, during and after the reading of a text in order to adequately comprehend the text and prevent, identify or solve any problems which may occur during this process (Aarnoutse, 1998).

- Reading strategies are specific heuristics, methods or procedures which readers more or less apply intentionally to adequately process and understand the information presented in a text (Aarnoutse and Schellings, 2003).

- Reading strategies are procedures which can be adapted to the characteristics of the reader, the text and the task. They are aids which readers can apply or not apply; they are not part of the objectives of reading instruction but, rather, among the means to achieve such objectives (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995).

- Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) submit that reading whether in L1 or L2, is a “cognitive enterprise” which occurs, in part, as a result of the interaction among the reader, the text, and the context in which reading takes place.

- Pearson and Fielding (1991: 847) define strategies as “conscious and flexible plans that readers apply to particular texts and tasks.”

- Reading strategies, can be defined as an action or series of actions employed in order to construct meaning (Garner, 1987), cited in Tercanlioglu (2004).

- Bamett (1989, p.66), cited in Tercanlioglu (2004), has used the term reading strategy to refer to the mental operations involved when readers purposefully approach a text to make sense of what they read.

2.2.2. Role of Metacognitive Reading Strategies in L2 Learning

Metacognition can simply be defined as thinking on thinking. It is the ability to make your thinking visible. It is the ability to reflect on what you know and do and what you do not know and do not do. Metacognition results in critical but healthy reflection and evaluation of your thinking that may result in making specific changes in how you learn (Anderson, 2002).

Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) state that strategic awareness and monitoring of the comprehension process are critically important aspects of skilled reading. Such awareness and monitoring is often referred to in the literature as “metacognition,” which can be thought of as the knowledge of the readers’ cognition relative to the reading process and the self-control mechanisms they use to monitor and enhance comprehension.

Auerbach and Paxton (1997) consider metacognitive awareness—planning and consciously executing appropriate actions to achieve a particular goal—to be a critical element of proficient, strategic reading. Such metacognition, according to them “entails knowledge of strategies for processing texts, the ability to monitor comprehension, and the ability to adjust strategies as needed” (pp. 240–41).

According to Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001), in order to accomplish the task of comprehending the text successfully, the reader must employ metacognitive knowledge and must call upon conscious and deliberate strategies.

Metacognitive strategies play an important role in helping students plan and monitor their comprehension while reading (Adamson, 1991; Li & Munby, 1996). Students who were trained in the use of these strategies have shown significant improvements in reading (Block, 1992).

Carrell (1998) argued that successful reading strategy use is dependent on whether a strategy is employed metacognitively. This partly accounted for the fact that poor readers often did not lack cognitive strategies but failed to access them metacognitively.

There is a positive correlation between students' metacognitive awareness of reading processes and their ability to read and excel academically (Carrell, 1991).

Cohen (1998) suggests that metacognition deals with:

- 1) knowledge about cognition,
- 2) regulation of cognition.

Knowledge about cognition involves readers' awareness of the existence and use of various strategies while reading. Regulation of cognition means that readers become able to evaluate, plan and regulate reading activities (Cohen, 1998).

2.2.3. Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension can be defined as constructing a mental representation of textual information and its interpretation (Van Den Broek & Kremer, 2000) or, in other words, as extracting meaning from written words, sentences, and texts (Aarnoutse & Van Leeuwe, 2000).

Yang (2002) states that in its traditional usage reading comprehension refers to a reader's complete understanding or full grasp of meanings in a text.

As suggested by Aarnoutse and Schellings (2003), reading comprehension is the construction of the meaning of texts. Such meaning emerges from the interaction between reader and text, between the knowledge, skill and motivation of the reader and the text which has a specific intention, structure and degree of difficulty.

According to Palincsar and Brown (1984), reading comprehension is the outcome of three main factors:

- 1) Reader friendly texts,
- 2) congruity of reader's knowledge and text content, and,

3) active strategies the reader employs to enhance understanding and retention and to avoid comprehension breakdowns.”

They make a six-item list that sums up how reading comprehension can best be achieved:

- 1) understanding the purposes of reading,
- 2) activating relevant background knowledge,
- 3) allocating attention,
- 4) critical evaluation of content for internal consistency and compatibility with prior knowledge and common sense,
- 5) monitoring ongoing activities to see if comprehension is occurring, by engaging in such activities as periodic review and self interrogation, and,
- 6) drawing and testing inferences of many kind, including interpretations, predictions and conclusions.

To achieve these 6 criteria, they suggest readers to employ summarizing, questioning, clarifying and predicting strategies.

Grabe (1991) notes that researchers such as Carpenter and Just (1986), Carr and Levy (1990) and Rayner and Pollatsek (1989) have analyzed the reading process into the following set of component skills and knowledge areas:

- 1) automatic recognition skills,
- 2) vocabulary and structural knowledge,
- 3) formal discourse structure knowledge,
- 4) content / world background knowledge,
- 5) synthesis and evaluation skills; and,
- 6) metacognitive knowledge and skills monitoring.

2.2.3.1. Factors Influencing L2 Reading Comprehension

Anderson and Pearson (1984), cited in Bensoussan (1998), have identified three reading problems experienced by poor readers in the native language:

1) Poor readers are likely to have gaps in knowledge. Since what a person already knows is a principal determiner of what s/he can comprehend, the less s/he knows, the less s/he can comprehend.

2) Poor readers are likely to have an impoverished understanding of the relationships among the facts they know about a topic. Arbitrary information is a source of confusion, slow learning, slow processing and unsatisfactory reasoning.

3) Poor readers are unlikely to make the inferences required to weave the information given in a text into a coherent overall representation.

Bensoussan (1998) claims that these problems are related to reading in the native language (L1). The learner of a foreign language (L2) usually has two additional handicaps: lower language proficiency and different cultural backgrounds. Shuyun and Munby (1996) note that ESL academic reading is a very deliberate, demanding and complex process.

Lin (2002) lists the technical steps leading to L2 reading comprehension, briefly, as follows:

- 1) knowledge of form;
 - a) *word recognition*: being able to recognize L2 words,
 - b) *interpretation of words' meanings*: automate the link between word recognition and word meaning,
 - c) *syntactic knowledge*: combination of words into larger units, and,
 - d) *textual structure*: organization of the text
- 2) knowledge of content

2.2.3.2. L2 Proficiency vs. L2 Reading Comprehension

Moukhtari and Sheorey (2002) argue that reading difficulties are closely associated with L2 readers' level of proficiency in the target language. Alderson (1984), cited in Moukhtari and Sheorey (2002), points out that "proficiency in a foreign language may be more closely associated with foreign language reading ability (than reading ability in the native language)". Cziko (1978), cited in Moukhtari and Sheorey (2002), also suggests that once L2 learners reach higher levels of overall competence in L2, there is a parallel improvement in their L2 reading ability.

Moreover, it has been reported that the contribution of L1 reading ability increases when learners' L2 proficiency levels become higher (Brisbois, 1995; Taillefer, 1996). Lower-level L2 readers are either not able to transfer their L1 reading ability (Taillefer, 1996), or even if they do, the degree of transfer is smaller in comparison with higher-level learners (Lee & Shalleart, 1997).

Hudson's (1988) experimental data also show that L2 readers with advanced proficiency levels had less trouble processing visual information than those with lower proficiency level and that advanced L2 readers were able to bring more prior knowledge to bear on the reading process than beginning or intermediate L2 readers.

Bensoussan, (1998) argues that L2 readers' inadequate L2 proficiency may cause them to overrely on their prior conceptual and sociocultural knowledge to compensate for their insufficient L2 proficiency. Pritchard (1990) found that L2 readers appeared to use different reading strategies to read familiar and unfamiliar texts. Comparing proficient and less proficient ESL readers in the United States, Fitzgerald (1995) concludes that:

"On the whole, more proficient ESL readers (a) made better use of vocabulary knowledge, (b) used a greater variety of metacognitive strategies and used selected strategies more frequently, (c) took more action to solve miscomprehension and checked solutions to problems more often, (d) used psycholinguistic strategies that were more meaning-oriented, (e) used more schema knowledge, and (f) made better and/or more inferences." (p. 180)

Yamashita (2002) discusses the relationship between L1 and L2 reading under the frameworks of two hypotheses: the linguistic interdependence hypothesis and the linguistic threshold hypothesis. The former states that L1 reading ability transfers to L2 reading. The linguistic threshold hypothesis proposes that a certain threshold level of L2 language proficiency is necessary before L1 reading ability transfers to L2 reading. According to this hypothesis, even skilled L1 readers cannot read well in L2 until their L2 language proficiency has reached the threshold level (Cummins, 1991).

According to Taillefer and Pugh (1998), two particularly important variables which work together in L2 reading comprehension are L1 reading proficiency and L2 language competency. However, they suggest that L2 language proficiency proved to be the more important factor in reading texts for meaning.

2.2.4. Good Readers vs. Poor Readers

According to Singer (1994), experienced readers differ remarkably from inexperienced readers in that they have attained automaticity in word recognition and usually focus their attention on higher-level processing, while inexperienced readers usually have to embark on an upsetting decoding phase, focusing their attention on the lower-level processing, i.e. on the constituents of discrete words.

Golinkoff (1975), cited in Dhieb-Henia (2003), advances the view that one of the main characteristics of poor readers is the fact that they read all types of texts in the same manner. In the same vein, Jimenez, Garcia, and Pearson (1996) show that less successful bilingual readers approach narrative and expository texts in similar ways.

Pressley (2002) suggests the following qualities of good readers:

Before reading, a good reader:

- 1) makes sure about her or his goal in reading the text,
- 2) often skims the text in advance of reading, and,
- 3) often activates prior knowledge.

During reading, good readers:

- 1) skip information that is not relevant to their current reading goals,
- 2) reread information that seems especially important or is difficult to understand,
- 3) take notes,
- 4) pause to reflect on an idea presented in the text,
- 5) make predictions about what is coming up in the text,
- 6) identify important information in the text,
- 7) not only look for important information, but also process that important information differentially (e.g., rereading it, underlining it, paraphrasing it),
- 8) are especially attuned to topic sentences and topic paragraphs.
- 9) make conscious inferences as they read,
- 10) integrate the ideas in text to get the main ideas out of the text
- 11) are highly interpretive as they read,
- 12) come to conclusions about ideas in the text,

13) are also highly evaluative of the text, deciding whether a text is interesting or the arguments made in it are credible,

14) make evaluations of the style of the text, as well as its content,

15) have affective reactions, from positive ones (e.g., satisfaction with the content of the text) to negative ones (e.g., boredom, frustration),

16) monitor as they read, which leads to awareness that a text is not being understood. Such awareness can lead to shifts in reading strategies.

And after reading, good readers:

1) reread the text selectively,

2) attempt to recite the text, constructing a summary of it,

3) reflect on what they have just read, evaluating the credibility of the material,

4) think about how they are going to use the information in the text, and,

5) evaluate their comprehension

In a similar vein Aarnoutse and Schellings (2003) state the following:

Good readers employ different strategies before, during and after the reading of a text. They first determine their reading objective, use the title or some other information to identify the topic of the text and activate their own knowledge of the topic. They then read a few sentences, determine the type of text and adjust their tempo and manner of reading accordingly. During the reading process itself, good readers draw connections between words and sentences; make use of clues to the structure and organization of the text; infer information from the sentences and paragraphs in the text; steer, monitor and correct their own reading behavior; and identify the main ideas in the text. In the end, good readers also judge the value of the text (p: 391).

2.2.5. Reading Strategy Instruction

Moukhtari and Sheorey (2002) claim that strategy instruction can help all students, especially struggling ones, because instruction turns them into more active readers and thinkers.

Based on the idea that learning and reading a language are skills and therefore “teachable” through training and “scaffolding” (Vygotsky, 1962), a growing body of empirical research has supported the explicit teaching of specific strategies for improving students’ reading comprehension (Dhieb-Henia, 2003). Certain studies in L1 and L2 contexts showed that potentially useful strategies for effective reading were attributed to the level of the metacognitive awareness of the students (Jime’ nez et al. 1996).

