

**THE ROLE OF NARROW-FOCUS STRATEGY TRAINING AND
BROAD-FOCUS STRATEGY TRAINING IN PROMOTING
READING COMPREHENSION OF TURKISH EFL STUDENTS**

**A THESIS PRESENTED BY
OKTAY BAYSAL**

**TO THE INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS
IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

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ABSTRACT

Title: The Role of Narrow-Focus Strategy Training and Broad-Focus Strategy Training on Promoting Reading Comprehension of Turkish EFL Students

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Strategy training is suggested as an effective way of promoting language learning by many researchers. Among the various types of suggested strategy training models, narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training are two models that maximize the learning potential of students. This is particularly true for reading comprehension which is considered as one of the most important skills in learning a language (Carrell, 1988).

In this study, two hypotheses were put forth. The first hypothesis was that both narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training are effective in promoting reading comprehension of EFL students. The second hypothesis was that broad-focus strategy training is more effective than narrow-focus strategy training in promoting reading comprehension of EFL students.

Three intact groups were used in this study, thus, a quasi experimental design was adopted. The groups were selected from the same language proficiency level, upper-intermediate. There were three groups: two experimental groups and one control group.

All three groups had six 50-minute treatment sessions. The first experimental group was trained with a narrow-focus strategy training model. In the second experimental group a broad-focus strategy training model was used. The control group did not receive any strategy training, in other words, they continued their regular reading classes. The researcher had no control over the choice of the groups in the experiment. A total of 48 EFL upper-intermediate level students at Osmangazi University participated in this study, with 19 subjects in the first experimental group, 17 in the second experimental group and 12 in the control group. The data for this study were collected by means of pre and post-tests and a reading strategy inventory.

The reading strategies to be trained in the treatment sessions were selected through an analysis of the reading strategy inventory (SILL). In the first experimental group (narrow-focus group), the selected reading strategies were trained individually within each reading passage within a given time period. In the second experimental group (broad-focus group), the three reading strategies were trained in an integrative manner within a reading passage in a given time period. The subjects in the control group read the passage, found out the meanings of new vocabulary and answered the related comprehension questions.

In the data analysis, the mean scores and standard deviations of both pre- and post-tests, for each group, were calculated. For the pre-test, a one-way ANOVA was used to determine whether the level of proficiency in reading comprehension among the groups was equal. After the pre-test, a reading strategy inventory was administered to

elicit strategy use among the subjects. Frequency distributions and percentages for each item in the inventory were calculated. After the treatment a post-test, was administered to all groups. A t-test was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between pre and post-tests within each group. Then, a one-way ANOVA was used among the three groups to determine whether there were a significant difference. Later, a t-test was applied across groups to determine which of the three groups significantly improved their reading comprehension skills. Following the post-test, a reading strategy inventory was administered a second time to elicit responses regarding whether the subjects in each group made use of the strategies trained in the treatment sessions. Finally, the frequency distributions from the first and second administration of the inventory were compared to note difference in use of strategies reported.

Data analysis showed that after the training, improvement in the reading comprehension test scores of experimental group 1 (narrow-focus) was not significant. Thus, the hypothesis that stated narrow-focus strategy training is effective in promoting reading comprehension was rejected. On the other hand, there was a significant improvement in the reading comprehension scores of the second experimental group (broad-focus) at the level $p < .001$. Thus, the second hypothesis, that stated broad-focus strategy training is more effective than narrow-focus strategy training, was accepted.

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for the thesis examination of the MA TEFL student

Oktay Baysal

has read the thesis of the student.

The committee has decided that the thesis of the student is satisfactory

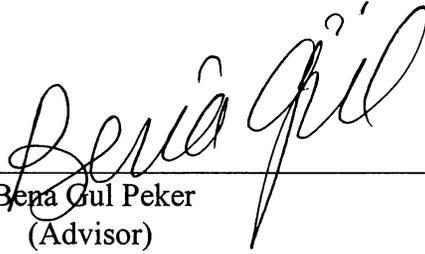
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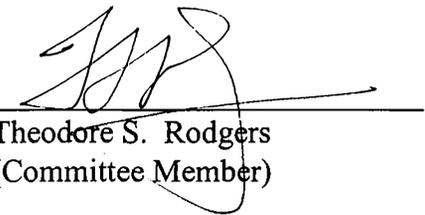
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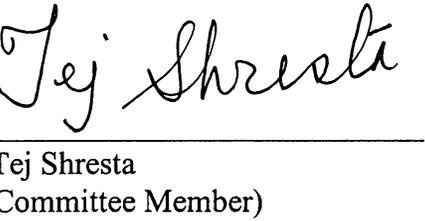
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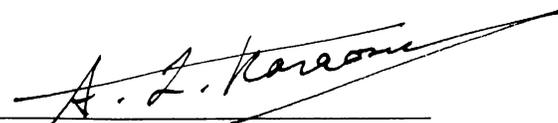
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To my son there
and my daughter here

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES		xii
CHAPTER 1	INTRODUCTION.....	1
	Introduction.....	1
	Background of the Study.....	3
	Statement of the Problem.....	5
	Purpose of the Study.....	6
	Significance of the Study.....	6
	Research Questions.....	7
CHAPTER 2	REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	8
	Introduction.....	8
	Defining Learning Strategies.....	9
	Classifications of Learning Strategies.....	11
	Kinds of Strategy Training.....	13
	Guidelines for Strategy Training.....	16
	The Process of Reading and Reading Comprehension in EFL.....	19
	Suggested Strategies that Promote Reading Comprehension.....	22
	Studies in Training Reading Strategies.....	26
	Conclusion.....	27
CHAPTER 3	METHODOLOGY.....	29
	Introduction.....	29
	Subjects.....	29
	Materials.....	31
	Pre-Test and Post-test Materials.....	31
	Reading Strategy Inventory.....	31
	Treatment Materials.....	33
	Procedure.....	34
	Pre-treatment.....	35
	Pre-testing.....	35
	Definitions of the Reading Strategies Chosen for the Treatment.....	36
	Treatment.....	37
	Post Treatment.....	38
	Post testing.....	38
	Reading Strategy Inventory.....	39
	Scoring.....	39
CHAPTER 4	DATA ANALYSIS.....	40
	Overview of the Study.....	40
	Data Analysis.....	41

	Pre-Treatment.....	42
	Pre-Testing.....	42
	Reading Strategy Inventory.....	45
	Post-Treatment.....	47
	Post-Testing.....	47
	Reading Strategy Inventory.....	52
CHAPTER 5	CONCLUSION.....	55
	Overview of the Study.....	55
	Summary of the Study.....	56
	Discussion of Findings.....	58
	Pre-Test Results.....	58
	Post-Test Results.....	59
	1. Is Narrow-Focus Strategy Training Effective in Promoting Learners' Reading Comprehension Skills.....	59
	2. Is Broad-Focus Strategy Training Effective in Promoting Learners' Reading Comprehension Skills.....	61
	3. Which of the Training Models, Narrow-focus or Broad-Focus Strategy Training is More Effective in Promoting Learners' Reading Comprehension Skills.....	62
	Limitations of the Study.....	63
	Pedagogical Implications.....	64
	Implications for Further Research.....	65
REFERENCES		68
APPENDIXES	72
	Appendix A:	
	Pre-Test and Post-Test.....	72
	Appendix B:	
	Reading Strategy Inventory (SILL).....	78
	Appendix C:	
	Turkish Translation of the Reading Strategy Inventory (SILL).....	82
	Appendix D:	
	Reading Passage 1.....	85
	Appendix E:	
	Reading Passage 2.....	87
	Appendix F:	
	Reading Passage 3.....	89
	Appendix G	
	Reading Passage 4.....	92

Appendix H	
Reading Passage 5.....	95
Appendix I	
Reading Passage 6.....	97
Appendix J:	
Sample Lesson Plan (Broad-Focus Strategy Training).....	100
Appendix K:	
Sample Lesson Plan (Narrow-Focus Strategy Training).....	102

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

1	Results of the Pre-test.....	43
2	Means and Standard Deviations of the Pre-Test.....	43
3	Analysis of Variance (one-way ANOVA).....	44
4	Frequency Distribution of Reading Strategy Items.....	46
5	Results of the Post-Test.....	48
6	Means and Standard Deviations of the Post-Test.....	48
7	T-Test for Group C: Between Pre-Test and Post-Test.....	49
8	T-Test for Group N: Between Pre-Test and Post-Test.....	49
9	T-Test for Group B: Between Pre-Test and Post-Test.....	50
10	Analysis of Variance (one-way ANOVA).....	50
11	T-Test Between Group C and Group N.....	51
12	T-Test Between Group C and Group B.....	51
13	T-Test Between Group N and Group B.....	51
14	Comparison of Reading Strategy Items Between 1st Administration and 2nd Administration.....	53

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Learning strategies, learner behaviors that enable learners to obtain, store and use knowledge required in language learning, have been regarded as one of the crucial factors in facilitating language learning (Chamot, 1993; Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Chamot & Kupper, 1990). Research studies in learning strategies suggest that successful learners make use of strategies when they learn a foreign or second language, and that strategies influence and contribute to language learning (Chamot, 1993; Oxford, Lavine & Crookall, 1989).

In fact, studies in learning strategies support the view that the use of learning strategies is closely related to success in language learning. As Chamot (1993) points out, the difference between successful and unsuccessful learners is that successful learners use learning strategies more frequently and more appropriately. Successful students, by making use of learning strategies improve their progress in developing their second language skills (Oxford, 1993). In order to facilitate the learning process and to develop second language skills of less successful students, researchers have been looking for new and more effective approaches.

Increasing learner success has inspired interest in the training of learners which can enable them to apply strategies to language learning tasks. Strategy training has come to be considered as an effective and successful way of improving language learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1991; Oxford, 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Studies in strategy

training, draw attention to the fact that there may be various ways of training students in using the appropriate strategies with the appropriate learning tasks in language learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Zhang, 1992).

Among the various types of training suggested, narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training (Oxford, 1990) are two approaches that are both intended to make language learning more meaningful and maximize learning potential. In narrow-focus strategy training, only one strategy is instructed in a given time period with a given language task. In broad-focus strategy training, an integrated set of strategies are instructed in a given time period with a given language task. Both of the training models have been said to be effective and successful in learning various language skills (listening, speaking, writing and reading) (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Zhang, 1992).

Although all four skills are equally important in learning a language, Carrell (1988) claims that in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) situation, reading seems to be one of the main reasons why students learn the language. It has been argued that the skill students need to improve most is reading (Dubin, 1989). There are two basic reasons that show the primacy of improving reading comprehension skills in the teaching of English as a foreign language. First, reading is said to be a source of linguistic input for general language improvement (Goodman, 1988), and second, it reflects the type of communication that EFL learners typically face. In second language teaching or learning situations, especially in universities or similar programs that make extensive use of written texts in English, reading is important (Carrell, 1988). Consequently, it can be

argued that improvement of the reading skill has higher priority than improvement of the other three skills.

Although the literature provides evidence that learning strategies are effective in facilitating learning, the same may not be true for strategy training models. The literature does not provide sufficient evidence on whether a narrow-focus or broad-focus strategy training model is more effective and successful in promoting reading comprehension for particular cases.

This experimental study aims to find out differences and similarities in the effectiveness of these two strategy training models. This constitutes the two hypotheses in this study. The first hypothesis is that both narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training are effective in promoting reading comprehension of EFL students. The second hypothesis is that broad-focus strategy training is more effective than narrow-focus strategy training.

Background of the Study

This study will be carried out at Osmangazi University, in Eskisehir, Turkey. Osmangazi University is a Turkish-medium state university where most students will study at different engineering departments such as industrial, mining, electric-electronics, civil, mechanical and chemical engineering. The medium of instruction is Turkish, and, according to the policy of the university, students are required to attend the English preparatory school, which is a one-year intensive English program. The students take a

proficiency test when first admitted to the preparatory school. Based on the results of this test, the students are placed at different levels of classes as beginner, pre-intermediate or upper intermediate.

At the preparatory school, all four skills are instructed integratively. Additionally, the students attend supplementary reading courses in English for Specific Purposes. Since they will be exposed to various English language reading materials in their own departments after graduating from the preparatory school, the importance of reading skills gains priority over the other learning skills at this institution. In order to help students to improve their reading skills, instructors supply extra reading materials for the students.

The need to improve students' reading comprehension has been evidenced by the analysis of the midterm examinations that students take three times a semester. An analysis of the three midterm examinations in the first semester showed that the students' success rate in reading comprehension questions was lower than expected. Consideration of the requirements of the students' intended departments and the results of the midterm examinations revealed that there was a necessity for improving students' reading skills by providing them with supplementary reading classes.

In an informal interview with the Preparatory School administrator, it was noted that students have problems in reading comprehension, which also became apparent from the results of the midterm examinations. It was further stated by the Administrator that problems in reading comprehension occurred because the students were said to be unaware of reading strategies or did not use them appropriately. Informal interviews with

the instructors revealed that no type of strategy training is applied at the Preparatory School to promote students' reading comprehension. As a result of the interviews, it was hypothesized that training students to use reading strategies in order to promote their reading comprehension skills could be a useful focus for Preparatory School instruction at Osmangazi University.

