

**THE IMPACT OF STRATEGY BASED INSTRUCTION ON IMPROVING  
THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY LEVEL  
OF THE 3<sup>rd</sup> GRADE STUDENTS  
AT THE TURKISH MILITARY ACADEMY**

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**A PhD Dissertation**

**Ankara, 2012**


## KABUL VE ONAY

Eyüp Yaşar KÜRÜM tarafından hazırlanan "The Impact of Strategy Based Instruction on Improving the Foreign Language Proficiency Level of the 3<sup>rd</sup> Grade Students at the Turkish Military Academy" başlıklı bu çalışma, 21. 12. 2012 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından DOKTORA TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

  
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## BİLDİRİM

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[21 Aralık 2012]

  
Eyüp Yaşar KÜRÜM

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A big number of people contributed to the success of this dissertation, and I would like to express my sincere thanks and appreciation to them all.

Particularly, I would like to express my gratitude to Professor Mehmet DEMİREZEN, my advisor, whose expertise, understanding, and patience added considerably to my graduate experience. I appreciate his knowledge and skill in many areas, his professional guidance, and his assistance in editing my work. I would also like to thank the other members of my committee, especially Associate Prof. Arif SARIÇOBAN for his valuable contributions and Dr. Stephen KRASHEN for his guidance and assistance in evaluating the statistical data in my dissertation.

I would also like to extend my thanks to the English instructors of Foreign Languages Department of the Turkish Military Academy who were very helpful in providing access to their classes. Moreover, I would like to thank Colonel Hasanbey ELLIDOKUZOGLU for the generous assistance he provided to reach more solid evaluation of the research findings.

Last but not least, my recognition and gratitude are addressed to my splendid wife Derya KÜRÜM, my *kalpsever*, sweet daughter Zeynep Tülay KÜRÜM and my cutest son Ediz Yüksel KÜRÜM without whose motivation, patience, love and support I would not have managed to finish my study in time.

## ÖZET

KÜRÜM, Eyüp Yaşar. *Strateji Tabanlı Öğretimin Kara Harp Okulu 3'üncü Sınıfında Okuyan Öğrencilerin İngilizce Başarısına Etkisi*, Doktora Tezi, Ankara, 2012.

Bu çalışma Strateji Tabanlı Öğretimin Kara Harp Okulu öğrencilerinin yabancı dil başarısına etkisinin ne olduğunu tespit etmek amacıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Söz konusu çalışma Kara Harp Okulunun üçüncü sınıfına 2011 –2012 akademik yılı itibariyle devam etmekte olan 55 erkek öğrenciye 10 hafta boyunca uygulanmıştır.

Araştırma 2011 – 2012 akademik yılı birinci yarısında yapılmıştır. Araştırmaya katılan katılımcılar askeri lise mezunları olup, yaklaşık 7 yıldır İngilizce eğitimi almaktadırlar. Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak Oxford (1990) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri (SILL) ölçeğinden yararlanılmıştır. Araştırmacı tarafından bu ölçek, çalışmanın amaçlarına uygun biçimde uyarlanarak kullanılmıştır. Çalışmada kullanılan ölçek altı ana bölümden oluşmakta, bu bölümlerde yer alan sorularda kullanıcıların çeşitli yabancı dil öğrenme stratejilerini ne derecede kullandıklarını irdeleyen sorular bulunmaktadır.

Çalışmanın başlangıcında kontrol (N=27) ve deney grubu (N=28) öğrencilerine dinleme, yazma ve okuduğunu anlama bölümlerinden oluşan bir TOEFL sınavı uygulanmıştır. 10 haftalık Strateji Tabanlı Öğretimin ardından, öğrencilerin İngilizce düzeylerinde oluşabilecek muhtemel bir değişikliği ölçmek üzere son test olarak ön test benzeri bir TOEFL sınavı uygulanmıştır. Toplanan veriler araştırma sonrasında SPSS 15.0 istatistik programı yardımıyla çözümlenmiştir. Verilerin analizinde frekans, ortalama, bağımsız iki grup arası farkların t-testi (independent samples "t" test), eşleştirilmiş iki grup t-testi (paired-samples "t" test) ve Pearson Korelasyon analizi kullanılmıştır.

Yapılan analizlere dayanılarak, Kara Harp Okulunda öğrencilerin en çok telafi stratejilerini, en az ise sosyal stratejileri kullandıkları görülmüştür. Bunun yanı sıra, genel olarak Yabancı Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri kullanımı ile dinleme, yazma ve okuma becerileri açısından yabancı dil başarısı arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır.

Fakat hafıza ve telafi stratejileri kullanımının yabancı dil başarısına istatistiksel olarak etki ettiği görülmüştür. Buna göre daha düşük yabancı dil başarısına sahip öğrenciler hafıza tekniklerini daha fazla kullanırken, başarılı öğrencilerin ise telafi stratejileri kullanım sıklığının daha yüksek olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Son olarak, Strateji Tabanlı Öğretim uygulamasının öğrencilerin Yabancı Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri kullanımı sıklığı açısından istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir artışa yol açmadığı çalışmada elde edilen veriler ışığında ortaya konmuştur.

**Anahtar Sözcükler:** Yabancı Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri, Strateji Tabanlı Öğretim, Yabancı Dil Başarısı, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce.

## ABSTRACT

KÜRÜM, Eyüp Yaşar. *The Impact of Strategy Based Instruction on Improving the Foreign Language Proficiency Level of the 3rd Grade Students at the Turkish Military Academy*, PhD Dissertation, Ankara, 2012.

This study aims to find out the impact of the Strategy Based Instruction on improving the Foreign Language Proficiency Level of the students at the Turkish Military Academy. The study was applied to 55 3<sup>rd</sup> grade male cadets in the 2011 – 2012 academic year in a 10-week period.

The study was conducted during the first semester of the 2011 – 2012 academic year. The participants of the study are military high school graduates and have been studying English for nearly seven years. As the data collection instrument, a foreign language learning strategies use questionnaire adapted from Oxford's (1990) Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was adapted and used. The inventory consists of six main parts and consisting of questions aiming to collect data on how the learners use various language learning strategies to learn a foreign language.

At the beginning of the study, the control (N=27) and experimental group (N=28) students were given a paper and pencil TOEFL test covering listening, structure and written expression and reading sections. At the end of the 10-week strategy based instruction, the control and experimental group students were given a pre-test like TOEFL exam as a post-test to assess the likely impact of Strategy Based Instruction on the English proficiency level of the participants. The collected data was analyzed by using SPSS 15.0 statistical package. Frequency, mean, independent t-test, paired samples t-test and Pearson Correlation analyses were used to analyze the data obtained.

Based on the research findings, the Military Academy cadets use the compensation strategies the most and the social strategies the least. In addition to this, there is no statistically significant relationship between the use of foreign language learning strategies and overall foreign language proficiency in general and listening, writing and reading proficiency in specific. However, the use of memory and compensation strategies made a

statistically significant difference on overall foreign language proficiency. Regarding this, students having lower grades are likely to use more memory strategies, whereas students with higher grades are found to use the compensation strategies more frequently. Finally, the Strategy Based Instruction is found to cause no statistically significant difference on the frequency of the participants' use of the foreign language learning strategies.

**Key Words:** Foreign Language Learning Strategies, Strategy Based Instruction, Foreign Language Proficiency, English as a Foreign Language (EFL).



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**Key Words:** Foreign Language Learning Strategies, Strategy Based Instruction, Foreign Language Proficiency, English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Within the field of education over the last few decades a gradual but significant shift has taken place, resulting in less emphasis on teachers and teaching and greater stress on learners and learning. With pedagogic focus shifting from teacher-centered approaches in foreign language instruction to the learner's active role in language learning, a significant amount of research on language learning strategies has been done in the last few decades, contributing to or stemming from the development of strategy taxonomies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987 in Alptekin, 2007).

Within L2/FL education, a number of definitions of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) have been used by key figures in the field. Early on, Tarone (1980) defined a language strategy as "an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language -- to incorporate these into one's inter-language competence" (p. 417). Rubin (1987) later wrote that LLS "are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly" (p. 19). In their seminal study, O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p.1) defined LLS as "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information".

In addition, building on work in her book for teachers, Oxford (1990) provides specific examples of LLS (i.e., "In learning ESL, Trang watches U.S. TV soap operas, guessing the meaning of new expressions and predicting what will come next") and this helpful definition: "Language learning strategies are specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. Oxford states strategies as "the tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability" (1990, p. 213).



From these definitions, a change over time may be noted: from the early focus on the product of LSS (linguistic or sociolinguistic competence) there is now a greater emphasis on the processes and the characteristics of LLS. At the same time, we should note that LLS are distinct from learning styles, which refer more broadly to a learner's "consistent and rather enduring tendencies or preferences" (Brown, 2007, p. 119). However, there appears to be an obvious relationship between one's language learning style and his or her usual or preferred language learning strategies.

Within 'communicative' approaches to language teaching a key goal for the learner is to develop communicative competence in the target L2/FL, and LLS can help students in doing so. After Canale and Swain's (1980) influential article recognized the importance of communication strategies as a key aspect of strategic (and thus communicative) competence, a number of works appeared about communication strategies in L2/FL teaching. An important distinction exists, however, between communication and language learning strategies. Communication strategies are used by speakers intentionally and consciously in order to cope with difficulties in communicating in a L2/FL (Bialystok, 1991). The term LLS is used more generally for all strategies that L2/FL learners use in learning the target language, and communication strategies are therefore just one type of LLS. For all L2 teachers who aim to help develop their students' communicative competence and language learning, then, an understanding of LLS is crucial. As Oxford (1990, p.1) puts it, LLS "...are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence" .

In addition to developing students' communicative competence, LLS are important because research suggests that training students to use LLS can help them become better language learners. Early research on 'good language learners' by Stern (1975) and Rubin (1975) suggested a number of positive strategies that such students employ. They range from using an active task approach in and monitoring one's L2/FL performance to listening to the radio in the L2/FL and speaking with native speakers. A study by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) also suggests that effective L2/FL learners are aware of the LLS they use and why they use them. Ellis and Sinclair's (1994) work further indicates that L2/FL teachers can help students understand good LLS and should train them to develop and use them.

Since language learning strategies are important in developing competence of the learners in foreign language teaching and learning and the use of these strategies can be taught to some extent, it is worth studying to find out the type of learning strategies the learners employ while learning a foreign language and the likely effects of instruction on the selection and use of these LLS by the students. In this study, the researcher investigated the issue of LLS in a military educational institution setting, which has not been studied in the field before.

### **1.1. Statement of the Problem**

The broad definition of the foreign language learning strategies consists of the steps or actions selected by learners to improve the learning of a foreign language, the use of a foreign language, or both. This definition encompasses those actions that are clearly intended for language learning, as well as those that may well lead to learning but which do not ostensibly include learning as the primary goal. Language learning strategies are used with the explicit goal of helping learners improve their knowledge and understanding of a target language. They are the conscious thoughts and behaviors used by students to facilitate language learning tasks and to personalize the language learning process. Language learning strategies have been differentiated into four distinct categories: cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective (based on Chamot 1987, Oxford 1990).

In performing language tasks in and out of the classroom, language learners can employ both language learning and language use strategies across language skills. These strategies may appear at three stages in task performance. Students may select strategies to help them;

- (1) prepare for upcoming language learning or use tasks,
- (2) monitor language input and output, and
- (3) evaluate or reflect back on the task.

A fair amount of research has been conducted to evaluate the benefits of explicitly teaching learners how to apply foreign language strategies for the skills of reading and

writing, and recently, some research has also been conducted on listening comprehension (Cohen, 1996).

At the Turkish Military Academy, the students are mainly divided into two groups namely A and B depending on their level of English. The majority of the A level students are graduates of military high schools. Actually all military high school students are admitted to A level because of them having completed a four year English course back at their high schools. After achieving an English proficiency test, graduates of civilian high schools can also be accepted as A level students. A small number of students from foreign countries (Afghanistan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, etc.) are given a C level English course depending on their level of English and Turkish proficiency.

The majority of the students at the Turkish Military Academy lack the opportunity to be exposed to an explicit instruction in the use of language learning strategies in ELT. Earlier research on strategies found out the features of the good language learners (Stern, 1975). These learners were found to be

- having a sense of self-awareness,
- inquisitive,
- tolerant of ambiguity,
- self critical,
- realistic,
- willing to experiment,
- actively involved and
- organized.

Later, Rubin & Wenden (1987), Oxford (1989) and Ellis & Sinclair (1994) maintained that once strategies which promote and facilitate learning are identified, learners should be trained and taught in the use of those good strategies.

In the field, a specific study analyzing the learner strategies employed by the Turkish Military Academy cadets in their foreign language studies has not been done so far. The types of strategies that these students use and whether an explicit instruction on raising an

awareness and understanding of these strategies could promote the language proficiency of the cadets at the Academy are two important topics worth studying. This lack of research on exploring the specific situation of English learners in a military educational setting in terms of their language strategies use is the main problem to be explored in this study. Since the language learners studying a foreign language in a military setting are exposed to input peculiar to military settings only, their selection and use of language learning strategies are likely to be different from language learners in civilian institutions. Therefore, this study would shed a light on the possibly different way of language strategy use of cadets in military institutions.

In this study, Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was employed since this inventory is considered to be the most comprehensive study to date (Ellis, 1994 in Alptekin, 2007). The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) divides strategies into two major categories: direct and indirect. Each category comprises three subcategories.

Direct strategies consist of memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. For example, one type of memory strategy is creating mental linkages; types of cognitive strategy include practicing, analyzing, or reasoning; one type of compensation strategy is guessing intelligently. Their common denominator lies in their involving the target language.

Indirect strategies, on the other hand, are those that support and manage language learning without necessarily involving the target language directly. They consist of metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. One type of metacognitive strategy is exemplified in arranging, planning, and evaluating one's learning; one type of affective strategy has to do with lowering one's anxiety and encouraging oneself; one type of social strategy involves asking questions and cooperating with others. This study is believed to contribute to the further studies in the field.

## **1.2. Purpose of the Study**

The primary purpose of this study is to explore the basic learning strategies employed by the students at the Turkish Military Academy to become competent English learners. In

this study, we aim to clarify and identify the language strategies employed by the English learners at the Military Academy. Another major aim of the study is to find out whether an explicit strategy teaching can improve the overall language proficiency of the learners. In addition to the above mentioned purposes, the following research questions will be investigated:

1. What are the foreign language learning strategies employed by the cadets at the Turkish Military Academy?
2. How does explicit language learning strategy training affect the overall foreign language proficiency of the cadets at the Turkish Military Academy?
3. Is there a significant difference in the frequency of the use of the language learning strategies of the cadets at the Turkish Military Academy before and after the application of an explicit language learning strategy training?
4. Can a strategy based instruction improve the listening proficiency of the English learners at the Turkish Military Academy?
5. Can a strategy based instruction improve the writing proficiency of the English learners at the Turkish Military Academy?
6. Can a strategy based instruction improve the reading proficiency of the English learners at the Turkish Military Academy?

In accordance with the research questions of the study, there are four hypotheses we assume in this research. The main hypothesis of this study is that the language learning strategies can be taught either directly or indirectly. The second hypothesis of the study is that Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning is comprehensive enough to cover all the strategies employed by the English learners at the Turkish Military Academy.

The third hypothesis of the study is that the cadets responding to the Strategy Inventory Survey are competent enough in their English skills to comprehend and answer the items in the inventory.

The last hypothesis of this study is associated with Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The greater reported use of all of the strategies included in the

questionnaire is assumed to be more beneficial for language learning than the less reported use of those strategies.

### **1.3. Scope and Limitations**

This study mainly is a descriptive, quantitative research since it aims to understand the effect of an explicit strategy teaching on the overall proficiency level of the Turkish Military Academy students. Therefore, the findings of this study are peculiar to English learners studying English in a Military Educational Institution Setting. In a military setting, the English learners are exposed to a target language input that is somehow affected by the peculiarities of the military profession. This input one way or another reflects military jargon. Thus it affects the selection and use of language learning strategies of the learners at the Academy.

Another limitation of the study is related to the number of participants taking part in the study. The findings could have been different with more number of participants. Also the data obtained in the study is only through the responds given to the Strategy Inventory used in the research. There is no qualitative data obtained through interviews, observations or diaries. So, the findings of the study are mostly based on quantitative data.

In terms of language proficiency, this study mainly investigated listening, reading and writing skills of the participants. Since, the proficiency test given to the participants of the study included listening, reading and writing parts and a valid and reliable assessment method to evaluate the likely achievements of the participants in terms of their speaking outcome throughout the study was not figured out, the speaking skill is skipped. The overall language proficiency is mainly evaluated through reading, writing and speaking skills of the participants.

The two teachers participating in this study both in the experimental group and the control group did not receive any special training on foreign language strategies to provide strategies-based instruction for their students. Only the teacher of the experimental group received practical training from the researcher of this study on techniques to raise awareness of individual differences and learning style preferences, introduce systematic

strategy use in the classroom, integrate strategies-based activities into daily lesson plans, and facilitate discussions of strategy effectiveness.

Finally, the pre and post-tests given to the participants in the study were actual TOEFL test questions previously administered to the test takers in the past. In the original TOEFL tests, the test takers are required to use approximately 120 minutes without interruption to answer the 140 questions in three sections. However, during this study listening comprehension, structure and written expression and the reading comprehension of the tests were given separately, due to the time limitations. At the Turkish Military Academy, every English class period lasts 50 minutes. Therefore, the cadets taking the pre and post-tests were given each part of the Proficiency test during their 50 minute English classes. The next part was given 2 or 3 days later depending on the pre-scheduled class period. Hence, this interrupted test taking might have an effect on the assessment of the overall proficiency of the participants.

#### **1.4. Definitions of Terms**

The specific terminology peculiar to this study is explained in this section. The definitions for the terms language learning strategy, ESP, strategy training, direct learning strategies and indirect learning strategies will be given in this section.

##### **1.4.1. Language Learning Strategies**

Apart from various definitions in the literature, language learning strategies in this study refer to what the Turkish Military Academy cadets do to help them process the new information and perform the language learning tasks during the act of learning English. In other words language learning strategies refer to "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

##### **1.4.2. English for Specific Purposes**

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is the language taught to meet the specific needs of the learners. In this study, ESP refers to the foreign language program that is designed

and adapted to meet the needs of the cadets for their future professions in the army. ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

#### **1.4.3. Strategy Training**

Strategy training is the explicit teaching of students of foreign language to actively select and use among a range of foreign language learning strategies. This approach is based on the belief that learning will be facilitated by making students aware of the range of strategies from which they can choose during language learning and use (Cohen, 2003). In this study, the strategy training refers to the 10-week explicit instruction given to the students in the experimental foreign language classroom.

#### **1.4.4. Direct Learning Strategies**

The strategies students directly use to store and process the new information in dealing with a new language are called direct strategies. The three groups that belong to the direct strategies are memory, cognitive, and compensation. In this study, the direct learning strategies of the participants are evaluated through the first three parts (Part A, Part B, and Part C) of the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) at the Turkish Military Academy.

#### **1.4.5. Memory Strategies**

The memory related strategies are usually used to retain the new coming information. They are mostly used in vocabulary learning especially at the beginner levels. They are based on principles such as creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well and employing action.



#### **1.4.6. Cognitive Strategies**

The strategies such as repeating, analyzing or summarizing that are used to manipulate or transform the target language. The four sets in this group are;

- Practicing,
- Receiving and sending messages,
- Analyzing and reasoning,
- Creating structure for input and output.

#### **1.4.7. Compensation Strategies**

These strategies are used when learners have insufficient knowledge of the target language. Guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing are examples of the strategies in this kind.

#### **1.4.8. Indirect Learning Strategies**

The strategies used by students for general management of their foreign language learning. The three groups belonging to this category are metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. In this study, the indirect learning strategies of the participants are evaluated through the last three parts (Part D, Part E, and Part F) of the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) at the Turkish Military Academy.

#### **1.4.9. Metacognitive Strategies**

They are the beyond cognitive strategies used by language learners to coordinate and plan their learning. Examples of strategy use are centering your learning, arranging and planning your learning and evaluating your learning.