“Scaffold” is a Vygotskian term for teacher support of a learner through dialog, questioning, conversation, and nonverbal modeling (Dhieb-Henia, 2003). Roehler and Cantlon (1997) identified five types of scaffolding:

- 1) offering explanations,
- 2) inviting student participation,
- 3) verifying and clarifying student understandings,
- 4) modeling of desired behaviors, and,
- 5) inviting students to contribute clues for reasoning through an issue or problem.

Carrell (1998) identified two main components necessary for reading strategy instruction to be successful. Firstly, knowledge of cognition, which involves what strategy to use and when and how to use it; and, secondly, regulation of cognition, which covers the monitoring, planning, and transferring processes.

L2 learners need to learn how to use effective reading strategies so as to achieve their desired goals in L2 (Anderson, 2003). Researchers have suggested that

teaching readers how to use strategies should be a prime consideration in the reading classroom (Chamot et al., 1999; Nunan (1997).

Nunan, (1996) stresses that, “Language classrooms should have a dual focus, not only on teaching language content, but also on developing learning processes as well” (p. 41). According to Nunan, the primary goal of instruction is to increase learners’ awareness of strategies and then allow them to select their own appropriate strategies to accomplish their learning goals.

Janzen (2001) states that in order to improve reading, teachers should embed the following five features in the course syllabus:

- 1) explicit discussion of what reading strategies are, along with where, when, and how to use them,
- 2) teacher modeling of strategic reading behavior,
- 3) students reading and thinking aloud while practicing targeted strategies,
- 4) classroom discussion; and,
- 5) adoption of a sustained area of content for the course (p. 369).

Paris *et al.*, (1991) define “explicit instruction” as the focused activities of a teacher to make children totally conscious of the dynamic character of the reading process and of the import of metacognitive strategies. This implies that children should be instructed in strategies which support comprehension; in why, where, and when to use them, as well as in how to adapt them to various situations.

Unfortunately, research shows that teaching of reading strategies for enhancement of comprehension is the exception, not the rule. Some research suggests that there is “little teaching of cognitive strategies in contemporary classrooms” (Pressley et al., 1989, p.17).

Singhal (2001) offers the following guidelines for effective strategy instruction in classrooms:

- 1) Teachers must be willing to devote instructional time to strategy instruction.
- 2) Teachers must do task analyses of strategies to be taught.
- 3) Teachers must present strategies as applicable to texts and tasks in more than one content domain so that strategies can be applied in a variety of reading situations and contexts.
- 4) Teachers must teach strategies over an entire year, not just in a single lesson or unit.
- 5) Teachers must provide students with opportunities to practice strategies they have been taught.
- 6) Teachers must be prepared to let students teach each other about reading and the studying process.

Pressley (1995) offers the following guidelines in developing a strategic reading program:

- 1) Strategy instruction needs to match students' zone of proximal development (*Vygotsky*, 1978).
- 2) Teachers should model the strategies they are teaching and provide much practice using real-world tasks.
- 3) Students should learn and practice only one or two new strategies at the same time.
- 4) Students must be able to use the strategy automatically before they are taught to monitor how well it is working.

5) When they are able to use a strategy automatically, students should monitor their learning on a regular basis.

6) To increase and sustain their motivation, students need to understand how useful the strategy can be when they are attempting to learn something new.

Duffy, finally, (1993a) puts forward that strategic reading necessitates strategic teachers, that is, if poor comprehenders are required to be strategic, then their teachers must themselves be strategic and teacher trainers must also be strategic.

2.2.6. Other Related Research

Pressley (2002) cites the following studies on individual reading strategies:

- Relating text to prior knowledge: When children in the elementary grades are taught to relate the ideas in text to what they already know, their comprehension and memory of text improves (e.g., Dewitz, Carr, & Patberg, 1987).

- Mental imagery: When children in the middle and later elementary grades are taught to construct images representing the ideas related by text, their memory and comprehension of text improves (Gambrell & Jawitz, 1993).

- Question generation: When elementary students are taught to question themselves as they read, their understanding of text improves (Davey & McBride, 1986).

- Summarization: When children are instructed to summarize as they read, their understanding and memory of text improves (Bean & Steenwyk, 1984).

Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) and Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) investigated the learning strategies of 152 native English speaking students and 152 ESL students. The focus of the study was to examine the differences in reading strategy usage between native speakers and non-native speakers of English. They asked three primary research questions: (1) Are there any differences between ESL and US students in their perceived strategy use while reading academic materials? (2) Are

there any differences between male and female ESL and US students, respectively, in their perceived strategy use while reading academic materials? And (3) Is there a relationship between reported strategy use and self-rated reading ability?

Results show that the ESL students reported a higher use of strategies than the US students. The ESL students reported using a greater number of support reading strategies and the students who had a higher self-reported rating of reading ability reported using a higher frequency of reading strategies than those readers who gave themselves a lower rating.

Riley & Harsch (1999) conducted a research project to compare the strategy use of Japanese learners of English in ESL and EFL environments. They used two tools to gather data for their research project: a modified version of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning and a strategy journal. Their findings support that learners in an ESL environment use more strategies than learners in an EFL environment. Their explanation for this result is that ESL learners are "more motivated, because they have "more opportunities to use the target language and therefore have a greater need to use strategies".

Palincsar and Brown (1984), cited in Salataci and Akyel (2002), taught young L1 learners with special problems how to monitor comprehension. They called this instruction "Reciprocal Teaching." They trained the students in the use of four strategies: clarifying, identifying the main idea, summarizing, and predicting. During instruction, the teacher modeled the use of each strategy. Then the students were divided into groups and a student assumed the role of the teacher and modeled the use of the strategies as they read a text and conducted a group discussion. The students were later given a comprehension test. The experimental group which was exposed to this instruction scored higher than the control group which was not.

Cotterall (1990) replicated Palincsar and Brown's (1984) study conducted in the L1 context. Cotterall analyzed the effects of metacognitive strategy instruction on four Japanese and Iranian ESL learners. The findings indicated that the learners benefited from the strategy instruction. Song (1998) also replicated Palincsar and

Brown's study EFL context and found that strategy training enhanced the reading ability of Korean EFL college learners.

Auerbach and Paxton (1997) also brought metacognitive awareness training into their L2 reading classes through pre- and post-course reading interviews, reading comprehension questionnaires, strategy awareness questionnaires, reading inventories, and think-aloud protocols. The results indicated that the students' metacognitive awareness increased at the end of this one-semester awareness-raising program.

2.3. Paraphrasing

The paraphrasing strategy is defined as a reading comprehension strategy developed by the Center for Research on Learning at the University of Kansas that has been found to increase reading comprehension (Shumaker, Denton & Deshler, 1984).

Oxford (1990) lists paraphrasing as a cognitive strategy along with some others such as note taking, summarizing, predicting, analyzing and using context clues. In Taraban, Rynearson and Kerr (2000), it is suggested that paraphrasing is a reading strategy. The authors put it in the same category as some other strategies such as setting reading goals, varying reading style according to text content and reading goals, jumping forward and backward in the text to find information relevant to reading goals, making predictions about what the author would say, explaining, and interpreting the text, and constructing summaries and conclusions.

Pressley (2002) also mentions the paraphrasing strategy when describing the characteristics of a good reader. The paraphrasing as a reading strategy is listed next to rereading and underlining.

The Paraphrasing Strategy is one of the strategies together with self-questioning and finding the main idea developed by Deshler, Schumaker, Alley, Clark and Warner (1981) which has been shown to have a positive effect on reading comprehension in the limited research investigating its utility (Ellis & Graves, 1990; Lauterbach & Bender, 1995).

Paraphrasing is listed under the reading strategies category together with the self-questioning strategy, the visual imagery strategy and the word identification strategy. (<http://www.learningstrategieswv.org/StrategicInstructionModel.htm>).

2.3.1. Definition of the Paraphrasing Strategy

Paraphrasing, like quoting and summarizing, is a way of incorporating other writers' work into one's own writing. The three differ among themselves according

to the closeness of one's text to the source text

(http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/r_quotprsum.html). The distinction between a paraphrase, a quotation and a summary is given below:

“Quotations must be identical to the original, using a narrow segment of the source. They must match the source document word for word and must be attributed to the original author.”

“Paraphrasing involves putting a passage from source material into your own words. A paraphrase must also be attributed to the original source. Paraphrased material is usually shorter than the original passage, taking a somewhat broader segment of the source and condensing it slightly.”

“Summarizing involves putting the main idea(s) into your own words, including only the main point(s). Once again, it is necessary to attribute summarized ideas to the original source. Summaries are significantly shorter than the original and take a broad overview of the source material.”

A paraphrase further differs from a summary in that whereas the former means to put across someone else's ideas in your own language, the latter means to compact only the most essential points of someone else's work (<http://www.utoronto.ca/ucwriting/paraphrase.html>). In paraphrase, one does not cut down on the number of the original words. Yet, a summary is a shortened account of the original text.

The web following web page puts it as follows:

(<http://www.bridgewater.edu/WritingCenter/manual/paraphrase.htm>)

“To paraphrase means to restate a portion of a text with the purpose, usually, of clarifying it. A paraphrase is about the same length (has about the same number of words) as the original passage. A paraphrase should not include the wording of the original passage, nor should it follow the same sentence structure as the original passage.”

A paraphrase is;

- 1) one's own rendition of essential information and ideas expressed by someone else, presented in a new form,
- 2) one legitimate way (when accompanied by accurate documentation) to borrow from a source, and,
- 3) a more detailed restatement than a summary, which focuses concisely on a single main idea. (http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/r_paraphr.html).

2.3.2. How to Paraphrase

The strategy is actually a restatement of the original text with one's own words.

The web page, (<http://www.ku-crl.org/sim/strategies/paraphrase.html>), gives the following information:

“The **Paraphrasing Strategy** is designed to help students focus on the most important information in a passage..... Students read short passages of materials, identify the main idea and details, and rephrase the content in their own words”.

The points to keep in mind when there is a need to paraphrase are listed as follows:

- 1) Provide a reference.
- 2) Write the paraphrase entirely in your own words. Alter the sentence structure completely along with the wording of the text.

It would also be wise to follow the steps below:

- 1) Take notes as you read the original text,
- 2) Use your own words to transform the ideas into full sentences,
- 3) Provide a reference,

Go back to the original text to ensure that (a) your paraphrase is accurate and (b) you have truly said things in your own words.

(<http://www.utoronto.ca/ucwriting/paraphrase.html>)

Another web page offers 6 steps to effective paraphrasing as follows:

1) Reread the original passage until you understand its full meaning.

2) Set the original aside, and write your paraphrase on a note card.

3) Jot down a few words below your paraphrase to remind you later how you envision using this material. At the top of the note card, write a key word or phrase to indicate the subject of your paraphrase.

4) Check your rendition with the original to make sure that your version accurately expresses all the essential information in a new form.

5) Use quotation marks to identify any unique term or phraseology you have borrowed exactly from the source.

6) Record the source (including the page) on your note card so that you can credit it easily if you decide to incorporate the material into your paper.

(http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/r_paraphr.html)

There are some other clues as to how to paraphrase, e.g., while paraphrasing, one should first change the structure, then the words.

(http://www.wisc.edu/writing/Handbook/QPA_paraphrase2.html).

Also, e.g. if you make modifications only in the word-order level, it is not paraphrasing; it is plagiarism.

(<http://www.bridgewater.edu/WritingCenter/manual/paraphrase.htm>).

And, finally,

“Paraphrased information must be accompanied by a citation, or in-text reference to the source from which you took the information, just as quoted material

must be. Failure to provide citation will be interpreted by others as plagiarism, even if you list the source in your bibliography.”

(<http://www.bridgewater.edu/WritingCenter/manual/paraphrase.htm>).

2.3.3. Why Paraphrase?

Paraphrases can serve the following purposes.

- 1) provide support for claims or add credibility to your writing,
- 2) refer to work that leads up to the work you are now doing,
- 3) give examples of several points of view on a subject,
- 4) call attention to a position that you wish to agree or disagree with,
- 5) highlight a particularly striking phrase, sentence, or passage by quoting the original,
- 6) distance yourself from the original by quoting it in order to cue readers that the words are not your own, and,
- 7) expand the breadth or depth of your writing.

(http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/r_quotprsum.html).

Paraphrasing is a valuable skill because;

- it is better than quoting information from an undistinguished passage,
- it helps you control the temptation to quote too much, and,
- the mental process required for successful paraphrasing helps you to grasp the full meaning of the original.