Statement of the Problem

Although strategy training has been identified as an effective means to promote student' reading comprehension (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990), how it should best be introduced or instructed is yet to be determined. Narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training are two different approaches to strategy training which demand different cognitive or mental processing on the part of the students. Therefore, teachers need to be aware of which of the two models is more effective. The main aim of this study is to explore this methodological issue.

As stated earlier, no type of strategy training model is presently being applied at the preparatory school at Osmangazi University to promote students' reading comprehension skills. Thus, there seems to be a necessity for investigating whether strategy training would improve the reading comprehension skills of the students at the Preparatory school at the institution.

Purpose of the Study

This study attempts to explore a useful strategy training model for language teachers to apply in reading classes. Therefore, it will investigate the effectiveness of narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training models in developing learners' success in reading comprehension. Furthermore, it will also explore which of the training models is more effective for promoting learner success in reading comprehension skills.

Significance of the Study

Studies have shown that strategy training in promoting reading comprehension skills has been a successful way of helping students (Carrell et al, 1989; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Zhang, 1992). Based on the findings of this study, strategy training may be integrated into the reading syllabus at Osmangazi University in order to help students' develop their use of reading strategies and to increase their reading comprehension skills.

Moreover, this study may present evidence on the methodological characteristics of the training to be conducted, hence, contributing to the field of learning strategies by determining whether broad-focus strategy training is more effective than narrow-focus strategy training through an empirical study with students in an EFL context.

Research Questions

This study will address the following research questions:

- 1- Is narrow-focus strategy training effective in promoting learners' reading comprehension skills?
- 2- Is broad-focus strategy training effective in promoting learners' reading comprehension skills?
- 3- Which of the training models, narrow-focus or broad-focus, is more effective in promoting learners' reading comprehension skills?

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter provides a theoretical and empirical basis for language learning strategies and strategy training approaches. As a framework for this review, first, learning strategies that facilitate learning will be defined, and this section is followed by a discussion of different strategy classification systems (Naiman et al, 1978; Rubin, 1981; Oxford, 1990). Next, strategy training, a way of promoting language learning in language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) will be discussed.

Reading is one of the most important skills in language learning. It is not only a source of information but also a means of consolidating and extending one's knowledge of the language (Rivers, 1981). This section will introduce the strategies used by successful readers for enhancing their reading comprehension skills as identified by researchers. In order to promote reading comprehension skills of learners, two types of strategy training models defined by Oxford (1990) will be discussed: namely, narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training. Their implications for the classroom and their effects on promoting reading comprehension will be further exemplified by related studies. Finally, conclusions based on the findings of the research studies in the relevant literature will be drawn.

Defining Learning Strategies

Despite the fact that many techniques and classroom activities have been applied in many EFL and ESL contexts to facilitate language learning, research studies have shown that not all of the techniques and activities have been equally effective on learners' success. One of the main reasons is that learners find learning a foreign or a second language a challenging and even an intimidating endeavor (Chamot, 1993).

However, with the help of certain techniques and activities, it may be possible for learners to cope with these kinds of challenges when learning a language. When viewed from this perspective, learning strategies could be seen as one of the principal factors facilitating language learning. In fact, research studies in learning strategies suggest that less successful learners can become able to cope with such difficulties through the use of learning strategies evidenced by more successful learners (Carrell et al, 1989). Chamot points out that successful learners are more strategic in their approach to the various tasks of language learning.

In order to understand what we mean by the use of learning strategies, it is first necessary to define what language learning strategies are. There are different views concerning the definition of strategies. These definitions show similarities, to a certain extent, with respect to learning strategies as behaviors and techniques that contribute to language learning.

According to Stern (cited in Ellis, 1994) language learning strategies refer to the "best reserved general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by

the language learner, leaving techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behavior” (p. 531). Rubin (1987) defines learning strategies as ways or techniques that contribute to the development of the language system whereby the learners construct their learning abilities. In a similar manner, Weinstein and Meyer (cited in Ellis, 1994) define learning strategies as “the behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner’s encoding process” (p. 531). According to Chamot and Kupper (1989) learning strategies are “techniques which students use to comprehend, store and remember new information and skills” (p. 1). Oxford (1990), on the other hand, defines learning strategies 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” (p. 8). In a similar vein, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) define strategies as “the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain information” (p. 1).

To sum up, it can be said that learning strategies are actions, behaviors, steps, plans, or routines employed by learners to facilitate obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using knowledge. As these definitions also emphasize, the use of learning strategies enhances awareness in learning.

Classifications of Learning Strategies

Researchers of learning strategies have developed different categories for classifying strategies. Naiman et al (1978) categorized primary strategies under five headings: namely, active task approach, realization of language as a system, realization of a language as a means of communication and interaction, management of active demands and monitoring second language performance. On the other hand, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classified strategies under three main headings: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social\ affective strategies.

There are two other classifications which have similar characteristics. For example, classifications by Rubin (cited in O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) and Oxford (1990) are similar, since both of them have put strategies under two primary categories: namely, direct strategies, which are learning strategies that require mental processing of language that directly involve the target language; and indirect strategies, which are learning strategies that support and manage learning without directly involving the target language.

It should be noted, however, that the classifications of Rubin (1987) and Oxford (1990) differ in their sub-categorizations of learning strategies. First of all, Rubin subcategorizes direct strategies in six major headings: clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning and practice. Oxford, on the other hand, subcategorizes them in three major headings: cognitive strategies, memory strategies, and compensation strategies. The sub-categories

identified by Rubin overlap with the strategies in further sub-categories identified by Oxford.

Secondly, Rubin (1987) subcategorizes indirect strategies under two major headings: specifically, “those creating opportunities for practice” and “production tricks” (p. 24). Alternatively, Oxford subcategorizes indirect strategies under three major headings: metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies.

Metacognitive strategies are actions beyond cognitive devices, and a way for learners to coordinate their own learning processes (Carrell et al, 1989; Oxford, 1990). Affective strategies are affective factors such as emotions, attitudes, motivations than influence language learning (Oxford, 1990). Finally, social strategies are actions and behaviors in any social interaction with other people (Oxford, 1990). As in the case of direct strategies, the sub-categories of indirect strategies, identified by Rubin, seem to be included in the further sub-categories classified by Oxford.

In view of the different classifications suggested in the literature, it can thus be argued that the classification of learning strategies developed by Oxford in 1990 is more detailed, in that it systematically links individual strategies and strategy groups with each of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). In addition, it can be said that Oxford’s classification incorporates all the points identified by other researchers. This seems to be the most appropriate classification for a language learning context as it provides a very detailed description of each individual strategy and exemplifies applications for each language learning skill (Cohen, 1990). Hence, Oxford’s

classifications has been incorporated in a widely used strategy training instruments, for example the SILL (Cohen, 1990; Oxford, Lavine & Crookall, 1989; Ellis, 1994; Chamot et al., 1993). This study, takes Oxford's classifications and the SILL as a basis for collecting data on students strategy use.

Kinds of Strategy Training

Studies in strategies have shown that effective foreign or second language learners use a variety of strategies for both receptive and productive tasks while less successful learners use strategies less frequently. Since less successful learners have a smaller repertoire of strategies, they are not often able to choose appropriate strategies for learning tasks (Chamot & Kupper, 1989).

This problem, however, can be resolved through strategy training, which helps learners to gain awareness of learning strategies that can contribute to their learning. Chamot (1988) claims that learners can be trained to apply appropriate strategies to language learning tasks. Chamot and Kupper (1989) point out that training in learning strategies can increase the ability of learners to learn a foreign language. That is to say, strategy training can be an effective way of raising awareness of learning strategies and promoting learning a language (Oxford, 1990).

Oxford (1990) has explicitly identified and described three types of strategy training methods which are:

- (a) awareness training;
- (b) one-time strategy training;
- (c) long term strategy training.

Awareness training may overlap with the other two training models, since in the other two training models, together with raising awareness in learning strategies, students are trained to actual use of strategies with language learning tasks.

a) Awareness Training

This kind of training can also be defined as “consciousness-raising or familiarization training” (Oxford, 1990, p. 202). In awareness training, learners become aware of and familiar with learning strategies that can help them accomplish various language learning tasks. However, learners are not expected to use the strategies in actual, on-the-spot language tasks, such as listening or reading. The students might later be encouraged to expand their knowledge and make use of strategies while doing other language tasks.

b) One-time Strategy Training

This type of training involves learning and practicing one or more strategies with actual language tasks. Learners are informed of the value of the strategies, when and how they can be used, and how the success of strategies can be evaluated. It is said that such training “is appropriate for learners who have a need for particular, identifiable, and very targeted strategies that can be taught in one or two sessions” (Oxford, 1990, p. 203).

c) Long-term Strategy Training

As in one-time strategy training, this type of training also involves learning and practicing strategies with actual language tasks. Learners are taught the significance of particular strategies, when they can be used, how to use them, and how to monitor and evaluate their performance. Long-term strategy training is more prolonged than both awareness training and one-time strategy training and covers a greater number of strategies.

As the names suggest, in one-time strategy training and long-term strategy training, the main difference is the time period of training. That is to say, in these two training models, the length of training is important. Narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training, on the other hand, are differentiated with respect to integration or non-integration of strategies rather than on the basis of training time (Oxford, 1990). In narrow-focus strategy training the emphasis is on the training of one or two strategies, almost never integrated, in a given time period with a given language task. This type of training lessens overall training time, and reduces the possibility of overloading the learner with different strategies. It also allows more precise assessment of the effectiveness of the strategy training. It can, however, prevent the interaction of multiple strategies to increase learning potential.

In broad-focus strategy training the aim is, first of all, to integrate more than one strategy and to provide a combined strategy training for students (Oxford, 1990). For example, the teacher is free to combine different groups of strategies such as cognitive,

metacognitive and affective strategies in a given time period with a given language task. Thus, in broad-focus strategy training the learners are trained by the integration of direct and indirect learning strategies. It is feasible to integrate either only direct or indirect strategies as well as direct and indirect strategies. As Oxford points out “this type of training can maximize learning potential” (p. 205).

Research in strategy training claims that both of these models are beneficial and effective. For example, a study by Chamot (1993) shows that narrow-focus training is beneficial for the students in the teaching of the skills of listening and speaking. Based on the same training model, Lia (1993) concludes in her study that narrow-focus strategy training improves the reading comprehension skills of language learners. Zhang (1992), who conducted broad-focus strategy training concludes that this type of training produces high reading comprehension scores for students at all levels. To conclude, various studies show that strategy training in either the narrow-focus or broad-focus model can be effective and successful for the learning of all skills (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Chamot et al. in O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Chamot, 1993; Lia, 1993; Zhang, 1992).

Guidelines for Strategy Training

Whatever strategy training model is preferred, there are some basic steps to be followed before the actual training takes place. Although there are different views concerning the steps to be followed in conducting strategy training, the frameworks

suggested by various researchers are similar in terms of preparation, instruction, evaluation and revising or expansion.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) draw general guidelines for strategy training in second language contexts under five main headings: (a) in the preparation step, student awareness of different strategies through interviews or think-aloud procedures is developed; (b) in the presentation step, through describing, naming and modeling strategies, student knowledge of strategies is assessed; (c) in the practice step, student skill in using strategies for academic learning is developed; (d) in the evaluation step, student ability to evaluate personal strategy use is developed; (e) in the expansion step, transfer of strategies to new tasks is developed. These steps constitute general guidelines for training strategies in a classroom situation.

The strategy training model Oxford (1990) developed is somewhat different from O'Malley and Chamot's guidelines. Oxford's guidelines consist of eight steps, while "planning and preparation" constitute the first two steps, the last three involve "conducting, evaluating and revising the training," (pp. 203-204). Hence, the steps involve integrating strategy training, motivational issues, and preparation of materials and activities as follows:

Step 1. "Determine the learners' needs and the time available" (p. 208). This involves gathering personal information of the learners such as age, background, level of proficiency in English, strengths and weaknesses, prior knowledge and use of learning

strategies. In order to determine their strategy needs a language learning inventory may be administered.

Step 2. “Selection of strategies” (p. 208). In this step, strategies are selected. These strategies are intended to meet the need of the learners. Additionally, the selected strategies are expected to be transferable to other language learning tasks.

Step 3. “Integration of strategy training” (p. 208). By integrating strategy training with learning tasks, learners may understand the use of strategies in a “significant and meaningful context” (p. 208).

Step 4. “Motivational issues” (p. 208). Strategy training may raise the interest of learners in the use of strategies. In addition, explanations regarding the use of strategies which can promote language learning are likely to enhance positive attitudes towards strategy training.

Step 5. “Preparation of materials and activities” (p. 208). To enhance the effectiveness of strategy training, appropriate teaching materials and handout may be used.