#### **1.4.10. Affective Strategies**

These strategies are the ones used to manage the affective factors such as emotions, attitudes, motivation and values. Lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself and taking your emotional temperature are some of the examples of this kind of strategy use.

#### **1.4.11. Social Strategies**

The strategies used for communicating with other individuals to send and receive messages. Asking questions, cooperating with others and empathizing with others are some of the examples of social strategies.

#### **1.4.12. Socio-Affective Strategies**

According to Habte-Gabr (2006 in Hamzah, 2009) socio-affective strategies are those which are non academic in nature and involve stimulating learning through establishing a level of empathy between the instructor and student. They include considering factors such as emotions and attitudes (Oxford, 1990). Socio-affective strategies strongly consider the student's relation to society as a whole ranging from family to the global community. Similarly, Vandergrift defines socio-affective strategies as the techniques listeners use to collaborate with others, to verify understanding or to lower anxiety (Vandergrift, 2003 in Hamzah, 2009).

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Language Learning Strategies became eminent in the field of language education after researchers turned their attention to individual differences among learners in the late 1970's. Research began in earnest to identify characteristics of "good language learners" in hopes that some of their behaviors and techniques could be taught to other students. The idea that special learner techniques or strategies might help the foreign language students become more competent was first declared by Rubin (1975) in her TESOL article. Rubin pointed out a different variable that might explain the notion why some students are more successful than others in learning a foreign language. Contrary to the common belief of the time that explained foreign language achievement depending mainly on aptitude, motivation and opportunity, Rubin suggested that good language learners might be doing something peculiar to them. Rubin (1975) defined these strategies as the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge.

Taking this in mind, a group of academic studies in the area of second language acquisition that deal with the strategies that good language learners exhibit were carried out. These studies were labeled as **The Good Language Learner (GLL) Studies** (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Scholars then believed that by studying the habits of successful language learners, help can be provided to those learners who fossilize at an early stage or stop studying altogether. It was thought that if the strategies of successful learners could be found then that knowledge could help learners who were not getting such good results (Johnson and Johnson, 1999).

The original studies were first made in the 1970s, but became popular in the 1980s as researchers concentrated on individual learning strategies. However, some research on the topic has also been carried out in more recent years (Sewell, 2003; Thompson, 2005). The main body of GLL research investigated language learning in classroom situations. It was found that good language learners could not be distinguished on the basis of observable behavior alone, although personality did seem to have an effect. It was also found that teachers did not treat these learners differently from other

students, although they could distinguish good language learners from learners who were not so effective (Johnson and Johnson, 1999).

In a groundbreaking study by Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco in the University of Toronto, Canada in 1978 several characteristic qualities of successful language learners were uncovered. Two of these characteristics include an ability to control the affective side of language learning and an active task approach. Subsequent research by Wenden & Rubin (1987) examined specific strategies used by learners. O'Malley & Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990) classified strategies according to their function. Some other researchers investigated variables related to strategy use, including cultural background (Levine, Reves & Leaver, 1996), gender (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Peacock & Ho, 2003), and motivation (Cohen, 1998; Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002). After three decades, research on language learning strategies has come full circle: Most scholars agree that an active task approach is more important than any single strategy (Chamot & Rubin, 1994; Dörnyei, 2005). Macaro (2001) concluded that “those learners who are proactive in their pursuit of language learning appear to learn best” (p. 264).

Although learning strategies have been in the scope of interest in the field of foreign language education for the last 40 years, a definite definition approved generally by the majority of the scholars in the literature has not come up yet. There is a variety of definitions emphasizing certain aspects of the language learning strategies. Cohen (1996) states that Second Language Learner Strategies encompass both second language learning and second language use strategies. Taken together, they constitute the steps or actions selected by learners either to improve the learning of a second language, the use of it, or both.

According to Cohen (1996) Language Use Strategies actually include retrieval strategies, rehearsal strategies, cover strategies, and communication strategies. What makes the definition for language learning and language use strategies broad is that it encompasses those actions that are clearly aimed at language learning, as well as those that may well lead to learning but which do not ostensibly have learning as their primary goal. In the coming section, this broad range of definitions of the language learning strategies will be discussed.

## 2.1. Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

A number of definitions of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) have been used by key figures in the field of foreign language education. One of the earliest definitions of LLS was put by Joan Rubin in 1970s. She uses the term learning strategies to mean "the techniques and devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (1975, p.43) in her seminal TESOL Quarterly article. According to her, some of the strategies which seem to be important are the following:

- (1) The good language learner may be a good guesser, that is, he gathers and stores information in an efficient manner so it can be easily retrieved. He may listen to a phrase, pick out the words he understands and infer the rest. He may actively look for clues to meaning—in the topic, setting, or attitudes of the speakers. His guessing strategy may be stratified from the more general to the specific so that he gets the most information from each question or sentence.
- (2) He is often willing to appear foolish in order to communicate and get his message across.
- (3) He will try out his knowledge by making up new sentences, thus bringing his newly acquired competence into use. I will give more details on good language learner strategies later in this paper, but it is important to recognize here that tests of aptitude are meant to find the minimal number of dimensions to predict success without detailing all of the many strategies involved. If the focus is to help students improve their abilities, then these strategies should be looked at in much greater detail (1975, p.43).

Rubin (1987, p.19) later elaborated her definition of LLS and wrote "language learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly".

Stern (1975 in Naiman & et al., 1996) differentiated the term "strategies" from "techniques" and defined the former as "general, more or less deliberate approaches" while the latter

was defined as “more specific, observable forms of language learning behavior”. With regard to these considerations, Stern (1975 in Naiman & et al., 1996) came up with a list of strategies employed by good language learners. These strategies were listed as follows:

1. **Planning Strategy:** A personal learning style or positive learning strategy.
2. **Active Strategy:** An active approach to the learning task.
3. **Empathic Strategy:** A tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and its speakers.
4. **Formal Strategy:** Technical know-how of how to tackle a language.
5. **Experimental Strategy:** A methodical but flexible approach, developing the new language into an ordered system and constantly revising it.
6. **Semantic Strategy:** Constant searching for meaning.
7. **Practice Strategy:** Willingness to practice.
8. **Communication Strategy:** Willingness to use language in real communication.
9. **Monitoring Strategy:** Self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use.
10. **Internalization Strategy:** Developing L2 more and more as a separate reference system and learning to think in it.

Another early attempt to define LLS was made by Bialystok (1978). She defined learning strategies as “optimal means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language” (O’Malley & Chamot, 1995, p. 10). Bialystok (1978) identified four categories of learning strategies in her model of second language learning:

- Inferencing,
- Monitoring,
- Formal Practicing and
- Functional Practicising.

According to Bialystok, the type of strategy used by the learner depends on the type of knowledge required for a given task. She discussed three types of knowledge: explicit linguistic knowledge, implicit linguistic knowledge and general knowledge of the world (O’Malley & Chamot, 1995).

Tarone (1980) defined LS as "an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language" (p. 419). She gave memorization, repetition with purpose of remembering, mnemonics, initiation of conversation with native speakers, inferencing and spelling as examples of language learning strategies. Wenden and Rubin (1987, p.19) define learning strategies as "... any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information." Richards and Platt (1992, p.209) state that learning strategies are "intentional behavior and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information." According to Stern (1992, p.261 in Hişmanoğlu, 2000), "the concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques."

Weinstein & Mayer (1986 in O'Malley & Chamot, 1995) addresses learning strategies from a cognitivist perspective. They defined learning strategies as behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process. This perspective of putting second language acquisition in a cognitivist framework pertains to the development and use of learning strategies in second language instruction. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1995), second language acquisition is best understood as a complex cognitive skill. This approach has several advantages. O'Malley and Chamot (1995) list some of these advantages as follows:

1. With considerable research in cognitive skill, language acquisition has occurred in various disciplines such as cognitive psychology and in the information processing aspects of computer sciences. By applying relevant theories and models developed in these other disciplines to the study of second language acquisition, a comprehensive and well-specified theoretical acquisition framework that is consistent with related work can be provided.
2. By viewing second language acquisition as a cognitive skill, the level of specificity and the dynamic or process orientation of models of skill acquisition allow us to provide a more detailed process view of second language acquisition than is provided by other models.

3. Language acquisition being accepted as a cognitive skill provides a mechanism for describing how language learning ability can be improved.
4. Such a view of language acquisition also has pedagogical benefits pertaining to the development and use of learning strategies in second language instruction

(Adapted from O'Malley and Chamot, 1995, p. 19)

As Griffiths (2008) put it wisely, by the mid-1980s, there was no consensus and considerable confusion regarding the definition of language learning strategies. Based on an earlier definition by Rigney in 1978 O'Malley and his colleagues provided a broad definition of language learning strategies as "any set of operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information" (Griffiths 2008, p.84). Later O'Malley and Chamot (1995, p. 1) defined the LS as "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information".

Building on work in her book for teachers, Oxford (1990) provides specific examples of LLS (i.e., "In learning ESL, Trang watches U.S. TV soap operas, guessing the meaning of new expressions and predicting what will come next") and this helpful definition: "Language learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferrable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990, p. 8). According to Oxford (1990), the main goal of employing LLS is to achieve the broad communicative competence. Later Oxford & Ehrman (1998 in Brown, 2007, p. 19) defined second language learning strategies as "specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques used by students to enhance their own learning."

Cohen (1998 in Fazeli 2011b, p. 126) defines LLSs as "the steps or actions selected consciously by learners either to improve the learning of a second language or the use of it or both". In this definition, the learners are given an active role to consciously select the ways to help their learning for the target language. Cohen believes that learners themselves select what LLSs must be used. The second point which is more interesting is the goal of use of LLSs which includes developing of the obtaining of L2 that involves all



skills of language and use of L2 skills in order to use that language. Such use can be on different levels and for various purposes. LLSs can either be used in the language classroom through the formal instructions to improve the learning of L2 or/and out of the classroom in real life situations to improve the use of L2.

Finally, Brown (2007, p. 119) gave one of the latest definitions for the concept as “the specific methods of approaching a problem or task, the modes of operation for achieving a particular end and the planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information.”

From these definitions, a change over time may be noted: from the early focus on the product of LSS (linguistic or sociolinguistic competence); there is now a greater emphasis on the processes and the characteristics of LLS. At the same time, we should note that LLS are distinct from learning styles, which refer more broadly to a learner's "consistent and rather enduring tendencies or preferences" (Brown, 2007, p. 119). However, there appears to be an obvious relationship between one's language learning style and his or her usual or preferred language learning strategies.

## **2.2. Classification of Language Learning Strategies**

There are literally hundreds of different, yet often interrelated, LLS. As Oxford (1990) developed a fairly detailed list of LLS in her taxonomy, it is useful to summarize these various taxonomies here.

Oxford (1994) divided almost two dozen L2 strategy classification systems into the following groups:

- (1) Systems related to successful language learners (Rubin, 1975);
- (2) Systems based on psychological functions (O'Malley & Chamot, 1995);

- (3) Linguistically based systems dealing with guessing, language monitoring, formal and functional practice (Bialystok, 1981) or with communication strategies like paraphrasing or borrowing (Tarone, 1983);
- (4) Systems related to separate language skills (Cohen, 1990); and
- (5) Systems based on different styles or types of learners (Sutter, 1989).

Since there are a wide variety of distinct strategy classifications, a coherent, well accepted system for describing these strategies does not exist (Oxford, 1994). This lack of coherence of typologies can be considered as a major problem in the research area of L2 learning strategies.

One of the first classification attempts of LLS was done by Rubin (1987 in Bekleyen, 2006). She divided the learning strategies into 7 categories. These are;

1. Guessing strategies: The strategies used by good language learners to find out the likely meaning and intent of the communication.
2. Strategies to start and to learn from communication: Good language learners are willing to start a communication and they use a variety of ways to get their messages across. These ways include gestures, circumlocution, using a cognate from L1 or other languages he knows, etc.
3. Strategies not to inhibit in case of a language outcome mistake: Good language learners do not inhibit when making a mistake. They are willing to appear foolish if reasonable communication results.
4. Strategies of focusing on form: Successful language learners do not only focus on communication only, but they also focus on the patterns of the target language. He constantly analyzes, categorizes and synthesizes the language input he receives. He tries to distinguish the relevant clues from the irrelevant ones.
5. Strategies for practicing: Good language learners practice pronunciation of the words and make up sentences. They look for opportunities to use the language by talking to native speakers, going for movies or attending cultural activities.
6. Strategies to monitor the progress: A good language learner monitors his own speech and the speech of the others. He constantly checks whether he

accomplishes the accuracy standards of the target language. He can learn from his own mistakes.

7. Strategies to attend the meaning: Good language learners are aware of the fact that in order to understand the message, it is not enough to pay attention to the grammar or surface structure of the language.

Rubin (1981 in O'Malley and Chamot, 1995) later elaborated her taxonomy by dividing strategies into mainly two broad categories: Strategies that directly affect learning and Processes that contribute indirectly to learning. Her direct strategies consist of;

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

According to Rubin (1981), the processes that contribute indirectly to learning are;

1. creating opportunities for practice and
2. producing tricks.

Rubin presented a typology of strategies in which she identified three types of strategies: Cognitive, Metacognitive and Social strategies. A summary of Rubin's classification of LLS is shown in Table 2.1.

Primary Strategy Classification	Representative Secondary Strategies	Representative Examples
Strategies that directly affect learning	Clarification / verification	Asks for an example of how to use a word or expression, repeats words to confirm understanding.
	Monitoring	Corrects errors in own/other's pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling, grammar, style.
	Memorization	Takes note of new items, pronounces out loud, finds a mnemonic, and writes items repeatedly.
	Guessing/inductive inferencing	Guesses meaning from key words, structures, pictures, context, etc.
	Deductive reasoning	Compares native/other language to target language.
		Groups words.
		Looks for rules of co-occurrence.
	Practice	Experiments with new sounds.
		Repeats sentences until pronounced easily.
		Listens carefully and tries to imitate.
Processes that contribute indirectly to learning	Creates opportunities for practice	Creates situation with native speaker.
		Initiates conversation with fellow students.
		Spends time in language lab, listening to TV, etc.
	Production tricks	Uses circumlocutions, synonyms, or cognates.
		Uses formulaic interaction.
		Contextualizes to clarify.

**Table 2.1 Classification of Learning Strategies by Rubin (Adapted from O'Malley and Chamot, 1995, p. 4)**

An alternative classification was proposed by Naiman (1978 in O'Malley & Chamot, 1995). Naiman et al. based his classification scheme by interviewing with 34 good language learners and an initial strategy scheme suggested by Stern in 1975 (O'Malley & Chamot, 1995). He identified five major strategies for language learning:

1. Active task approach:  
Good language learners (GLLs) are active in their response to learning situations; they intensify efforts where necessary; they practice regularly; they identify problems; they turn everyday life experiences into learning opportunities.
2. Realization of language as a system:  
GLLs refer to their native language judiciously and make comparisons; make guesses and inferences about language; respond to clues; systematize language.
3. Realization of language as means of communication:  
GLLs often concentrate on fluency rather than accuracy (especially in the early stages of learning); look for communicative opportunities; look for socio cultural meanings.
4. Management of affective demands:  
GLLs realize that learning a language involves emotional responses which they must take on board as part of their learning.
5. Monitoring of L2 performance:  
GLLs review their L2 and make adjustments.

The most frequently used techniques (Naiman et al., 1978) by Good Language Learners were:

1. having contact with native speakers.
2. listening to radio, T.V., records, movies, commercials etc.
3. reading anything: magazines, newspapers, professional articles, comics, etc.
4. repeating aloud after teacher and / or native speaker.
5. making up bilingual vocabulary charts and memorizing them.
6. following the rules as given in grammar books or text books.
7. having pen-pals.

An overview of Naiman's taxonomy is shown in Table 2.2.

Primary Strategy Classification	Representative Secondary Strategies	Representative Examples
1. Active Task Approach	Responds positively to learning opportunity or seeks and exploits learning environments	Student acknowledges need for a structured learning environment and takes a course prior to immersing him/herself in target language
	Adds related language learning activities to regular classroom program	Reads additional items
		Listens to tapes
	Practices	Writes down words to memorize
		Looks at speakers' mouth and repeats
2. Realization of language as a system	Analyzes individual problems	Reads alone to hear sounds
	Makes L1/L2 comparisons	Uses cognates, Using what is already known
	Analyzes target language to make Inferences	Uses rules to generate possibilities
	Makes use of fact that language is a system	Relates new dictionary words to others in same category
3. Realization of language as a means of communication and interaction	Emphasizes fluency over accuracy	Does not hesitate to speak, Uses circumlocutions
	Seeks communicative situations with L2 speakers	Communicates whenever possible, Establishes close personal contact with L2 native speakers, Writes to pen pals
4. Management of affective demands	Finds socio-cultural meanings	Memorizes courtesies and phrases
	Copes with affective demands in learning	Overcomes inhibition to speak, is able to laugh at own mistakes, is prepared for difficulties
5. Monitoring L2 performance	Constantly revises L2 system by testing inferences and asking L2 native speakers for feedback	Generates sentences and looks for reactions, Looks for ways to improve so as not to repeat mistakes

**Table 2.2 Classification of Learning Strategies by Naiman (Adapted from O'Malley and Chamot, 1995, p. 5)**

Another attempt in 1970s to recognize learners' problem solving behavior during target language communication was done by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976 in Nakatani, 2010). They labeled these behaviors as communication strategies. The studies of Faerch and Kasper (1983 in Nakatani, 2010) divided the communication strategies into two types: *Achievement strategies* and *reduction strategies*. Achievement strategies enable learners to work on an alternative plan for reaching the original goal by means of whatever resources are available. Reduction strategies let learners avoid solving a communication problem and allow them to give up on conveying the original message. In other words achievement strategies cover compensatory and retrieval strategies.

Other researchers had similar taxonomies describing the behaviors and habits of good language learners. Stern (1975 in Cohen & Macaro, 2011) listed the top ten strategies of the good language learner. These are:

1. A personal learning style or positive learning strategies.
2. An active approach to the task.
3. A tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and empathy with its speakers.
4. Technical know-how about how to tackle a language.
5. Strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system and/or revising this system progressively.
6. Constantly searching for meaning.
7. Willingness to practice.
8. Willingness to use language in real communication.
9. Self monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use.
10. Developing the target language more and more as a separate reference system and learning to think in it.

(Cohen & Macaro, 2011, p. 11-12)

The list that Stern presented in 1975 is criticized for being conceptual and speculative rather than being based on empirical investigation. Cohen & Macaro (2011) stated that Stern's main source for these strategies was his own experience as a teacher, together with a review of relevant literature.

Whereas Rubin (1987) had divided her strategies into two groups (Direct and Indirect), O'Malley and Chamot (1995) identified 15 strategies which they divided them into three main categories. They labeled them as Metacognitive Strategies, Cognitive Strategies and Social/affective Strategies. Although some elements of the two taxonomies are similar, by separating Social strategies out into a group of their own, O'Malley et al. highlighted the role of interactive strategies in language learning, an important insight, especially at a time when the communicative approach to language teaching and learning was gaining wide acceptance (Griffiths, 2008).

In O'Malley & Chamot's taxonomy, cognitive strategies operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning. Metacognitive strategies are higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of learning activity. Social/affective strategies involve either interaction with another person or ideational control over affect. O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) alternative path for the classification of learning skills divided the LS into three categories depending on the level or type of processing involved. These categories are labeled as;

1. *Metacognitive Strategies*: Higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity. They are applicable to a variety of receptive or productive language learning tasks. The processes that would be included as metacognitive strategies are:
  - a. Selective attention for special aspects of a learning task, as in planning to listen for key words or phrases.
  - b. Planning the organization of either written or spoken discourse.
  - c. Monitoring or reviewing attention to a task, monitoring comprehension for information that should be remembered, or monitoring production while it is occurring.
  - d. Evaluating or checking comprehension after completion of a receptive language activity, or evaluating language production after it has taken place.
  
2. *Cognitive Strategies*: They operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning. Weinstein and Mayer (1986 in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990) grouped these strategies under three groupings:



- Rehearsal,
- Organization and,
- Elaboration processes.