(http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/r_paraphr.html)

It is described as an essential tool in essay writing, because it allows one to incorporate other people's ideas without messing up your essay with quotations. However, one should not rely too heavily on paraphrase, because it is your ideas that matter most, not someone else's. (<http://www.utoronto.ca/ucwriting/paraphrase.html>)

2.3.4. Related Studies

Research on the very paraphrasing strategy is almost non-existent. The studies which the researcher got access to are as follows:

Lauterbach and Bender (1995) studied three students with mild disabilities. Results showed an increase in reading comprehension as well as paraphrasing skills after the students received training on the paraphrasing strategy.

Although the paraphrasing strategy is reported to be appropriate for a variety of learners including at-risk, low-achieving and culturally diverse students (Shumaker et al. 1984), existing research has focused primarily on students with identified learning disabilities (Lauterbach and Bender, 1995).

The researcher could find no studies on the effect of instruction of the paraphrasing strategy on reading comprehension skills at an EFL university setting, which set the point of departure for the current study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will provide information about the research design, study participants, instrumentation, data collection and analysis procedures along with the findings of the study.

3.1. Research Design

The current study has a quasi-experimental research design. It has been conducted in three distinct phases. In the first phase, equivalence tests were given to both the control and experimental groups with a view to obtaining data as to equivalence of the groups in terms of vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension and paraphrasing skills. In the next step, the experimental group was instructed on the paraphrasing strategy. In the final stage, both groups were given the Paraphrasing Test and the Reading Comprehension Test as well as the Specific Paraphrasing Test.

3.1.2. Participants

The research has been administered in a population of 62 first-year students of the ELT Department, Faculty of Education, AIBU. 12 of them were males and 50 of them were females. There were 3 males and 28 females in the control group and 9 males and 22 females in the experimental group. Each group had a number 31 students. Their ages ranged between 17 and 22. There were all together 2 seventeen, 31 eighteen, 21 nineteen, 6 twenty, 1 twenty-one and 1 twenty-two year old students.

3.1.3. Instrumentation

Five tests were prepared for the overall study. The 60-Question Vocabulary Test, the 61-Question Structure Test, the 30-Question Reading Comprehension Test and the 12-Question Multiple-Choice Paraphrasing Test were formed through edition

of several published resources such as Sezer (1993) and Boztaş, Aksoy & Kocaman (1999). The Specific Paraphrasing Test and the Rubric were developed by the researcher for the specific purposes of the current study.

3.1.3.1. The 30-Question Reading Comprehension Test

The reliability analysis for this multiple-choice test was conducted in the form of test-retest procedure. This test was given to the control and experimental groups as a pre-test and – at the end of the instruction- as a post-test. It consists of 30 questions, each with 5 options. The KR-20 reliability coefficient was measured to be 0,66 (Appendix A).

3.1.3.2. The 61-Question Structure Test

This multiple-choice test was given to 76 participants for the reliability analysis. The KR-20 was measured to be 0,792. The test contains 61 questions, each with 5 choices (Appendix B).

3.1.3.3. The 60-Question Vocabulary Test

This 60-item multiple-choice vocabulary test aimed to measure the vocabulary competence of the two groups and evaluate whether or not there was a significant difference between the groups. Each item has 5 choices. The KR-20 of the test was found to be 0,702 with 76 participants who took the test (Appendix C).

3.1.3.4. The 12-Question Multiple-Choice Paraphrasing Test

This Paraphrasing Test consisted of 12 questions, each with 5 choices. The test was given as a pre-test and post-test to both groups. The KR-20 reliability coefficient was measured to be 0,51 (Appendix D).

3.1.3.5. The Specific Paraphrasing Test

The Specific Paraphrasing Test has, by definition, been *specifically* developed by the researcher to evaluate the paraphrasing skills of the experimental and the control group after the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental

group. It aims to measure the effectiveness of the particular type of instruction conducted in the current study. It has 5 sentences in English which need to be paraphrased and measures three subdimensions: *meaning*, *structure* and *vocabulary*, each of which deals with the data in detail (Appendix E). This test has been evaluated by 3 separate instructors with a view to obtaining objective results.

The Rubric for the Specific Paraphrasing Test was developed by the researcher in order to facilitate the Interrater evaluation and maintain its objectivity. Evaluative criteria were set for the three subdimensions of the test (Appendix F).

3.1.3.5.1. The Interrater Agreement for the Specific Paraphrasing Test

The Specific Paraphrasing Test was graded by 3 individual instructors so that the results would be as objective as possible. The Specific Paraphrasing Test was evaluated in terms of its Meaning, Structure and Vocabulary Subdimensions. The interrater agreement was found to be significant at $\alpha=0,01$ level in all subdimensions.

Table 1: Non-Parametric Correlations for the ‘Meaning’ Subdimension of the Specific Paraphrasing Test

	<i>Teacher 5</i>	<i>Teacher 4</i>	<i>Teacher 2</i>
<i>Teacher 2</i>	0,70**	0,55**	1
<i>Teacher 4</i>	0,69**	1	
<i>Teacher 5</i>	1		

* $p<0,05$; ** $p<0,01$

The correlation coefficient indicating the correlation between Teacher 2 and Teacher 4 was found to be ($r= 0,55$) significant at $\alpha=0,01$ level.

The correlation coefficient between Teacher 2 and Teacher 5 is ($r=0,70$) significant at $\alpha=0,01$ level.

Likewise, the correlation coefficient between Teacher 4 and Teacher 5 is ($r=0,69$) significant at $\alpha=0,01$ level.

Table 2: Non-Parametric Correlations for the ‘Structure’ Subdimension of the Specific Paraphrasing Test

	<i>Teacher 5</i>	<i>Teacher 4</i>	<i>Teacher 2</i>
<i>Teacher 2</i>	0,74**	0,39**	1
<i>Teacher 4</i>	0,69**	1	
<i>Teacher 5</i>	1		

* $p < 0,05$; ** $p < 0,01$

The correlation coefficient indicating the correlation between Teacher 2 and Teacher 4 was found to be ($r = 0,39$) significant at $\alpha = 0,01$ level.

The correlation coefficient between Teacher 2 and Teacher 5 is ($r = 0,74$) significant at $\alpha = 0,01$ level.

Likewise, the correlation coefficient between Teacher 4 and Teacher 5 is ($r = 0,69$) significant at $\alpha = 0,01$ level.

Table 3: Non-Parametric Correlations for the ‘Vocabulary’ Subdimension of the Specific Paraphrasing Test

	<i>Teacher 5</i>	<i>Teacher 4</i>	<i>Teacher 2</i>
<i>Teacher 2</i>	0,82**	0,61**	1
<i>Teacher 4</i>	0,78**	1	
<i>Teacher 5</i>	1		

* $p < 0,05$; ** $p < 0,01$

The correlation coefficient indicating the correlation between Teacher 2 and Teacher 4 was found to be ($r = 0,61$) significant at $\alpha = 0,01$ level.

The correlation coefficient between Teacher 2 and Teacher 5 is ($r = 0,82$) significant at $\alpha = 0,01$ level.

Likewise, the correlation coefficient between Teacher 4 and Teacher 5 is ($r = 0,78$) significant at $\alpha = 0,01$ level.

The Interrater Agreement Reliability Coefficient for the mean scores of the three teachers for the Meaning, Structure and Vocabulary subdimensions were measured to be 0,65, 0,60 and 0,73 respectively.

Thus, it can be seen that interrater agreement was observed between the experimental group and the control group at all subdimensions on the Specific Paraphrasing Test at $\alpha=0,01$ level.

3.2. Procedures

3.2.1. Intervention

The tests with the exception of the Reading Comprehension Test were first given to a sample population of 76 consisting of the second, third and fourth-year students in the ELT Department so as to determine the reliability scores of the tests.

Next, the experimental group were taught the paraphrasing strategy while the control group were not. The instruction extended over 6 weeks and lasted 1 class hour per week, which adds up to a total of 6 class hours of instruction.

In the intervention phase, the researcher first gave instruction to the experimental group on the synonymy of English vocabulary. Various thesauri and dictionaries were brought into the classroom for this purpose. Students were given sample sentences that contained words that could readily be replaced by their synonyms. E.g. “The role of text structure in translation now seems crucial”. In the beginning, the students were asked to focus on just one specific, on the word “crucial” e.g. So, they came up with synonyms such as “decisive, critical, determining, pivotal, central, etc.”. Then, the researcher held a discussion among the students to find out the most appropriate synonym to the selected word within the specific context. In the following class hours, the students learned to focus on all of the vocabulary items that could possibly have synonyms. The researcher guided the

students to look up each and every word in a dictionary to make sure that they had found the correct equivalent.

Next, the researcher asked the students to change the structure of the given sentences. This necessitated review of certain grammatical issues such as active voice vs. passive voice etc. The researcher modeled the modifications with a view to scaffolding in the way described by Roehler and Cantlon (1997). Thus, the paraphrasing strategy instruction was based on three decisive criteria – modification of the sentence structure & alteration of the wording and preservation of the original meaning – as suggested in the web pages, (<http://www.utoronto.ca/ucwriting/paraphrase.html>) and (<http://www.bridgewater.edu/WritingCenter/manual/paraphrase.htm>).

In the final phase, both groups took individual tests measuring whether or not there was a significant difference between the groups in terms of paraphrasing ability and also whether or not their reading comprehension skills improved.

3.2.2. Data Collection

The data were collected through the tests mentioned above. The tests except for the Specific Paraphrasing Test were given to the experimental and control groups before the experimental group received instruction on the paraphrasing strategy. The Reading Comprehension Test was given to the groups both as a pre-test and post-test. The Specific Paraphrasing Test was administered after the instruction to evaluate the effectiveness of the instruction.

3.2.3. Data analysis

The data thus collected were entered into a statistical package program and relevant analyses were conducted. Considering the nature of data, several statistical procedures such as independent samples t-test, paired samples t-test and bivariate Pearson and Spearman Brown correlation techniques were performed to test the relevant hypotheses of the study.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The findings related to the research hypotheses of this study will be presented in this chapter.

4.1. The Equivalence of the Groups

Four tests administered to the groups served to reveal whether or not the two groups were equivalent to each other with respect to grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension and paraphrasing skills. The first three skills correspond to the three subdimensions of the paraphrasing strategy, the structure, vocabulary, and meaning subdimensions respectively, which are essential for a successful paraphrase (<http://www.utoronto.ca/ucwriting/paraphrase.html>). Therefore, the results of these three tests must serve as a criterion that reveals the status of equivalence between the two groups in terms of paraphrasing skill in addition to the independent 12-Question Paraphrasing Test.

As shown in Table 4, the mean score for the experimental group's Grammar Test is $M = 47,74$, $SD=6,79$ and the mean score for the control group's Grammar Test is $M = 47,09$, $SD=4,19$. The difference between both groups' mean scores was calculated through t-test, which indicated that the t-test result ($t = 0,45$, $df=60$) is insignificant at $\alpha=0,05$ level.

The mean score for the experimental group's Reading Comprehension Test was measured to be $M = 22,80$, $SD=2,85$ and that of the control group was found to be $M = 22,25$, $SD=3,19$. The t-test result ($t = 0,97$, $df=60$) is insignificant at $\alpha=0,05$ level.

The mean scores for the experimental and the control groups in the Vocabulary Test are $M = 39,09$, $SD=6,84$ and $M = 36,19$, $SD=5,39$ respectively. The t-test result ($t = 1,85$, $df=60$) is insignificant at $\alpha=0,05$ level.

Table 4: The Independent Samples t-test for the Experimental and Control Groups' Equivalence Tests

<i>Tests</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>	<i>Std. Err. Mean</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
The 61-Question Grammar Test	Experimental	31	47,74	6,79	1,22	0,45	60	0,65
	Control	31	47,09	4,19	,75			
The 30-Question Reading Comprehension Pre-Test	Experimental	31	22,80	2,85	0,51	0,71	60	0,48
	Control	31	22,25	3,19	0,57			
The 60-Question Vocabulary Test	Experimental	31	39,09	6,84	1,22	1,85	60	0,07
	Control	31	36,19	5,39	,96			

Thus, it is possible to say that there is not a significant difference between the two groups in terms of performance in the Equivalence Tests. The results proved that the two groups were mostly equivalent to each other except for the slight difference on the Vocabulary Test in favor of the experimental group. That difference is statistically negligible.