Step 6. “Completely informed training” (p. 208). In order to show how strategies are being transferred to various tasks and the importance of strategies in learning, complete and explicit instruction is needed.

Step 7. “Learners’ self-assessment provides practice with strategies of self-monitoring and self-evaluating, and offers useful data for the success of the training” (p. 208). Also, to increase the success of strategy training, observations by the trainers may provide useful data.

Step 8. “The evaluation of any strategy training may suggest some possible revisions for the materials” (p. 208). This leads to the recirculation of the training steps and reconsideration of the characteristics and needs of the learners in the light of the strategy training that has just occurred.

To sum up, the strategy training guidelines introduced by O’ Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) provide useful models for conducting training sessions in learning strategies. It can be said that the main steps are learners’ needs assessment in strategies, preparation of training materials, training and modeling strategies, and evaluating the training. These steps can actually be realized in three stages: before training, during training and after training. It is also suggested that these models can be used in strategy training with all four language learning skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing).

The Process of Reading and Reading Comprehension in EFL

Before the improvement of reading skills can be discussed, we need to look at why reading is important, what kind of skills it entails and what we mean by reading comprehension. Although all four skills are important in learning a language, in English as a Foreign Language in many countries in the world, reading is considered to be the main reason why students learn the language (Carrell, 1988). Dubin (1989) and Rivers (1981) claim that reading is one of the most important skills in language learning, for reading is not only a source of information but is also a means of consolidating and

extending one's knowledge of the language. As mentioned in Chapter 1, there are two basic reasons that show the primacy of improving the skill of reading in the teaching of English as a foreign language. First, written texts provide linguistic input for competence (Goodman, 1988). That is to say, reading passages provide semantic and syntactic knowledge and practice for the readers. Second, the main type of communication learners face is written texts. In second language teaching or learning situations, especially in universities or similar programs that make extensive use of written texts in English, reading is all-important (Carrell, 1988). Consequently, it can be argued that the improvement of the skill of reading gains priority over the other three.

Wardhough (cited in Robinett, 1980) explains this basic skill as:

... attempting to discover the meaning of what one is reading by using the visual clues of spelling, his knowledge of probabilities of occurrence ...and syntactic and semantic competence to give a meaningful interpretation to the text... Reading is ... an active process, in which the reader makes an active contribution by drawing upon and using concurrently various abilities that he has acquired (p. 355).

In order to understand what is meant by reading as an active process, it is best to explain the role of the reader and reading strategies to be used in the reading process. As Widdowson and Clarke (cited in Carrell, 1988) point out, the second language reader is an active information processor who predicts while sampling only parts of the actual text.

The reader constructs a meaning which can assimilate or accommodate the original meaning of the author. The reader also searches for the most direct path to meaning, using strategies to reduce uncertainties and selecting cues that draw deeply on prior conceptual and linguistic competence (Goodman, 1988). Afflerbach (1990) defines what readers do when they are trying to comprehend a text as follows:

Text comprehension requires reading processes such as word identification, derivation of word meanings, generation and monitoring of predictions and assignment of importance.

Comprehension also requires memory management processes such as monitoring comprehension, controlling the rate of reading the text, and checking the operation of working memory (p. 34).

Finally, the definitions of reading and reading comprehension show that the reading process itself is a complex skill. It involves harmonizing of attention, memory, and perception, and along with comprehension, operations of deducing meaning, and searching for cohesive elements (Rusciolelli, 1995). In other words, for the second or foreign language learner, reading in its complexity causes problems in comprehending a text in English. Thus, in order to help students to overcome problems in comprehending a text, the necessity for learning strategies gains importance.

Suggested Strategies that Promote Reading Comprehension

Having defined the nature of learning strategies and reading comprehension, it is appropriate to discuss the strategies identified by researchers as strategies that successful readers apply while reading. Such strategies indicate that there are different abilities required on the part of the learner. Although the literature is very rich on this subject, this chapter discusses only the most studied reading strategies as they are the ones recommended by most researchers.

Lia (1993), recommends that summarizing, note-taking and mapping strategies are ideal strategies to be introduced in the classroom and asserts that these strategies enhance students' reading comprehension. Pritchard (cited in Zhang, 1992) compiled a taxonomy of 22 reading strategies in five main categories: (a) developing awareness; (b) accepting ambiguity; (c) establishing intrasentential ties; (d) establishing intersentential ties; and (e) using background knowledge.

Numrich (cited in Zhang, 1992) has classified five classroom strategies for improving reading comprehension: (a) the skills of predicting based on prior knowledge; (b) anticipating what will be read next; (c) using statements to check comprehension of a text during reading; (d) analyzing text organization by looking for specific patterns; (e) classifying to facilitate comprehension of similarities and differences.

In a similar manner, Olsen and Gee (cited in Zhang, 1992), in a study of 47 primary school students, have recommended a set of memory strategies for young children to assist in reading comprehension: (a) semantic mapping, where students relate

new words to words, concepts, and notions they already know; (b) organizing information in meaningful patterns; (c) group summarizing; and (d) use of visual imagery. They argue that generating visual images during the reading process can help the reader to link their prior experiences to new ideas.

According to Reutzel (cited in Zhang, 1992) story mapping helps the reader to identify meaningful relationships among concepts and events. Reutzel also argued that story mapping strategy can facilitate the background knowledge building process and, consequently, promote reading comprehension.

Similarly, Afflerbach (1990) in his study with expert readers, suggests that prior knowledge helps the reader to anticipate the meaning of the text. He concluded that prior knowledge may facilitate and promote reading comprehension.

According to Barnett (1988) the strategies effective readers use are: (a) guessing meaning from context; (b) skimming; (c) scanning; (d) reading for meaning; (e) predicting; (f) activating general knowledge; (g) making inferences; and (h) separating main ideas from supporting details.

The framework by Dubin (1989) provides definitions to some of the suggested reading strategies in her study. Dubin has identified ten strategies that successful readers apply when reading. The strategies are listed and explained as follows.

1) Adjusting Attention According to the Material

Not all reading matter is the same, therefore, different types of material require different modes. Some selections should be read quickly without being concerned about

details; others require careful, deliberate attention. Good readers continually shift and adjust their attention according to the nature of the reading material as well as their objectives.

2) Using the Total Context as an Aid to Comprehension

Good readers make use of all linguistic clues in the passage to aid their comprehension.

3) Skimming

Reading quickly to get an overall idea of the subject matter of a selection is called skimming. Good readers use skimming in order to decide whether an item deserves further attention.

4) Predicting, Guessing and Anticipating

On the word level, good readers guess the meaning of unfamiliar words by using the context. On the syntactic level, they use what they know about the form of the language to extract meaning without necessarily reading all the words.

5) Critical Reading

Good readers read critically to find information between lines, e.g., by looking for influence, interpretation, and tone of voice.

6) Receptive Reading

The reader uses this strategy to identify the supporting ideas that back up arguments and uses strategies such as reading paragraph by paragraph, summarizing the main ideas of each paragraph, underlining and making notes.

7) Scanning

Good readers use scanning which involves looking for particular information, usually facts that one has read recently.

8) Using Textual-Discourse Devices

Effective readers make use of all the syntactic and rhetorical features the author has provided for unity and coherence.

9) Search Reading

The reader makes use of key words or groups of synonymous words and expressions which the author has utilized to avoid the fault of repeating the same word too often. The reader looks for elements of all kinds that present new ideas or themes.

10) Synthesizing Knowledge

This strategy means making use of previous knowledge. While reading, one should bring to the activity all of one's cultural knowledge and experience in the real world, to derive sense from the passage.

To sum up, based on these frameworks, the most common strategies used by effective and successful readers seem to be as follows: (a) guessing from context; (b) skimming; (c) scanning; (d) predicting; (e) anticipating; (f) semantic mapping; (g) summarizing; and (h) using background knowledge.

Studies in Training Reading Strategies

Having identified the strategies that promote reading comprehension, we can now turn to a discussion of how to train less successful readers to use reading strategies in order to help them to improve their reading comprehension by looking at various studies. Research studies on strategies have suggested that less successful learners are able to improve their language learning skills in reading through strategy training. Carrell et al (1989) point out that less successful readers are able to promote their reading comprehension through strategy training. Studies investigating this have supported the claims for strategy training. The two studies provided below are examples of narrow-focus strategy training conducted in order to promote reading comprehension.

In a study by Geva (cited in O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), secondary school children were instructed to flow-chart a scientific text in order to learn how to search for text structure and to recognize its various components. This significantly improved their recall of the text, since the memory load was lessened when the text was broken up into structural units. The results suggested that students reacted positively to the trained strategy and indicated that they made use of it.

In a study by Carrell, Pharis and Liberto (1989) semantic-mapping (SM hereafter) and experience-text-relationship (ETR hereafter) strategies were instructed to 26 Level 4 university ESL students for four days. The results showed that metacognitive strategy training in SM and in ETR methods is effective in enhancing reading comprehension skills of university ESL students.

The next two studies are examples of use of a broad-focus strategy training model. In a study by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) the subjects were Russian first year university students who were provided with inferencing, deduction, elaboration and transfer strategies. The results suggested that the students reacted positively to the training and the strategies promoted their reading comprehension.

In another study by Zhang (1992) cognitive, memory and compensation strategies were taught to 15 preparatory ESL students for a three week period. The results showed that instruction in these reading strategies helps students to improve in reading comprehension.

As a result of these studies, it can be argued that narrow-focus strategy training and broad-focus strategy training effect learners' success positively. It can also be concluded that the learners developed their learning skills through strategy training; that is to say, that both of the training models helped learners in promoting their reading comprehension.

Conclusion

Research studies in strategies have shown that learning strategies can facilitate the learning process and make learning easier and more successful. The results of these studies also suggest that successful language learners use a variety of learning strategies to cope with language learning tasks, whereas less successful learners have a smaller repertoire of learning strategies. In order to help less successful learners to use learning

strategies, researchers have suggested strategy training as an effective and successful method. Oxford (1990) has proposed two types of strategy training models: narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training.

Studies in both training models have shown that language learners improve and promote their comprehension in learning skills successfully through strategy training. The same is true for reading comprehension. In order to help less successful readers to improve their reading comprehension, researchers have defined the strategies used by successful readers. Many studies have been done to help learners make use of reading strategies. Researchers who conducted studies in training reading strategies concluded that reading comprehension can be promoted through training in reading strategies.

However, as mentioned previously, the literature does not provide sufficient evidence of which of the principal two training models is more effective in promoting reading comprehension. This study aims to shed light on this issue by investigating the comparative roles of narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training in promoting reading comprehension of EFL learners.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the role of narrow-focus strategy training and broad-focus strategy training in promoting learners' reading comprehension. One hypothesis was that both strategy training models are effective in promoting learners' reading comprehension. It was further hypothesized that broad-focus strategy training is more effective than narrow-focus strategy training. In order to explore the two issues, an experimental study was conducted. There was one control and two experimental groups. The independent variables were narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training, and the dependent variable was reading comprehension.

This chapter includes four sections. In the first section, the subjects and their characteristics are described in detail. The second section provides information about the instruments used in this study. In the third section, the procedure and data collection steps are presented. Finally, the data analysis section presents how the data were analyzed.

Subjects

The study was conducted at the Osmangazi University Preparatory School in Eskisehir, Turkey. Although Osmangazi University is a Turkish-medium state university, in accordance with the policy of the university the students are required to attend English

Preparatory School before they can carry on their academic studies in their own departments.

At the beginning of the year, students are required to take a placement test. According to the results of this test the students are assigned to beginner, intermediate or upper intermediate level classes. The students, then, attend the Preparatory School which is a one year English program.

The characteristics of the subjects differed in the control group and the two experimental groups. The 14 subjects in the control group were Ph.D. students who were required by the administration to attend the prep-school for one-year. Their ages were between 21-33. In the two experimental groups, the subjects were undergraduate students heading for different departments such as mechanical engineering, chemical engineering, and civil engineering. Their ages were between 18-21 with similar backgrounds in English language education. The groups comprised intact classes selected by the administrator of the institution, hence, the researcher had no control over the choice of the groups in the experiment. Although the background of the subjects was not similar, their level of proficiency was the same. All of the three groups had an upper-intermediate level of English language proficiency.

Materials

Pre-test and Post-test Materials

The test materials (pre and post-tests) to measure reading comprehension used in this study were taken from a TOEFL preparation workbook (1992) (see Appendix A), since the reading comprehension tests supplied in the TOEFL preparation workbook were appropriate for the level of the subjects. The test consisted of four reading passages each with multiple choice comprehension questions. In order to ensure the reliability and validity of the test, two pilot studies were carried out. The first was with participants chosen from among the instructors at Osmangazi University and Anadolu University; the second one was conducted with students having similar characteristics in terms of proficiency in English language, age, and background as the subjects who were studying at the same prep school at Osmangazi University.