Typical strategies that can be included under cognitive strategies are;

- a. Rehearsal or repeating the names of items or objects that have been heard.
- b. Organization, or grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes.
- c. Inferencing, or using information in oral text to guess meanings of new linguistic items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.
- d. Summarizing, or intermittently synthesizing what one has heard to ensure the information has been retained.
- e. Deduction, or applying rules to understand language.
- f. Imagery, or using visual images to understand and remember new verbal information.
- g. Transfer, or using known linguistic information to facilitate a new learning task.
- h. Elaboration –linking ideas contained in new information or integrating new ideas with known information.

3. *Social/affective Strategies*: They represent a broad grouping that involves either interaction with another person or ideational control over affect. The strategies that would be useful in listening comprehension are:

- a. Cooperation, or working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity.
- b. Questioning for clarification, or eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples.
- c. Self-talk, or using mental control to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task.

An overview of these three types of strategies, namely metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective is summarized in Table 2.3.

	<b>Representative Strategies</b>	<b>Definitions</b>
Metacognitive Strategies	Selective attention	Focusing on special aspects of a learning task, as in planning to listen for key words or phrases.
	Planning	Planning for the organization of either written or spoken discourse.
	Monitoring	Reviewing attention to a task, monitoring comprehension for information that should be remembered, or monitoring production while it is occurring.
	Evaluation	Checking comprehension after completion of a receptive language activity, or evaluating language production after it has taken place.
Cognitive Strategies	Rehearsal	Repeating the names of items or objects that have been heard.
	Organization	Grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes.
	Inferencing	Using information in oral text to guess meanings of new linguistic items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.
	Summarizing	Intermittently synthesizing what one has heard to ensure the information has been retained.
	Deducing	Applying rules to understand language.
	Imagery	Using visual images to understand and remember new verbal information.
	Transfer	Using known linguistic information to facilitate a new learning task.
	Elaboration	Linking ideas contained in new information or integrating new ideas with known information.
Social/affective Strategies	Cooperation	Working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity.
	Questioning for clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples.
	Self-talk	Using mental control to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task.

**Table 2.3 Classification of Learning Strategies by O'Malley and Chamot (Adapted from O'Malley and Chamot, 1995, p. 46)**

One of the most detailed taxonomy on language learning strategies was offered by Rebecca Oxford (1990). Oxford states that all “All appropriate language learning strategies are oriented toward the broad goal of communicative competence. Development of communicative competence requires realistic interaction among learners using meaningful, contextualized language. LS help learners participate actively in such authentic communication” (1990, p. 8). To achieve this goal, Oxford divided the LLS mainly into two: direct strategies and indirect strategies. She then subdivided these two broad areas into 6 subgroups. In Oxford's taxonomy, Memory, Cognitive and Compensation strategies are labeled under the direct strategies. The Indirect strategies are Metacognitive, Affective and Social strategies. The details of these strategies are as follows:

### **2.2.1. Memory-related Strategies**

They help the learner link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding. These are usually related to metamemory; an individual's knowledge of and awareness of memory, or of anything pertinent to information storage and retrieval (Flavell and Wellman, 1977). For example, a person has metamemory if he [or she] knows that some things are easier to remember than others, is aware that one item is on the verge of recall, while another is wholly irretrievable at present.

Various memory-related strategies enable the learner to store and retrieve information in an orderly string (e.g., acronyms), while other techniques create learning and retrieval via sounds (e.g., rhyming), images (e.g., a mental picture of the word itself or the meaning of the word), a combination of sounds and images (e.g., the keyword method), body movement (e.g., total physical response), mechanical means (e.g., flashcards), or location (e.g., on a page or blackboard).

One would be using memory-related strategies by creating mental linkages (mnemonics), such as grouping and placing words in context; applying images and sounds to represent things in memory; structured reviewing; using mechanical techniques such as physical response, etc. Mnemonics aim to translate information into a form that the human brain can retain better than its original form.

### **2.2.2. Cognitive Strategies**

According to Oxford (1998), cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in indirect ways, e.g., through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in naturalistic settings, and practicing structures and sounds formally.

One would be using cognitive strategies by practicing and repeating new words, deductive reasoning, translating, analyzing; taking notes, highlighting, summarizing, imitating native speakers, starting conversations in the target language (TL), practicing sounds, using words in different ways, watching TV shows or going to movies spoken in the TL, reading for pleasure in the TL, skimming passages first then going back and reading them carefully, looking for words in native language that are similar to new words being studied, trying to find patterns, finding the meaning of a word by chunking, and trying to avoid literal translation.

### **2.2.3. Compensation Strategies**

They help the learner make up for missing knowledge. Those strategies involve guessing from the context and reading, using synonyms and “talking around” the missing word to aid speaking and writing, selecting a topic for discussion based on one’s knowledge of the language and shaping the discussion to avoid unknown vocabulary, guessing at words based on context, using gestures, and coining words to communicate.

One would be using compensation strategies by making wise guesses in listening and reading, making up new words, reading without looking up every word, trying to guess what people will say next, replacing words one cannot find with synonyms or descriptions, and, strictly for speaking, using gestures or pause words.

### **2.2.4. Metacognitive Strategies**

They are employed for managing the overall learning process. Several studies of EFL learners reached the conclusion that metacognitive strategies are often strong

predictors of L2 proficiency (Oxford, 1998). These strategies are used to oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning. They involve various processes such as planning, prioritizing, and self-management.

One would be using metacognitive strategies by identifying one's own learning style preferences and needs, planning for an L2 task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and schedule, looking for people to talk to in the TL, monitoring mistakes, evaluating task success, evaluating the success of any type of learning strategy, paying attention, setting goals and objectives, looking for opportunities to read, and evaluating one's own performance and progress.

#### **2.2.5. Affective Strategies**

These are strategies such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level and trying to control them, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk.

One would be using affective strategies by using music or laughter as part of the learning process, making positive statements about one's own progress, discussing feelings, trying to relax whenever one feels afraid of using the target language, encouraging oneself to speak the target language even when one is afraid of making mistakes, writing down feelings in a learning diary, and talking to someone else about how one feels when learning the target language.

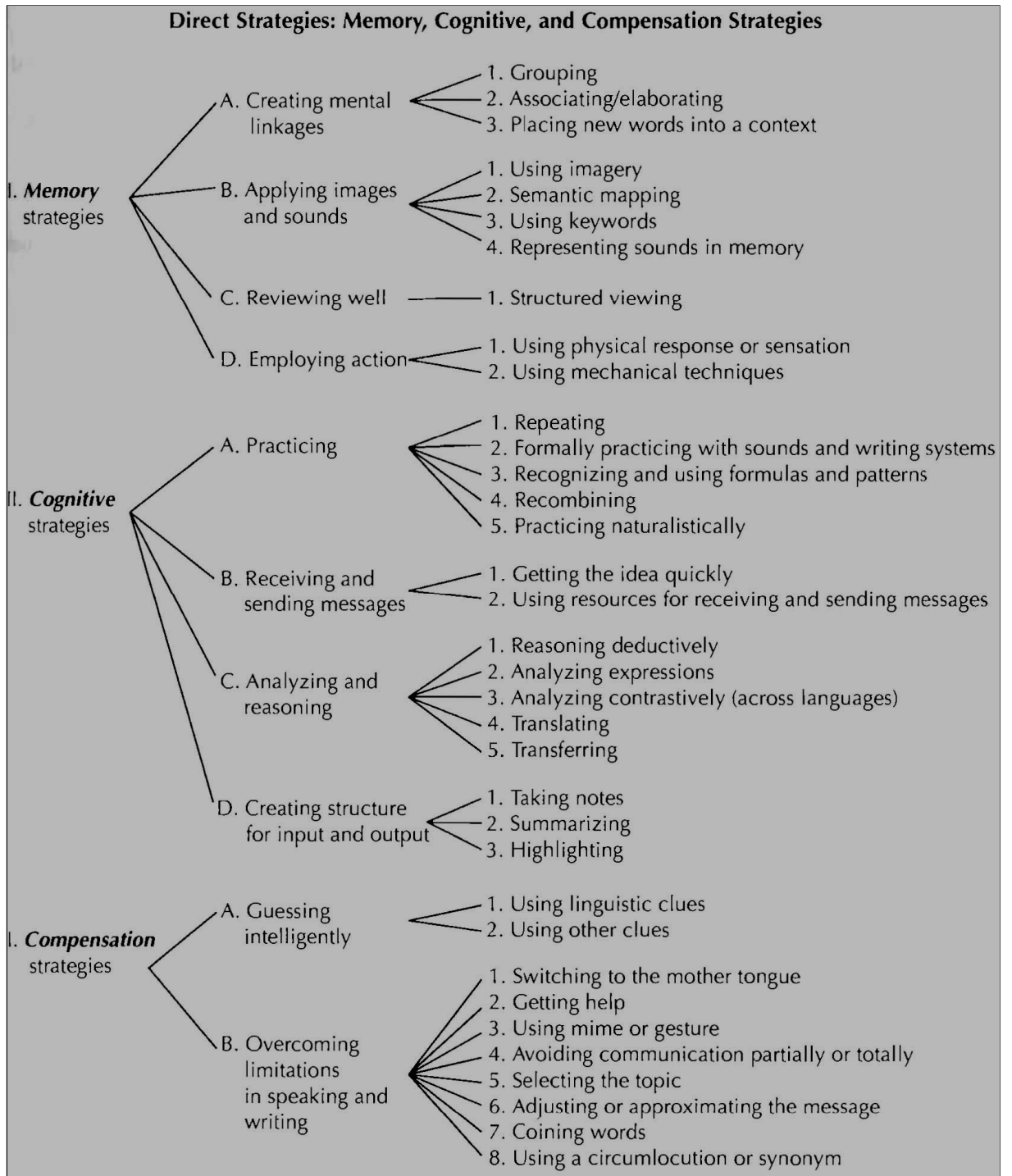
#### **2.2.6. Social Strategies**

They help the learner work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language. Social strategies are those activities learners engage in which afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practice their knowledge. Although these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute indirectly to learning since they do not lead directly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language (Wenden and Rubin, 1987, p. 23-27)

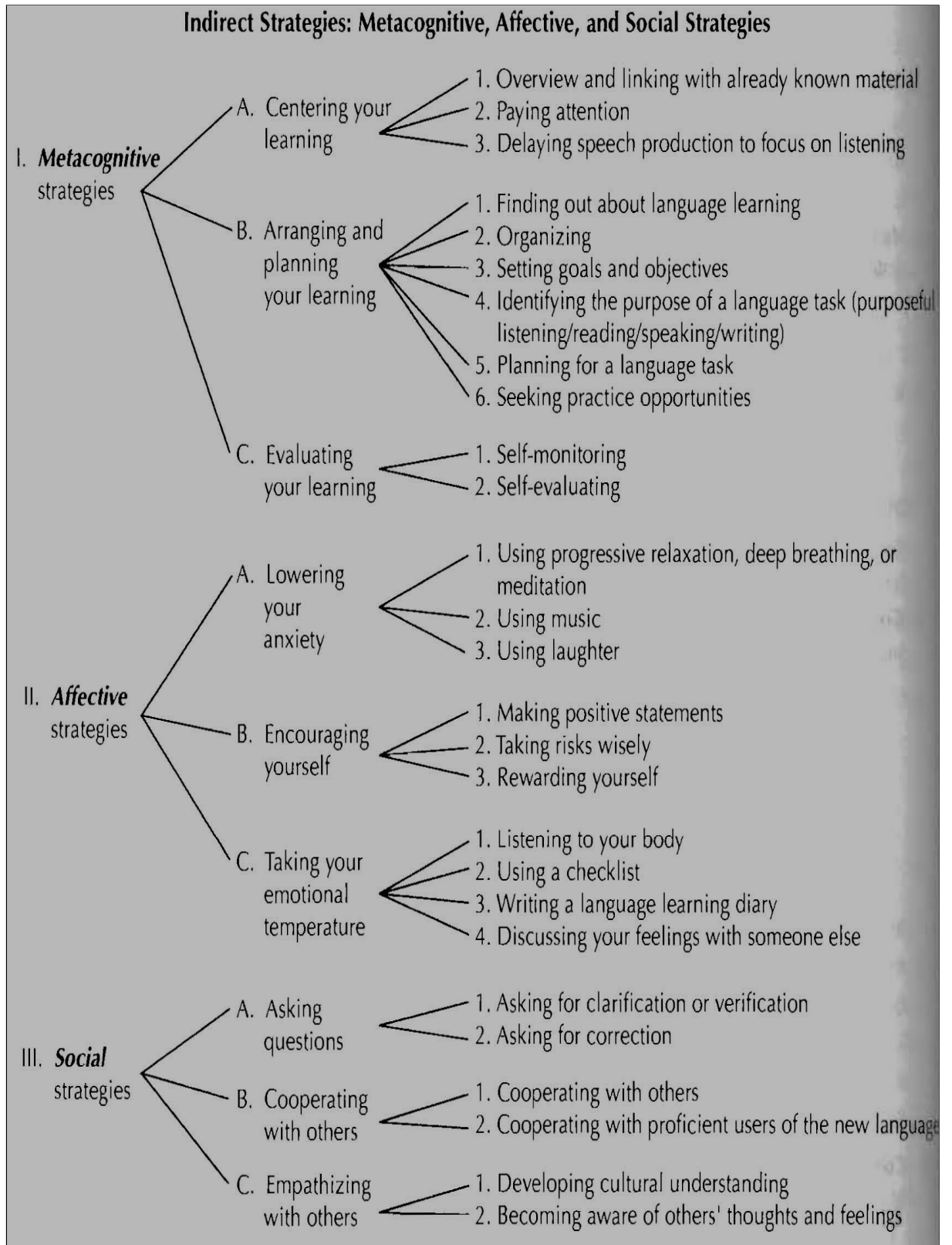
One would be using affective strategies by seeking correction, asking for clarification, working/practicing with peers, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, exploring cultural and social norms, and developing cultural understanding.

Furthermore, Oxford (1990, p. 17) devised taxonomy of language learning strategies in which she divided the strategies into two classes: direct strategies and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are the ones used directly in a language learning situation, and they are divided into three subclasses: memory strategies (strategies to store and retrieve aspects of the target language by creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing, and acting), cognitive strategies (strategies for using the language and for understanding how it works, like practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output), and compensation strategies (strategies for using the language despite gaps in knowledge such as guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations). Indirect strategies are the ones used to manage learning in general, not specifically the target language. Those strategies include metacognitive strategies (strategies for centering, arranging, planning, organizing, and evaluating learning), affective strategies (strategies for working with others to get input and practice, like asking questions, and empathizing with others).

An overview of Oxford's above mentioned taxonomy of direct and indirect strategies is shown in Figures 2.1 and 2.2.

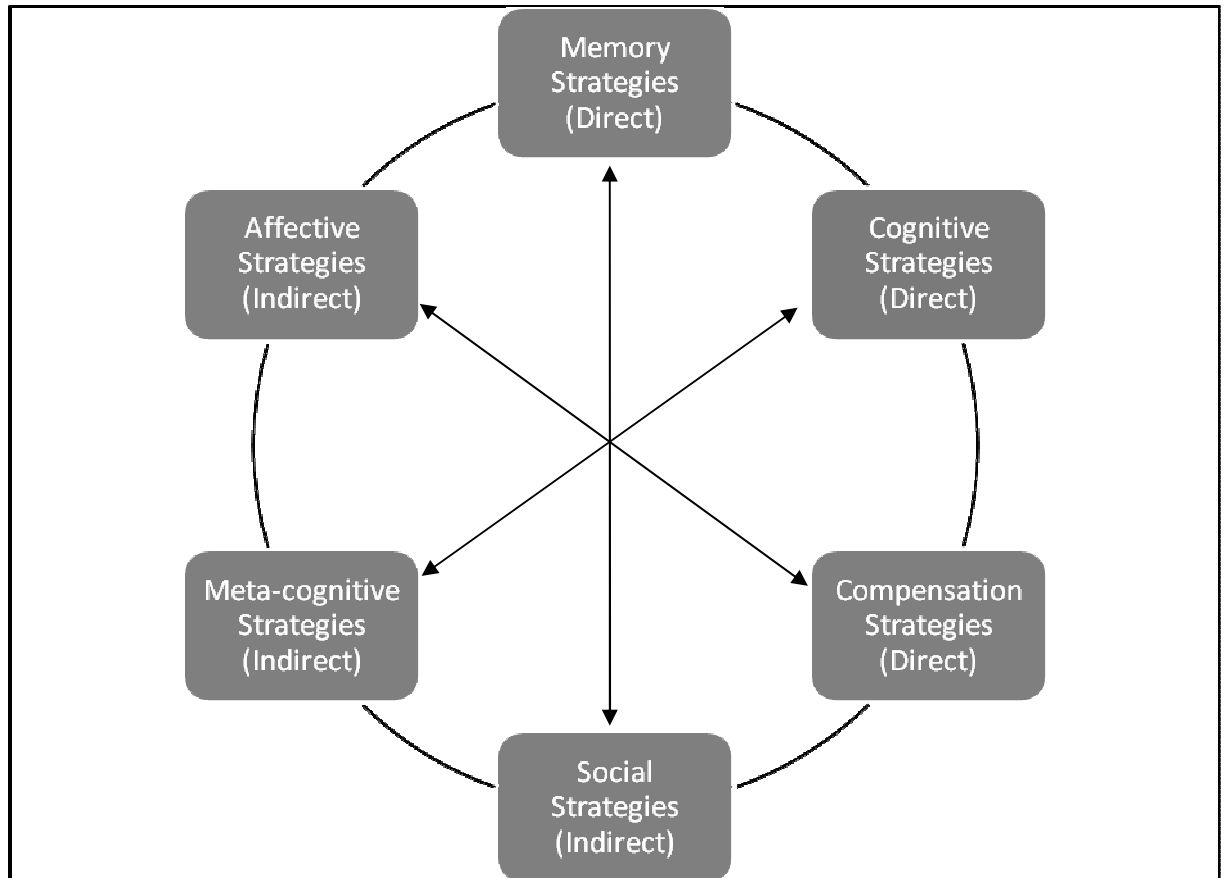


**Figure 2.1. Oxford's (1990) Taxonomy of Direct Strategies**



**Figure 2.2. Oxford's (1990) Taxonomy of Indirect Strategies**





**Figure 2.3 The Interrelation of Language Learning Strategies**

(Adapted from Oxford, 1990, p. 15)

Brown (2007) separated the second language strategies into two: learning strategies and communication strategies. Learning strategies deal with the input of the target language. That is to processing, storage and retrieval of the messages received in the second language. Communication strategies are related to the output of the language. That is the expression of meaning and message delivery to others.

While the learning strategies mainly deal with the receptive domain of the target language, Brown (2007) stated that the communication strategies are related to the employment of the verbal and non-verbal mechanisms for the productive communication of information. Though Brown is well aware of the fact that it is difficult to distinguish between comprehension and production in linguistic interaction, he favors a distinction of strategies to “understand the nature of strategies, especially for pedagogical purposes” (Brown, 2007, p. 137).

Based on Dörnyei's (1995 in Brown, 2007) taxonomy, Brown (2007) divides the communication strategies into two: avoidance strategies and compensatory strategies. Avoidance strategies consist of

- Lexical or syntactic avoidance,
- Phonological avoidance,
- Topic avoidance.

Compensatory strategies are used to compensate for the missing knowledge in the communication. They consist of prefabricated patterns, code switching or appeal to authority. A detailed list of avoidance and compensatory strategies is revealed in Table 2.4.