Table 5: Independent Samples t-test for the 12-Question Paraphrasing Pre-test for Experimental and Control Groups

	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>	<i>Std. Err. Mean</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	Experimental	31	7,83	1,91	0,34	1,72	60	0,09
	Control	31	7,03	1,76	0,31			

The mean score for the Experimental Group's Pre-test is $M=7,83$, $SD=1,91$ whereas it is $M=7,03$, $SD=1,76$ for the Control Group's Pre-test. The t-test result ($t=1,72$, $df=60$) is insignificant at $\alpha=0,05$ level, which indicates that there is no

significant difference between the two groups in terms of paraphrasing skill at the onset of the study.

Determining the equivalence of the groups was crucial at the beginning of the study, because, otherwise the likely effect of the intervention could not have been correctly measured.

Table 6: Paired Samples t-test for the Experimental Group's Paraphrasing Pre-test & Post-test

<i>Tests</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>	<i>Std. Err. Mean</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	Experimental	31	7,83	1,91	0,34	-0,69	30	0,49
Post-test	Experimental	31	8,06	1,69	0,30			

The 12-Question Multiple-Choice Paraphrasing Pre-test and Post-test results reveal no statistically significant difference in favor of the experimental group, as shown in Table 6.

The mean score for the experimental group's Paraphrasing Pre-test was measured as $M = 7,83$, $SD=1,91$ and that of the experimental group's Paraphrasing Post-test was found to be $M = 8,06$, $SD=1,69$. The paired samples t-test ($t = -0,69$, $df=30$) result shows that there is no significant difference between the experimental group's Pre & Post-test mean scores at $\alpha=0,05$ level.

This shows that *the multiple-choice test* did not serve to measure the effectiveness of the instruction of the paraphrasing strategy on the experimental group. It is possible to assume that this result has stemmed from the nature of the question-format (multiple-choice) of the 12-Question Paraphrasing Test. However, *the Specific Paraphrasing Test* has put forth rather dissimilar results.

Both groups' Independent Samples t-test results for the 3 subdimensions of the Specific Paraphrasing Test are given in Table 7.

Table 7: Independent Samples t-test for the Subdimensions of the Paraphrasing Test

<i>Subdimensions</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Std. Err. Mean</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Meaning	Experimental	31	83,03	13,72	2,46	3,12	60	0,003
	Control	31	72,06	13,89	2,49			
Structure	Experimental	31	38,51	8,85	1,59	2,64	60	0,01
	Control	31	33,12	7,09	1,27			
Vocabulary	Experimental	31	40,41	8,80	1,58	5,18	60	0,000
	Control	31	29,90	7,08	1,27			
Total	Experimental	31	161,96	29,74	5,34	3,79	60	0,000
	Control	31	135,09	25,88	4,64			

The experimental group's total mean score on the Specific Paraphrasing Test (M= 161,96, SD=29,74) is significantly higher than that of the control group's (M= 135,09, SD=25,88). The t-test result ($t=3,79$, $df=60$) is significant at $\alpha=0,05$ level.

4.2. Hypothesis 1

"After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the 'Meaning Subdimension' of the Specific Paraphrasing Test."

Hypothesis 1 has been accepted in light of the data revealed by the Specific Paraphrasing Test. Table 7 indicates that the mean scores on the 'Meaning' subdimension of the Specific Paraphrasing Test for the experimental and the control groups are M= 83,03, SD=13,72 and M = 72,06, SD=13,89 respectively. The t-test ($t=3,12$, $df=60$) result shows that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' mean scores for the Meaning Subdimension at $\alpha=0,05$ level.

4.3. Hypothesis 2

“After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the ‘Structure Subdimension’ of the Specific Paraphrasing Test.”

Hypothesis 2 has also been accepted in light of the data revealed by the Specific Paraphrasing Test. On the ‘Structure’ subdimension of the Specific Paraphrasing Test, the mean scores for the experimental and the control groups are $M = 38,51$, $SD=8,85$ and $M = 33,12$, $SD=7,09$ respectively. The t-test ($t = 2,64$, $df=60$) result shows that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups’ mean scores for the Structure Subdimension at $\alpha=0,05$ level.

4.4. Hypothesis 3

“After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the ‘Vocabulary Subdimension’ of the Specific Paraphrasing Test.”

Hypothesis 3 has been accepted in light of the data revealed by the Specific Paraphrasing Test, too. The mean score of the experimental group on the ‘Vocabulary’ subdimension of the Specific Paraphrasing Test is $M = 40,41$, $SD=8,80$ and that of the control group’s is $M = 29,90$, $SD=7,08$. The t-test ($t = 5,18$, $df=60$) result shows that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups’ mean scores for the Vocabulary Subdimension at $\alpha=0,05$ level.

4.5. Hypothesis 4

“After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the Reading Comprehension Post-test.”

Table 8: Independent Samples t-test for the Reading Comprehension Pre-test & Post-test

<i>Tests</i>	<i>Groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>	<i>Std. Err. Mean</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Post-test	Experimental	31	31,41	3,65	0,65	0,22	60	0,82
	Control	31	31,22	3,00	0,54			

Hypothesis 4 has been rejected. As can be seen in Table 8, the mean score of the experimental group on the Reading Comprehension Post-test is $M = 31,41$, $SD=3,65$ and that of the control group's is $M = 31,22$, $SD=3,00$. The t-test ($t = 0,22$, $df=60$) result is *insignificant* at $\alpha=0,05$ level, which illustrates that the experimental group did not outperform the control group on the reading comprehension skills after the experimental group were instructed in the paraphrasing strategy.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

In this chapter the findings of the study will be discussed in the light of the research questions. The results will be associated with the literature and the analogous and conflicting points will be presented in the discussion section. Then, suggestions for further research will be given and the major findings of the study will be summarized in the conclusion.

5.1. Overview of the Study

This study aimed at finding out whether or not explicit instruction of the paraphrasing strategy would result in an increase in the reading comprehension skills of the students in the experimental group as compared with those of the control group.

The 60-Question Vocabulary Test and the 61-Question Structure Test were formed and administered to a population of 76 students to determine the reliability scores. The reliability scores of the 30-Question Reading Comprehension Test and the 12-Question Multiple-Choice Paraphrasing Test were calculated through the Test-retest method. The reliability score of the Specific Paraphrasing Test was computed through the Interrater Agreement method.

The 60-Question Vocabulary Test, the 61-Question Structure Test, the 30-Question Reading Comprehension Test and the 12-Question Paraphrasing Test were administered to the experimental and control groups to test out the status of equivalence/non-equivalence between the groups. The 30-Question Reading Comprehension Test was given to both groups also as a post-test.

Instruction of the paraphrasing strategy was carried out for 6 weeks – 1 class hour per week - with the experimental group.

Finally, both groups were given the 30-Question Reading Comprehension Post-test, the 12-Question Paraphrasing Test as well as the Specific Paraphrasing Test. The reliability scores for these three tests were then calculated.

5.2. Discussion of the Findings

After receiving the instruction on the paraphrasing strategy, the students in the experimental group actually learned how to make paraphrases. They outperformed the control group in all of the three subdimensions of the paraphrasing skill. This is in line with the findings of the previous research that language learning strategies are cognitive skills and therefore teachable (Oxford & Nyikos 1989; Chamot 2001).

Explicit instruction of reading strategies facilitates strategy learning as suggested by Alexander (1996), Lenz (2006), and Schunk and Zimmerman (2003) etc. Hypothesis 1 *“After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the ‘Meaning Subdimension’ of the specific paraphrasing post-test.”*; Hypothesis 2 *“After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the ‘Structure Subdimension’ of the Specific Paraphrasing Test.”*; and Hypothesis 3 *“After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the ‘Vocabulary Subdimension’ of the Specific Paraphrasing Test.”* have proven the effectiveness of explicit instruction on the acquisition of the paraphrasing strategy, which is consistent with the existent literature.

As regards Hypothesis 4 *“After the teaching of the paraphrasing strategy to the experimental group, the experimental group will get a higher score than the control group on the Reading Comprehension Post-test.”*, the findings of the current study are not in parallel to the findings of the earlier research which suggest that instruction of the paraphrasing strategy improves reading comprehension skills (E.g., Ellis & Graves, 1990; Lauterbach & Bender, 1995). The following explanations can be assumed to be the possible reasons for this finding:

Firstly, the nature of the paraphrasing strategy instruction in the current study is rather different from e.g. the nature of instruction in Lauterbach and Bender's study (1995) in that the current study aimed to foster EFL students reading comprehension skills in a university setting whereas Lauterbach and Bender focused on native speaker pupils with learning disabilities in a primary school setting.

Secondly, the paraphrasing strategy is just *one* of the various reading comprehension strategies such as goal-setting, skimming, scanning, predicting, activating prior knowledge, taking notes, highlighting & annotating, inferencing, monitoring comprehension, etc., that the students in both the experimental and the control groups were taught equally. Considering also the effect of the instruction of the other various strategies, the effect of instruction of just one paraphrasing strategy might not have sufficed to increase reading comprehension skills. It can, thus, be assumed that instruction of several strategies at a time instead of just one may produce an effect.

Thirdly, Hypothesis 4 was rejected, but only within the limitations of the current study. Previous research suggests that strategy instruction should not be limited to a few class hours, but extended over the entire academic year (Singhal, 2001). Therefore, a six-week study might not have been enough to create an effect. The length of time the experimental group were exposed to the instruction and use of the paraphrasing strategy might have been too short for the students to internalize and transfer the skill to new situations.

Thus, it is proper to say that the instruction was effective in that the experimental group actually did better paraphrases than the control group. It seems, however, that they failed to transfer this acquisition to their reading comprehension skills, which indicates that they did not have an adequate amount of time to internalize the skill.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

In light of the findings of the current study, researchers are suggested to investigate the relationship between paraphrasing and reading comprehension

through interventions that extend over the entire academic year. Researchers may focus on paragraph-level paraphrases as different from the sentence-level paraphrases that were examined in the current study.

Researchers may attempt to work on groups larger than those in the current study, thus increasing their chances of making generalizations. They can work, also, on populations other than ELT Department students, which will provide them with useful data as to how instruction of certain reading strategies works with diverse groups. They should prefer to apply instruments whose reliability coefficients have been calculated over a larger population.

Researchers may also try investigating the effectiveness of instruction of a combination of several strategies at a time instead of focusing on only one strategy so that their chances of detecting a meaningful effect will increase.

A study on the Paraphrasing Strategy Instruction can also be carried out at the post-graduate levels in universities in order to find out whether or not the instruction helps prevent plagiarism. The results of such a study may then be integrated into an academic writing course.

By investigating the effectiveness of various strategy instruction programs, the researchers can come to conclusions as to, e.g., whether or not a particular strategy is worth allocating any class time as compared with certain other strategies.

5.4. Conclusion

The results of this study revealed that the paraphrasing strategy is teachable. This implies, as mentioned before, that students should explicitly be taught the learning strategies (Hartman, 2001; Paris *et al.*, 1991; Pressley, 2000). Instruction should extend over the whole academic year and a combination of various strategies rather than a particular single strategy should be taught. The purpose of the instruction as well as the usefulness of the strategies should be made all clear to the students. Due scaffolding and modeling should be conducted during the instruction.

As Carrell (1998) puts forth, there is little evidence to suggest that students at any level will acquire these skills and strategies if they are not explicitly taught. Explicit instruction can be effective in providing students with a repertoire of strategies that foster comprehension. In order to foster the reading skills of students, educators have to develop effective instructional means for teaching reading comprehension and reading strategy use (Kasper, 2000a, b; Singhal, 2001).

The teaching of the paraphrasing strategy may help students to render academic texts into their own words and structures, which may in turn boost their overall academic skills. It may favorably help prevent plagiarism in the academic environment, too.

Reading comprehension in L2 is a fundamental skill in the university. Especially, at an ELT Department it is a survival skill. To foster it, teachers at the ELT Departments have to develop effective instructional methods that incorporate the teaching and practice of certain reading strategies into their reading classes.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Name: **Surname:** **Grade:** **Age:**
Gender: **High School:**

Dear student,

This test has been designed to measure your reading comprehension skill. The results will be evaluated for a master's thesis and for no other purposes. Please, answer all the questions. This 30-item test is supposed to take 40 minutes.