Reading Strategy Inventory

The reading strategy inventory was used in order to have the subjects report the strategies they were aware of and made use of while reading a passage. The reading strategy inventory was adapted from the Strategy Inventory of Language Learners (SILL), originally designed by Oxford (1990) to cover all language learning strategies in all of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing).

Since this study was based on reading strategies only, the items in the inventory were adapted to assess particular reading strategies of the subjects. The adapted

inventory was translated into Turkish in order to avoid any difficulties and ambiguities of the items for the subjects (see Appendix C). Then, the Turkish version was back translated into English. This back-translated version was compared with the original to determine any possible discrepancies. After completing the necessary modifications, the instrument was given its final shape (see Appendix B). The inventory used a 5-point Likert scale. The subjects were asked to rate the statements from one to five using the following scale:

1- Strongly agree 2- Agree 3- Neutral 4- Disagree 5- Strongly Disagree

The inventory consisted of 29 items, each referring to a different reading strategy. In the inventory, both reading strategies that involve directly the target language and are used while reading (memory, cognitive and compensation strategies), and indirect reading strategies that support language learning (metacognitive, affective and social strategies) were included. The first five questions of the inventory elicited the use of memory strategies in reading, which were associating-elaborating, using imagery, semantic mapping, using keywords and structured reviewing. The next eleven questions were concerned with cognitive strategies: recognizing and using formulas and patterns, getting the idea quickly, reasoning deductively, using resources for receiving messages, analyzing expressions, analyzing contrastively, translating, transferring, taking notes, summarizing and highlighting. The next two questions were related to compensation strategies: using linguistic clues and using other clues. The following six questions were related to metacognitive strategies in reading: overviewing and linking with already

known material, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a reading task, planning for a reading task, self-monitoring, and self-evaluating. The next two questions sampled affective strategies: making positive statements and writing a language learning diary. Finally, the last two questions were concerned with social strategies: asking for clarification and verification and cooperating with peers.

Treatment Materials

The treatment phase covered six hours of training sessions, each session lasting fifty minutes. In each training session, one reading passage was used as training content. Therefore, six different reading passages with similar readability levels were used in this study. The readability levels of the reading passages were tested using the readability program, Barmouth Grade Level, installed in Microsoft Windows Word 6.0. The readability level of the six reading passages ranged from 9.7 to 11.1, which was accepted as a similar readability level. The materials and their references are listed below.

Reading passage 1

Duffy, C. B. and Mahnke M. K. (1992). The Heinemann TOEFL practice tests. New York: Heinemann (see Appendix D)

Reading passage 2

Davy, E., Davy, K. (1992). Reading and vocabulary workbook. New York: MacMillan. (see Appendix E)

Reading passage 3

Devy, E., Davy, K. (1992). Reading and vocabulary workbook. New York: MacMillan. (see Appendix F)

Reading passage 4

Devy, E., Davy, K. (1992). Reading and vocabulary workbook. New York: MacMillan. (see Appendix G)

Reading passage 5

Devy, E., Davy, K. (1992). Reading and vocabulary workbook. New York: MacMillan. (see Appendix H)

Reading passage 6

Baudoin, E. M. et al. (1977). Reader's Choice. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press (p.127) (see Appendix I)

Procedure

The subjects for this study were selected from the preparatory English classes in Osmangazi University, Eskisehir. The subjects had similar backgrounds in English language education. As stated earlier, they were students enrolled in different engineering departments but attending the prep-classes for one year.

Three intact classes were randomly designated as either control or experimental groups. Thus, a quasi-experimental design was adopted in this study.

Pre-Treatment

Pre-Testing

Before the treatment, a pre-test, which consisted of four reading passages with twenty multiple choice comprehension test questions was administered to the subjects to obtain data on their proficiency level in reading comprehension. In the pre-test, subjects were required to read the passage and then answer the related comprehension questions. The subjects were given thirty minutes to complete the test. Immediately after the administration of the pre-test the subjects were given the reading strategy inventory in order to obtain data on reading strategies which the subjects might make use of or not.

The reading strategy inventory used a five point Likert scale, asking the subjects to rate each strategy item from '1'(Strongly agree) to '5 '(Strongly disagree) according to whether they thought they were using the strategies. Later, to determine the least used strategies among subjects, the frequency distribution for each item in the inventory was calculated. In this manner, the strategies that the subjects least used and thus, those strategies they might be trained on were determined. Based on the results, three strategies: namely, semantic mapping (memory strategy), highlighting (cognitive strategy), and cooperating with peers (social strategy) were chosen for instruction in the treatment sessions.

Definitions of the Reading Strategies Chosen for the Treatment

Semantic mapping is a practical and visual way to see how ideas in a reading passage fit together (Lia, 1993). In this strategy, the concepts and their relationships are displayed in a map or diagram, which is used to relate concepts to each other (Oxford, 1990). The procedure includes a brainstorming session on a given key concept or topic of a reading passage (Carrell et al, 1989). Eventually, students develop a map of the story's topic before they actually read. This map assists students with learning the key vocabulary necessary for comprehension and with activating their prior knowledge on the topic. After reading, students can expand the semantic map by adding new ideas or concepts from the text, which may help students to improve their reading comprehension ability (Oxford, 1990).

The second strategy selected, highlighting, is one of the cognitive strategies from which learners sometimes benefit. Briefly, it is emphasizing the key concepts and related supporting concepts in a given reading passage. There are different techniques in highlighting such as underlining, writing in capital letters, bold writing, circling and so forth. A benefit in using this strategy is that it helps the learner to focus on the main points of the message of a reading passage (Oxford, 1990).

The third strategy, cooperating with peers, is a social strategy, which requires that learners "work together with other learners with a common goal" (Oxford, 1990, p. 171). Some activities such as games, and simulations force the students to develop their ability

to cooperate with peers. Reading is usually considered as an independent activity, however, it can be a “cooperative enterprise” as well (Oxford, 1990).

Treatment

The treatment consisted of six class sessions each lasting fifty minutes. In the experimental groups, the researcher conducted the strategy training. Since there was no strategy training in the control group, one of the instructors at the institution taught the class and was asked not to do any strategy training. The same reading passage was used in all three groups for each treatment session. Since the subjects in the control group did not receive any strategy training, they were expected to read the passages, find out meanings for new vocabulary in the text, discuss the semantic and syntactic rules and answer the related comprehension questions in order to balance the training time with the experimental groups. The training in all groups were conducted in English in order to minimize first language interference.

In the first experimental group (narrow-focus strategy training group), the three selected strategies were trained at different class sessions with different reading passages. The sequence of the strategies trained in the treatment sessions was as the following:

Treatment Session 1: Reading Passage 1- Semantic Mapping

Treatment Session 2: Reading Passage 2 - Highlighting

Treatment Session 3: Reading Passage 3 - Cooperating with peers

Treatment Session 4: Reading Passage 4 - Semantic Mapping

Treatment Session 5: Reading Passage 5 - Highlighting

Treatment Session 6: Reading Passage 6 - Cooperating with peers.

The teaching procedures that were followed in the treatment sessions is exemplified in Appendix K.

In the second experimental group (broad-focus strategy training group), the three reading strategies, semantic mapping, highlighting and cooperating with peers, were combined. All the combined strategies were trained during each reading class and with each reading passage (see Appendix J for the sample lesson plan). Therefore, at the end of the experiment, each experimental group had been trained with the same strategies, but with a different training model.

Post Treatment

Post Testing

At the end of the treatment, five days after the last treatment session, a post-test was administered to all three groups to determine to what extent strategy training was effective and successful. The post-test, which was the same as the pre-test, consisted of four reading passages and of twenty multiple choice comprehension questions.

Reading Strategy Inventory

After the administration of the post-test, the reading strategy inventory was given for the second time to subjects again to determine whether they had become more aware of learning strategies and whether they made use of them or not.

Scoring

Each pre- and post-test was scored by two judges who were members of the Testing Unit at Osmangazi University. The twenty multiple-choice questions were scored as correct or not, and each correct answer was worth '5' points. Since there were twenty questions the maximum score was '100'. The analysis of the data obtained in pre and post-test, as well as the analysis of the items in the reading strategy inventory are presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4 DATA ANALYSIS

Overview of the Study

The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of narrow-focus strategy training and broad-focus strategy training in promoting reading comprehension of Turkish EFL students. It was hypothesized that both narrow-focus strategy training and broad-focus strategy training would promote students' reading comprehension skills. Each of the strategy training models was applied with different experimental groups. It was further hypothesized that broad-focus strategy training would be more effective than narrow-focus training.

To find evidence relating to the two hypotheses an experimental study was conducted at Osmangazi University, Eskisehir. The subjects for this study were chosen from upper intermediate level classes, since they were the only accessible classes. Three intact groups were selected in order to have two experimental groups and one control group. The groups were randomly designated as the experimental groups and the control group.

The data for this study were collected by using pre and post-tests and a reading strategy inventory. All three groups were given the same pre-test in order to measure their pre-treatment level of proficiency in reading comprehension skills. The students were asked to read the four texts and then answer the related multiple choice questions. The tests were scored by two members of the Testing Unit at the institution. Immediately after the pre-test, a reading strategy inventory was administered to determine the reading

Pre-Treatment

Pre-Testing

The pre-test used in this study consisted of four reading passages with five multiple choice questions for the first reading passage, six multiple choice questions for the second reading passage, seven multiple choice questions for the third reading passage, and two multiple choice questions for the fourth reading passage. Thus, the subjects had to answer a total of twenty questions. Each item was worth 5 points; the maximum score was 100. The tests were scored by the Testing Unit at the institution.

The control group was coded as Group C, the narrow-focus group was coded as Group N, and the broad-focus group was coded as Group B. The pre-test scores of subjects both in the control group and the two experimental groups are presented in Table 1. The mean scores and the standard deviations are presented in Table 2.

Table 1

Results of the Pre-Test

Group C n=12	Group N n=19	Group B n=17
Pre-test Scores	Pre-test Scores	Pre-test Scores
45	60	45
45	35	45
50	35	55
30	45	45
25	45	20
60	45	35
30	35	60
30	35	40
40	55	25
50	55	45
35	45	50
30	35	40
	15	30
	40	50
	35	50
	60	40
	60	50
	50	
	35	

Note: N=48. Maximum score is 100.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of the Pre-test

Group	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
C	12	39.16	10.83
N	19	43.15	11.69
B	17	42.64	10.47

Note: N=48. Maximum score is 100.

As can be seen from Table 2, the means as well as the standard deviations of the three groups are similar to one another (C= 39.16; N= 43.15; B= 42.64). In other words, the level of proficiency in reading comprehension of the subjects in all three groups was similar. However, in the experimental Groups B and N the means are slightly higher than in Group C. The standard deviations in Group C and Group B are lower than in Group N. To determine whether there was a significant difference in the group means a one-way ANOVA was conducted to analyze the data. The hypothesis was that the three groups were equal in terms of reading comprehension proficiency. Table 3 shows the results of the ANOVA analysis.

Table 3

Analysis of Variance (one-way ANOVA)

<i>Source of variance</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between groups	2	128.90	64.45	.52	.59
Within groups	45	5508.07	122.40		
Total	47	9.16			

As can be seen from the table, there is no statistically significant difference between the groups C, N, and B ($F=.52$, $p=.59$). That is to say, the pre-test analysis indicated the control group and the two experimental groups were equal with regard to proficiency in reading comprehension prior to the treatment.

Reading Strategy Inventory

The reading strategy inventory used in this study consisted of 29 items, each referring to a different reading strategy. The students were asked to complete this inventory by reflecting on their own behavior while reading any passage and answering the related comprehension questions. The subjects reported their strategy use on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly agree) to 5 (Strongly disagree).

The analytical procedure used at this stage of analysis was to calculate the frequency distribution of each inventory item, in order to identify those strategies which are reported as the least used by the subjects. Based on the results, three strategies that were not used by most of the subjects were chosen for the training. All the strategies with frequencies and percentages are shown in Table 4. Those strategies which could effectively be trained in a limited classroom situation were selected. In the reading strategy inventory, the rating point 4 (disagree) and point 5 (strongly disagree) showed which strategies are reported as least used by the subjects. Consequently, only the frequencies for point 4 and point 5 responses have been taken into account in the strategy selection analysis.

Table 4

Frequency Distribution of Reading Strategies Items

Item	Reading Strategy Inventory Items	Frequency Distribution	
		Frequencies for responses 4 and 5 on the scale	Percentages
1	Associating/Elaborating	10	18.17%
2	Using Imagery	11	19.99%
3	Semantic Mapping*	44	79.99%
4	Using Keywords	15	27.26%
5	Structured Reviewing	12	21.81%
6	Getting the idea quickly	3	5.44%
7	Recognizing patterns	15	27.27%
8	Skimming/Scanning	4	7.26%
9	Reasoning deductively	21	38.17%
10	Using resources for receiving messages	11	19.99%
11	Analyzing Expressions	12	26.81%
12	Analyzing contrastively	31	56.35%
13	Translating	8	14.53%
14	Transferring	10	18.18%
15	Summarizing	28	50.90%
16	Taking notes	10	18.17%
17	Highlighting*	34	61.81%
18	Using linguistic clues	5	9.08%
19	Using other clues	22	39.99%
20	Overviewing and linking with already known material	22	39.99%
21	Setting goals and objectives	8	14.54%
22	Identifying the purpose of a language task	15	27.26%
23	Planning for a language task	15	27.27%
24	Self-monitoring	2	3.63%
25	Self-evaluating	4	7.26%
26	Making positive statements	13	23.62%
27	Writing a language learning diary	52	94.54%
28	Asking for clarification and verification	9	16.35%
29	Cooperating with peers*	25	45.44%

Note. N= 58. 4: “disagree” on the scale, 5: “strongly disagree” on the scale.