<b>Avoidance Strategies</b>	
<b>1</b>	Message abandonment: Leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties
<b>2</b>	Topic avoidance: Avoiding topic areas or concepts that pose language difficulties
<b>Compensatory Strategies</b>	
<b>3</b>	Circumlocution: Describing or exemplifying the target object of action (e.g., the thing you open bottles with for corkscrew)
<b>4</b>	Approximation: Using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible (e.g. ship for sailboat)
<b>5</b>	Use of all-purpose words: Extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g., the overuse of thing, stuff, what-do-you-call-it, thingie)
<b>6</b>	Word Coinage: Creating a none existing L2 word based on a supposed rule (e.g., vegetarianist for vegetarian)
<b>7</b>	Prefabricated patterns: Using memorized stock phrases, usually for "survival" purposes (e.g., Where is the or Comment allez -vous? where the morphological components are not known to the learner)
<b>8</b>	Nonlinguistic Signals: Mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation
<b>9</b>	Literal translation: Translating literally a lexical item, idiom, compound word, or structure from L1 to L2
<b>10</b>	Foreignizing: Using an L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology (e.g. adding to it a L2 suffix)
<b>11</b>	Code-switching: Using a L1 word with L1 pronunciation or a L3 word with L3 pronunciation while speaking in L2
<b>12</b>	Appeal for help: Asking for aid from the interlocutor either directly (e.g., What do you call ... ?) or indirectly (e.g. rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression)
<b>13</b>	Stalling or time-gaining strategies: Using fillers or hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., well, now let's see, uh, as a matter of fact)

**Table 2.4 Communication Strategies (Adapted from Brown, 2007, p. 138)**

### 2.3. Features of Language Learning Strategies

Learning strategies are the conscious thoughts and behaviors used by learners to help them better understand, learn and remember the target language information (Nakatani, 2010). According to Oxford (1990), language learning strategies cover the following features:

1. Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
2. Allow learners to become more self-directed.
3. Expand the role of teachers.
4. Are problem-oriented.
5. Are specific actions taken by the learner.
6. Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
7. Support learning both directly and indirectly.
8. Are not always observable.
9. Are often conscious.
10. Can be taught.
11. Are flexible.
12. Are influenced by a variety of factors.

(Oxford, 1990, p. 9)

The main aim of the language learning strategies is to make the learner reach communicative competence in general. Canale and Swain's (1980) model defines communicative competence in four comprehensive aspects. These are:

1. *Grammatical competence* or *accuracy*: It is the degree to which the language user has mastered the linguistic code, including vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, spelling and word formation.
2. *Sociolinguistic Competence*: It is the extent to which utterances can be used or understood appropriately in various social contexts. It includes knowledge of speech acts such as persuading, apologizing, and describing.
3. *Discourse Competence*: It is the ability to combine ideas to achieve cohesion in form and coherence in thought, above the level of the single sentence.

4. *Strategic Competence*: It is the ability to use strategies like gestures or “talking around” an unknown word in order to overcome limitations in language knowledge.

(Oxford, 1990, p. 7)

Oxford (1990) claims that communicative competence is developed through realistic interaction among learners using meaningful and contextualized language. The role of learning strategies is to help the learners participate actively in such authentic communication. Learning strategies operate in both general and specific ways to encourage the development of communicative competence. Oxford (1990) gave a clear explanation of how the various LLS given in her taxonomy help the language learners to become more communicatively competent. The effect of these LLS can be stated as follows:

1. *Metacognitive Strategies*: They help learners to regulate their own cognition and to focus, plan and evaluate their progress, as they move toward communicative competence.
2. *Affective Strategies*: They develop the self-confidence and perseverance needed for learners to involve themselves actively in language learning, a requirement for attaining communicative competence.
3. *Social Strategies*: They provide increased interaction and more empathetic understanding, two qualities necessary to reach communicative competence.
4. *Cognitive Strategies*: Certain cognitive strategies such as analyzing, and particular memory strategies like the keyword technique are highly useful for understanding and recalling information. These are important functions in the process of becoming competent in the target language.
5. *Compensation Strategies*: They aid learners in overcoming knowledge gaps and continuing to communicate authentically; thus these strategies help communicative competence to grow.

(Oxford, 1990, p. 9)

Apart from Oxford’s communicative competence goal, there are other scholars in the field attributing various roles for the LLS. For example Kitakawa (2008) offers a

comprehensive list for the features of the LLS in second language learning. His list includes the following features:

- Language Learning Strategies have a possibility to make language learning easier and thus contribute to language acquisition (competence and performance).
- Language Learning Strategies are what learners can use consciously according to need and then allow them to become more responsible and self-directed.
- Some language learning strategies are behavioral (and, therefore observable) while others are mental (and, therefore not observable).
- Some language learning strategies contribute directly while others contribute indirectly to interlanguage development.
- Language Learning Strategies are not distinguished by being good or not, they are either effective or not depending on the language learner.
- Language Learning Strategies allow students to properly use the strategies with appropriate guidance.
- Language Learning Strategies use varies as a result of learner's internal factors (sex, age, belief, aptitude, motivation, personality, learning experience, proficiency, cognitive/learning style, learning purpose, learning stage, cultural background, intelligence, etc.) and external factors (target language, task, environment, etc.)
- Language Learning Strategies are used single or in combination (interdependent).

Martinez (1996) gave a concise but comprehensive list for the features of language learning strategies in second/foreign language learning. According to this list, five main features can be inferred from the literature reviewed:

1. Strategies play an important role in second language learning as they promote and facilitate language learning.
2. Learners themselves are the actual agents in their use and choice of strategies as they are directly affected by them.

3. Language learning, as learning in general, has to be internalized and strategies are in fact problem-solving mechanisms or techniques used by learners to cope with the complex process of learning.
4. Learning strategies are not always observable to the human eye. This explains why foreign language teachers, in general, are not conscious of them,
5. Strategies are flexible and it is logical to think that they can be taught and learners can be trained in their management. As a consequence of that, it is possible to speak of “strategy training” or “learner training” as the techniques used by teachers to make learners aware of the existence of their own strategies and train them in their practice.

(Martinez, 1996, p. 104-105)

Actually all the features of the language learning strategies mentioned above are relevant to the main purpose of the LLS in the field of second language learning and teaching. Cohen (1996) and his colleagues stated this goal as of helping learners improve their knowledge and understanding of a target language. Taking this main goal into consideration, the importance of LLS for L2 Learning/Teaching is going to be discussed in the next section.

#### **2.4. The Importance of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) for L2 Learning/Teaching**

Strategy training is defined as the explicit teaching of how, when and why students should employ FL learning strategies to enhance their efforts at reaching language program goals (Cohen, 1998; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989 in Chen, 2007). With the shift of pedagogic focus from teacher-centered approaches in foreign language instruction to the learner’s active role in language learning (Alptekin, 2007), researchers have been investigating the likely role of strategy training to compensate for the lack of learners’ awareness of the cognitive tools and strategies available to them. Dansereau (1978 in Chen 2007) reported that a large number of students including the college level lack sufficient awareness of alternative strategies that might help them overcome learning difficulties. This insufficiency likely prevents them to come up with new strategies when encountering new learning contexts.

Since the ultimate goal of language learning strategies training is to empower students by allowing them to take control of the language learning process (Cohen, 1998 in Chen, 2007), the need for strategy training is justified in terms of the general trend in pedagogy towards a more learner centered paradigm.

The results of the study conducted by Andrew D. Cohen, Susan J. Weaver, and Tao-Yuan Li in the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition in University of Minnesota in June 1996 proved a positive role in favor of a Strategy Based Instruction. An explicit instruction of language strategies use helped the students gain improvements on their performance of the speaking skills of the target languages they were studying. An explicit description, discussion, and reinforcement of strategies in the classroom can have a direct positive effect on student outcomes. Another study by Dörnyei (1995 in Cohen & et.al, 1996) revealed results in favor of providing instruction in the use of strategies for speaking in a foreign language.

According to Oxford (1990), EFL and ESL learners use metacognitive strategies less often than cognitive strategies. Research conducted by O'Malley (1985 in Oxford, 1990) and Chamot (1987 in Oxford, 1990) reported that students use only a limited number of metacognitive strategies for planning strategies the most frequently employed and self evaluation or self monitoring the least. Likewise university and military foreign language students in some studies (Oxford, 1990) were found out to employ certain metacognitive strategies such as being prepared and using time well, but not employing some other crucial metacognitive strategies like evaluating their progress accurately and seeking practice opportunities. The research findings revealed that learners obviously need to learn more about learning strategies that might be useful for them.

## **2.5. Using Language Learning Strategies (LLS) in the Classroom**

Weaver and Cohen (1994 in Cohen & et.al, 1996) reported a number of ways to provide strategy instruction for learners. The language strategies teaching instruction can be through general study skills courses, peer tutoring, research-oriented training, videotaped mini-courses, awareness training, strategy workshops, the insertion of strategies into language textbooks, and the integration of strategies directly into the foreign language classroom. According to the research findings conducted in the



University of Minnesota (Cohen & et.al, 1996) various short-term interventions (e.g., periodic workshops for students on strategies for reading, learning vocabulary, speaking, etc.) had only short-term effects at best. It can therefore be assumed safely that the most effective program for strategy training would most likely be one of providing learners with a broad range of strategies as a regular feature of classroom instruction. Such a program should begin with intensive teacher development and then rely on the teachers to provide strategies-based instruction for their students in the foreign language classroom.

The language learning strategies employed by the language learners are context adaptive. The contextual factors such as self-beliefs and social support have an effect on the selection and implementation of the strategies employed by the target language learners. For instance, in a study carried out in a Midwestern U.S. University (Bown, 2009), 2 groups of students taking Russian courses were investigated in terms of the language strategies they employed. The first group of students was enrolled in conventional, teacher-based classrooms. The second group, however, was enrolled in a self-instructed language learning program. The students in this second individualized program received a set of materials including textbooks, relevant audio-video materials and a specially prepared guide book to help them use the course materials and procedures. According to the findings of the study, self regulation of learning in the mentioned context required the learners to structure the learning environment to meet their needs and manage their emotional responses to individualized language learning. Moreover, self-regulation of learning in the learning context required that learners

- structure the learning environment to meet their needs and
- manage their emotional responses to individualized language learning.

According to Saleh (2012), many teachers experimenting and integrating learning strategies in their teaching are convinced that strategies can be taught through direct instruction and over time students will maintain and transfer them to new tasks when necessary.

Research indicates that more successful language learners are aware of the strategies they use and why they use them (O'Malley and Chamot, 1995; Green and Oxford, 1995, p. 262 in Saleh, 2012). These learners generally tailor their learning strategies to

the language task and to their own personal needs as learners, as well (Wenden, 1991, p. 13).

Ellis and Sinclair (1994) suggest that learners can achieve their goals by focusing their attention on the process (i.e. on how to learn rather than what to learn) so that they can become more effective learners and take on more responsibility for their own learning. The opportunity to continuously investigate learners' working styles while they are studying offers an ideal setting for investigating important questions about learners' strategies (Jamieson and Chapelle, 1987 in Saleh, 2012).

Foreign or second language learners are often unaware of their strategies, so teachers have to raise such awareness and teach appropriate strategies taking into account that:

- Strategies teaching should start at the beginning levels by providing them in the students' first language.
- Strategies should be integrated within the curriculum rather than taught as separate entity.
- Teachers should identify strategies by name, describe them and model them.
- Students need to have experience with a variety of strategies to be able to choose the one that works with them well.
- In case of failure in language learning, students need to be assured that their failure may not be due to lack of intelligence but to lack in choosing appropriate strategies.

Saleh (2012) believes that before applying LLS in classroom the teacher should:

1. Investigate the teaching-learning situation and they have to take into account their students' aptitudes, attitudes, needs, and interests; also they should consider learners' motivations and attitudes concerning the learning of new language and the improvement of existing ones (Oxford, 1990).
2. Consider their teaching methods and how to enhance their students' LLS, the choice of strategies for training. The strategy choice should be based on the needs of the learners and various strategies with different degrees of difficulty should be applied.

3. Adapt the syllabus and integrate the LLS in the teaching learning context. The teacher has to prepare materials and activities for training strategies. Learners can also contribute to the materials collections or development.
4. Consider how strategies should be trained.

Research suggests that teachers can succeed in training learners to use Language Learning Strategies through combining explicit and implicit means (Green and Oxford, 1995 in Saleh, 2012; O'Malley and Chamot, 1995). Strategies should be trained using a coherent, step-by-step model. Strategy training or learner training must deal with issues like degree of motivation (high or low), kind of motivation (instrumental, integrative, etc., related to purpose for language learning), and attitudes (toward self, teacher, peers, target language, and target culture)" (Oxford, 1992).

Teachers should create a learning environment where learners feel they can experiment with their language learning (Huang and Van Naerssen, 1987 in Saleh, 2012; Ellis and Sinclair, 1994). Before they ask their students to reflect on their learning, teachers have to reflect on their teaching-learning context. They can ask themselves questions such as

*"Is there a conflict between classroom activities I favor and those my learners prefer? Do my best learners share certain strategy preferences that distinguish them from less efficient learners?"* (Nunan, 1991).

Training in metacognitive strategies should include both awareness raising and reflection on the nature of learning and training in the strategies/skills necessary to plan, monitor and evaluate learning activities. Teachers can ask students to reflect on how the strategies facilitate their learning process and encourage self-evaluation and reflection by asking students to assess the effectiveness of strategies used.

Researchers in LLS proposed the following classroom strategy training that the teacher can apply within the context of language tasks (Oxford, 1994, Cohen, 2003; Winograd and Hare, 1988 in Saleh, 2012). These propositions were as follows:

1. Explain students that you will be showing them specific techniques that they can use on their own to improve their English. Inform them that many of these techniques were suggested by successful language learners, and that if they use them, they too will be successful language learners.
2. Tell students why they are learning about the strategy. Explaining the purpose of the lesson and its potential benefits seems to be a necessary step for moving from teacher control to student self-control of learning.
3. Describe, model and give examples of potentially useful strategies.
4. Teach the strategy in conjunction with a typical class activity, such as listening comprehension, pronunciation drills, grammar practice, or reading and writing lessons.
5. Elicit additional examples from students based on the students' own learning experiences.
6. Delineate appropriate circumstances under which the strategy may be employed. Teachers may describe inappropriate instances for using the strategy.
7. Lead small-group and whole-class discussion about strategies.
8. After the strategy has been practiced in class, ask students to practice it on their own outside of class. Suggest specific situations in which they could practice the strategy, and ask for their own suggestions for additional situations.
9. Encourage students to experiment with a broad range of strategies.
10. Integrate strategies into everyday class material, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice.
11. Have students report on their use of the strategy outside of class.
12. Remind students about using a learning strategy when you introduce new material and make assignments.
13. Check with students after exercise or assignment to find out if they remembered to use a learning strategy. Show students how to evaluate their successful / unsuccessful use of the strategy, including suggestions for fix-up strategies to resolve remaining problems.

Not every scholar in the field is in favor of the strategy training in an EFL classroom. Stephen Krashen, the American linguist from the University of Southern California, believes that the main factor in foreign language teaching is providing compelling and comprehensible input to learners (personal talk, Istanbul - 20 February 2011). He stated that "*Good students are not because they study, but because their personal interests overlap with the course*". He claimed that real learning occurs by trial. Therefore, rather than focusing on an explicit strategy teaching in the language classroom, teachers should make sure that the content of the course is compelling, interesting enough for the learners.

The appropriate contexts and classes for LLS training based on the above mentioned facts will be discussed in the next section.

### **2.5.1. Models for LLS Training**

Strategy training is defined as the explicit teaching of how, when and why students should employ FL learning strategies to enhance their efforts at reaching language program goals (Cohen, 1998; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989 in Chen, 2007). With the shift of pedagogic focus from teacher-centered approaches in foreign language instruction to the learner's active role in language learning (Alptekin, 2007), researchers have been investigating the likely role of strategy training to compensate for the lack of learners' awareness of the cognitive tools and strategies available to them. Dansereau (1978 in Chen 2007) reported that a large number of students including the college level lack sufficient awareness of alternative strategies that might help them overcome learning difficulties. This insufficiency likely prevents them to come up with new strategies when encountering new learning contexts.

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The results of the study conducted by Andrew D. Cohen, Susan J. Weaver, and Tao-Yuan Li in the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition in University of Minnesota in June 1996 proved a positive role in favor of a SBI. An explicit instruction

of language strategies use helped the students gain improvements on their performance of the speaking skills of the target languages they were studying. An explicit description, discussion, and reinforcement of strategies in the classroom can have a direct positive effect on student outcomes. Another study by Dörnyei (1995 in Cohen & et.al, 1996) revealed results in favor of providing instruction in the use of strategies for speaking in a foreign language.

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Weaver and Cohen (1994 in Cohen & et.al, 1996) reported a number of ways to provide strategy instruction for learners. The language strategies teaching instruction can be through general study skills courses, peer tutoring, research-oriented training, videotaped mini-courses, awareness training, strategy workshops, the insertion of strategies into language textbooks, and the integration of strategies directly into the foreign language classroom. According to the research findings conducted in the University of Minnesota (Cohen & et.al, 1996) various short-term interventions (e.g., periodic workshops for students on strategies for reading, learning vocabulary, speaking, etc.) had only short-term effects at best. It can therefore be assumed safely that the most effective program for strategy training would most likely be one of providing learners with a broad range of strategies as a regular feature of classroom instruction. Such a program should begin with intensive teacher development and then rely on the teachers to provide strategies-based instruction for their students in the foreign language classroom.

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Cohen (2003) mentioned a variety of instructional models for foreign language strategy training that have already been developed and implemented in a variety of educational settings. He described seven of these as below:

- 1. General Study Skills Courses.** These courses are sometimes intended for students with academic difficulties but can also target successful students who want to improve their study habits. Many general academic skills can be transferred to the process of learning a foreign language, such as using flash cards, overcoming anxiety, and learning good note-taking skills. These courses sometimes include language learning as a specific topic to highlight how learning a foreign language may differ from learning other academic subjects. Foreign language students can be encouraged to participate in order to develop general learning strategies.
- 2. Awareness Training: Lectures and Discussion.** Also known as consciousness-raising or familiarization training, this consists most often of isolated lectures and discussions and is usually separate from regular classroom instruction. This approach provides students with a general introduction to strategy applications. Oxford (1990, p. 202) describes awareness training as “a program in which participants become aware of and

familiar with the general idea of language learning strategies and the way such strategies can help them accomplish various language tasks”.

3. **Strategy Workshops.** Short workshops are another, usually more intensive, approach to increasing learner awareness of strategies through various consciousness-raising and strategy-assessment activities. They may help to improve specific language skills or present ideas for learning certain aspects of a particular foreign language. These workshops may be offered as non-credit courses or required as part of a language or academic skills course. They often combine lectures, hands-on practice with specific strategies, and discussions about the effectiveness of strategy use.
4. **Peer Tutoring.** “Tandem” or peer tutoring programs began in the 1970s in Europe and are flourishing in many universities across the United States. Holec (1988) describes this system as “a direct language exchange” program that pairs students of different native language backgrounds for mutual tutoring sessions (e.g., an English-speaking student studying Italian and a native-Italian-speaking student learning English). Requirements of the tutoring sessions are that students have regular meetings, alternate roles of learner and teacher, practice the two languages separately, and devote equal amounts of time to each language. Often, students exchange suggestions about the language learning strategies they use, thus providing an ad hoc form of strategy training.

Another approach to peer sessions is to encourage students who are studying the same language to organize regular target-language study groups. Students who have already completed the language course may also be invited to these meetings. Less proficient students can benefit from the language skills of more proficient students, and more proficient students may yield better insights into the particular difficulties of the target language than a teacher.

5. **Strategies in Language Textbooks.** Many foreign language textbooks have begun to embed strategies into their curricula. However, unless the strategies are explained, modeled, or reinforced by the classroom teacher, students may not be aware that they are using strategies at all. A few language textbooks provide strategy-embedded activities and explicit explanations of the benefits and applications of the strategies they address. Because the focus of the



activities is contextualized language learning, learners can develop their learning strategy repertoires while learning the target language. One advantage of using textbooks with explicit strategy training is that students do not need extracurricular training; the textbooks reinforce strategy use across both tasks and skills, encouraging students to continue applying them on their own.

**6. Videotaped Mini-Courses.** Rubin (1996) developed an interactive videodisc program and accompanying instructional guide aimed at raising students' awareness of learning strategies and of the learning process in general, to show students how to transfer strategies to new tasks and to help them take charge of their own progress while learning the language. Using authentic language situations, the instructional program includes 20 foreign languages and offers the opportunity to select the language, topic, and difficulty level. Materials are structured to expose students to various strategies for use in many different contexts.