Thanks for your participation.

Reading Comprehension Test

Learning karate requires a great deal of time, energy and concentration. For example, the katas, a series of movements practiced against an imaginary opponent, must be repeated in training until the movements can be done smoothly and effortlessly. To protect themselves against attack, karate students must carefully study the nerves and vital areas of the body, and must be ready to spend years, not months, in training. Above all, they must learn to cultivate the appropriate state of mind. A calm and serene consciousness is crucial for learning karate.

1) Katas are

- a) imaginary opponents.
- b) practiced to kill enemies.
- c) the worst enemy.
- d) practicing movements.
- e) to be repeated on rare occasions.

2) Which of the following is NOT true?

- a) Katas should be performed with great effort.
- b) Karate students should study the human body.
- c) It takes years to learn karate.
- d) The state of mind is crucial when practicing katas.
- e) Mastery is a result of practice

The dangers of overpopulation cannot be underestimated. Dr David Doom, the President of Planned Parenthood, maintains that the world will be uninhabitable by the year 2000 unless the rate of population growth is reduced. According to Dr Doom, the world's food production cannot meet the needs of 7 billion people, so famine is an inevitable consequence of uncontrolled population growth. The World Health Organization agrees with Dr Doom. It recently published a report noting that famine already exists in many parts of Africa and Asia

3) What does Mr. Doom suggest we should do?

- a) We should have as many children as possible.
- b) We shouldn't care about population growth.
- c) We should put an end to uncontrolled population growth.
- d) We should underestimate the danger of overpopulation.
- e) We should not take overpopulation seriously.

There are several reasons why women have a harder time losing weight than men, and some of them are purely physical. A 275-pound person walking at two miles per hour burns 6.4 calories per minute while a 150-pound person walking at the same speed burns only 3.5 calories per minute. Thus, men, being generally heavier to begin with, can lose weight faster through exercise than women can.

What's more, even if they were the same weight, a man would still burn more calories than a woman doing the same amount of exercise. The reason is that a man's body has a higher ratio of muscle to fat than a woman's, and it takes more energy to push muscle around than fat. So, a dieting, exercising man sees results a lot sooner than a woman, considers his weight-reduction program more successful and is more likely to stick with it. Men are also more likely to add extra exercise to a weight-loss program. In fact, most weight-conscious men can be found working off those extra pounds in gyms and swimming pools while women are likely to head for a more passive program in a diet clinic or at home.

4) Even if a man and a woman doing the same exercise were the same weight, the man would lose weight faster because

- a) a woman is not as careful as a man.
- b) a man has more muscles than a woman.
- c) a woman is less active than a man.
- d) a woman is more weight conscious.
- e) a women usually eats more than men.

Sugar has been labeled white, sweet and deadly. However, recent research at the Royal Free Hospital in the UK demonstrated that the best health record was achieved by the people who ate a good amount of sugar but kept their weight steady. Rather than veer away from each risk food, it would be wiser to consider how much of any single form of food we consume – and practice moderation.

5) What has been demonstrated at the Royal Free Hospital in the UK?

- a) Sugar should be avoided at all costs.
- b) Sugar if consumed in moderation will do people good.
- c) Sugar without any doubt is a killer.

d) Sugar should never be consumed in hospitals.

e) Sugar should not be avoided at all costs.

When we upset nature's balance in the relationship of wildlife to its surroundings, the results can be very unfortunate. Some years ago, in order to increase the number of deer in the Kaibab forest, all the wolves and coyotes and mountain lions were killed by state hunters. As a result, the deer increased rapidly multiplying in a fifteen-year period from four thousand to over a hundred thousand. The sick and weak deer, which the lions would have killed, survived. However, the enlarged herd was more than the range could feed. In two severe winters, sixty thousand deer starved to death. The herd kept dwindling down to ten thousand animals. Damage did not stop there; the range had been so severely overgrazed that disastrous soil erosion occurred.

6) What would be the best title for this passage?

a) Deer

b) Nature's Balance

c) Wildlife

d) In Search of Food

e) Dangers in Nature

7) Why did the hunters kill all the wolves, coyotes and mountain lions?

a) They attacked human beings.

b) They killed a lot of deer.

c) They carried dangerous germs.

d) They were a danger to the balance in nature.

e) They were increasing in frightening numbers.

8) How did the sick and weak deer manage to survive?

- a) Hunters protected them.
- b) Their enemies had been killed.
- c) They were taken to a zoo.
- d) The state hunters built caves for them.
- e) Medical treatment was always available.

9) Which of the following is NOT true?

- a) The deer eating too much grass caused soil erosion.
- b) There was not enough grass to feed all the deer.
- c) Killing all the coyotes, wolves and mountain lions brought about uncalculated results.
- d) Eradication of the hunter animals helped protect nature's balance.
- e) Human intervention made the survival of the sick and weak deer possible.

In the seventeenth century, the emotionally disturbed suffered more from their treatment than they did from their illness. Since the devil was thought to be the cause of mental illness, brutal attempts were made to drive him out. Patients were whipped and beaten, and scalding liquids were poured over them. If the treatments failed, and they usually did, the patients were simply locked away in hospitals that were little more than jails. There they were left to the mercy of attendants who were underpaid and not much more emotionally stable than the patients.

10) This passage is mainly about

- a) how mentally ill people were tortured in the 17th century.
- b) mental hospitals in the 17th century.

- c) prisons for the mentally ill in the 17th century.
- d) how the emotionally disturbed were treated in the 17th century.
- e) the causes of mental illness.

11) According to the passage, the treatment for the emotionally disturbed

.....

- a) was very effective.
- b) did more harm than good.
- c) was also difficult for the doctors.
- d) was only possible in jails.
- e) produced good results.

Space is a dangerous place. In space, radiation is the greatest known danger to explorers. Doses of radiation are measured in units called rems. We all receive radiation here on Earth from the Sun, from cosmic rays and radioactive minerals. The “normal” dose of radiation that we receive each year is about 100 milirems (0.1 rem); it varies according to where you live and this is a very rough estimate. Scientists have reason to think that a man can put up with far more radiation than this without being damaged; the figure of 60 rems has been agreed. The trouble is that it is extremely difficult to be sure of radiation damage – a person may feel perfectly well, but the cells of his or her sex organs may be damaged, and this will not be discovered until the birth of deformed children or even grandchildren.

12) Rems are

- a) doses of radiation.
- b) dangerous in space.
- c) found in space.

d) measure units.

e) damage ratios.

13) Which of the following is true?

a) It is not possible to know how much radiation a person receives.

b) Each person receives the same amount of radiation.

c) Any amount of radiation will damage our health.

d) 60 rems will kill a man.

e) High doses of radiation directly harm sex-cells.

14) Which of the following is NOT true?

a) The radiation we receive comes from rems.

b) Radiation damage may not be noticed early.

c) Radiation may cause the birth of deformed babies.

d) A person may feel OK, yet affected by radiation.

e) Radiation is the biggest peril caused by space.

If a perfect deal is one with a willing seller and a willing buyer and a profit for both, then Asia's labor transactions represent the textbook ideal. The country selling labor gets foreign exchange and lessens its domestic unemployment. The buying country gets muscle and skills to make economic strides that would otherwise stumble for lack of manpower.

15) According to the passage,

a) Asia is selling manpower to secure financial aid.

b) Many textbooks have been written about Asia's labor transactions.

- c) Rich countries are getting manpower from Asia.
- d) The deal is profitable for both Asia and the labor buying countries.
- e) Asia will someday become very powerful.

The famous Lindbergh kidnapping case began on March 1, 1932, when the Lindbergh baby was taken from his home in Hopewell, New Jersey. The family paid the fifty-thousand-dollar ransom, but the baby was not returned and his body was discovered on March 12. Two years later, Bruno Hauptmann, a carpenter, was arrested after attempting to pass a twenty-dollar bill from the ransom money. Hauptmann was tried and later executed but doubts about his guilt persist.

16) What did the kidnappers do to the baby?

- a) They returned him to the family.
- b) They discovered him.
- c) They killed him.
- d) They gave him to a carpenter.
- e) Nobody knows.

17) Which one of the following is true?

- a) The baby was kidnapped by the carpenter.
- b) The ransom was never paid.
- c) The kidnappers were not satisfied with the money.
- d) The carpenter had some ransom money.
- e) The carpenter was released.

Feudalism was dying in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries and the strong nation-state was taking place of the old system of small, private states. These modern nation-states were well organized and could wage wars using many more soldiers than before. Because more soldiers were involved in the fighting, wars became bloodier and large armies were common. Guns began to be used instead of other weapons such as swords and spears. Before this, soldiers had worn suits made of metal which protected them against spears and swords. These suits of armor were expensive, so only rich people could fight wars. However, armor could not protect the soldier against firearms. Gunpowder, a substance used in all guns or firearms, therefore, became an important part of war. Wars were no longer fought by rich people with suits of armor. The common person using firearms and gunpowder became more important as a soldier. Thus, gunpowder helped to facilitate the transition from feudalism to the nation-state.

18) Why did wars become bloodier?

- a) Because common people could not afford suits of armor.
- b) Because armor could not protect soldiers against firearms.
- c) Because suits of armor were expensive.
- d) Because armies got larger.
- e) Because modern man was more violent.

19) When armies began to use guns,

- a) more common people became soldiers.
- b) they needed fewer soldiers.
- c) armor gained importance.
- d) even poor people bought armor.
- e) people grew more willing to fight.

Languages are full of sayings with interesting stories. The old saying “worth their salt”, which means to be valuable, derives from the custom of payment during the Roman Empire. Throughout history, the search for salt has played an important role in society. Where it was scarce, it was traded ounce for ounce with gold. Rome’s major highway was called the Via Salaria, that is, the Salt Road. Along that road, Roman soldiers transported salt crystals from the salt flats at Ostia up the Tiber River. In return, they received a salarium, or salary, which was literally money paid to soldiers to buy salt.

20) What is the passage mainly about?

- a) Salt
- b) The Roman Empire
- c) Ancient Trade
- d) An old saying.
- e) Languages

When Ronald Reagan won the presidency almost eight years ago, it was easy to see what sort of leader he needed to be. The American economy was being weakened by double-digit inflation: he needed to crunch it out. America had lost its military edge over the Soviet Union: he needed to restore it. Russia was on an expansionist roll in Afghanistan and Africa: he needed to call “enough”, and be listened to. For all these reasons, Americans were gloomy, full of doubt: he needed to revive their spirits.

21) According to the passage,

- a) Ronald Reagan served as the president of the US for eight years.
- b) Ronald Reagan had to wage war against Russia to prevent her expansionist policy.

c) Ronald Reagan was expected to revive the relations between the US and USSR.

d) it was obvious what kind of leader Ronald Reagan was supposed to be.

e) little did Ronald Reagan realize how serious things could get.

The Declaration of Independence of the U.S. was written more than 200 years ago, but its ideas are as important now as they were in 1776. In it, the leaders of the American Revolution expressed their belief that all men are born equal and that all men have the right to live in freedom regardless of their race, the color of their skin, or their social class. In spite of this belief in equality, however, equal rights were not enjoyed by everyone. The history of the U.S. to this day contains many examples of different groups of people who had to struggle for the rights which were promised to them. For some of the groups, the struggle is still not finished. One of the largest of these groups is the black Americans, descendants of African slaves who were brought to the U.S. before the middle of the nineteenth century.

22) Which of the following statements is NOT true?

a) The Declaration of Independence of the U.S. was written in 1776.

b) The leaders of the American Revolution believed in equality for all men.

c) Black people are the only group of people that haven't attained equal rights.

d) Promises made to some groups of people concerning equality were not kept.

e) In the U.S., equality for each and everyone has not been achieved yet.

Yogurt has as much nutritional value as a glass of milk, yet dieters and health food fanatics claim that yogurt will prolong your life and reduce your girth. Their claims are backed by reports that yogurt eaters over the years have lived longer and healthier lives than non-yogurt eaters. However, what proof is there that rural life and its ensuing greater physical activity rather than consumption of yogurt are not the cause of these persons' longevity?