*Strategies chosen for the treatment.

As the results indicate, 79.99% (44) of the subjects stated that they did not use item 3, which refers to semantic mapping (memory strategy), while they are reading.

Similarly, 61.11% (34) of the subjects indicated that they did not use item 17, which is highlighting (cognitive strategy) while they are reading a text. For item 29, which is cooperating with peers (social strategy), 45.44% (25) of the total number of subjects indicated that they did not use this strategy. As the results reveal among the selected strategies, cooperating with peers was the one that the subjects made greater use of than the other two strategies while reading a passage.

Post-Treatment

Post-Testing

The post-test used in this study was the same as the pre-test. In order to maximize test reliability and validity for the pre-test and post-test, the same reading passages and their corresponding multiple choice questions were used. Table 5 shows the scores that subjects achieved in the post-test. Table 6 presents the means and the standard deviations of each group.

Table 5

Results of the Post-Test

Group C n=12	Group N n=19	Group B n=17
Post-test Scores	Post-test Scores	Post-test Scores
50	60	50
40	50	60
60	35	55
50	50	75
25	45	75
60	45	60
30	35	75
50	35	40
40	45	40
55	50	55
40	50	55
55	35	55
	60	45
	50	55
	45	55
	60	50
	60	50
	55	
	40	

Note: N=48. Maximum score is 100.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations of the Post-test

Group	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
C	12	46.25	11.30
N	19	47.63	8.87
B	17	55.88	11.37

Note: N=48. Maximum score is 100.

As the results indicate, the mean of Group C ($M=46.25$) and Group N ($M= 47.63$) are similar. The mean of Group B ($M=55.88$) is definitely higher than the other two groups. However, the standard deviations of Group C ($SD=11.30$) and Group B ($SD=10.78$) are similar. This shows that the range of gain scores in both groups are similar. The standard deviation of Group N ($SD=8.87$) is lower than the other two groups. That is to say, the range of gain scores in Group N is more narrow than for the other two groups.

In order to find out whether there is a significant difference between the pre and the post-tests, a within group t-test was done for each group. The results are presented in Tables 7, 8, and 9.

Table 7

T-test for Group C: Between Pre-Test and Post-Test

<i>Group C</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	39.16	10.83	2.54	11	.027
Post-test	46.25	11.30			

n=12

Table 8

T-test for Group N: Between Pre-Test and Post-Test

<i>Group N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	43.15	11.69	1.73	18	.101
Post-test	47.63	8.87			

n= 19

Table 9

T-test for Group B: Between Pre-Test and Post-Test

<i>Group B</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	42.64	10.47	3.99	16	.001
Post-test	55.88	10.78			

n= 17.

As can be seen from Table 7, there is a significant difference between the pre and post-test scores of Group C ($p = .027$), which shows higher scores after the treatment. As the results in Table 8 reveal, the difference between the pre and post-test of Group N is statistically insignificant ($p = .101$), although there was an increase in the mean between pre and post-tests. The results in Table 9 show that there is a highly significant difference between the pre and post-tests scores for Group B ($p = .001$).

In order to see whether there is a significant difference among the three groups, a one-way ANOVA was conducted. It was hypothesized that there would be a significant difference among the groups. The results are presented in Table 10 below.

Table 10

Analysis of Variance (one-way ANOVA):

<i>Source of variance</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between groups	2	861.48	430.74	4.13	.022
Within groups	45	4686.43	104.14		
Total	47	5547.91			

As the results reveal, there is a significant difference between the groups ($F=4.1360$; $p=.022$). This means that the hypothesis stating that there is a significant difference in the scores between the groups was confirmed. However, this result does not show which of the groups is significantly different from the others. In order to further determine which group improved significantly, a t-test was conducted between Groups C and N, between Groups C and B, and between Groups N and B. Tables 11, 12, and 13 present the results of these t-tests.

Table 11

T-test: Between Group C and Group N

<i>Groups</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Group C	12	46.25	11.30	.38	29	.707
Group N	19	47.63	8.87			

Table 12

T-test: Between Group C and Group B

<i>Groups</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Group C	12	46.25	11.30	2.32	27	.028
Group B	17	55.88	10.78			

Table 13

T-test: Between Group N and Group B

<i>Groups</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Group N	19	47.63	8.87	2.52	34	.017
Group B	17	55.88	10.78			

As can be seen from the tables, there is a non-significant difference between Groups C and N ($p = .707$), whereas between Groups C and B, and Groups N and B there is a significant difference ($B > C$; $p < .05$) ($B > N$; $p = .017$). That is to say, the subjects in Group B got significantly higher scores after the treatment than the subjects in groups C and N.

Reading Strategy Inventory

The reading strategy inventory was administered a second time after the post-test in order to investigate which reading strategies subjects made use of. Only the frequency distributions of the strategies which were instructed in the treatment session are compared. Table 14 presents the results of the three reading strategy items in terms of percentages both of first administration and second administration of the inventory. It should be remembered that these percentages reflect the number of subjects who stated that they did not use the strategies under study. Therefore, lower percentages in the second administration indicate that there has been an increase in the use of the strategy. In other words, fewer subjects are saying they do not use the strategy.

Table 14

Comparison of Reading Strategy Items Between 1st Administration and 2nd Administration

Group		1st Administration percentages of point, 4 and 5	2nd Administration percentages of point, 4 and 5	Percentage of increase/ decrease in strategy use
C	Semantic Mapping	75.57%	91.66%	-16.09%
	Highlighting	35.71%	24.99%	+10.72%
	Cooperating with peers	28.56%	33.33%	+4.72%
N	Semantic Mapping	90.00%	26.30%	+63.70%
	Highlighting	80.00%	47.35%	+32.65%
	Cooperating with peers	70.00%	36.83%	+33.17%
B	Semantic Mapping	71.42%	11.76%	+59.66%
	Highlighting	61.89%	17.64%	+44.25%
	Cooperating with peers	33.32%	29.40%	+3.92%

Note: 4: Disagree on the scale; 5: Strongly Disagree on the scale

As can be seen from the table, for Group C the percentages for non-use of semantic mapping and cooperating with peers has increased in the first and second administration. The percentage of students who did not make use of highlighting has not changed much in the second administration. The subjects in Group N and B stated that they made greater use of the reading strategies instructed during the treatment sessions: namely, semantic mapping, highlighting, and cooperating with peers. As the results reveal, in both Groups N and B the percentages of strategy use have increased, which means that a large number of subjects reported use of the strategies. However, despite the increase in the percentages in semantic mapping and highlighting, the percentage regarding cooperating with peers is similar in the first and in the second administrations for Groups B and C. This means that the subjects in Group C reported that they did not make greater use of the strategy, cooperating with peers, as in the first administration.

Similarly, in Group B the subjects reported that they did not make greater use of the strategy cooperating with peers after the treatment. This can be seen in the comparison of the given percentages of first and second administration of the inventory. On the contrary, the subjects in Group N reported they made greater use of this strategy.

In conclusion, the analysis of the data reveals that narrow-focus strategy training was not as effective as was hypothesized. Although the subjects in Group N seem to have made use of the trained strategies to a higher extent than prior to the training, they may have not been able to integrate these strategies in reading comprehension since they were not trained to do this. On the other hand, broad-focus strategy training was effective in promoting the reading comprehension skills of the subjects.

The evidence that broad-focus strategy training had a role in promoting reading comprehension skills was supported by the analysis of the tests pre and post-tests. Given the analysis of the responses to the reading strategy inventory, it can be said that the percentages of the subjects who started to make use of the strategies after the training has increased. The subjects in Group B stated that they made greater use of the strategies instructed in the treatment sessions. In fact, both groups B and N reported use of the reading strategy cooperating with peers, a finding which is also supported by the post-test results.

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION

Overview of the Study

This study sought to investigate the role of strategy training in promoting reading comprehension of Turkish EFL students. This study was carried out at Osmangazi University, Eskisehir. Three strategies were selected for training in the treatment sessions. These strategies were selected by administering and analyzing the results of a reading strategies inventory administered to three groups of subjects. The first experimental group was trained through narrow-focus strategy training, and the second experimental group was trained through broad-focus strategy training. The control group did not receive any strategy training but practiced reading texts and answering comprehension questions.

Three research questions were tested in this study. The first research question investigated the effectiveness of narrow-focus strategy training in promoting reading comprehension skills of EFL learners. The second research questions investigated the role of broad-focus strategy training in promoting reading comprehension skills of EFL learners. Finally, the third research question asked which of these two training models is more effective in promoting learners' reading comprehension skills.

The reading proficiency of the three groups was measured by a pre-test. This was followed by a reading strategies inventory administered to find out which reading strategies subjects used or were aware of. The reading strategies that learners were

trained in were semantic mapping, highlighting, and cooperating with peers. These were chosen as the least used strategies on the basis of subjects' responses on the reading strategies inventory. Each experimental group received six 50-minute sessions of reading strategy training. The narrow-focus strategy training group practiced single strategy with a reading passage in each treatment session, while the broad-focus strategy training group practiced all three integrated strategies with a reading passage in each treatment session. After the treatment, a post-test was administered in order to see whether there was an improvement in reading comprehension of the subjects. Following the post-test, the reading strategies inventory was administered a second time to identify whether the subjects reported use of the strategies which were instructed in the treatment. The results of the pre and post-tests were compared within each group and among the three groups.

Summary of Findings

The findings of the pre-test indicated that the three groups did not differ significantly with respect to pre-treatment proficiency in reading comprehension. The results of the reading strategies inventory which elicited the subjects use and awareness of reading strategies showed that the subjects made little use of the following learning strategies: semantic mapping (memory strategy), highlighting (cognitive strategy), and cooperating with peers (social strategy).

As the results of the reading strategy inventory revealed, the reading strategy with the highest percentage, which in fact shows the least used strategy, was writing a language learning diary (social strategy). Since this was one of the strategies which is said to be typically effective only when it is trained longitudinally (Oxford, 1990), it was not included in this study. Therefore, the next least used strategy, cooperating with peers (45.44%), which is also a social strategy, was selected for the treatment.

The results of the post-test indicated that strategy training was effective and helped all subjects to improve their reading comprehension. The t-test results between the pre-test and the post-test of the control group indicate that there is a significant difference ($p = .027$), indicating an improvement in the post-test. Although the control group was not exposed to any strategy training, read the selections and answered the comprehension questions, there is an improvement in the post-test that can not be explained in terms of strategy use. Considering that the subjects in the control group are graduate students, it might be claimed that they are more self-directed, and more effective learners than the subjects in the experimental groups who were undergraduates. In addition, the kind of class activities of the control group, that is to say, reading passages and answering multiple choice comprehension questions was similar to the pre and post-test format. Therefore, improvement could be a result of the experience they have had in doing the pre and post-tests.

In the second reading strategy inventory administration, that the subjects in Group N reported use of the three reading strategies instructed during the treatment sessions,

whereas the subjects in Group B reported that they made use of cooperating with peers more than semantic mapping and highlighting. In addition, the subjects in Group B made more use of cooperating with peers than the subjects in Groups C and N, however, the number of students reported use of this strategy did not change much between the first and second administration.

Discussion of Findings

Pre-Test Results

This section presents the discussion of the findings revealed by the analysis of the pre-test scores and reading strategy inventory. The results of the pre-test showed that the differences between the means of the control group and the two experimental groups were statistically insignificant. In the first administration of the inventory, 79.99% (44) of the subjects indicated that they did not make use of semantic mapping. This may be due to the fact that the subjects were not aware of and/or had not received any strategy training in semantic mapping before. Highlighting was one of the least used reading strategies that subjects reported using. Although 61.81% (34) of the subjects indicated that they did not make use of highlighting, it can be stated that highlighting appears to be more frequently used by the subjects than semantic mapping, given the two percentages. On the other hand, among the selected three strategies, cooperating with peers was the most used strategy by the subjects (45.44%).

Post-Test Results

This section discusses the findings of the study which were revealed by the comparison of pre and post tests in the light of the three research questions. This discussion necessarily entails a comparison of all three groups.