**7. Strategies-Based Instruction (SBI).** SBI is a learner-centered approach to teaching that extends classroom strategy training to include both implicit and explicit integration of strategies into the course content. Students experience the advantages of systematically applying the strategies to the learning and use of the language they are studying. In addition, they have opportunities to share their preferred strategies with other students and to increase their strategy use in the typical language tasks they are asked to perform. Teachers can individualize strategy training, suggest language-specific strategies, and reinforce strategies while presenting the regular course content. In a typical SBI classroom, teachers do the following:

- Describe, model, and give examples of potentially useful strategies.
- Elicit additional examples from students, based on students' own learning experiences.
- Lead small-group and whole-class discussions about strategies.
- Encourage students to experiment with a broad range of strategies.
- Integrate strategies into everyday class materials, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice.

Teachers may conduct SBI instruction by starting with established course materials, then determining which strategies to insert and where; starting with a set of strategies they wish to focus on and design activities around them; or inserting strategies spontaneously into the lessons whenever it seems appropriate (e.g., to help students overcome problems with difficult material or to speed up the lesson).

The approaches outlined above by Cohen (2003) offer options for providing strategy training to a large number of learners. Based on the needs, resources, and time available to an institution, the next step is to plan the instruction students will receive. The following seven steps are based largely on suggestions of strategy training by Oxford (1990). The model is especially useful because it can be adapted to the needs of various groups of learners, the resources available, and the length of the strategy training. Cohen's (1998) proposed model is as follows:

- Determine learners' needs and the resources available for training.
- Select the strategies to be taught.
- Consider the benefits of integrated strategy training.
- Consider motivational issues.
- Prepare the materials and activities.
- Conduct explicit strategy training.
- Evaluate and revise the strategy training.

The guidelines for implementing strategy training programs provide a variety of options for tailoring the training to meet the needs of a large number of students, as well as to the needs of the individual institution or language program. The most important considerations in the design of a strategy training program are the students' needs, the available resources ( e.g., time, money, materials, availability of teacher trainers), and the feasibility of providing this kind of instruction.

Cohen (2003) believes that when strategies-based instruction in a foreign language curriculum is included, it is important to choose an instructional model that introduces the strategies to the students and raises awareness of their learning preferences. In other words, students must be taught to identify, practice, evaluate, apply and transfer strategies to new learning situations; and this should promote learner autonomy to enable students to continue their learning after they leave the language classroom.

In a military educational organization setting such as the Turkish Military Academy, any instructional model chosen to teach the language learning strategies should be devised carefully to take into account the above mentioned guidelines mentioned in Cohen's (2003) LLS implementation model. Thus, the cadets at the Academy should be given enough opportunities to identify, practice, evaluate, and transfer strategies to new learning situations which would promote learner autonomy to enable them to continue their learning after they leave the language classroom. The cadets, as being prospective commissioned officers in the Turkish Armed Forces, need to acquire foreign language skills that would enable them to meet the challenges of their future military profession.

In military settings, officers are required to become foreign language competent individuals who are fluent enough to carry out the tasks assigned to them by their superiors in international contexts. Depending on the nature of these tasks, the officers in the Turkish Army need spoken or written English skills that can enable them to meet the demands of the tasks and accomplish them successfully. Since, success of any foreign language program is largely determined to what extent this program provides a variety of options for tailoring the training to meet the needs of the learners; a foreign language strategies based instruction program at the Turkish Military Academy should be flexible enough to meet the demands of the military profession.

### **2.5.2. The Assessment of Language Learning Strategies Training**

Saleh (2012) reports a number of different assessment tools available for teachers that cover the strategies used by foreign/second language students. These tools include observations, interviews, surveys, self-reports, learner journals, dialogue journals, think-aloud techniques, and other measures. Each one of these assessment tools has their advantages and disadvantages, as analyzed by Oxford (1990) and Cohen and Scott (1996).

Some strategy assessment tools are:

1. **Think-aloud:** Hosenfeld (1976) introduced the 'think aloud' introspective process to determine what strategies learners use while performing language tasks. Sarig

(1987) classified the data from the think-aloud reports into four general types of behaviors or responses: (1) technical aid, (2) clarification and simplification, (3) coherence detection, and (4) monitoring moves.

2. **Strategy checklists:** They can be designed to elicit data on self-reported frequency of strategy use at three points in time: before, during and after the task (Cohen and Weaver, 1998).
3. **Diaries:** They can be structured or unstructured, can be written for self or for sharing, can focus on affective side as well as on strategies, can be directed by the teacher or not (Oxford, 1992).
4. **Portfolios:** As an alternative assessment tool portfolios “employ strategies that ask students to show what they can do in contrast to traditional testing.” (Tannenbaum, 1996:1) Tannenbaum (1996) suggests that the following materials be put in a portfolio:
  - Audio- and videotaped recordings of readings or oral presentations.
  - Writing samples such as dialogue journal entries, book reports, writing assignments (drafts of final copies), reading log entries, or other writing projects.
  - Art work such as pictures or drawings, and graphs and charts.
  - Conference or interview notes and anecdotal records.
  - Checklists (by teacher, peers, or student).
  - Tests and quizzes.

Tannenbaum (1996) stresses that it is important to include more than one entry of a particular type of portfolio content in order to gain “multiple perspectives on students’ academic development.

Table 2.5 on page 54 reveals a number of strategy assessment methods reported by Oxford (1996). Apart from the methods given in Table 2.5, Oxford (1996) proposed another strategy assessment technique which she named as “*student-completed strategy questionnaires*”. According to Oxford (1996), student-completed strategy questionnaires have a very important and appropriate use when compared with the other strategy assessment techniques (see Table 2.5).

Oxford (1996) states that these questionnaires provide a general assessment of each student's typical strategies across a variety of possible tasks. However, as Oxford put it (1996:39)

*“the strategy questionnaires do not describe in detail the language learning strategies a student uses in response to any specific language task (as do some specific-strategy interviews or think-aloud protocols). For a researcher or a teacher who wants to discover strategy use on a particular reading comprehension task in a given classroom on Monday morning, a general strategy questionnaire like the SILL would not be useful. It is a misuse of the SILL (or any other strategy questionnaire) to try to identify task-specific strategies with that instrument”.*

On the other hand, strategy questionnaires have certain advantages. They are quick and easy to administer, may be the most cost-effective mode of strategy assessment, and are almost completely nonthreatening when administered using paper and pencil (or computer) under conditions of confidentiality. Moreover, many students discover a great deal about themselves from taking a strategy questionnaire, especially one like the SILL that is self-scoring and that provides immediate learner feedback.

Type of assessment	Appropriate uses	Limitations of use
Strategy questionnaires	Identify 'typical' strategies used by an individual; can be aggregated into group results; wide array of strategies can be measured by questionnaires.	Not useful for identifying specific strategies on a given language task at a given time.
Observations	Identify strategies that are readily observable for specific tasks.	Not useful for unobservable strategies (e.g. reasoning, analyzing, mental self-talk) or for identifying 'typical' strategies.
Interviews	Identify strategies used on specific tasks over a given time period or more 'typically' used strategies; usually more oriented toward task-specific rather than 'typical' strategies of an individual; depends on how interview questions are asked.	Usually less useful for identifying 'typical' strategies because of how interviews are conducted, but could be used for either task-specific or 'typical' strategies.
Dialogue journals, diaries	Identify strategies used on specific tasks over a given time period.	Less useful for identifying 'typical' strategies used more generally.
Recollective narratives (language learning histories)	Identify 'typical' strategies used in specific settings in the past.	Not intended for current strategies; depends on memory of learner.
Think-aloud protocols	Identify in-depth the strategies used in a given, ongoing task.	Not useful for identifying 'typical' strategies used more generally.
Strategy checklists	Identify strategies used on a just-completed task.	Not useful for identifying 'typical' strategies used more generally.

**Table 2.5. Comparison of Strategy Assessment Types (Oxford, 1996, p. 39-40)**

As seen in Table 2.5, teachers have to:

- weave strategy teaching/training into their regular classes,
- consider their selection of strategies to use in their teaching,
- use more than one assessment tool,
- consider differences in learners' motivation, learning styles, and other factors that affect learning strategy choice and use, and
- conceptualize LLS in a way that includes the social and affective aspects of learning.

## **2.6. Review of Relevant Studies**

There are a great number of studies conducted both in Turkey and abroad on language learning strategies in the field. These studies mainly focus on how students process the new information and what sort of strategies they use in order to understand, learn and remember the knowledge. Also the studies in the field usually focused on the likely correlation between the use of LLS and the foreign language achievement of students. In some of the studies, the language learning strategies in one or two skills (listening, reading) are focused, while in others all the four skills (listening, reading, writing, speaking) are explored. Since there are a great number of studies on LLS in the field both in Turkey and abroad, in the next two sections we mainly focused on the studies dealing with the likely relation between the use of LLS and foreign language success. First, the studies carried out in Turkey are examined and then, the studies conducted abroad are presented.

### **2.6.1. The Language Learning Strategies Studies in Turkey**

In one of the early studies conducted in the field in Turkey, Yüzbaşıoğlu (1991) studied the metacognitive strategies and beliefs of the University EFL students about language learning in her master's thesis titled "Turkish University EFL Students' Metacognitive Strategies and Beliefs about Language Learning". In her study she investigated the EFL students' metacognitive strategies in relation to learners' beliefs about language learning to understand the second language acquisition process. According to the findings of the study, there was a correlation between the metacognitive strategies and learners' beliefs. The metacognitive strategies employed by the learners were affected

by their beliefs about language learning. It was found out that the subjects in the study had problems with self-directing their learning, partly due to deficiencies in their metacognitive knowledge.

In another study conducted in 1991, Karahan studied the learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate level students learning English as a foreign language in her Doctorate Dissertation titled "An Investigation into Learning Strategies Used by Beginning and Intermediate Level Students Learning English as a Foreign Language". The results of the study revealed a positive correlation between the English proficiency and the frequency of the use of the metacognitive and cognitive strategies. In other words, more proficient learners were found out to be using metacognitive and cognitive strategies more than the other type of strategies.

Çavuşoğlu (1992) investigated the likely relationship between language learning strategies and EFL proficiency in her master's thesis. She found out that advanced level subjects reported to use more LLSs both in terms of number and frequency of use. However, she added that she found out no significant relationship between LLSs and the EFL proficiency depending on the results of the Pearson-product moment correlation. Thus, Çavuşoğlu (1992) concluded from the findings of her study that the hypothesized relationship between the use of LLSs and the EFL proficiency is not a direct one that can be observed in a correlational study. Moreover, she added that "the greater the strategy use is, the more successful the learner is" cannot explain a possible relationship between the LLSs and the EFL proficiency.

In a study investigating the likely correlation between the EFL proficiency and the use of LLS, Tüz (1995) found out that both successful and less successful EFL learners basically use the same kind of learning strategies. As stated in Çavuşoğlu (1992), he reported that he found no direct relationship between the language learning strategies and the language proficiency.

Yalçın (2003) also reported a statistically insignificant relationship between student achievement and use of grammar learning strategies. In his study that he conducted in Gaziantep University, both successful and unsuccessful students use grammar-learning strategies equally.



Similarly, Evcim (2008) reported a statistically insignificant relationship between an increase in vocabulary retention of university prep class students and their being taught through a language learning strategies instruction.

On the other hand, some researchers reported a positive correlation between the learners' achievement and their use of LLS. Thus, they propose the benefits of a strategy based instruction in foreign language teaching. For example, Aydemir (2007) mentioned a significantly positive difference in students' vocabulary achievement after them being exposed to an instruction of vocabulary learning strategies. Thus, the more use of vocabulary learning strategies led to the more language achievement.

Şener (2003) was another researcher in favor of a strategy instruction. In her study conducted at Onsekiz Mart University in Canakkale, the learners were found out to be benefitting from being exposed to vocabulary learning strategies instruction. There was a positive correlation between their vocabulary learning and strategy training.

In her study conducted in 2006, Muhtar reported a slight increase in the foreign language reading proficiency of the participants after completing meta-cognitive strategy use training. In his comprehensive doctorate dissertation on the relationship between language learning strategies, learning styles and academic success in foreign language, Cesur (2008) reported a direct correlation between LLS and foreign language success. In his study, Cesur (2008) found out the highest correlation between the use of cognitive strategies and foreign language success. The other strategies in terms of such a correlation in a respective order were memory, meta-cognitive, compensation, social and affective.

Sucu (2009) was another researcher reporting a relation between the learners' language success and their reported use of LLS. In her study conducted in Nevşehir University, students who get high scores from the reading comprehension test were found to be using more LLS. The findings of a recent study (Alamdari, 2010) on the use of LLS revealed that successful students in vocabulary learning use the social and cognitive strategies more frequently than the less successful learners.

The above mentioned 11 studies on the relation between the use of LLS and the foreign language achievement cannot provide a clear answer whether the use of LLS

has a positive impact on the learners' foreign language achievement in general or on separate skills particularly. 6 of the above studies could not report a direct correlation between the foreign language achievement and the LLS use, whereas 5 of them somehow claim a relation between the foreign language success and strategies use. However, none of the studies can explain a direct link between the frequency of the LLS use and the language achievement. The so called increase in foreign language success in these studies can be due to other effects rather than the more frequent use of LLS only. In other words, in the field of EFL, there is no clear cause and effect relationship between the LLS use and an improvement in foreign language skills.

### **2.6.2. The Studies on Language Learning Strategies in Other Countries**

Goh and Kwah (1997) conducted a study of learning strategies used by 175 ESL students from the People's Republic of China aimed at surveying the frequency of strategy use and determining how this strategy use is influenced by the learner's proficiency level and gender. They used the SILL questionnaire (Strategy Inventory of Language Learning) by Oxford (1990) and concluded that metacognitive strategies were most frequently used, while memory strategies were least frequently used; in addition, female students were found to use compensation and affective strategies significantly more often than male students.

In another study conducted in 1999 by Chang and Huang who administered motivation (Motivational Element Questionnaire) and learning strategies (SILL) questionnaires to 46 Taiwanese undergraduate and graduate students of advanced EFL at a public university in the USA in order to investigate the relationship between motivation and learning strategies, results relevant to the current study revealed that compensation strategies were the ones most commonly used by the participants.

Bremner (1999) administered the SILL questionnaire (the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning by Oxford, 1990, pp.293-300) to 149 Hong Kong learners (113 females and 36 males) studying a language and communication skills course at the City University of Hong Kong. The study aimed at investigating the levels of strategy use among the group and the relationship between the students' strategy use and their language proficiency. In order to determine the students' proficiency in relation to each

other, the following tasks were administered in the first and second half of the twenty-week course: two spoken tasks, two written tasks, and two discrete-item language tests. Scores from these tests were totaled and converted into a percentage. The participants were divided into three groups (low, medium, and high) of roughly equal numbers on the basis of proficiency scores. Differences in mean strategy use in the six SILL categories in relation to proficiency by group were determined using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The Scheffe post-hoc test was used to see where there were any significant differences. To determine significance throughout the study, a standard of  $p < .05$  was used.

The results of the study showed that compensation and meta-cognitive strategies were respectively the most used, while affective and memory strategies were the least used. Moreover, the results showed that low proficient learners differed from high proficient learners in their use of language learning strategies, namely the cognitive and compensation strategies, in favor of the high proficient. In addition, the researcher concluded that compensation strategies might be more readily available to learners who have reached higher levels of proficiency.

Shmais (2003) administered the Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) by Oxford (1990) to 99 English majors (19 males and 80 females) studying at An-Najah National University in Palestine. The purpose of this study was to investigate the LLs that are most frequently used, and to determine if the use of language learning strategies differed by gender and proficiency. Proficiency was determined by students' learning level (i.e., sophomore, junior, senior), self-reported proficiency in English (i.e., the students' university average in English courses) and language self-efficacy (i.e., how good the students perceived themselves as English learners). The questionnaires were translated into Arabic and then distributed by the researcher. They were given out during students' regular English classes. The subjects were informed that their participation was entirely voluntary. The subjects did not give their names; only their gender, average and level of learning were required. The ANOVA test was used to determine significant variation in mean strategy use by gender and proficiency. Wilks Lambda and Sidak tests were used to determine differences across all the strategies by gender and proficiency.

The results of this study showed that the most frequently used strategies were the meta-cognitive strategies (79.6%) and the least used strategies were the compensation strategies (63%). In general, the results showed that males did not differ from females in their use of language learning strategies, and low proficient learners did not differ from high proficient learners in their use of the language learning strategies, except in the cognitive strategies, in favor of the high proficient, and in the affective strategies, in favor of the less proficient who use them in order to lower their anxiety and encourage themselves to store and retrieve information.

Liu (2004) administered Oxford's SILL (1990 Version 7.0) to 428 technological institute English majors in China in order to investigate their strategy use. All the English majors at Nanyang Institute of Technology (China) were invited to participate in the study and a total of 379 valid questionnaires (87 by males and 292 by females) were analyzed using the SPSS. Descriptive statistics for overall strategy use, Independent Sample T-Tests on learners' strategy use by proficiency and by gender, correlations between EFL proficiency and strategy use, and a bivariate correlation between learners' gender and strategy use were conducted in order to answer the research questions.

The results showed that the most frequently used strategies were meta-cognitive strategies and the least frequently used were memory strategies (between them respectively are compensation, affective, cognitive and social strategies) and that low proficient learners differed from high proficient learners in their use of language learning strategies, in favor of the high proficient. The study also revealed that males differed from females in their overall use language learning strategies, namely in their use of memory and affective strategies, in favor of females.

In a recent study conducted in Jordan, Al-Natour (2012) reported that Jordanian students use the indirect strategies more than the direct ones. Furthermore, there are differences between males and females in their use of language learning strategies. Moreover, there are statistically significant differences in student's use of learning strategies attributed to academic level in favour of the fourth year students.

The studies mentioned above investigated the likely correlation between the use of foreign language learning strategies and learners' English language proficiency. The findings of the above studies are not conclusive to state a definite correlation between

the use of strategies and English proficiency of the learners. Therefore, the current study will shed a light on the topic from a different perspective in a different context. Because none of the above mentioned studies were conducted in a military English setting. Thus, the findings of our study will help the future researchers to better understand the effect of the use of foreign language learning strategies on improving the English proficiency level of the learners.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology of data collection and analysis used in the present study. Specifically, the chapter includes sections that describe the research model, the study group (the participants), the instruments and the procedures of data collection and analysis and assessment of the data pertaining to the setting of the Turkish Military Academy in Ankara, Turkey.

#### 3.1 Research Model

The present study employs a deductive method as the researcher here tries to develop specific expectations of hypotheses on the basis of general principles (i.e. social scientists start from an existing theory, and then search for proof). The likely effect of a strategy based instruction on improving the foreign language proficiency of students studying English at the Turkish Military Academy is being examined.

The study was conducted at the Turkish Military Academy during the first semester of the 2011-2012 academic year. It employed the application of a survey design involving the administration of a questionnaire and pre and post tests to control and experimental groups. The questionnaire used in the study was adapted from Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. There were also two groups of students (control & experimental) to compare the likely effects of a Strategy Based Instruction on improving the English proficiency of the students participating in the study.

Necessary adaptations in the inventory to meet the specific requirements of the study were constructed by the researcher. The adapted questionnaire used in the study is shown in Appendix 1. The questionnaire was first piloted with a small group of 3rd grade students (n= 10) who were later excluded from the study. It took about 20 minutes for the participants to complete the survey. While taking the survey, the participants were encouraged to ask any questions that would help them better understand the statements in the survey. During the pilot study, it was seen that the questionnaire was clear enough for the students to understand. Therefore, no modification was seen as necessary by the researcher.

To find out information on the English proficiency level of the students both in the control and experimental group, paper and pencil “Test of English as a Foreign Language-TOEFL” language proficiency tests were given to the participants. According to the data stated in the official web site of Educational Testing Service ([www.ets.org/toefl](http://www.ets.org/toefl)), TOEFL is the most widely respected English-language test in the world, recognized by more than 8,500 colleges, universities and agencies in more than 130 countries, including Australia, Canada, the U.K. and the United States. Therefore, in this study TOEFL is considered to be a successful, worldwide data collection instrument to evaluate the English language proficiency of the participants.