23) According to the writer,

- a) yogurt bears less nutritional value than milk.
- b) it is the yogurt eaters claim that yogurt lengthens life.
- c) whether yogurt prolongs life is not yet known.
- d) consumption of yogurt is not the cause of long life.
- e) no proof is required to show that yogurt makes life longer.

The great expansion in energy demand over recent years has been met to a large extent by petroleum oil. The total world reserves of petroleum oil are still uncertain since large parts of world are still not fully prospected. The cutback in oil production and the rise in the price of Middle Eastern oil following the 1973 Arab-Israel war unleashed a worldwide energy crisis. The result has been that Britain has increased its north sea oil production and has become the fifth largest oil producing country in the world.

24) One can infer from the passage that further oil explorations

.....

- a) would unavoidably result in a drop in oil prices.
- b) are unlikely to continue nonstop.
- c) should be carried out in the North Sea.
- d) are likely to cause new tensions in the Middle East.
- e) could lead to the discovery of new reserves.

Whenever I succeeded in the Hakujin world, my brothers were supportive, whereas Papa would be disdainful, undermined by my obvious capitulation to the ways of the West. I wanted to be like my Caucasian friends. Not only did I want to look like them, I wanted to act like them. I tried hard to be outgoing and socially

aggressive and act confidently, like my girlfriends. At home I was careful not to show these personality traits to my father. For him it was bad enough that I did not even look Japanese. I was too big and I walked too forcefully. My behavior at home was never composed and serene, but around my father I tried to be as Japanese as I could. As I passed puberty and grew more concerned with boys, I soon became aware that an Oriental female evoked a certain kind of interest from males. I was still too young to recognize how or why an Oriental female mesmerized Caucasian men.

25) The father of the author expected her to be

- a) subservient to Hakujins.
- b) successful in the Hakujin way.
- c) self-assured and pushy.
- d) tranquil and self-possessed.
- e) outgoing and gregarious.

“Idle speculation” has no place in science, but “speculation” is its very lifeblood, a well-known physicist believes. “The more fundamental and far-reaching a scientific theory is, the more speculative it is likely to be,” Dr. Michael W. Ovenden, author and lecturer at the University of Glasgow, Scotland, states in his book “Life in the Universe.” Dr. Ovenden says it is erroneous to believe that science is only concerned with “pure facts”, for mere accumulation of facts is a primitive form of science. A mature science tries to arrange facts in significant patterns to see relationships between previously unrelated aspects of the universe. A theory that does not suggest new ways of looking at the universe is not likely to make an important contribution to the development of science. However, it is also important that theories are checked by new experiments and observations.

26) It can be inferred from the text that scientists

- a) must rely exclusively on their speculations.
- b) must concern themselves with facts.
- c) must understand all forms of science.
- d) form opinions about the data they gather.
- e) must accept figures only.

On Tuesday, the European Union's parliament will open a major international debate on the intelligence practices of the world's five leading English speaking nations, claiming that this electronic espionage ring, led by the United States and Britain, is methodically going where it has no right to go. The EU's civil liberties committee is expected to indict Britain for assisting the United States in conducting economic and commercial espionage on a grand scale at the expense of its European partners. A special 112-page report uncovering the intelligence network prepared for the EU last spring declares that the rapid proliferation of surveillance technologies presents "a serious menace to the civil liberties in Europe" with frightening consequences.

27) EU's civil liberties committee

- a) is itself busily involved in electronic espionage.
- b) thinks that electronic espionage harms Britain.
- c) is one of the five leading English-speaking committees.
- d) considers paramountly the interests of Europe.
- e) suggests that espionage should be prohibited.

Exciting yet safe for all, Scuba diving is regarded as one of the most satisfying of hobbies. It can be learned, initially anyway, free of charge at many local baths, and afterwards the heaviest expense is likely to be that of traveling to the sea. Scuba divers come from all walks of life. They don't need to be well-off, nor do they have to be particularly sturdy. Generally, the beginners should be over fifteen, as it is difficult for children to master the various safety regulations.

28) We understand that Scuba divers

- a) can be poor.
- b) must be lower-class.
- c) need strength.
- d) can not master the rules.
- e) don't obey the regulations.

29) Anyone can become a Scuba diver

- a) if he buys the equipment.
- b) if he has the guts.
- c) if he can afford it.
- d) unless he is not too youthful.
- e) unless he dreads sea.

A less hectic atmosphere prevailed in a nearby classroom. Eighteen people, driven by the urge to get better qualifications, were listening intently to a lecture on sociology. The lecturer, a well-qualified young man who went down very well with the class and kept them at it, had the knack of putting over the dreariest information in an engrossing way.

30) We can infer from the passage that the students

- a) were extremely skilled.
- b) were reluctant to study.
- c) liked the setting in the nearby class.
- d) urged the lecturer to stop.
- e) were highly motivated.

THANK YOU

APPENDIX B

Name: **Surname:** **Grade:** **Age:**
Gender: **High School:**

Dear student,

This test has been designed to measure your grammar competence. The results will be evaluated for a master's thesis and for no other purposes. Please, answer all the questions. This 61-item test is supposed to take 30 minutes.

Thanks for your participation.

STRUCTURE TEST

1) According to the information given, they seem the experiments on the new product, but we haven't received the results yet.

- a. to complete
- b. to be completing
- c. to be completed
- d. to have completed
- e. to have been completed

2) When Mr. Marple from that company at the end of this month, he for thirty years.

- a. will retire/ will be working
- b. retires/ will work
- c. will have retired/will have worked

- d. retires/ will have worked
- e. will retire/ must have worked

3) The little boy dirty from head to foot because in the mud.

- a. has been/is playing
- b. had been/ is playing
- c. had been/ played
- d. is/had been playing
- e. was/had been playing

4) The two trains collided with a loud crash that it woke everyone in the Station Hotel.

- a. so
- b. such
- c. very
- d. as
- e. too

5) Not until a student has mastered algebra the principles of geometry, trigonometry and physics.

- a. he can begin to understand
- b. can he begin to understand
- c. he begins to understand

- d. begin to understand
- e. to begin to understand

6) William Shakespeare is considered by most art critics
greatest playwright of all times.

- a. that he was
- b. who was the
- c. as he was
- d. the
- e. is the

7) to relieve pain caused by severe burn, prevent infection and treat for shock,
.....

- a. taking immediate steps
- b. to take immediate steps
- c. taken steps immediately
- d. take immediate steps
- e. will take immediate steps

8) I had a vague image of before he the crowd.

- a. whom it was/had addressed
- b. who was it/addressed
- c. who was he/had addressed

d. who was he/addressed

e. who he was/addressed

9) Weathering the action whereby surface rock is disintegrated or decomposed.

a. it is

b. is

c. is that

d. being

e. to be

10) In his last book, the author attempted to show that his generation
.....

a. did not know how to live in a technological society.

b. was not knowing how live in a technological society.

c. did not know living in a technological society.

d. had not known living in a technological society.

e. Not to know how to live in a technological society.

11) The moon is not a planet the planets in many respects.

a. resembling

b. which resembles

c. but resemblance to

d. but which resembles

e. although it resembles

12) Linguists are not sure where the first language originated or

a. what language was

b. what language it was

c. it was what language

d. what language was it

e. it was what

13) The universe we know it might have begun with a great explosion.

a. as

b. that

c. and which

d. and

e. which

14) “Do you think it’s possible that the same boy stole money from the safe before?”

“Yes, we suspect money from the safe before.”

a. him stolen

b. him of stealing

c. his stealing

d. him stealing

e. him to steal

15) I don't remember that gentleman before, that's why I would like
..... introduced to him now.

a. meeting/to be

b. meeting/being

c. to meet/to be

d. to meet/being

e. meeting/to being

16) By the time they, the fire a lot of damage.

a. were putting it out/did

b. are putting it out/is going to do

c. put it out/had done

d. will put it out/will be doing

e. had put/did

17) today, she would get there by Sunday.

a. Was she leaving

b. Would she have

c. Were she to leave

d. If she leaves

e. If left today

18) We needed some money to send him abroad to school, my father had to sell the gold watch he inherited from his father.

- a. so that
- b. as
- c. since
- d. because
- e. so

19) Jack suggested that they stop arguing, but Robert insisted on shouting and accused him nervous and rude.

- a. have to/being
- b. should/ to be
- c. have to/to be
- d. should/of being
- e. must/for being

20) What to her father shocked him.

- a. did she say something
- b. she said something
- c. she said
- d. did she say
- e. was it she said

21) Yesterday, while you were driving through the city, your brakes suddenly failed.

So, what did you do to avoid

- a. to run into a lorry
- b. stopping the car
- c. being stopped
- d. to hit an old lady
- e. knocking down some schoolboys

22) I be shy in front of large groups of people, but now I speaking to large audience.

- a. was used to/am used to
- b. got used to/used to
- c. used to/am used to
- d. was used to/got used to
- e. used to/used to

23) I'd like to ask you questions. I need more information.

- a. a few/a little
- b. more/a few
- c. a few/a few
- d. a little/much
- e. much/a little

24), she applied for the job.

- a. Despite the fact that was recommended
- b. Because she got a pay rise at work
- c. Even though she didn't have the right qualifications
- d. In order not to have the responsibility
- e. As she didn't have confidence in herself

25) John F. Kennedy was the youngest President of the United States and

.....

- a. the fourth to be assassinated
- b. the fourth to have assassinated
- c. fourth assassinated
- d. the four to assassinate
- e. to have assassinated the fourth

26) my dislike for American coffee, I had to drink several cups to keep awake all night studying for the exam.

- a. Despite
- b. In spite of the fact that
- c. Even though
- d. In case
- e. Even if

27) A trip to the thermal baths in Kızılcahamam will

- a. benefit to you
- b. do you good
- c. be well for you
- d. be beneficial with you
- e. will drive you good

28), but it also filters out harmful sun rays.

- a. The atmosphere gives us air to breathe
- b. Not only the atmosphere gives us air to breathe
- c. The atmosphere which gives us air to breathe
- d. Not only does the atmosphere give us air to breathe
- e. To give us air to breathe

29) Staying in a hotel costs renting a room in a dormitory for a week.

- a. three times than
- b. three times as much as
- c. as much three times as
- d. as much as three times
- e. more than three times

30) Unlike most capital cities, specifically to house government offices and lodgings.

- a. Ankara was constructed
- b. Ankara it was constructed
- c. Ankara they constructed
- d. they constructed in Ankara
- e. it was constructed in Ankara

31), she always kept her house spotlessly clean.

- a. Her desire to be a good housewife was great that
- b. So her desire was great to be a good housewife that
- c. So great was her desire to be a good housewife that
- d. Great her desire to be a good housewife so that
- e. Great as her desire to be a good housewife

32) In our century, is beyond doubt.

- a. high-technology industries create more jobs than low-technology industries
- b. if high-technology industries create more jobs than low-technology industries
- c. that high-technology industries create more jobs than low-technology industries

d. when high-technology industries create more jobs than low-technology industries

e. because high-technology industries create more jobs than low-technology industries

33) One of the most obvious characteristics of the moon is the way in which it continuously changes

a. in appearing

b. its appearance

c. are appearing

d. for appearance

e. to appear

34)..... was due to poor vision caused by the heavy fog.

a. The traffic accident

b. That the traffic accident

c. How the traffic accident

d. The traffic accident that

e. When the traffic accident happened

35) The common notion is not supported by any available scientific information.

a. that fish an excellent food for improving the brain

b. that fish is an excellent food for improving the brain

c. is that fish is an excellent food for improving the brain

d. is that fish which is an excellent food for improving the brain

e. is for improving the brain that fish is an excellent food

36) He was fired because he had been careless on the job. He from the job if he so careless.

a. hadn't been fired / hadn't been

b. wouldn't have been fired / hadn't been

c. wasn't fired / wasn't

d. would have been fired / had been

e. would be fired / were

37) She loves Istanbul so much that I can't imagine happy anywhere else.

a. her being

b. to be

c. being

d. she to be

e. that is

38) Impressed with his qualifications,

a. Robert was immediately hired by advertising company.

b. Robert immediately hired the advertising company.

c. the advertising company immediately hired Robert.

- d. the advertising company was hired by Robert.
- e. was Robert immediately hired by the advertising company.

39), he washed the cup and put it away.