1. Is Narrow-Focus Strategy Training Effective in Promoting Learner's Reading Comprehension Skills?

When the pre and post test results of the narrow-focus group are considered, there is no significant difference ($p = .101$) in the t-test analysis. However, there is a slight increase in the mean of the post-test, which could be interpreted as an improvement, although not significant. This non-significant difference may be attributed to the fact that the strategy training given may not have been appropriate given the needs to the learning strategies of the subjects in Group N. This non-significant difference could also be explained in terms of strategy non-use.

In the second administration of the reading strategy inventory, the subjects in the narrow-focus group stated that they made use of the strategies instructed in the treatment sessions (see Table 14 in Chapter 4), despite the fact that there was non-significant improvement in the post-test. The results may suggest that the subjects might have been aware of but might have not used the strategies, although they reported in the inventory that they did make use of them. It should also be noted that, due to the students' natural

tendencies towards positive responses after novel treatments, the percentages that reported strategy use might have increased accordingly. As Brown (1991) points out a possible result of this natural tendency is “subject expectancy”, which can occur if subjects figure out the goal of the study and tend to help the researcher in achieving the aims.

It can also be argued that a non-significant difference between the pre-and post-test of Group N may be due to a possible negative effect of narrow-focus strategy training. A similar result has been pointed out in a study by Oxford and Green (1995). They stated that none of the memory strategies had any effect on promoting learning. Since semantic mapping is considered as a memory strategy, it might be stated that semantic mapping had no effect on promoting reading comprehension of subjects in the narrow-focus group.

Furthermore, the t-test results between the control group and the narrow-focus group indicate no significant difference ($p = .707$), which indicates that the scores obtained in the post-test by subjects in both groups are similar. When considering the non-significant difference between pre-and post-tests, it could be argued that narrow-focus strategy training may not have had a positive effect in promoting reading comprehension of EFL learners', disproving the results of several research findings (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Zhang, 1992).

Hence, the comparison of pre and post test results and reading strategy inventory items of first and second administration revealed that although the subjects reported

strategy use, there was no evidence stating that narrow-focus strategy training is effective. That is to say, the first research question that asks if narrow-focus strategy training is effective in promoting learners' reading comprehension skills was not confirmed.

2. Is Broad-focus Strategy Training Effective in Promoting Learners' Reading Comprehension skills?

Evidence for the improvement in reading comprehension due to broad-focus strategy training may be found in the results of the reading strategy inventory administered after the post-test. The subjects in broad-focus group stated that they made use of two of the strategies, semantic mapping and highlighting, instructed in the treatment sessions. However, the results also revealed that there is not much change in the use of the strategy cooperating with peers (see Table 14, Chapter 4).

The t-test comparison between pre and post-test results for the broad-focus group indicated that there is a highly significant difference ($p = .001$), in the pre-test and post-test means. This is also evident by the comparison with the control group. When compared with the control group in terms of post-test results, there is a significant difference ($p = .028$) between the control and broad-focus groups post-test means.

Hence, it could be claimed that appropriate strategy use, when taught in an integrated model, promotes reading comprehension skills of learners. This is also supported by the findings of research studies of Oxford (1990), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Zhang (1992). For example, in the study by Zhang, it was concluded that

broad-focus strategy training was more effective in promoting learners' reading comprehension skills. In addition, the finding that broad-focus strategy training was effective in promoting reading comprehension skills of learners' provides evidence that this training model can maximize the learning potential of learners'. Consequently, the results reveal that broad-focus strategy training is effective in promoting learners' reading comprehension skills.

3. Which of the Training Models, Narrow-Focus or Broad-Focus, Is More Effective in Promoting Learners' Reading Comprehension Skills?

When the post-test results of Groups N and B are compared, there is a significant difference ($p = .017$) between the two groups in terms of improvement in reading comprehension skills. The mean differences and t-test results show that broad-focus strategy training was more effective in promoting subjects reading comprehension skills than narrow-focus strategy training, which also corresponds to the research findings of Oxford (1990), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Zhang (1992). This significant difference could also be explained in terms of strategy use.

In the second administration of the reading strategy inventory, the percentage of responses of strategy non use is definitely lower in the broad-focus group than in the narrow-focus group (see Table 14 in Chapter 4). This means that the number of the subjects in broad-focus group who made use of the instructed strategies is higher than the subjects in the narrow-focus group. That is to say, the subjects in the broad-focus group

might have been able to integrate the reading strategies instructed in the treatment sessions, since the subjects were trained in this way. Thus, it can be argued that training strategies in an integrative manner is more effective than training individual strategies.

As stated earlier in Chapter 2, one of the weakness of narrow-focus strategy training is that it prevents the interaction of a set of strategies in order to increase learning potential. It can also be argued that in narrow-focus strategy training learners do not have alternatives to choose the appropriate reading strategy parallel to their learning behaviors, whereas in broad-focus strategy training learners have the opportunity either to choose any appropriate strategy or to use the strategies in an integrative manner to enhance their reading comprehension skills. Consequently, as a response to the third research question investigating which of the two training models, broad-focus strategy training or narrow-focus strategy training, is more effective in promoting learners' reading comprehension skills, it can be concluded that broad-focus strategy training is more effective than narrow-focus strategy training in promoting learners' reading comprehension skills.

Limitations of the Study

This study had certain limitations in investigating the role of narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training in promoting reading comprehension of Turkish EFL students. The limitations of this study are related to subject selection, time constraints, and test texts and tasks.

Firstly, in terms of subjects, this study is limited to Turkish EFL upper-intermediate level university students. In addition, it may not be possible to draw generalizations for all Turkish EFL university students given the number of subjects (N=48). Another limitation in terms of subjects is the different backgrounds of the groups as graduate and undergraduate students constituted another limitation.

The fourth limitation has to do with time constraints and the number of treatment sessions in the experimental groups. The treatment was given in six fifty minute sessions. In order to have more reliable and valid implications, it would have been better to increase the number of treatment hours. If subjects had more time to practice the strategies within treatment hours, the results might have led to higher success in the post-test.

Finally, it is not customary in experimental research studies to use the same text and task in both pre-test and post-test. While there seemed justification for this decision in the present study, some of the confusing results may have come about because of greater “test learning” on the part of one group over another. Matched but independent texts and tasks should be sought in such studies in the future.

Pedagogical Implications

Based on the results of the study, there are some implications that can be made for instructional purposes. This study claims that broad-focus strategy training helps students to improve reading comprehension in English, which is important for university

students. A possible benefit of strategy training could be that students can analyze which strategies they use successfully and which ones they need to develop. On the other hand, Turkish EFL teachers of reading can also benefit from this study. It might be possible for them to identify strategies of their students and can integrate strategy training into their reading syllabus. In this way, they can give students a chance to gain autonomy in dealing with reading tasks.

A third pedagogical implication is that curriculum developers may consider that strategy training is effective in promoting reading comprehension skills and, therefore, they may integrate strategy training into the curriculum. While designing the curriculum, extra time for effective strategy training needs to be allotted.

Finally, it is encouraging to note that the standard training received by the control group appeared to benefit their reading comprehension skills. It is always good to note that we are assisting students in our present practices as well as speculating on how these practices can be improved.

Implications for Further Research

The data obtained from this study suggest several issues for further research. Researchers may want to replicate this study with a larger number of subjects and with subjects at different levels of English language proficiency to investigate the role of strategy training in promoting reading comprehension skills. This may contribute firstly

to the generalizability of the findings, and secondly to the usefulness of strategy training for students at different proficiency levels.

In this study, three reading strategies (semantic mapping, highlighting, and cooperating with peers) were integrated; researchers may want to focus on different reading strategies integrating memory, metacognitive, and affective strategies. Furthermore, more than three strategies could be integrated in a further research study.

Another suggestion for further research is to increase the length of treatment time in order to expose the subjects to more practice in the use of strategies. In order to have more reliable results, the number of treatment sessions may be increased. For example, strategy training that covers a semester might help the students to promote and increase their reading comprehension further. As Dewitz et al (cited in Sayram, 1994) suggest, to show effects of strategy training on comprehension a long period of training time is usually needed.

Previous investigators have noted that training in memory strategies is less effective than training in other strategy types (Oxford & Green, 1995). Since semantic mapping could be considered as a memory strategy, the finding by Oxford and Green appears to be supported partially, by this study. Since memory seems to be a key element in reading comprehension and, indeed, in all learning, it would be interesting to explore further why memory strategy training has been less effective than training in other areas.

Finally, a further suggestion would be investigating the role of narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training models in other language learning skills such as listening, speaking, and writing.

In conclusion, a greater sample of subjects and a longer period of treatment may be necessary to see how narrow-focus and broad-focus strategy training are effective in promoting reading comprehension. As this study is limited only to reading, research on the interaction of strategy training and other language skills may help us to understand the effectiveness and applicability of strategy training better.

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APPENDIX A

Pre and Post-Test

A) Read the four passages below and circle the best answer to each question that is related to each passage.

Reading Passage A

Young people are very different from their predecessors in the 60s. The 1960s were dominated by activists, long-haired and protesting American intervention in Vietnam. No longer interested in politics and causes, most of the 32 million people from 13 to 21 are preoccupied with issues closer to themselves. Their foremost concern is with training for and finding a job that will support them in these uncertain times. They worry, as do their parents, about the dangers of nuclear destruction. But they seldom do anything about their worries. Protest marches simply do not appeal to them. They are much too busy getting on with the business of living their own self-centered lives. Not surprisingly, excessive drinking among teenagers has become a national concern, with an estimated 5.3 million 14- to 17-year old problem drinkers.

1. You can infer from the passage that
 - a. teenagers drink to excess because their parents provide a bad example
 - b. excessive drinking among teenagers indicates that they are responding to the stresses of their lives by drinking
 - c. present-day teenagers drink because of their more lighthearted approach to life
 - d. teenagers have more money to buy alcohol than the youth of the 60s did

2. Teenagers to day are different from the youth of the 60s in their attitude toward
 - a. government
 - b. hairstyles
 - c. making a living
 - d. al of the above
3. Most young people are
 - a. preoccupied with earning a living
 - b. involved in protest marches
 - c. a national concern
 - d. problem drinkers
4. You can infer that the author's opinion is that people who worry about nuclear destruction
 - a. should keep their worries to themselves
 - b. should tell their parents about their worries
 - c. should be more like the activists of the 60s
 - d. seldom do anything constructive about their worries
5. What is the main idea of this passage?
 - a. Young people in the 60s were rebellious.
 - b. Young people today drink too much.
 - c. The youth of today have a different attitude toward life from that of the youth of the 60s.
 - d. Young people today are different from and better than the youth of the 1960s.

Reading Passage B

A few years ago a shortage of natural gas drove prices sky high. Likewise, gasoline prices rose when demands exceeded supplies. A glut in the oil market drove prices back down. The law of supply and demand functioned according to textbook description in the case of oil, but the situation is otherwise in the current natural as

market. Natural gas consumers are finding their heating bills more of a burden than last year, in spite of a dramatic increase in supplies. There is so much natural gas available that many suppliers are closing down their plants for lack of a market, and it is rumored that some suppliers are even off their surplus gas.

6. You can infer that the law of supply and demand means that prices
 - a. rise if supplies are abundant
 - b. fall if supplies are limited
 - c. rise if supplies are limited
 - d. stay even when supplies are abundant
7. The author's purpose is to
 - a. discuss oil prices
 - b. discuss gas shortages
 - c. question high prices
 - d. compare gas and oil prices
8. You can infer that gas suppliers are burning their surplus gas in order to
 - a. lower the prices on their product
 - b. create a shortage to sustain high prices
 - c. get rid of an inferior product
 - d. create a glut in the market
9. Many suppliers of natural gas are
 - a. reducing their prices
 - b. going out of business
 - c. running out of gas
 - d. converting to the oil business
10. The cost of heating with natural gas this year
 - a. has risen
 - b. depends on supply and demand
 - c. is easier to bear
 - d. has remained the same as last year

11. The amount of natural gas currently available is
- more than last year's supply
 - equal to last year's supply
 - less than last year's supply
 - none of the above

Reading Passage C

Under the Medicare insurance policy, people approaching 65 may enroll during the seven month period that includes three months before the sixty-fifth birthday, the month in which the birthday falls, and three months after the birthday. However, if they wish the insurance coverage to begin when they reach 65, they must enroll three months before their birthday, people who do not enroll within their first enrollment period may enroll later, during the first three months of each year. Those people, however, must pay 10% additional for each twelve-month period that elapsed since they first could have enrolled. The monthly premium is deducted from social security payments, railroad retirement or civil service retirement benefits.