Participants were given the first TOEFL test at the beginning of the study and a parallel second test was given again to both control and experimental group students at the end of the 10-week Strategy Based Instruction implementation to the experimental group. The questions of these tests were selected from actual TOEFL tests previously administered by the Educational Testing Service (ETS), the testing company officially owning the legal rights of the TOEFL test. The pre and post test questions used in this study are selected from TOEFL Practice Tests (1995) published by the Educational Testing Service.

The pre and post tests applied in the study consist of three main parts, namely Listening Comprehension, Structure and Written Expression and Reading Comprehension. There were 50 questions in the Listening Comprehension, 40 questions in the Structure and Written Expression and 50 questions in the Reading Comprehension parts, which make a total of 140 questions in three parts. Each part of the pre and post-tests was administered in 50 minute English class periods. The total amount of time allocated for the administration of the whole 3 parts of the tests was  $150 \times 2 = 300$  minutes for two tests. Actually, the test takers were given enough amount of time to answer all the questions in the tests. Sample copies of the pre and post-test used in the study are shown in Appendices 2 and 3.

The experimental group in the study received strategy based instruction for ten weeks. As Cohen and et al. (1996) put it, strategies-based instruction is a learner-centered approach to teaching that has two major components:

- (1) students are explicitly taught how, when, and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning and language use tasks, and
- (2) strategies are integrated into everyday class materials, and may be explicitly or implicitly embedded into the language tasks.

Therefore, in the present study the teacher of the experimental group received practical training from the researcher of the study in techniques to raise awareness of individual differences and learning style preferences, introduce systematic strategy use in the classroom, integrate strategies-based activities into daily lesson plans, and facilitate discussions of strategy effectiveness, whereas the instructor of the control group students received no specific training on how to conduct strategies based instruction.

The present study is both descriptive and quantitative. The study started with some pre-set hypotheses given in the Introduction Chapter (p.5-6). Thus, the nature of the present study lent itself to hypothesis testing rather than hypothesis generating. The data collected during the research helped the researcher to verify or falsify the hypotheses formulated in the beginning of the study.

On the other hand, the present study is also quantitative because the collection and analysis of the data required a certain amount of quantification. Thus, during the data analysis stage, in order to interpret the data, the researcher formed frequency tables based on the answers given in the questionnaire.

### **3.2 Study Group**

The participants of the study were 55 students (n= 55) studying at the 3rd grade of the Turkish Military Academy in the second semester of the 2011-2012 academic year. The number of students in the experimental group was 28 (n=28) whereas control group students were 27 (n=27). The participants of the study had already completed 5 semesters at the Turkish Military Academy during the time they took part in the study. Before their studies at the Academy, the participants had received 4 year Military High School training where they received their first English language training. Therefore, after 6,5 years of received training, the participants of the study are considered to have intermediate or above level of English language competency.



The distribution and the details of the participants' pre and post test English proficiency scores consisting of listening comprehension, structure and written expression and reading comprehension scores are revealed in Table 3.2.1 below.

	N	Minimum Score	Maximum Score	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test total	55	380	600	492,7273	61,38689
Post-test total	55	420	620	514,1818	71,45812
Pre-test Listening	55	48	66	56,3273	4,59893
Post-test Listening	55	44	66	56,7636	5,90657
Pre-test Structure	55	44	64	55,7091	6,49123
Post-test Structure	55	44	66	55,0545	5,41404
Pre-test Reading	55	44	66	56,2182	5,11603
Post-test Reading	55	46	66	60,2364	4,62667

**Table 3.2.1. The Distribution of the Participants' English Proficiency Test Scores**

As seen in the above table, there is an increase in the scores of the participants when the means of the pre and post-tests are compared ( $M=492,7273$  vs.  $M=514,1818$ ). When checked in detail, increases in the mean scores between pre and post test listening ( $M=56,3273$  vs.  $M=56,7636$ ) and reading ( $M=56,2182$  vs.  $M=60,2364$ ) are detected. On the other hand, the comparison of the mean scores of the pre and post-test structure and written expression sections revealed a slight decrease ( $M=55,7091$  vs.  $M=55,0545$ ).

### 3.3 Instruments

As mentioned before, the present study employs a survey design involving the administration of a questionnaire to collect data for the study. The questionnaire was adapted from Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (see APPENDIX 1) and modified by the researcher according to the purposes of the study for the Turkish Military Academy. The SILL consists of 50 items in the two dichotomous constructs of direct (29 items) and indirect (21 items) learning strategies. Direct strategies are subdivided into memory (9 items), cognitive (14 items), and compensation (6 items) strategies, whereas indirect strategies are subdivided into meta-cognitive (9 items), affective (6 items), and social (6 items) strategies. Specifically, the items 1-9 in the SILL inventory refer to memory, the items 10-23 refer to cognitive, the items 24-29 refer to compensation, the items 30-38 refer to meta-cognitive, the items 39-44 refer to affective and the items 45-50 refer to social strategies in Oxford's (1990) taxonomy.

In administering the SILL, respondents are asked to answer their use of language learning strategies in five-point Likert-scale items from "(1) never or almost never true of me" to "(5) always or almost always true of me." Those who score 3,5 and higher in the overall average of the SILL are high strategy users, between 2,5 and 3,4 are medium strategy users and 2,4 and below are low strategy users (Lai, 2009; Park, 2011).

The Cronbach's alpha of the constructs of the SILL was investigated in order to measure the internal consistency of the items within each construct, as shown in Table 3.3.1 below. The statements in Parts A, B and C refer to the direct strategies in the inventory. Specifically, the statements in Part A refer to memory, the statements in Part B refer to cognitive and the statements in Part C refer to compensation strategies. Similarly, the indirect strategies are covered by the statements in Part D, E and F in the inventory. The indirect strategies covered are meta-cognitive in Part D, affective in Part E and social strategies in Part F. Even though the alpha coefficients of cognitive and affective strategies were below an acceptable level of .60, the other strategies were above the cut-off point (Landau & Everitt, 2004). Krashen, however believes "even a reliability of .60 is very low" (personal e-mail note). This finding indicates that the items

within each construct of the SILL measured in general similar characteristics about language learning strategies.

**Table 3.3.1. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of the Constructs of the SILL**

	<b>Total</b>	<b>Direct</b>	<i>Memory</i>	<i>Cognitive</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<b>Indirect</b>	<i>Meta.</i>	<i>Affective</i>	<i>Social</i>
Cronbach's $\alpha$	,718	,722	,876	,537	,754	,715	,784	,496	,864
Number of Items	50	29	9	14	6	21	9	6	6

In addition, the correlations among the constructs of the SILL were examined, as shown in Table 3.3.2. All the correlations among the constructs of the SILL were significant ( $p < .01$ ), with the relatively low correlations of compensation and affective strategies with other strategy categories. The significant correlations among the six constructs indicate that six strategy constructs were unique as well as interrelated to each other. The above mentioned analyses indicate the instrument used in the study is reliable enough to collect data for the purpose of the current study.

**Table 3.3.2. Correlations among the Constructs of the SILL**

	<b>Direct</b>	<i>Memory</i>	<i>Cognitive</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<b>Indirect</b>	<i>Meta.</i>	<i>Affective</i>	<i>Social</i>
<b>Direct</b>	1							
<i>Memory</i>	,83	1						
<i>Cognitive</i>	,90	,62	1					
<i>Comp.</i>	,57	,28	,32	1				
<b>Indirect</b>	,68	,58	,64	,31	1			
<i>Meta.</i>	,67	,35	,64	,28	,88	1		
<i>Affective</i>	,40	,58	,38	,16	,72	,45	1	

### 3.4. Data Collection

The required data for the present study was mainly collected by means of the responses given to the questions and statements of the questionnaire namely Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) at the Turkish Military Academy. The questionnaire was adapted from Oxford's (1990) Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (see APPENDIX 1) for the Turkish Military Academy cadets. The preparation of the questionnaire for the research was based on the review of the literature. The administration of the questionnaire was preceded by the application of a pilot survey including 10 participants who are not included in the treatment.

After the administration of the pilot survey, the modified questionnaire was administered to two different sections by their instructors at the beginning of the study. The application of the survey took about 20 minutes for every participant to answer the questions. The participants were very collaborative and understanding and the instructors provided information about the survey, its purpose, its structure and the content before the application. The participants were also informed that the findings of the study would be used for research purposes only and that their individual responses would remain anonymous. During the administration of the questionnaire, the participants were requested to ask their instructors any questions they would have in order to make sure that they would understand each item and answer appropriately.

In order to find out a possible difference in the frequency of the use of the language strategies of the participants before and after the application of the strategy based instruction, the experimental group students were given the SILL inventory twice. One was given at the beginning of the study, and the other was at the end of the 10-week strategy-based instruction. The control group students were not given the SILL inventory.

To find out the likely effect of a strategy based instruction on improving the English proficiency level of the students, experimental and control group students were given pre and post English proficiency tests (see APPENDICES 2 & 3). Both experimental and control groups were given the same tests to ensure the reliability of the assessment process. The pre and post proficiency tests used in the study covered questions to assess the listening, reading and writing skills of the participants.

### **3.5 Analysis and Assessment of Data**

In this part, the analysis of the data collected through the application of Oxford's (1990) Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) adapted for this study was examined. The data were analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 15.0 for Windows, because it is a comprehensive system for analyzing data in behavioral and educational sciences (Leech, 2005).

In order to address the research question 1 regarding the types of the foreign language learning strategies employed by the cadets at the Turkish Military Academy, composite scores on the subscales of the SILL Questionnaire for the Turkish Military Academy Cadets (see Appendix 1) were computed for each participant, then descriptive statistics (range, means and standard deviations) were computed. Finally, a mean rank order of the scores was generated.

In order to address the research question 2, a Pearson Product-Moment correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the use of the language learning strategies and the participants' EFL achievement, which was measured by the mean scores of the paper and pencil based TOEFL tests given at the beginning and at the end of the 10-week strategies based language instruction application.

In order to address the question 3, regarding the effect of the explicit language learning strategy training on the frequency of the use of the language learning strategies of the cadets at the Turkish Military Academy, composite scores for experimental and control group students on the subscales of SILL and descriptive statistics (range, means and standard deviations) were computed. Then a t-test analysis was conducted.

Regarding the likely differences between the listening, reading, writing and overall proficiency of the participants before and after the application of the strategy based instruction; t-test analyses were conducted (Research questions 4, 5&6). In the next section, the findings of the study based on the statistical analyses are given.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

The focus of this chapter is on the interpretation of the data collected through the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) adapted for this study. The present study aimed at investigating the role of language learning strategies on improving the EFL proficiency. Its objective is to study the effects of the explicit language learning strategy training on the frequency of the use of the language learning strategies (whether the frequency increases or not) of the cadets at the Turkish Military Academy. Also, the study aims to investigate how explicit language learning strategy training affects the participants' overall English proficiency (listening, writing, reading) in general and their listening comprehension, reading comprehension and writing comprehension of English language in detail.

In the study, strategies based instruction is used as the dependent variable and the EFL proficiency is used as the independent variable. This chapter reports the results of the study. All statistical tests conducted to address the questions of the study used .05 as the minimum alpha level of significance. The chapter is organized according to the order of the research questions. It presents descriptive statistics (range, means, and standard deviations), Pearson correlation and the results of sample t-tests.

#### **4.1. The Results for Research Question 1**

In order to address the research question 1, (What are the foreign language learning strategies employed by the cadets at the Turkish Military Academy?) regarding the types of language learning strategies most frequently possessed by the EFL learners at the Turkish Military Academy, the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was applied to both experimental and control group students at the beginning of the study. Then, composite scores on the subscales of the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) were computed for each participant. After that, the descriptive statistics (range, means, and standard deviations) were computed. Finally, a mean rank order of scores was generated. Results are presented in Table 4.1.1 below:

**Table 4.1.1. Descriptive Statistics and Mean Rank Order of Language Learning Strategies**

<i>Strategy Type</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b><i>Direct</i></b>	55	1,00	5,00	3,50	,65002
<i>Memory</i>	55	1,00	5,00	3,54	,66723
<i>Cognitive</i>	55	1,00	5,00	3,36	,59984
<i>Compensation</i>	55	1,00	5,00	3,60	,68297
<b><i>Indirect</i></b>	55	1,00	5,00	3,48	,51987
<i>Meta-cognitive</i>	55	1,00	5,00	3,58	,72934
<i>Affective</i>	55	1,00	5,00	3,34	,41513
<i>Social</i>	55	1,00	5,00	3,51	,41513

The means and the standard deviations reported in Table 4.1.1 reveal that the most frequently used language strategy among the Turkish Military Academy cadets is;

1. compensation strategies (M=3,60, SD= ,68297), followed respectively by
2. meta-cognitive (M=3,58 SD=,72934),
3. memory (M=3,54, SD= ,66723),
4. social (M=3,51, SD= ,41513),
5. cognitive (M=3,36, SD= ,59984), and
6. affective strategies (M=3,34, SD= ,41513).

Thus, the three most frequently employed strategy types are compensation, meta-cognitive and memory; and the three least frequently used are affective, cognitive and social strategies. According to the above results given, the cadets at the Military Academy use a high level of direct (M=3,50 SD= ,65002) and a medium level of indirect (M=3,48, SD= ,51987) strategies.

## 4.2. The Results for Research Question 2

In order to address the research question 2, (How does explicit language learning strategy training affect the overall foreign language proficiency of the cadets at the Turkish Military Academy?) regarding the likely associations that exist between language learning strategy training and language proficiency among EFL learners at the Turkish Military Academy, a two dimensional analysis was conducted.

To find out whether there are statistically significant differences in the overall language proficiency of the participants in the experimental and control groups after the application of a 10-week Strategy Based Instruction, composite scores on six different types of language learning strategies and also the overall proficiency were computed for the experimental and control group students. Then descriptive statistics (range, means, and standard deviations) were computed. Finally, a t-test analysis was conducted to compare the means for experimental and control group learners. The results are represented in Tables 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 below.

**Table 4.2.1. Descriptive Statistics of Ratings for Proficiency Level**

Variable	Experimental (N=28)		Control (N=27)	
	M	SD	M	SD
<b><i>Pre-test</i></b>	497,23	67,03	507,86	75,86
<b><i>Post-test</i></b>	513,70	72,28	505,00	43,57



**Table 4.2.2. Results of t-Test for Differences of the Experimental and Control Group Students by Proficiency Level**

Total Proficiency	N	M	SD	df	t	p
Experimental	28	505,465	69,655	106	1,46	,146
Control	27	506,43	59,715			

The results of the independent sample t-test show that there are no statistically significant differences between experimental and control group EFL learners in their total proficiency. Based on the students' average English grades in the pre and post tests,  $p=0,146$ , which is larger than the accepted  $p$  value of,  $05$  ( $p>0,05$ ). The mean score for Experimental group students is  $505,465$  ( $SD=69,655$ ), and the mean score for Control group students is  $506,43$  ( $SD=59,715$ ).

In order to address the details of the likely associations that could exist between Strategy Based Instruction and language proficiency among EFL learners at the Turkish Military Academy, a correlational analysis was conducted. The results of the Pearson Product-Moment correlation analysis computed to examine the relationship between the different types of strategies and the participants' EFL achievement level measured by the mean scores of the pre and post English proficiency tests are shown in Table 4.2.3 below.

**Table 4.2.3. Bivariate Correlations Among Participants' Language Strategy Use and Language Proficiency Based on Post-Test Scores**

	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	Covariance	N	Mean	SD
<b>OVERALL PROFICIENCY</b>	1	.	7671,192	71,693	55	505,95	8,47
<i>DIRECT STRATEGIES</i>	-,099	,309	-60,421	-,565	55	3,50	,68
Memory	-,421(**)	,000	-278,389	-,2,602	55	3,54	,73
Cognitive	,036	,708	19,792	,185	55	3,36	,60
Compensation	,329(**)	,001	191,934	1,794	55	3,60	,64
<i>INDIRECT STRATEGIES</i>	,167	,085	100,794	,942	55	3,48	,67
Meta-cognitive	,085	,381	52,725	,493	55	3,58	,68
Affective	,019	,842	7,297	,068	55	3,34	,42
Social	,019	,842	7,297	,068	55	3,51	,42

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of the correlational analysis summarized in Table 4.2.3 reveal that there is a medium, negative correlation between the use of memory strategies and learners' EFL achievement ( $r = -.42$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and a low positive correlation between the use of compensation strategies and achievement ( $r = .33$ ,  $p < .01$ ). A negative correlation means that students having lower grades are likely to use more memory strategies. With positive correlation, we can state that the higher the students' use of compensation strategies, the higher their English grades are. On the other hand, there is no correlation between total language strategies use and foreign language learners' proficiency except between memory and compensation strategies.

This leads us to consider that there is no statistically significant relationship between the use of language learning strategies and the foreign language achievement of EFL learners at the Turkish Military Academy. However, the results of statistical analysis

reveal that there is a significant relationship between the students' use of memory and compensation strategies and their overall foreign language proficiency.

### **4.3. The Results For Research Question 3**

In order to address the research question 3, (Is there a significant difference in the frequency of the use of the language learning strategies of the cadets at the Turkish Military Academy before and after the application of an explicit language learning strategy training?) regarding the likely effect of strategy based instruction on the frequency of the use of the language learning strategies of the cadets at the Turkish Military Academy, the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire (see Appendix 1) was applied to experimental group students only at the end of the study. The SILL inventory was applied to only experimental group students because the strategy based instruction was not implemented in the control group students. So, to find out the likely effect of the strategy based instruction on the use of the frequency of the language learning strategies, the experimental group students' SILL mean scores before and after the 10-week application period was compared.

The composite scores on the subscales of the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) were computed for each participant. After that, the descriptive statistics (range, means, and standard deviations) were computed. Finally, a mean rank order of scores was generated. To find out a whether there is a statistically significant difference on the frequency of the use of language learning strategies before and after the application of explicit language learning strategy training, a paired samples t-test analysis was conducted to compare the means for pre and post application. The results are presented in Tables 4.3.1 and 4.3.2 below.

**Table 4.3.1. Descriptive Statistics of Ratings for Language Learning Strategies**

<i>Strategy Type</i>	Pre Application (N=28)		Post Application (N=28)	
	M	SD	M	SD
<b><i>Direct</i></b>	3,50	,18848	3,54	,13815
<i>Memory</i>	3,52	,18745	3,50	,23469
<i>Cognitive</i>	3,36	,16438	3,49	,15183
<i>Compensation</i>	3,61	,20077	3,64	,21523
<b><i>Indirect</i></b>	3,46	,18172	3,43	,10889
<i>Meta-cognitive</i>	3,57	,12327	3,55	,22246
<i>Affective</i>	3,32	,17059	3,30	,19147
<i>Social</i>	3,50	,11847	3,45	,20774

The means and the standard deviations reported in Table 4.3.1 reveal that there is an increase in the use of direct strategies (M=3,54, SD=,13815) compared to pre-application scores (M=3,50, SD=,18848), whereas there is a slight decrease in the use of indirect strategies (M=3,46, SD=,18172 vs. M=3,43, SD=,10889) after the application of language strategies based instruction. When we look at the results more detailed, we notice increases in the use of cognitive (M=3,36 » M=3,49) and compensation (M=3,61 » M=3,64) strategies whereas, there are slight decreases in the use of memory (M=3,52 » M=3,50), meta-cognitive (M=3,57 » M=3,55), affective (M=3,32 » M=3,30) and social (M=3,50 » M=3,45) strategies.

**Table 4.3.2. Results of t-Test for Differences of the Frequency of the Experimental Group Students' Use of Language Strategies Before and After the Application**

Frequency of the Use of Strategies	N	M	SD	df	t	p
Before	28	3,48	0,163315	53	0,88	,775
After	28	3,49	0,145305			

The results of the paired samples t-test show that there are no statistically significant differences in the frequency of the use of Language Learning Strategies of the students before and after the application of strategy based instruction. Based on the students' mean scores of the frequencies in the pre and post application of SILL,  $p=0,775$ , which is larger than the accepted  $p$  value of ,05 ( $p>0,05$ ). The mean score of the SILL before the 10-week application is 3,48 ( $SD=,163315$ ), and after the application is 3,49 ( $SD=,145305$ ).