- a. He had drunk the coffee
- b. Having drunk the coffee
- c. Drink the coffee
- d. Had he drunk the coffee
- e. To drink the coffee

40) Stop making that noise, you?

- a. don't
- b. should
- c. do
- d. must
- e. will

41) Several prominent figures involved in the scandal before the investigating committee.

- a. will to appear
- b. are suppose to appear
- c. are to appear
- d. supposed to make an appearance
- e. who are appearing

42) The International Finance Corporation (IFC),, is concerned not with governmental entities but with private enterprises.

- a. was founded in 1956
- b. founded in 1956
- c. in 1956 was founded
- d. in 1956 it was founded
- e. it was founded in 1956

43) Of the two toys, the child chose one.

- a. the less expensive
- b. the least expensive
- c. the expensive
- d. the most expensive
- e. one of the most expensive

44) The last book

- a. he wrote the book last year.
- b. which was written by him
- c. he wrote we liked
- d. he wrote never got published
- e. whose author we don't know

45) The more we looked at the abstract painting,

- a. the less we liked it.
- b. better we liked it.
- c. we liked it less.
- d. it looked better.
- e. the better we liked.

46), the book presents an analysis of government programs.

- a. More than 500 hundred pages
- b. Consisting on 500 pages or even more
- c. It has more than 500 pages
- d. With over 500 pages in its size
- e. Despite a long book of at least 500 pages.

47) He cannot find a suitable job despite.....

- a. has been trained thoroughly in repairing and maintaining air-conditioning.
- b. his thorough training in the repair and maintenance of air-conditioning.
- c. the fact of receiving a thorough air-conditioning training in their repair and their maintenance.
- d. being trained thoroughly in how to repair and maintaining.
- e. He has been trained thoroughly in repairing and maintaining air-conditioning.

48), keep your clothes neat and clean.

- a. Always to look your best way
- b. To all times look one's best
- c. To look your best at all times
- d. You want to look your best
- e. At all times if wanting to look one's best

49) The chairman requested that

- a. the members studied more carefully the problem
- b. the problem was more carefully studied
- c. with more carefulness the problem could be studied
- d. could the members study the problem more carefully
- e. the members study the problem more carefully

50) The bank sent a notice to its customers which contained

.....

- a. a remembrance that interest rates were to raise the following month.
- b. a reminder that a raise in interest rates was the month following
- c. to remember that the interest rates would rise the following month
- d. a reminder that the interest rates would rise the following month
- e. to remind to rise the interest rates the following month

51) The doctor insisted that his patient

- a. that he not working too hard for three months
- b. take it easy for three months
- c. taking it easy inside of three months
- d. to take some vacations for three months
- e. was to take a holiday for three months

52) Economists regard land as the natural wealth of the earth from which all goods

- a. produced
- b. produce them
- c. are produced
- d. they produce
- e. to be produced

53) the formation of the Sun, the planets and other stars began with the condensation of an interstellar cloud.

- a. It accepted that
- b. It is accepted that
- c. Accepted that
- d. That is accepted
- e. Accepting that

54) Over the centuries, various theories have been advanced

- a. the origin of alphabetic writing is explained.
- b. of explaining the origin of alphabetic writing.
- c. the explanation of the origin of alphabetic writing
- d. to explain the origin of alphabetic writing
- e. to be explained by the origin of alphabetic writing

55) X-rays are able to pass through objects and thus make
details that are otherwise impossible to observe.

- a. visible
- b. visibly
- c. it visible
- d. they are visible
- e. to be visible

56) The higher the standard of living and the greater the national wealth, the
.....

- a. greater is the amount of paper used
- b. amount of paper is used is greater
- c. greater amount of paper is used
- d. amount of paper greater
- e. greater the amount of paper used

57) The pistol belongs to Inspector Mike Hammer.

- a. which it is on the table
- b. it is on the table
- c. lying on the table
- d. which on the table
- e. which on the table is

58) I have no idea

- a. what does this word mean.
- b. what the meaning of this word.
- c. what this word means.
- d. is the meaning of the word.
- e. what kind of a meaning is this word.

59) Java Man, who lived before the first Ice Age, is the first man-like animal.

- a. It is generally believed that
- b. Generally believed it is
- c. Believed generally is
- d. That is generally believed
- e. It generally believes

60) Owls have a strong beak and sharp talons mice and other small prey.

- a. used for catching
- b. their use is to catch
- c. which used to catch
- d. they are used for catching
- e. when used for

61) Traffic was bad because of the highway repaired.

- a. will be
- b. was being
- c. is
- d. being
- e. would be

THANK YOU!

APPENDIX C

Name: **Surname:** **Grade:** **Age:**
Gender: **High School:**

Dear student,

This test has been designed to measure your vocabulary knowledge. The results will be evaluated for a master's thesis and for no other purposes. Please, answer all the questions. Choose the word closest in meaning to the underlined vocabulary item in the sample sentence. This 60-item test is supposed to take 30 minutes.

Thanks for your participation.

VOCABULARY TEST

- 1) It is impossible for parents to shield their children from every danger.
a) protect b) conserve c) relieve d) free e) attack
- 2) There was no trace of poison in the coffee the chemist analyzed.
a) indication b) taste c) color d) smell e) danger
- 3) The intricate directions were difficult to understand
a) vague b) unusual c) routine d) complicated e) strange
- 4) The little boy had had a long day; he was feeling drowsy.
a) lazy b) sleepy c) exhausted d) sad e) fatigued
- 5) He stayed late to tell his hostess how much he had enjoyed the party.
a) neglected b) attempted c) lingered d) struggled e) postponed

- 6) The horse finally came to a halt on the very **rim** of the cliff.
a) top b) edge c) slope d) base end
- 7) Her husband is very **competent**; he will repair the roof himself.
a) capable b) thrifty c) careful d) stingy e) industrious
- 8) Mr. Henderson was determined to remain **neutral**.
a) untroubled b) unhurried c) unmarried d) uncommitted e) motionless
- 9) His **apparel** showed him to be a successful man.
a) clothing b) confidence c) answer d) manner e) speaking
- 10) He agreed to the plan **of his own accord**.
a) to his benefit b) enthusiastically c) unwillingly d) unhesitatingly e) voluntarily
- 11) During the war the shipping lanes proved **vulnerable** to attack.
a) futile b) dangerous c) susceptible d) feasible e) impossible
- 12) The charges brought against the government official finally hurt nothing but his **vanity**.
a) family b) prospects c) pride d) image budget
- 13) In his statements to the press, the administrator was consistently **equivocal**.
a) cautious b) reasonable c) friendly d) frank e) ambiguous
- 14) The holiday crowds **littered** the parks.
a) dirtied b) filled c) cleaned d) left e) emptied

- 15) The President's greatest **asset** was his reputation for honesty.
a) deception b) advantage c) liability d) pride e) weakness
- 16) **Affluent** nations have an obligation to help their neighbors.
a) large b) wealthy c) advanced d) powerful e) industrialized
- 17) The companies are going to **merge** by the first month of the year.
a) become one b) divide into two c) dissolve d) change owners e) compete
- 18) The old man is too **feeble** to cross the street without her nephew's help.
a) tired b) weak c) timid d) blind e) tired
- 19) He is the most **intrepid** explorer in the present century.
a) successful b) fearless c) reliable d) fearsome e) shocking
- 20) It is not easy to remain **tranquil** when events suddenly change your life.
a) superior b) serious c) severe d) happy e) serene
- 21) He was greatly **vexed** by the new and unexpected development.
a) astonished b) annoyed c) enlightened d) contented e) relieved
- 22) The clerk had been **insolent** to his superior once too often; now he was without a job.
a) indifferent b) sly c) dishonest d) rude e) affectionate

- 23) The boy felt **disgraced** because he knew that he had been wrong to steal.
- a) ashamed b) worried c) tempted d) phony e) relieved
- 24) Since he had never been in such a situation before, his **apprehension** was understandable.
- a) eagerness b) fear c) hesitation d) excitement e) unwillingness
- 25) A sealed bottle thrown into the ocean often **floats aimlessly** before it reaches land.
- a) sinks b) leaks c) disintegrates d) drifts e) breaks
- 26) The noise was so **faint** that it was impossible to be sure what it was or even where it came from.
- a) frightening b) general c) loud d) indistinct e) strange
- 27) The clerk had to **break off** the conversation in order to wait on a customer.
- a) interrupt b) hurry c) continue d) begin e) hasten
- 28) The new tax law is **explicit**; that type of certificate is tax-exempt.
- a) definite b) deficient c) harsh d) imprecise e) obscure
- 29) Zinnia seeds will begin to **germinate** in seven to ten days.
- a) grow b) rot c) sink d) bloom e) die
- 30) Quito's 9,350-foot elevation makes it the third **loftiest** capital in the world.
- a) mildest b) highest c) largest d) flattest e) coldest

- 31) The **concurrence** of the heads of state was totally unexpected.
a) rejection b) proposal c) agreement d) objection e) cooperation
- 32) The police **confiscated** the stolen goods.
a) reported b) located c) released d) seized e) placed
- 33) A **conscientious** teacher spends hours preparing for classes and correcting students' papers.
a) creative b) leading c) skillful d) careful e) honest
- 34) The French detective novelist Georges Simenon is one of the most **prolific** writers of the twentieth century.
a) instructive b) productive c) famous d) pessimistic e) interesting
- 35) His winning the award was the highest **attainment** of his career.
a) desire b) spectacle c) achievement d) joy e) expectation
- 36) Your mood seems very **meditative** this evening.
a) gleeful b) thoughtful c) desperate d) stern e) reckless
- 37) He was too **obstinate** to admit he had been wrong.
a) stubborn b) frightened c) selfish d) cautious e) punctual
- 38) Samuel Morse's painting ability has been **obscured** by his other accomplishments.
a) revealed b) hidden c) exposed d) popularized e) emphasized
- 39) Before taking such a test, one had better **brush up** on his or her vocabulary.
a) outline b) translate c) revise d) review e) memorize

- 40) It is **ridiculous** to become angry about such an insignificant matter.
- a) sinful b) tragic c) absurd d) unpardonable e) trivial
- 41) The official **hinted at** startling new developments that would soon be made public.
- a) openly announced b) carefully concealed c) indirectly suggested d) reluctantly revealed e) inadvertently revealed
- 42) The indecisive man was **readily** persuaded to change his mind again.
- a) easily b) hardly c) subtly d) abruptly e) punctually
- 43) The candidate's **victory** at the polls was overwhelming.
- a) treachery b) defeat c) triumph d) popularity e) blunder
- 44) That matter is so **confidential** that it must not be discussed outside this office.
- a) important b) secret c) interesting d) alarming e) boring
- 45) The Department of Resources notified the town council that the water supply was **contaminated**.
- a) polluted b) tinted c) diluted d) diverted e) purified
- 46) My supply of confidence slowly **dwindles** as the deadline approaches.
- a) shifts b) grows c) emerges d) diminishes e) swells
- 47) Can this be a **duplicate** of the document?
- a) a summary b) a revision c) an outline d) a copy e) a review
- 48) The gunfire was **sporadic**.
- a) intermittent b) frequent c) continuous d) distant e) deadly

- 49) The chairman did not **rule out** the possibility of an agreement.
a) promise b) reject c) accept d) forestall e) command
- 50) **Punctuality** is imperative in your new job.
a) Being efficient b) Being courteous c) Being on time d) Being cheerful
e) Being flawless
- 51) He ate a **prodigious** amount of the home-made bread.
a) slight b) tiny c) huge d) moderate e) negligible
- 52) He is **infamous** for his dishonesty in business matters.
a) notorious b) dreaded c) loathed d) investigated e) praised
- 53) For once, everything in her life seemed to be in **equilibrium**.
a) turmoil b) disarray c) balance d) danger e) failure
- 54) He **resolved** to act more wisely in the future.
a) promised b) hoped c) consented d) decided e) refused
- 55) The jeweler reported that the diamonds were **genuine**.
a) perfect b) imitations c) real d) valuable e) expensive
- 56) The winners will be selected **at random**.
a) by testing b) by interviewing c) by chance d) by competition e) by
age
- 57) Doctors prescribe **massive** doses of penicillin for patients with
pneumonia.
a) daily b) heavy c) double d) adequate e) deadly

58) The movie critic said that Airplane, the parody of disaster movies, was **hilarious**.

a) suspenseful b) very funny c) realistic d) very tragic e) extremely foolish

59) The sculptor, Lorenzo Ghiberti, **blended** medieval grace with Renaissance realism.

a) produced b) prevented c) invented d) discovered e) combined

60) His extreme nervousness **impeded** his ability to speak in front of large groups of people.

a) fostered b) halted c) accelerated d) hindered e) supported

THANK YOU!