12. The author's purpose is to
- describe the benefits of Medicare
 - stimulate enrollment in Medicare
 - tell people when they may enroll in Medicare
 - advertise Medicare

13. People would pay 10% more for their insurance if they
 - a. were under 65
 - b. applied seven months before their sixty-fifth birthday
 - c. enrolled after their sixty-fifth birthday
 - d. enrolled in a private plan
14. To start coverage by Medicare on their sixty-fifth birthday, people must apply
 - a. seven months before their birthday
 - b. four months before their birthday
 - c. the month in which their birthday occurs
 - d. three months before their birthday
15. The seven-month period described in this passage includes
 - a. seven months before a subscriber's birthday
 - b. seven months after a subscriber's birthday
 - c. three months before, three months after, and the month during which the subscriber's birthday occurs
 - d. none of the above
16. The period after the sixty-fifth birthday during which people may apply for Medicare
 - a. one year
 - b. one month
 - c. seven months
 - d. January 1 to March 31 yearly
17. Medicare subscribers' premiums
 - a. are due the first of every month
 - b. are taken out of their salaries
 - c. are subtracted from their pension checks
 - d. come from federal government

18. You can infer that people over 65 who enroll two years after they could have enrolled pay 10% more for two years and then would
- a. continue to pay more than people who enrolled before they were 65
 - b. pay less than people who enrolled before 65
 - c. pay the same as people who enrolled before 65
 - d. be excluded from the Medicare plan completely

Reading Passage D

In 1746 Benjamin Franklin decided to convince his peers that lightening was a form of electricity. He flew a kite in a thunderstorm, a foolhardy thing to do, and got sparks from the metal key he had attached to the strings at ground level. He shocked his friends into believing his story.

19. You can infer from that Benjamin Franklin
- a. didn't realize his danger in flying a kite during an electrical storm
 - b. was a very brave scientist
 - c. enjoyed flying kites
 - d. was a great American statesman
20. The sparks from the key were caused by
- a. the thunder
 - b. Franklin
 - c. the string it was attached to
 - d. lightning.

APPENDIX B

Reading Strategy Inventory (SILL)

Dear Participant,

I am a student in the MA TEFL program at Bilkent University. I am doing a research study in order to investigate the effectiveness of different types of strategy training in promoting learners' reading comprehension. I would like to have your assistance by providing me answers to the following questions. This information will help me as well as other teachers to understand second language learning better and, in this way, we will be able to help you more.

The information you provide will be strictly confidential. Your names will not be mentioned anywhere nor it will effect your grades at school. Thank you for your help and cooperation.

Oktay Baysal
MA TEFL Program
Bilkent University
Bilkent, ANKARA

Questionnaire

Please answer the questions in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to the statements.

Name and Last Name : _____
Age : _____
Sex : Male Female
Your Department : _____

Strongly
Agree Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly
Disagree

When I read in English,

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1- I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2- I try to visualize the things that I am reading. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3- I draw diagrams so that I can understand the ideas of a reading passage. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
4- I look for words I already know that are similar to the words in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
5- I go back to refresh my memory of things I learned much earlier.	1	2	3	4	5
6- I read a text several times until I can understand it.	1	2	3	4	5
7- I try to find patterns in English	1	2	3	4	5
8- I first read quickly for general understanding, then go back and read carefully.	1	2	3	4	5
9- I apply the rules I already know into the new reading situation.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I use reference materials such as glossaries or dictionaries to help me understand new words in a text.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I look for similarities and contrasts between the new language and my own.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I avoid translation word-for-word.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I am cautious about transferring words or concepts directly from my language to the new language.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I make summaries with regard to basic points of information that I read.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
16. I take notes about the important parts that I understand better.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I highlight important parts of the text that I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I make guesses to understand unfamiliar words.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I read without looking up every word.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I preview the lesson to get a general idea of what the text is about, how it is organized, and how it relates to what I already know.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I have clear goals for improving my reading.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I clearly identify the purpose of the reading task; for instance, reading for general idea or specific facts.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I prepare myself according to the task that I will be facing while reading.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I try to notice whether I misunderstood anything in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
25. After I do a reading activity, I try to evaluate my success or failure.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I encourage myself to read in English even when I am afraid of making mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
27. I write down my feelings on reading in a language learning diary.	1	2	3	4	5
28. If I do not understand something in a text, I ask the teacher for clarification.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I work with other language learners to practice, review or share information.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

Turkish Translation of the Reading Strategy Inventory (SILL)

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Bilkent Üniversitesi MA TEFL bölümünde Master öğrencisiyim. Yabancı Dil öğrenim stratejileri ile ilgili bir çalışma yapmaktayım. Aşağıdaki soruları yanıtlayarak bu çalışmaya yardımcı olmanızı rica ederim. Vereceğiniz bilgiler Yabancı Dil öğrenimi esnasında karşılaşılan sorunları anlayabilme çabamızda bize ışık tutacak ve sizlere yardımcı olmamızı sağlayacaktır. Vereceğiniz bilgiler kesinlikle saklı tutulacak ve notlarınıza hiç bir surette etki etmeyecektir. İsimleriniz her hangi bir yerde kullanılmayacak ve yayınlanmayacaktır. Yardımlarınız için teşekkür ederim.

Oktay Baysal
MA TEFL Programı
Bilkent Üniversitesi
Bilkent ANKARA

Anket

Aşağıdaki ifadelerin size ne kadar uygun olup olmadığını işaretleyiniz. Nasıl olması gerektiği veya başkalarının nasıl yaptığını lütfen cevaplarınıza yansıtmayınız. Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur.

Adı Soyadı : _____

Yaş : _____

Cinsiyet : Erkek Kadın

Bölümünüz : _____

	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Bilmiyorum	Katılmıyo- rum	Tamamen Katılmıyorum
İngilizce Okurken,					
1 Önceden bildiğim şeylerle yeni öğrendiklerim arasındaki bağlantıları düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
2 Okuduğum şeyleri göz önüne getirmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
3 Diagram veya grafikler çizerim böylelikle bir okuma arçasının fikirlerini anlayabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5

	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Bilmiyorum	Katılmıyorum	Tamamen Katılmıyorum
4 Okuma parçası içerisindeki kelimelere benzer olan önceden bildiğim kelimeleri bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
5 Hafzamı tazelemek için çok önceden bildiklerime geri dönerim.	1	2	3	4	5
6 Bir okuma parçasını anlayana kadar bir kaç kez okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
7 İngilizdeki kalıpları bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
8 Önce genel anlamı çıkarmak için parçayı hızlıca okurum, daha sonra geri dönüp daha dikkatli okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
9 Önceden bildiğim dil kurallarını yeni okumakta olduğum parçaya uygularım.	1	2	3	4	5
10 Okuma parçasındaki yeni kelimeleri anlamama yardımcı olması için sözlük gibi referans materyalleri kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
11 Bir İngilizce kelimenin anlamını, kelimeyi anlayabildiğim parçalarına bilerek bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5
12 İngilizce ile ana dilim arasındaki benzerlikler ve zıtlıkları ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
13 Kelimesi kelimesine çeviriden kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4	5
14 Kendi dilimdeki kelime ve kavramları yeni dile doğrudan transfer ederken çok dikkatliyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
15 Okuduğum bilgilerin ana noktalarını göz önünde bulundurarak özet çıkarırım.	1	2	3	4	5
16 Daha iyi anlamak için önemli bölümler ile ilgili not alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
17 Okuduğum parçanın önemli yerlerini işaretlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
18 Aşına olmadığım kelimeleri anlamak için tahmin yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5

	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Bilmiyorum	Katılmıyorum	Tamamen Katılmıyorum
19 Her kelimeyi sözlükten bakmadan okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
20 Parçanın ne hakkında olduğu, nasıl organize edildiği, ve önceden bildiklerimle ne kadar alakalı olduğu hakkında genel bir fikir edinmek için konuyu önceden gözden geçiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
21 Okumamı geliştirmek için açık amaçlarım var.	1	2	3	4	5
22 Okuma aktivitesinin amacını açıkça tanımlarım; örneğin, genel anlam veya özel bilgi için okumak.	1	2	3	4	5
23 Okurken karşılaşılabileceğim aktivitelere göre kendimi hazırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
24 Parça içindeki herhangi bir şeyi yanlış anlayıp anlamadığıma dikkat etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
25 Bir okuma aktivitesini yaptıktan sonra başarıımı veya başarısızlığımı değerlendirmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
26 Hata yapmaktan korktuğum zaman bile İngilizce okumak için kendimi cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
27 Okuma hakkında hissettiklerimi bir dil öğrenim günlüğüne yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
28 Eğer parçadaki birşeyi anlamıyorsam açıklaması için öğretmene sorarım.	1	2	3	4	5
29 Pratik yapmak, konuyu gözden geçirmek, veya bilgiyi paylaşmak için diğer dil öğrencileri ile birlikte çalışır uğraşırım.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D

Reading Passage 1

Since the water is the basis of life, composing the greater part of the tissues of all living things, the crucial problem of desert animals is to survive in a world where sources of flowing water are rare. And since man's inexorable necessity is to absorb large quantities of water at frequent intervals, he can scarcely comprehend that many creatures of the desert pass their entire lives without a single drop.

Uncompromising as it is, the desert has not eliminated life but only those forms unable to withstand its desiccating effects. No moist-skinned, water-loving animals can exist there. Few large animals are found: the giants of the North American desert are the deer, the coyote, and the bobcat. Since desert country is open, it holds more swift-footed, running, and leaping creatures than the tangled forest. Its population are largely nocturnal, silent, filled with reticence, and ruled by stealth. Yet they are not emaciated. Having adapted to their austere environment, they are as healthy as animals anywhere in the world.

The secret of their adjustment lies in a combination of behavior and psychology. None could survive if, like mad dogs and Englishmen, they went out in the midday sun; many would die in a matter of minutes. So most of them pass the burning hours asleep in cool, humid burrows underneath the ground, emerging to hunt only by night. The surface of the sun-baked desert averages around 150 degrees, but 18 inches down the temperature is only 60 degrees.

Comprehension Questions

1. What is the topic of this passage?
 - a. Desert plants
 - b. Life underground
 - c. Animal life in a desert environment
 - d. Water the basis of life
2. Desiccating in line 7 means
 - a. drying
 - b. humidifying
 - c. killing
 - d. life threatening
3. The author mentions all of the following as examples of the behavior of desert animals EXCEPT
 - a. animals sleep during the day
 - b. animals dig homes underground
 - c. animals are noisy and aggressive
 - d. animals are watchful and quite
4. The author states that one characteristics of animals live in the desert is that they
 - a. are smaller and fleeter than forest animals
 - b. are less healthy than animals who live in different places.
 - c. can hunt in temperatures of 150 degrees
 - d. live in an accommodating environment
5. Which of the generalizations is supported by the passage?
 - a. Water is the basis of life.
 - b. All living things adjust to their environments.
 - c. Desert life is colorful.
 - d. Healthy animals live longer lives.

APPENDIX E

Reading Passage 2

Most people are unaware of the fact that a new ailment has developed among subway users. Called “subway syndrome,” it causes people to turn pale and cold and even to faint. Commuters misdiagnose the symptoms—acute chest pains and nausea—and rush to hospital emergency rooms in the belief that they are about to succumb to a heart attack. Hearing that their heart attack is only a case of nerves makes them feel better.

What makes people get sick on subways? Various and sundry things. One is that they rush off to work in the morning without having eaten a proper breakfast. Sudden dizziness attacks them. A second cause is the overcrowding and ensuing feeling of claustrophobia, which brings on stress and anxiety. In addition, they are so afraid of mechanical failure, fire, and/or crime that they show signs of panic—men by having chest pains and women by coming hysterical. Contributing especially to their stress are other : overcrowding of both sexes, continual increase in the numbers of passengers, and people’s inability to avoid interacting with strangers.

Noise, lack of space, summer heat, fear of entrapment underground—it is a wonder that more people don’t have subway syndrome. What therapeutic measures can a commuter take to inoculate himself or herself from the disease? Eat a good breakfast, concentrate on pleasant thoughts as you stand surrounded, bounce a bit on your toes, and roll your head. Thus, mind and body will be restored to a semblance of normality despite the adverse conditions of subway transportation.

Comprehension Questions

1. Why do subway riders think they might be having a heart attack?
 - a. They are overcrowded.
 - b. They are afraid.
 - c. They suffer from chest pains.
 - d. They don't eat breakfast.
2. Presumably the word *commuter* refers to
 - a. a vehicle
 - b. a person
 - c. an animal
 - d. an emotion
3. The author suggests that subway riders will feel better if they
 - a. exercise a little
 - b. think about pleasant things
 - c. eat breakfast
 - d. all of the above
4. A good title for this passage might be
 - a. How to ride the subway
 - b. A case of nerves
 - c. The subway syndrome
 - d. Overcrowding on the subways.
5. According to the passage, if you don't have a good breakfast , you might get
 - a. cold
 - b. pale
 - c. afraid
 - d. dizzy

APPENDIX F

Reading Passage 3

Not since Americans crossed the continent in covered wagons have they exercised and dieted as strenuously as they are doing today. Consequently, they do not only look younger and slimmer, but feel better. Because of increased physical fitness, life expectancy in the nation has risen to seventy-three years, with fewer people suffering from heart disease, the nation's number one killer.

Jogging, the easiest and cheapest way of improving the body, keeps over 30 million people of all ages on the run. For the price of a good pair running shoes, anyone anywhere can join the race.