#### **4.4. The Results For Research Questions 4, 5 and 6**

To address the research questions 4, 5 and 6;

- Can a strategy based instruction improve the listening proficiency of the English learners at the Turkish Military Academy?
- Can a strategy based instruction improve the writing proficiency of the English learners at the Turkish Military Academy?
- Can a strategy based instruction improve the reading proficiency of the English learners at the Turkish Military Academy?

regarding the likely associations that exist between language learning strategy training and the listening, writing and reading proficiency among EFL learners at the Turkish Military Academy, a two dimensional analysis was executed. Since, the pre and post

proficiency tests used in the current study do not cover a speaking skill part, the speaking skill is excluded from the study.

To find out whether there are statistically significant differences in the listening, writing and reading proficiency of the students before and after the 10-week strategy based instruction, composite scores on listening, writing and reading were computed for pre and post application. Then descriptive statistics (range, means, and standard deviations) were computed. Finally, paired samples t-tests analyses were conducted to compare the means for pre and post application. The results are represented in Tables 4.4.1, 4.4.2, 4.4.3 and 4.4.4 below.

**Table 4.4.1. Descriptive Statistics for Ratings of Listening, Writing and Reading Proficiency of the Students for Pre and Post Application**

<i>Proficiency</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b><i>Pre Application</i></b>					
<i>Listening</i>	28	48,00	66,00	56,33	5,91
<i>Writing</i>	28	48,00	64,00	56,22	5,12
<i>Reading</i>	28	44,00	66,00	55,71	6,49
<b><i>Post Application</i></b>					
<i>Listening</i>	28	46,00	66,00	57,24	4,63
<i>Writing</i>	28	44,00	64,00	55,05	5,42
<i>Reading</i>	28	44,00	66,00	56,76	5,91

The means and the standard deviations reported in Table 4.4.1 reveal that there are increases in the listening and reading proficiency of the students when the pre application (M=56,33 SD=5,91) and post application (M=57,24 SD=4,63) listening scores and pre application (M=55,71 SD=6,49) and post application (M=56,76 SD=5,91) reading scores are compared. However, the comparison of pre application (M=56,22 SD=5,12) and post application (M=55,05 SD=5,42) writing scores reveal a slight decrease.

**Table 4.4.2. Results of t-Test for Differences of the Experimental Group Students by Listening Proficiency Level**

Listening Proficiency	N	M	SD	df	t	p
Pre Application	28	56,33	5,91	54	1,176	,245
Post Application	28	57,24	4,63			

The results of the paired samples t-test show that there are no statistically significant differences between pre and post application within the experimental group EFL learners in their listening proficiency. Based on the students' average Listening grades in the pre and post tests,  $p=0,245$ , which is larger than the accepted p value of, 05 ( $p>0,05$ ). The mean score for the pre-test for experimental group students is 56,33 (SD=5,91), and the mean score for the post-test is 57,24 (SD=4,63).

**Table 4.4.3. Results of t-Test for Differences of the Experimental Group Students by Writing Proficiency Level**

Writing Proficiency	N	M	SD	df	t	p
Pre Application	28	56,22	5,12	54	-1,168	,248
Post Application	28	55,05	5,42			

The results of the paired samples t-test show that there are no statistically significant differences between pre and post application within the experimental group EFL learners in their writing proficiency. Based on the students' average Writing grades in the pre and post tests,  $p=0,248$ , which is larger than the accepted p value of, 05 ( $p>0,05$ ). The mean score for the pre-test for experimental group students is 56,22 (SD=5,12), and the mean score for the post-test is 55,05 (SD=5,42).

**Table 4.4.4. Results of t-Test for Differences of the Experimental Group Students by Reading Proficiency Level**

Reading Proficiency	N	M	SD	df	t	p
Pre Application	28	55,71	6,49	54	1,032	,307
Post Application	28	56,76	5,91			

The results of the paired samples t-test show that there are no statistically significant differences between pre and post application within the experimental group EFL learners in their reading proficiency. Based on the students' average Reading grades in the pre and post tests,  $p=0,307$ , which is larger than the accepted p value of, 05 ( $p>0,05$ ). The mean score for the pre-test for experimental group students is 55,71 (SD=6,49), and the mean score for the post-test is 56,76 (SD=5,91).

#### **4.5. Summary of the Results**

The statistical analyses computed to answer the six research questions in this study revealed the following:

- The cadets at the Military Academy use direct strategies more than they use the indirect ones. Specifically, the three most frequently employed strategy types are compensation, meta-cognitive and memory; and the three least frequently used are affective, cognitive and social strategies.
- There is no statistically significant relationship between the use of language learning strategies and the foreign language achievement of EFL learners at the Turkish Military Academy. However, the results of statistical analysis reveal that there is a significant relationship between the students' use of memory and compensation strategies and their overall foreign language proficiency. Students having lower grades are likely to use more memory strategies. On the other hand, students with higher grades are found to use the compensation strategies more frequently.



- There are no statistically significant differences in the frequency of the use of the students' Language Learning Strategies before and after the application of 10-week strategy based instruction period.
- There are no statistically significant differences between pre and post application within the experimental group students in terms of their listening proficiency.
- There are no statistically significant differences between pre and post application within the experimental group students in terms of their writing proficiency.
- There are no statistically significant differences between pre and post application within the experimental group students in terms of their reading proficiency.

To sum up, the above mentioned findings of the current study did not reveal a significant correlation between the use of foreign language strategies and foreign language proficiency of the English learners at the Turkish Military Academy. In addition, the strategy based instruction did not cause an increase in the frequency of the use of foreign language strategies among the cadets. An important reason of this unlikely effect of strategy based instruction might be due to the period of the study. A 10-week application seemed to be not long enough to find out the likely effects of a strategy based instruction on language proficiency.

Also, the literature on strategy based instruction suggests that any likely effect of explicit strategy training should not be expected immediately. The effects might be long term on raising the awareness of the learners on their foreign language schemata. Thus, the findings of the current study are in consistent with the previous research findings in the field.

## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the whole study. Firstly, an overall view of the study is given and the findings of the study are discussed in a comparative manner. Then the educational implications based on the findings are presented. Finally, some suggestions for further research are made.

#### 5.1. Overview of the Study

It is really important to understand the role of the use of language learning strategies and the strategy based instruction in foreign language learning and teaching. Therefore, many researchers in the field have been conducted studies to unveil the complex factors that help and determine how and how well the learners learn a foreign language.

Research on language learning strategies at first only concentrated on the specific attitudes and behaviors of 'Good Language Learners'. More recently, studies have shown a wider range of factors at work. Since the pioneering works by Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) carried out in the mid-seventies there has been an awareness that language learning strategies have the potential to be "an extremely powerful learning tool" (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo, 1985, p. 43).

The use and application of foreign language learning strategies is viewed as an important vehicle for promoting greater success in L2 learning (Grander & MacIntyre, 1992 in Fazeli, 2011b). A strategy is considered to be "effective" if it provides positive support to the students in their attempts to learn or use the foreign language (Cohen and et.al., 1996).

The military life and discipline could be quite challenging for the cadets to emerge and grow their leadership qualities. Also a wide range of instrumental and integrative factors such as instruction, motivation, attitudes, etc. can contribute and affect the achievement level of cadets particularly in foreign language learning.

Regarding this, the use of foreign language learning strategies can have either direct or indirect effect on the achievement of foreign language skills of the EFL learners at the Turkish Military Academy. However, as put wisely by Cephe & Muhtar (2008), the likely effect of the use of foreign language strategies on foreign language proficiency should not be expected to be seen immediately.

This can explain why the use of foreign language strategies did not correlate the overall foreign language proficiency in general and listening, writing and reading proficiency in specific in the current study. Another reason that no statistically significant difference found between the use of foreign language strategies and the language proficiency of the participants might be related to the duration of the study. A 10-week study period might not be long enough to detect the likely effects of foreign language strategies use and a strategy based instruction. At least a one semester (15 weeks or more) would give better results on assessing the likely effect of strategy based instruction.

The findings of the current study regarding a statistically insignificant correlation between the use of the foreign language strategies and the foreign language proficiency are consistent with many other studies in the field. For example, the previously mentioned studies (see pp. 57-62) by Çavuşoğlu (1992), Tüz (1995), Yalçın (2003) and Evcim (2008) reported a statistically insignificant relation between the use of foreign language strategies and the foreign language proficiency.

However, some other studies conducted in the field revealed a correlation between the use of foreign language strategies and the foreign language proficiency. For example, among the studies mentioned in pp. 57-62, the research results reported by Şener (2003), Muhtar (2006), Aydemir (2007), Sucu (2009) and Alamdari (2010) claimed a positive correlation between the strategy use and proficiency of the EFL learners.

That the correlation between the strategy use and language proficiency revealed various results in the literature might be due to many reasons. The determinant factors of each study is peculiar to the context the study is conducted and these factors naturally affect the outcome of the study. Therefore, rather than generating overgeneralizations about the likely relationship between the strategy use and the foreign language proficiency, each study should be accepted to reveal results peculiar to that study context only. Hence, one can safely assume that it is still too early to state

a one-way general relation between the use of foreign language strategies and language proficiency.

On the other hand, the majority of the personal feedbacks of the students during and after the current study were quite positive. Though the current research design does not expect the participants to give feedback about their feelings of the study, quite a few number of participants expressed their teachers and the researcher how they felt about the application. One cadet in the experimental group, for instance, stated that he now felt himself more aware of the steps of English language learning, especially in terms of vocabulary learning. Another cadet remarked that before this study, he had no idea about the term of language learning strategies, but now he would like to learn more about these strategies and how they would help him to improve his reading efficiency in English.

Although, the majority of the feedbacks received from the participants were positive remarks, there were a few negative remarks as well. One or two participants later stated that they did not understand the purpose behind an explicit strategies teaching and they rather prefer doing what the teacher asks them do instead of focusing on what they do as individuals.

Realization of language as a system by the learners and awareness raising can be seen as two important gains of a strategies based instruction. The goal of strategies-based instruction is to help learners become more responsible for their efforts to learn and use the target language. It also aims to help them become more effective learners by allowing them to individualize the language learning experience (Cohen, 2000).

The feedbacks received from the participants of the current study seem to be consistent with the above statements of Cohen (2000) and the research results reported by Tezgiden (2006). In her study conducted at Afyon Kocatepe University, both learner and teacher attitudes were found to be positive towards strategy instruction.

Regarding the other results of the study about the use of the type of the strategies, findings of the current study are in consistent with the findings of some other studies in the literature. In our study, the compensation strategies (direct) are found to be used

the most frequently by the participants. On the other hand, the least frequently employed strategies were respectively affective (indirect), cognitive (direct) and social (indirect) strategies. Similarly, in a study conducted in Taiwan by Lai in 2009, the participants reported using compensation strategies most frequently and affective strategies least frequently (Lai, 2009). Bremner (1999) also reported the use of the compensation and the meta-cognitive strategies the most, whereas the affective and the memory strategies the least.

However, in another research carried out by Tok (2007), unlike the current study, the English teacher candidates studying at Inonu University reported using the meta-cognitive strategies the most. Also, the results of Shmais (2003) study showed that the most frequently used strategies were the meta-cognitive strategies (79.6%) and unlike the current study, the least used strategies were the compensation strategies (63%). As seen in the above mentioned studies, the frequency of the type of strategies in various studies differs. There could be many factors affecting the frequency of the use of the language learning strategies.

Learning strategies is the term applied to the various behaviors or techniques we use to learn. Some learning strategies will be specific to each of the four skills. The receptive skills of reading and listening can share certain strategies, as can the productive skills of speaking and writing (Leaver and et.al, 2005). Therefore, it is quite understandable that depending on the context of the study, the language learning strategies preferred by the participants in the study can vary a lot.

The negative correlation found out in the current study between the use of memory strategies and the foreign language proficiency is consistent with the arguments of Dr. J. Marvin Brown (2001). In 1984, the American University Alumni Language Center in Bangkok started using a new version of the natural approach to teach the Thai language. In publications it has been referred to as 'The Listening Approach', but in Thailand it was first called 'The Natural Approach'. In more recent years it's become known as 'Automatic Language Growth' or 'ALG'. Like natural approaches elsewhere, it is based on the principle that understanding real language use is the only thing that leads to natural language acquisition. But unlike the others, it claims that any attempt to speak (or even think about language) before natural speaking comes by itself will cause irreversible damage and impose a ceiling on the final results. Hence, the findings

of the current study stating that the less proficient students use the memory strategies more frequently might support the argument of Brown (2001) who disfavors any conscious attempt of learning. Since, the memory strategies used by the students are mostly related to conscious learning attempts, they might have a negative impact on the foreign language proficiency of the learners.

In conclusion, although the findings of the present study regarding the role of the use of language strategies in foreign language learning is inconsistent with some of the other studies reviewed, the findings of the research did highlight the need to conduct further research related to strategy use in order to shed light on the possible reasons behind the inconsistency between the findings of the present study and those of the other studies. Furthermore, one should always bear in mind that the use of language learning strategies play a big role in foreign language learning, and researchers need to devise appropriate approaches and techniques that would help teachers to motivate their students and to train them to use strategies that would facilitate their language learning.

## **5.2. Pedagogical Implications**

Based on the conclusions drawn from this study, the results of the analysis serve as an important reminder for foreign language teachers regarding the role the classroom plays in encouraging the use of appropriate strategies to facilitate learning for students. Motivational factors are important considerations to take into account throughout the course of the class. Students do not necessarily take the course with an integrative drive that carries them through, especially in a foreign language setting. Instead, it is important for foreign language teachers to realize that students need to be motivated week by week. Teachers working in military schools must also understand the challenges of the military life.

Another responsibility that foreign language teachers need to have is to create as many authentic situations as possible. Especially in an ESP setting like the Turkish Military Academy, an integrative curiosity could be raised with authentic military materials. Therefore, foreign language teachers need to be aware of how difficult it may be for students to find authentic language use situations, and to capitalize on time in the

classroom. Using a variety of activities can both create interest and allow for students to be successful through the use of different types of learning strategies.

Another option that foreign language teachers have is to help students be more aware of the language learning process. Depending on the situation, a foreign language teacher could encourage students to explore language-learning issues in their own language. For example, foreign language students could be encouraged to keep their own language diary. The process does not need to be as rigorous as a researcher's, but it would give students an opportunity to reflect on their own experience and their reactions to the language and culture.

A language diary can serve as a vent for frustration; it could also motivate students to continue studying if they are specifically made aware of their struggles and successes through the diary. A language diary can also focus on specific issues; a foreign language teacher could alert students to different learning strategies used in class and encourage them to continue the discovery process of what specific strategies they use and how successful each strategy is.

Taking Oxford and Shearin's (1996, p. 139) suggestions, teachers are assumed to carry the following roles:

- Teachers in the Military Academy should diagnose the needs of their students and the reasons underlying their learning a new language. This diagnosis is a great contribution in leading teacher's activities towards that end, so that emphasizing on the appropriate language learning strategies could facilitate foreign language learning of the students.
- Teachers can expand students thoughts and imaginations of a new world by emphasizing on learning of a new language, so that students can be convinced that by learning another language they can gain new friends, knowledge about culture and style of life and etc.
- Teachers have the ability to create friends, positive classroom situations and they can reduce anxiety of learners by increasing their motivation through interesting activities.

Oxford and Shearin (1996, p. 139) suggest the teachers to apply five steps towards dealing with student's beliefs and motivate them use language learning strategies:

1. Become aware of student's past classroom experiences and their ideas concerning language learning,
2. Build student's confidence,
3. Begin from the actual state of the students' level and move slowly,
4. Confirm the students that they are improving and acquiring achievement,
5. Be aware of students' interests and concerns

Accordingly, it can be affirmed that teachers should involve students in classroom activities; classroom situation must have novelty or show a change; and students should struggle with materials and reach their own conclusions.

### **5.3. Suggestions for Further Research**

The present study is another step in the process of specifying internal factors for learners in a foreign language setting. The importance of the learning situation level in Dörnyei's (2001a) model emphasizes how influential the classroom is in providing motivational factors for learners. Utilization of learning strategies is also affected by motivation. The foreign language classroom can provide an opportunity for learners to explore which strategies they use and which they find most successful. As research in these areas continues, classroom methodology will incorporate results so as to maximize the time, experience, and success of foreign language learners.

Since the actual foreign language classroom is an important motivational factor in the language learning process, one possible next research step would be to analyze how motivation could be fostered and encouraged in the classroom, especially in military institutions. Action research is one tool for examining how foreign language teachers try different methods to provide authentic language use situations in their classes and how they motivate students to learn. What are some foreign language learning strategies language teachers can use to actually motivate their students to facilitate their learning? Answers to such questions could be a starting point for further research in this field.



Finally, an understanding of the use of foreign language strategies has vital importance in designing instruction (Cohen, 1996). However, many teachers believe that by sticking to the language materials and trying to discipline their refractory students, they will manage to create a classroom environment that will be conducive to learning. Nevertheless, these teachers seem to lose sight of the fact that, unless they accept their students' personalities and work on those minute details that constitute their social and psychological make-up, they will fail to motivate them. What is more, they will not be able to form a cohesive and coherent group unless they succeed in turning most "curriculum goals" (goals set by outsiders) into "group goals" (goals accepted by the group members, that is, students).

Learning a foreign language is different from learning other subjects. Therefore, language teaching should take account of a variety of factors that are likely to promote, or even prevent success. Language is part of one's identity and is used to convey this identity to his/her profession and to others. Especially in ESP settings like the TMA, foreign language teachers should establish a delicate balance between the requirements of the military discipline and the necessity of lowering the learners' affective filter to bolster the cadets' foreign language learning. The English classrooms should be motivating places to encourage the cadets to pursue their goals to become competent foreign language learners.

The foreign language teachers teaching in military institutions like the TMA should always keep in mind that their profession not only requires the basics of teaching, but also necessitates the essentials of military life such as being a role model for the cadets' future professions as officers. As a result, foreign language learning has a significant impact on the social being of the learner, since it involves the adoption of new social and cultural behaviors and ways of thinking.

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## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX 1

**Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) at the Turkish Military Academy**

*Dear Cadets;*

*This form of the strategy inventory for language learning (SILL) is for students of English as a foreign language (EFL). Please read each statement and mark the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells HOW TRUE THE STATEMENT IS.*

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

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

NAME :  
 NUMBER :  
 SECTION :  
 TEST #1 GRADE :  
 TEST #2 GRADE :

Part A					
	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Some what true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English at the Turkish Military Academy.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5



7. I physically act out new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I review English lessons often.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Part B</b>					
10. I say or write new English words several times.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I practice the sounds of English.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I start conversations in English.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies	1	2	3	4	5
16. I read for pleasure in English.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or operation orders in English.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go	1	2	3	4	5
19. I look for words in Turkish that are similar to new words in English.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I try to find patterns in the English.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I try not to translate word for word.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Part C</b>					
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	1	2	3	4	5
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	1	2	3	4	5
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	1	2	3	4	5

<b>Part D</b>					
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I think about my progress in learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Part E</b>					
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning dairy.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	1	2	3	4	5

<b>Part F</b>					
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	1	2	3	4	5
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I practice English with other cadets.	1	2	3	4	5
48. I ask for help from English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
49. I give Military commands in English.	1	2	3	4	5
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5

Adapted from

<http://www2.education.ualberta.ca/staff/olenka.bilash/Best%20of%20Bilash/SILL%20survey.pdf> (January 23, 2011)

**APPENDIX 2**

NAME :

NUMBER :

SECTION :

**ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVEL TEST # 1****PART I. LISTENING COMPREHENSION****PART A.**

*You will hear short conversations between two people. After each conversation you will hear a question about the conversation. The conversations and questions **will not** be repeated. After you hear a question, read the four possible answers and circle the best answer on your sheet.*

1. A. She didn't understand the man.  
B. She gave the dollar to someone else.  
C. She's unable to help the man.  
D. She's afraid to spend all her money.
2. A. Kathy probably knows Jean's number.  
B. Kathy has recently telephoned.  
C. Kathy and Jean have the same telephone number.  
D. Kathy was trying to call Jean.
3. A. The weather was miserable all day.  
B. She got sunburn.  
C. The hiking trip was Sunday afternoon.  
D. The weather improved in the afternoon.
4. A. The man hasn't gone out for two weeks.  
B. The vitamin C that the man took wasn't effective.  
C. The man didn't try to get rid of his cold.  
D. The man should try vitamin C as a treatment.
5. A. He changed his mind about going to the concert.  
B. The concert will be held outside.  
C. There were no more seats left.  
D. He didn't have enough money to buy tickets.
6. A. What kind of typewriter it is.  
B. Why the man wants to sell the typewriter.  
C. What price the man is asking.  
D. How old the typewriter is.
7. A. Listen to the radio report.  
B. Get off Route 27.  
C. Change the radio station.  
D. Stop worrying about the weather.