APPENDIX D

The Paraphrasing Test

Name: Surname: Grade: Age:
Gender: High School:

Dear student,

This test has been designed to measure your paraphrasing skill. The results will be evaluated for a master's thesis and for no other purposes. Please, answer all the questions. This 12-item test is supposed to take 20 minutes.

Thanks for your participation.

The dangers of overpopulation cannot be underestimated. Dr David Doom, the President of Planned Parenthood, maintains that the world will be uninhabitable by the year 2000 unless the rate of population growth is reduced. According to Dr Doom, the world's food production cannot meet the needs of 7 billion people, so famine is an inevitable consequence of uncontrolled population growth. The World Health Organization agrees with Dr Doom. It recently published a report noting that famine already exists in many parts of Africa and Asia.

1) What will happen by the year 2000 if the rate of population growth is not reduced?

- a) The world will be very crowded.
- b) The danger of overpopulation will not be serious.
- c) It will not be possible to live in the world.
- d) Families will have fewer children.
- e) There will be enough food for everybody.

If a perfect deal is one with a willing seller and a willing buyer and a profit for both, then Asia's labor transactions represent the textbook ideal. The country selling labor gets foreign exchange and lessens its domestic unemployment. The buying country gets muscle and skills to make economic strides that would otherwise stumble for lack of manpower.

2) The topic of the passage could be

- a) domestic unemployment.
- b) labor transactions.
- c) manpower.
- d) an ideal trade.
- e) transactions in Asia.

Feudalism was dying in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries and the strong nation-state was taking place of the old system of small, private states. These modern nation-states were well organized and could wage wars using many more soldiers than before. Because more soldiers were involved in the fighting, wars became bloodier and large armies were common. Guns began to be used instead of other weapons such as swords and spears. Before this, soldiers had worn suits made of metal which protected them against spears and swords. These suits of armor were expensive, so only rich people could fight wars. However, armor could not protect the soldier against firearms. Gunpowder, a substance used in all guns or firearms, therefore, became an important part of war. Wars were no longer fought by rich people with suits of armor. The common person using firearms and gunpowder became more important as a soldier. Thus, gunpowder helped to facilitate the transition from feudalism to the nation-state.

3) Which of the following is true?

- a) Rich people always avoided fighting.
- b) Poor people were not strong enough to fight.
- c) Gunpowder besides other things caused feudalism to vanish.
- d) Gunpowder made weapons less dangerous.
- e) Nation-states did not have rich people to fight.

Languages are full of sayings with interesting stories. The old saying “worth their salt”, which means to be valuable, derives from the custom of payment during the Roman Empire. Throughout history, the search for salt has played an important role in society. Where it was scarce, it was traded ounce for ounce with gold. Rome’s major highway was called the Via Salaria, that is, the Salt Road. Along that road, Roman soldiers transported salt crystals from the salt flats at Ostia up the Tiber River. In return, they received a salarium, or salary, which was literally money paid to soldiers to buy salt.

4) From the passage it is understood that

- a) salt was not known in the Roman Empire.
- b) where salt was scarce, people preferred not to eat it.
- c) where salt was scarce, a kilo of salt cost a kilo of gold.
- d) the Roman soldiers received salt as their salary.
- e) salt because scarce was treated as sacred.

The Declaration of Independence of the U.S. was written more than 200 years ago, but its ideas are as important now as they were in 1776. In it, the leaders of the American Revolution expressed their belief that all men are born equal and that all men have the right to live in freedom regardless of their race, the color of their skin,

or their social class. In spite of this belief in equality, however, equal rights were not enjoyed by everyone. The history of the U.S. to this day contains many examples of different groups of people who had to struggle for the rights which were promised to them. For some of the groups, the struggle is still not finished. One of the largest of these groups is the black Americans, descendants of African slaves who were brought to the U.S. before the middle of the nineteenth century.

5) The black Americans

- a) have always enjoyed equality with white men.
- b) are still struggling to obtain equal rights.
- c) are the largest group that has achieved equality.
- d) have been treated equally with the other groups.
- e) have had the same rights as the whites.

The great expansion in energy demand over recent years has been met to a large extent by petroleum oil. The total world reserves of petroleum oil are still uncertain since large parts of world are still not fully prospected. The cutback in oil production and the rise in the price of Middle Eastern oil following the 1973 Arab-Israel war unleashed a worldwide energy crisis. The result has been that Britain has increased its north sea oil production and has become the fifth largest oil producing country in the world.

6) It is pointed out in the passage that to meet its increasing energy needs, the world

- a) will have to develop new sources of energy.
- b) has had to face a recurrent energy crisis
- c) has lately relied heavily on petroleum oil.

- d) is incessantly in search of new oil sites.
- e) is learning to depend on various energy sources.

Whenever I succeeded in the Hakujin world, my brothers were supportive, whereas Papa would be disdainful, undermined by my obvious capitulation to the ways of the West. I wanted to be like my Caucasian friends. Not only did I want to look like them, I wanted to act like them. I tried hard to be outgoing and socially aggressive and act confidently, like my girlfriends. At home I was careful not to show these personality traits to my father. For him it was bad enough that I did not even look Japanese. I was too big and I walked too forcefully. My behavior at home was never composed and serene, but around my father I tried to be as Japanese as I could. As I passed puberty and grew more concerned with boys, I soon became aware that an Oriental female evoked a certain kind of interest from males. I was still too young to recognize how or why an Oriental female mesmerized Caucasian men.

7) The author realized that

- a) Caucasian men could readily get beguiled by a Japanese girl.
- b) an Oriental woman was not much enchanting for Caucasian men.
- c) An Oriental female was no dissimilar to a Caucasian one.
- d) Her interest in Caucasian men abated after puberty.
- e) She was going to fall in love with a Hakujin boy.

“Idle speculation” has no place in science, but “speculation” is its very lifeblood, a well-known physicist believes. “The more fundamental and far-reaching a scientific theory is, the more speculative it is likely to be,” Dr. Michael W. Ovenden, author and lecturer at the University of Glasgow, Scotland, states in his book “Life in the Universe.” Dr. Ovenden says it is erroneous to believe that science

is only concerned with “pure facts”, for mere accumulation of facts is a primitive form of science. A mature science tries to arrange facts in significant patterns to see relationships between previously unrelated aspects of the universe. A theory that does not suggest new ways of looking at the universe is not likely to make an important contribution to the development of science. However, it is also important that theories are checked by new experiments and observations.

8) According to the text, a mature science

- a) concerns itself principally with gathering and recording facts.
- b) dismisses speculative thinking as fanciful.
- c) subordinates speculative thought to the accretion of facts.
- d) deals with fanciful thinking disregarding the empirical findings.
- e) connects unlinked phenomena in a relevant way.

On Tuesday, the European Union’s parliament will open a major international debate on the intelligence practices of the world’s five leading English speaking nations, claiming that this electronic espionage ring, led by the United States and Britain, is methodically going where it has no right to go. The EU’s civil liberties committee is expected to indict Britain for assisting the United States in conducting economic and commercial espionage on a grand scale at the expense of its European partners. A special 112-page report uncovering the intelligence network prepared for the EU last spring declares that the rapid proliferation of surveillance technologies presents “a serious menace to the civil liberties in Europe” with frightening consequences.

9) It is implied in the text that

- a) Britain is aiding the US to enter the EU markets.
- b) Britain is an accomplice to the US’ espionage activities.

- c) the EU is using Britain against the US for espionage purposes.
- d) Britain's economic and commercial relations with the EU are deteriorating.
- e) the electronic espionage ring excludes Britain.

Traditionally, Les Demoiselles d'Avignon was indeed supposed to have been influenced by African Negro Sculpture, but Picasso has since denied this affirming that although he was much interested in Iberian Sculpture, he had no knowledge of Negro art while he was working on Les Demoiselles. Only later in 1907, he states, did he discover Negro sculpture. Quite recently, however, Picasso has assured us that the two right-hand figures of Les Demoiselles were completed some time after the rest of the composition. It seems possible therefore that Picasso's memory is incomplete and that he may well have painted or repainted the astonishing heads of these figures after his discovery of African sculpture, just as only a year before, stimulated by Iberian sculpture, he had repainted the head of Gertrude Stein's portrait months after he had completed the rest of the picture.

10) According to the paragraph, Picasso

- a) did not paint the two right-hand figures under the influence of the Iberian sculpture.
- b) did not complete Gertrude Stein's portrait till after inspired by Iberian Sculpture.
- c) could not complete many works of art due to heavy criticism.
- d) had to collect inspiring examples of cubism before painting Les Demoiselles.
- e) had thoroughly been free from influence throughout his career.

The amazing success of man as a species is the result of the evolutionary development of his brain which has led, among other things, to tool-using, tool-

making, the ability to solve problems by logical reasoning, thoughtful operation and language. One of the most striking ways in which the chimpanzee biologically resembles man lies in the structure not too dissimilar to the brain that so many millions of years ago directed the behavior of the first ape-man.

11) The brain structure of the chimpanzee

- a) is biologically not alike to man's brain.
- b) renders it capable of language.
- c) proves that it is a unique beast.
- d) is analogous to that of the early man.
- e) Enables it to solve complex problems.

12) The fact that prehistoric man made tools

- a) set him apart from other animals.
- b) increased his intelligence.
- c) helped him invent language.
- d) was brought about by the evolution.
- e) enhanced his safety from animals.

THANK YOU!

APPENDIX E

Name:

Surname:

School

Number:

Specific Paraphrasing Test

Read the following sentences carefully and paraphrase them, that is, write them again in your own words.

- 1) *As the English language is increasingly used as a language of global communication, non-native users of its varieties overwhelmingly outnumber native speakers.*

Paraphrase:

.....

- 2) *Subsequent research on second language acquisition has confirmed the validity of a focus on grammar, while still questioning persistence in correctness at all times.*

Paraphrase:

- 3) *It is generally accepted that the model of the target language provided by the teacher in the classroom should not deviate greatly from that likely to be encountered in real life.*

Paraphrase:

- 4) *Although the modern 'English for Specific Purposes' (ESP) movement has evolved in many directions since mid 1960s, several components have remained relatively constant throughout its history.*

Paraphrase:

- 5) *Traditionally, the point of departure for designing a language syllabus has been to select and sequence lists of grammatical items, and then integrate these with lists of vocabulary items.*

Paraphrase:

Good Luck!

İ.ÖZDEMİR

APPENDIX F

RUBRIC FOR THE SPECIFIC PARAPHRASING TEST

PARAPHRASING

Meaning

0 - There is no content to evaluate.

2 - The student has interpreted almost everything wrongly. There is only slight similarity to the original sentence.

4 - It seems that the student has misinterpreted the bulk of the meaning. There is still some relevance to the original, but not much.

6 - There seem to be misinterpretations, yet the meaning is still understandable and somewhat close to the original.

8 - The student almost fully expressed the exact meaning. There is only a slight loss of meaning.

10 - The student has fully expressed the exact meaning of the original sentence. There is no loss of meaning.

Structure:

0 - The student has not made any changes in the structure at all.

1 - Up to 20% of structural change.

2 - 40 %

3 - 60 %

4 - 80 %

5 - The whole structure has been changed successfully.

Vocabulary:

0 - The student has failed to replace any of the words with their appropriate synonyms.

1 - 1-2 words have been successfully replaced.

2 - 3-4 //////////////////////////////////////.

3 - 5-6 //////////////////////////////////////.

4 - 7-8 //////////////////////////////////////.

5 - 9-10 or more //////////////////////////////////////.

The Key Criteria

1) The students are supposed to change the original structure as much as possible.

2) ////////////////////////////////////// wording
////////////////////////////////////.

3) ////////////////////////////////////// keep the original meaning
////////////////////////////////////.

****Each sentence will be evaluated out of 20 points in total.**