Dieting, too, has become a national pastime. Promoters of fad diets that eliminate eating one thing or another, such as fats or carbohydrates, promise as much as 20-pound weight losses within two weeks. Books describing such miraculous diets consistently head up the best-seller lists because very corpulent person wants to lose weight quickly and easily.

Nevertheless, both jogging and dieting, carried to extremes, can be hazardous. Many confused joggers overdo and ultimately suffer from ankle and foot damage. Fad dieting, fortunately, becomes only temporary means for shedding a few pounds while the body is deprived of the balanced nutrition it requires, so most dieters cannot persevere on fad diets. Above all, common sense should be the keystone for any dieting and exercise scheme.

Comprehension questions

1. The main idea of paragraph 1 is
 - a. Americans got exercise when they crossed the continent in covered wagons.
 - b. exercise and diet are more widespread in America than ever before.
 - c. heart disease is the number one killer among Americans.
 - d. Americans live longer than they did before.

2. Life expectancy in the nation has risen seventy-three years. Choose the sentence closest in the meaning.
 - a. Americans now live to be 73 years old.
 - b. The nation is 73 years old.
 - c. Hopefully, with exercise and improvement diet, Americans may live to be 73 years old.
 - d. Americans can expect to live at least 73 years old.

3. You can infer from the passage that
 - a. a person's life expectancy depends upon diet.
 - b. inactive and corpulent people are prone to heart disease.
 - c. more people succumb to heart disease than to any other ailment.
 - d. all of the above

4. The main idea of paragraph 2 is
 - a. jogging as an exercise appeals to a large number of Americans
 - b. joggers have to buy special shoes.
 - c. joggers must be a certain age.
 - d. jogging is inexpensive.

5. The author suggests that
 - a. People should not jog or diet.
 - b. Both jogging and dieting can improve ones health.
 - c. It's possible that dieting and jogging can damage your health.
 - d. Jogging and dieting are harmful.

APPENDIX G

Reading passage 4

Scientists claim that air pollution causes decline in the world's average air temperature. In order to prove that theory, ecologists have turned to historical data in relation to especially huge volcanic eruptions. They suspect that volcanoes effect weather changes that are similar to air pollution.

One source of information is the effect of the eruption of Tambora, a volcano in Sumbawa, the Dutch east Indies, in April 1815. The largest recorded volcanic eruption, Tambora threw 150 million tons of fine ash into the stratosphere. The ash from a volcano spreads worldwide in a few days and remains in the air for years. Its effect is to turn incoming solar radiation into space and thus cool the earth. For example, records of weather in England show that between April and November 1815, the average temperature had fallen 4.5°F. During the next twenty-four months, England suffered one of the coldest periods of its history. Farmers' records from April 1815 to December 1818 indicate frost throughout the spring and summer and sharp decreases in crop livestock markets. Since there was a time lag of several years between cause and effect, by the time the world agricultural commodity community had deteriorated, no one realized the cause.

Ecologists today warn that we face a twofold menace. The ever-present possibility of volcanic eruptions, such as that of Mt. St. Helens in Washington, added to

man's pollution of the atmosphere with oil, gas, coal, and other polluting substances, may bring us increasingly colder weather.

Comprehension Questions

1. It is believed that the earth gets colder when
 - a. volcanoes erupt
 - b. the air is polluted by modern man
 - c. the rays of the sun are turned into space
 - d. all of the above
2. The effects of Tambora's eruption were
 - a. felt mainly in the Dutch East Indies
 - b. of several days' duration worldwide
 - c. evidence of pollution's cooling the earth
 - d. immediately evident to the world's scientists
3. The cause of cold weather in England from 1815 to 1818 was
 - a. decreased crop and livestock production
 - b. volcanic ash in the atmosphere
 - c. pollution caused by the Industrial Revolution
 - d. its proximity to the North Sea

4. No one realized the cause of the deterioration of the world agricultural commodity market because

- a. there was along delay between cause and effect
- b. the weather is beyond our comprehension
- c. weather forecasts were inaccurate
- d. ecologists didn't exist until modern times

5. If, some scientists predict, the world ends in ice, what might be the cause?

- a. modern man's pollution of the air
- b. volcanic eruptions
- c. obliteration of solar radiation.
- d. all of the above

APPENDIX H

Reading passage 5

The veterinarian and the psychologist have joined forces to redress the behavioral ills of dogs. Subject to the same emotional problems as their owners, dogs have increasingly developed neuroses formerly attributable to humans.

Dog owners frequently reveal their own egos in their choice of a pet. Haven't you seen many a huge dog taking a small person for a walk? The dog fits in with its owner's own frustrated feelings of aggression and power. Many lonely people find a dog a source of comfort-reliable, affectionate, and willing to listen. Child psychologists have turned to dogs for help. The child who rejects his or her peers and parents will treasure a dog and can be influenced by the psychologist who talks about the dog. Childless couples frequently select baby-size dogs upon whom they lavish parental affection.

What happens to dogs that are burdened with owners who treat them like people? They behave like spoiled children. A dog whose owner feeds him on her lap refuses to eat from a bowl on the floor. A dog belonging to a childless couple for several years developed paralysis in its hind legs when they produced a real baby.

Endless are the examples of human neuroses suffered by our canine friends. The veterinarian/psychologist advises us to follow the advice of our child psychologist: Bring up our dogs with the same patience, love and discipline we extend to our children.

Comprehension Questions

1. Dogs resemble people in their inability to
 - a. work together
 - b. develop neuroses
 - c. live in confined spaces
 - d. cope with emotional changes
2. Dog owners reflect their own egos by selecting a dog that
 - a. is temperamentally similar to them
 - b. has characteristics they lack
 - c. will guard their property
 - d. resembles them in appearance
3. Child psychologists use dogs
 - a. as a means of establishing a rapport with a withdrawn child
 - b. as objects for experiments in human psychology
 - c. to train as they would train children
 - d. to make doctor visits more pleasant for children
4. You can infer that the dog that developed paralysis when its owner had a child was
 - a. struck by a disease of the nerves
 - b. affectionate toward the new baby
 - c. hit by a truck
 - d. neurotically jealous
5. the author suggests that the best way to bring up a dog is to
 - a. treat it like an animal
 - b. overindulge it
 - c. follow the rules of discipline
 - d. act as though it's a child

APPENDIX I

Reading Passage 6

In the second half of each year, many powerful storms are born in the tropical Atlantic and Caribbean seas. Of these, only about a half a dozen generate the strong, circling winds of 75 miles per hour or more that give them hurricane status, and several usually make their way to the coast. There they cause millions of dollars of damage, and bring death to large numbers of people,

The great storms that hit the coast start as innocent disturbances hundreds-even thousands- of miles out to the sea. As they travel aimlessly over water warmed by the summer sun, they are carried westward by the trade winds. When conditions are just right, warm, moist air flows in at the bottom of such a disturbance, moves upward through it and comes out at the top, In the process, the moisture in this warm air produces rain, and with it the heat that is converted to energy in the form of strong winds. As the heat increases, the young hurricane begins to swirl in a counter-clockwise motion.

The average life of a hurricane is only about nine days, but it contains almost more power than we can imagine. The energy in the heat released by a hurricane's rainfall in a single day would satisfy the entire electrical needs of the United States for more than six months. Water, not wind, is the main source of death and destruction in a hurricane. A typical hurricane brings 6- to 12- inch downpours resulting in sudden floods. Worst of all is the powerful movement of the sea-the mountains of water moving

toward the low-pressure hurricane center. The water level rises as much as 15 feet above normal as it moves toward shore.

Comprehension questions

1. When is an ordinary tropical storm called a hurricane?
 - a. when it begins in the Atlantic and Caribbean seas.
 - b. when it hits the coastline.
 - c. when it is more than 75 miles wide.
 - d. when its winds reach 75 miles per hour.
2. What is the worst thing about hurricane?
 - a. the destructive effects of water
 - b. the heat they release
 - c. that they last about nine days on the average
 - d. their strong winds
3. The counter-clockwise swirling of the hurricane is brought about by ____
 - a. the low -pressure area in the center of the storm.
 - b. the force of waves of water.
 - c. the trade winds.
 - d. the increasing heat.

4. Apparently the word downpour means
- a. heavy rainfall
 - b. dangerous waves
 - c. the progress of water to the hurricane center
 - d. the energy produced by the hurricane.

APPENDIX J

Sample Lesson Plan

(Broad-Focus Strategy Training)

1. Brief introduction on what the reading process is and what skills reading comprehension requires.

2. A short introduction on how reading strategies facilitate and promote reading comprehension.

Mentioning the role of broad-focus strategy training in promoting reading comprehension.

3. Introduction of the reading strategies of semantic mapping, highlighting, and cooperating with peers.

Explaining the benefits of using these strategies

4. Introduction on the reading strategy “cooperating with peers”,

Benefits of interacting with peers.

5. Discussion of types of collaborating in reading activities and tasks.

a. Explanation on the issue of determining a common goal when doing an activity between peers.

b. Discussion of active exercises challenging students to develop the ability in cooperating with peers.

6. Students are divided into groups of four.

7. Each student has a paragraph of the reading passage.

Together they figure out the entire reading passage through negotiating, questioning, and cooperating.

8. Comparing the output of each group, and discussing

Students do modifications if necessary.

9. Demonstration of semantic mapping and highlighting using the first reading passage.

- a. Explanation of different techniques in applying highlighting while reading.

- b. Demonstration of the techniques.

10. Students read the passage and highlight parts they think it is important (Key concepts and the related concepts in the reading passage).

Discussion of the highlighted parts.

11. Explanation of using semantic mapping as a main activity after the first reading.

- a. Demonstration of using semantic mapping on blackboard.

- b. Students complete the map using the concepts highlighted in the passage.

12. Discussion of the relationships of the concepts included in the semantic map.

13. Explanation of the importance of the strategy cooperating with peers.

- a. Students read the comprehension questions related to the reading passage.

- b. Students work in pairs, discuss the questions in order to find out the best answers for the questions.

14. Discussion of comprehension questions with the whole class.

15. A summary of benefits of using these reading strategies, and how they could be transferred to other reading passages.

APPENDIX K

Sample Lesson Plan for

(Narrow-Focus Strategy Training Group)

Session 1:

1. Brief introduction on what reading process is and what reading comprehension requires.

2. A short introduction on how reading strategies facilitate and promote reading comprehension.

Mentioning the role of narrow-focus strategy training in promoting reading comprehension.

3. Introduction on the reading strategy semantic mapping,

Benefits of using this strategies

6. Students read the passage.

4. Demonstration of semantic mapping using the first reading passage.

5. Explanation of using semantic mapping as a main activity after the first reading.

a. Discussion of the key concept and related concepts.

b. Demonstration of using semantic mapping on blackboard.

c. Students complete the map using the concepts highlighted in the passage.

7. Discussion of the relationships of the concepts included in the semantic map.

8. Students read the comprehension questions related to the reading passage.

Students work individually, try to answer the questions using the reading passage and the semantic map.

9. Discussion of comprehension questions with the whole class.
10. A summary of benefits of using this reading strategy, and how it could be transferred to other reading passages.

Session 2:

1. A short revision of the previous treatment session.
2. A brief introduction on how reading strategies facilitate and promote reading comprehension.

Reminding subjects briefly of the role of narrow-focus strategy training in promoting reading comprehension.

3. Introduction of the reading strategy “highlighting”,
Benefits of using this strategies
4. Demonstration of highlighting using the second reading passage.
 - a. Explanation of different techniques in applying highlighting while reading.
 - b. Demonstration of the techniques.
5. Students read the passage.(first reading)
6. Short discussion of the important issues in the reading passage.
7. Students read the passage a second time and underline the parts they think is important.

Discussion of the underlined parts.

8. Students read the comprehension questions related to the reading passage 2.

Students work individually, try to answer the questions also by making use of the underlined parts in the reading passage.

9. Discussion of comprehension questions with the whole class.
10. A summary of benefits of using this reading strategy, and how it could be transferred to other reading passages.

Session 3:

1. A short revision of the previous treatment sessions.
2. A brief introduction on how reading strategies facilitate and promote reading comprehension.

Reminding subjects briefly of the role of narrow-focus strategy training in promoting reading comprehension.

3. Introduction on the reading strategy “cooperating with peers”,
Benefits of interacting with peers.
4. Discussion of types of collaborating in reading activities and tasks.
 - a. Explanation on the issue of determining a common goal when doing an activity between peers.
 - b. Discussion of that active exercises challenges students to develop the ability to cooperating with peers.
5. Students are divided into groups of four.

6. Each student has a paragraph of the reading passage.

Together they figure out the entire reading passage through negotiating, questioning, and cooperating.

7. Comparing the output of each group, and discussing

Students do modifications if necessary.

8. Students read the passage and discuss the main points .

9. Students read the comprehension questions related to the reading passage 3.

Students work in pairs, try to answer the questions through cooperating.

10. Each pair compares their answers with another group.

11. Discussion of the answers to the comprehension questions.

12. A summary of benefits of cooperating with peers, and how it could be transferred to other reading activities and tasks.