8. A. Reschedule her appointment.  
B. Travel by bus.  
C. Meet him at the bus station.  
D. Take the train to the city.
9. A. Kate enjoys entertaining children.  
B. Many people have always liked Kate.  
C. A group of friends arranged a surprise party for Kate.  
D. Kate wasn't expecting so many people at her party.
10. A. Tell Jeff he's a good roommate.  
B. Talk louder next time.  
C. Express his annoyance to Jeff.  
D. Pull the dishes away.
11. A. He's unable to go to the picnic.  
B. He'll join the woman in the afternoon.  
C. He needs to deliver a television this afternoon.  
D. He's going home after the picnic.
12. A. He should have ordered the paper last week.  
B. The paper supply was used up very quickly.  
C. The paper will probably arrive soon.  
D. He ran out of paper last week.
13. A. Assembling a bookcase can be frustrating.  
B. She'll give the man her bookcase.  
C. She'll help the man assemble his bookcase.  
D. The man should have listened to her warning.
14. A. He thinks the summers are warmer in Florida.  
B. He doesn't want to do much when it's hot.  
C. He wishes he were in Florida.  
D. He's never experienced weather this hot.
15. A. Edit a book.  
B. Go to a movie.  
C. Study for class.  
D. Go to bed early.
16. A. She paid for the hamburgers with a check.  
B. Jack paid for the hamburgers.  
C. Jack gave her some money.  
D. The cashier gave her a check for five dollars.
17. A. Take the students to dinner.  
B. Listen to a lecture.  
C. Give a speech.  
D. Meet students in a dormitory.
18. A. He was too busy to go dancing.  
B. He didn't have a good time at the dance.  
C. He doesn't know how to dance.  
D. He didn't feel like going dancing.

19. A. His classes are very difficult.  
B. His work is well respected.  
C. He will publish a book soon.  
D. He is no longer teaching.
20. A. Check his phone bill again.  
B. Write letters instead of calling.  
C. Keep the phone bill next to the phone.  
D. Keep a record of his phone calls.
21. A. He usually turns in his assignments late.  
B. He didn't have time to complete everything.  
C. He is usually a conscientious student.  
D. He usually completes only his chemistry work on time.
22. A. She wants the man to stay for the entire class.  
B. The man has permission to leave early.  
C. She's concerned about the man's health.  
D. The man can change his appointment.
23. A. What the contents of the drawer are.  
B. What happened next.  
C. What the woman just said.  
D. What the woman found.
24. A. He's going to buy a window fan.  
B. He's surprised by the weather forecast.  
C. He hasn't been uncomfortable.  
D. The woman's air conditioning can be repaired.
25. A. Her interview wasn't successful.  
B. There are only three internships available.  
C. She's more qualified than the other candidates.  
D. There's a lot of competition for the job.
26. A. They should go to a different movie.  
B. They should give up trying to see the movie.  
C. They will be entering the theatre soon.  
D. They're too late to see the movie.
27. A. Processing for overseas flights requires two hours.  
B. International flights take a minimum of two hours.  
C. The man's flight will depart in two hours.  
D. The man's flight was announced two hours ago.
28. A. The effect of the change is a mystery.  
B. The number of credits required has increased.  
C. The change will not be very effective.  
D. The timing of the change is unknown.
29. A. Not many people took the exam with Alice.  
B. Alice should have spent the weekend with another friend.  
C. Alice should have gotten help with the sociology exam.  
D. It was good of Alice to go to that much trouble.

30. A. She needs to check her calendar.  
B. She hasn't finished with the book.  
C. The reference material is out-of-date.  
D. She has already returned the almanac.

**PART B.**

*In this part of the test, you will hear longer conversations. After each conversation, you will hear several questions. The conversations and questions will not be repeated.*

*After you hear a question, read the four possible answers in your book and choose the best answer. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen.*

*Remember, you should not take notes or write on your test pages.*

31. A. They may not be able to take their vacation.  
B. It may snow during their vacation.  
C. They are going to need more money.  
D. They may miss graduation.
32. A. They are going skiing.  
B. Their plans include other friends.  
C. They will drive together.  
D. Their reservations have been cancelled.
33. A. Because of the possibility of bad weather.  
B. Because of the faculty's contracts.  
C. Because of the summer schedule of classes.  
D. Because of the date for graduation.
34. A. He might lose his financial aid.  
B. He doesn't want to attend summer classes.  
C. He had already missed too many.  
D. He's afraid he might not graduate.
35. A. They had to work during the performances.  
B. They couldn't find time.  
C. They couldn't afford to go.  
D. The tickets were sold out.
36. A. The performances have been rescheduled.  
B. Student discount tickets are available.  
C. Prices for all tickets have been reduced.  
D. It's possible to see the plays without charge.
37. A. She doubts it will work.  
B. She thinks they don't have enough time.  
C. She's enthusiastic about it.  
D. She's happy to get so much money.

**PART C.**

*In this part of the test, you will hear several short talks. After each talk, you will hear some questions. The talks and the questions will not be repeated.*

*After you hear a question, read the four possible answers in your test book and choose the best answer. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen.*

- 38.** A. To instruct campers how to use their equipment.  
B. To provide park visitors with safety information.  
C. To give directions to camping areas.  
D. To encourage people to visit the park.
- 39.** A. They should carry plenty of water with them.  
B. Drinking from the natural springs is prohibited.  
C. The park service will supply a gallon of water per person.  
D. The natural springs are polluted with soap.
- 40.** A. The types of permits available this time of year.  
B. A description of the park's natural features.  
C. A list of recommended clothing and equipment.  
D. The location of hiking trails throughout the park.
- 41.** A. They are most often sighted on rock formations.  
B. They are a protected species.  
C. They are very active this time of year.  
D. They are attracted to flashlights.
- 42.** A. Famous battles of the American Revolution.  
B. Women in American history.  
C. Nicknames of famous Americans.  
D. Military strategies of the American colonists.
- 43.** A. She enlisted in the artillery.  
B. She was hired as a nurse.  
C. She accompanied her husband.  
D. She was recruited by George Washington.
- 44.** A. She didn't know how to cook.  
B. She smoked a pipe.  
C. She was the first female sergeant.  
D. She repaired cannons.
- 45.** A. She sketched pictures of battle scenes.  
B. She fired a cannon during battle.  
C. She brought pitchers of water to soldiers.  
D. She did washing for the soldiers.
- 46.** A. Showing children how to behave.  
B. Helping children overcome shyness.  
C. Several causes of childhood shyness.  
D. How timid children become shy adults.



47. A. Few people think that they are shy.  
B. Hardly anyone overcomes shyness.  
C. Few psychologists treat shyness.  
D. Almost half of the people surveyed said they are shy.
48. A. Those who have suffered childhood trauma.  
B. Those with shy parents.  
C. Those whose parents have pressured them to succeed.  
D. Those who have been trained in social skills.
49. A. Protect them from other children.  
B. Force them to smile,  
C. Persuade them to try new things.  
D. Accept them as they are.
50. A. Become more sociable.  
B. Become inhibited.  
C. Be more introspective.  
D. Think logically.

**PART II. STRUCTURE AND VOCABULARY****PART A.**

Questions 1-15 are incomplete sentences followed by four words or phrases. Choose the word or words that best completes the sentence.

1. In 1879, -----, Alice Freeman Palmer became head of the history department at Wellesley College.  
(A) twenty-four years  
(B) at the age of twenty-four  
(C) age twenty-four  
(D) of twenty-four years
2. The United States spends more money on advertising ----- country in the world.  
(A) other  
(B) other than  
(C) than any other  
(D) while other
3. Penicillin, probably -----, came into widespread use after the Second World War.  
(A) an antibiotic of known  
(B) was known the antibiotic  
(C) the best-known antibiotic  
(D) known best antibiotic
4. Although Emily Dickinson is now a well-known American poet, only seven of her poems ----- while she was alive.  
(A) publishing  
(B) to publish  
(C) have published  
(D) were published
5. Thomas Jefferson served as president of the American Philosophical Society, an organization that encouraged ----- of scientific and intellectual research.  
(A) ranging wide  
(B) a wide range  
(C) which ranged widely  
(D) a widely ranging
6. Part of the Great Plains, Kansas is famous for ----- fields of wheat.  
(A) its seemingly endless  
(B) it seems endless  
(C) it is seemingly endless  
(D) it is endless it seems
7. Skimming along the surface of the ocean or rising from its depths like delicate balloons, ----- to their aquatic habitat.  
(A) the perfect adaptation of jellyfish  
(B) jellyfish are perfectly adapted  
(C) jellyfish are adapted to perfectly  
(D) and the adaption is perfect for jellyfish

8. The sidereal day is the period ----- the Earth completes one rotation on its axis.  
(A) when does it  
(B) while it  
(C) during which  
(D) in that
9. ----- rainfall in the desert is low, it is one of the most important climatic factors in the Formation of desert erosion features.  
(A) Although  
(B) Why  
(C) Despite  
(D) Due to
10. A strong swimmer, -----.  
(A) that fish and seal are eaten chiefly by the polar bear  
(B) the polar bear eats chiefly fish and seal  
(C) the polar bear eating chiefly fish and seal  
(D) eating fish and seal chiefly by the polar bear
11. Helicopters can rise or descend vertically, hover, and move forward, backward, -----.  
(A) they move laterally  
(B) and are lateral  
(C) or lateral motion  
(D) or laterally
12. The Dallas Theatre Centre presents plays in two buildings, ----- was designed by the internationally renowned architect, Frank Lloyd Wright.  
(A) which  
(B) which one  
(C) that which  
(D) one of which
13. ----- stern from the everyday life of common people, the most popular themes are love, jealousy, revenge, disaster, and adventure.  
(A) Because folk ballads  
(B) There are folk ballads  
(C) With folk ballads  
(D) Folk ballads to
14. ----- around us gives us vital information about our environment.  
(A) The sounds are heard  
(B) That the hearing of sounds  
(C) Hearing the sounds  
(D) Whatever the sounds are heard
15. Located in Boston, ----- in the United States was founded in 1852.  
(A) the first public library was free  
(B) the first free public library  
(C) was the first free public library  
(D) where the first free public library was

**PART B. Written Expression**

*In questions 16-40 each sentence has four underlined words or phrases. The four underlined parts of the sentence are marked (A), (B), (C), and (D). Identify the one underlined word or phrase that must be changed in order for the sentence to be correct. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen.*

16. A goose's neck is a little longer that than of a duck, and not so gracefully  
 A B C D
17. The introduction of new species of plants into the Hawaiian Islands offers an  
 A B  
 opportunity to study the responsively of a natural system to stress.  
 C D
18. At 1939, television programs were being broadcast in the United States, and the  
 A B C  
 World's Fair of that year featured demonstrations of this advance in technology.  
 D
19. Nathaniel Hawthorne often complained of how few material his life provided  
 A B C  
 for his fiction.  
 D
20. The United States capital in Washington D.C. developed slow, assuming its  
 A B  
present gracious aspect, with wide avenues and many parks, only in the twentieth  
 C D  
 century.
21. Soapberry trees and shrubs thrive in tropical regions, and being ornamental  
 A B C  
 plants in California and Florida.  
 D
22. Throughout her length career, Grace Paley has been known for her ability to  
 A B  
 capture the distinct rhythms of New York speech in her short stories.  
 C D
23. Scientists usually character the disease leukemia as an overabundance of white  
 A B C  
 blood cells in the bloodstream.  
 D
24. Energy research, medicinal, tourism, and copper and molybdenum mining are  
 A B  
 important to the economy of Butte, Montana.  
 C D
25. The New Deal was President Franklin D. Roosevelt's program to pull the  
 A B C  
 United States out the Great Depression in the 1930's.  
 D

26. Anyone rowing a boat in a strong wind knows it is much easy to go with the wind than against it.  
 A B C D
27. From the monitoring of earthquake waves it is evidence that the Earth's outer core is liquid, whereas the inner core is solid.  
 A B C D
28. Dictionaries frequently explain the origin of the defined word, state its part of speech, and indication its correct use.  
 A B C D
29. The Caldecott Medal, awarded annual to the best illustrated children's book, is one award that identifies excellent books.  
 A B C D
30. In the spring the woodcock builds a simple nest of leaves and grass in a dry, quiet spots and lays four multi-coloured eggs.  
 A B C D
31. For centuries the aromatic spices of the Far East has been in demand by the people of the East and West.  
 A B C D
32. Linseed oil is used as a drying oil in paints and varnishes and as making linoleum, oilcloth, and certain inks.  
 A B C D
33. Phoenix, Arizona, stands where the Hohokam Indians built a canal system and carried on irrigated farming before long the time of Columbus.  
 A B C D
34. Knowledge of the rate at which a ship is traveling through the water is important if the navigator need to estimate the time of arrival.  
 A B C D
35. The wood of the tulip tree, sometimes referred to as American whitewood, is one of the most valuable timber product in the United States.  
 A B C D
36. The foot is used primary for locomotion, but some primates, notably the apes, also use their feet for grasping and picking up objects.  
 A B C D

37. Although best known for her prose works, Maya Angelou was also published several collections of poetry.  
A B C  
D
38. Founded by the Spanish as Yerba Buena in 1835, what is now San Francisco was taken over by the United States in 1846 and later renamed it.  
A B C D
39. Human hair grows at rate of about one-half to one inch a month.  
A B C D
40. Composed of heavy-textured day soil, adobe has great elasticity when moist, but when dry is able of holding its shape.  
A B C D

### PART III. READING COMPREHENSION

*In this section you will read several passages which are followed by several questions. Answer the questions on the basis of what is stated in that passage.*

#### Questions 1-11

The United States Constitution makes no provision for the nomination of candidates for the presidency. As the framers of the Constitution set up the system, the electors would, out of their own knowledge, select the "wisest and best" as President. But the rise of political parties altered that system drastically - and with the change came the need for nominations.

The first method that the parties developed to nominate presidential candidates was the congressional caucus, a small group of members of Congress. That method was regularly used in the elections of 1800 to 1824. But its closed character led to its downfall in the mid 1820's. For the election of 1832, both major parties turned to the national convention as their nominating device. It has continued to serve them ever since.

With the convention process, the final selection of the President is, for all practical purposes, narrowed to one of two persons: the Republican or the Democratic Party nominee. Yet there is almost no legal control of that vital process.

The Constitution is silent on the subject of presidential nominations. There is, as well, almost no statutory law on the matter. The only provisions in federal law have to do with the financing of conventions. And in each state there is only a small body of laws that deal with issues related to the convention, such as the choosing of delegates and the manner in which they may cast their votes. In short, the convention is very largely a creation and a responsibility of the political parties themselves.

In both the Republican and Democratic parties, the national committee is charged with making the plans and arrangements for the national convention. As much as a year before it is held, the committee meets (usually in Washington, D.C.) to set the time and place for the convention. July has been the favoured month; but each party has met in convention as early as mid-June and also as late as the latter part of August.

Where the convention is held is a matter of prime importance. There must be an adequate convention hall, sufficient hotel accommodations, plentiful entertainment outlets, and efficient transportation facilities.

1. Which of the following motivated a change in the original method of selecting a President of the United States?
  - (A) The framers of the Constitution
  - (B) The rise of the congressional caucus
  - (C) The emergence of the party system
  - (D) The establishment of national conventions
  
2. When was the congressional caucus used?
  - (A) In the early 1800's
  - (B) During the election of 1832
  - (C) Throughout the nineteenth century
  - (D) In several recent elections
  
3. What can be inferred about why the congressional caucus system was terminated?
  - (A) It was too expensive.
  - (B) It took too much time.
  - (C) It did not conform to the Constitution.
  - (D) It did not include enough citizens.

4. The word "them" in line 10 refers to  
(A) conventions (B) parties  
(C) elections (D) candidates
5. The word "Yet" in line 13 indicates that what follows is  
(A) an unexpected fact  
(B) a personal observation  
(C) a list  
(D) an example
6. The word "vital" in line 13 is closest in meaning to  
(A) extremely important  
(B) always accessible  
(C) political  
(D) optional
7. According to the passage, the only aspect of political conventions addressed by federal law involves  
(A) organization  
(B) choosing delegates  
(C) voting procedures  
(D) funding
8. In paragraph 4, the author compares  
(A) nominations and conventions  
(B) finances and the Constitution  
(C) delegates and candidates  
(D) federal and state laws
9. The words "charged with" in lines 20-21 are closest in meaning to  
(A) responsible for  
(B) excited about  
(C) blamed for  
(D) in favour of
10. The passage refers to all of the following as necessary in the city where the convention is held EXCEPT  
(A) an acceptable meeting place  
(B) politically aware citizens  
(C) an easy way of traveling around the city  
(D) sufficient amusement opportunities
11. Where in the passage does the author refer to the original method of selecting a president?  
(A) Lines 2-3  
(B) Lines 11-13  
(C) Lines 18-19  
(D) Lines 20-21



**Questions 12-17**

Several hundred million years ago, plants similar to modern ferns covered vast stretches of the land. Some were as large as trees, with giant fronds bunched at the top of trunks as straight as pillars. Others were the size of bushes and formed thickets of undergrowth. Still others lived in the shade of giant club mosses and horsetails along the edges of swampy lagoons where giant amphibians swam.

A great number of these plants were true ferns, reproducing themselves without fruits or seeds. Others had only the appearance of ferns. Their leaves had organs of sexual reproduction and produced seeds. Although their "flowers" did not have corollas, these false ferns (today completely extinct) ushered in the era of flowering plants. Traces of these flora of the earliest times have been preserved in the form of fossils. Such traces are most commonly found in shale and sandstone rocks wedged between coal beds.

Today only tropical forests bear living proof of the ancient greatness of ferns. The species that grow there are no longer those of the Carboniferous period, but their variety and vast numbers, and the great size of some, remind us of the time when ferns ruled the plant kingdom.

**12.** What does the passage mainly discuss?

- (A) Plant reproduction
- (B) How to locate fossils
- (C) An ancient form of plant life
- (D) Tropical plant life

**13.** The word "others" in line 3 refers to

- (A) plants
- (B) pillars
- (C) trees
- (D) fronds

**14.** Which of the following is NOT mentioned as a characteristic of the plants described in the passage?

- (A) They once spread over large areas of land.
- (B) They varied greatly in size.
- (C) They coexisted with amphibians, mosses, and horsetails.
- (D) They clung to tree trunks and bushes for support.

**15.** The word "true" in line 6 is closest in meaning to which of the following?

- (A) accurate
- (B) genuine
- (c) straight
- (D) dependable

**16.** The author states that fossils of early plant life are usually found in rocks located between deposits of

- (A) coal
- (B) shale
- (C) sandstone
- (D) corollas

**17.** The word "bear" in line 13 could best be replaced by which of the following?

- (A) call for
- (B) provide
- (C) tolerate
- (D) suffer

**Questions 18-28**

The economic expansion prompted by the Second World War triggered a spectacular population boom in the West. Of course, the region was no stranger to population booms. Throughout much of its history, western settlement had been characterized by spurts, rather than by a pattern of gradual and steady population growth, beginning with the gold and silver rushes of the 1850's and 1860's. The decade after the First World War - the 1920's - witnessed another major surge of people pouring into the West, particularly into urban areas. But the economic depression of the 1930's brought this expansion to a halt; some of the more sparsely settled parts of the region actually lost population as migrants sought work in more heavily industrialized areas. By 1941, when the United States entered the Second World War and began to mobilize, new job opportunities were created in the western part of the nation.

If the expansion of industries, such as shipbuilding and aircraft manufacturing, was most striking on the Pacific coast, it also affected interior cities like Denver, Phoenix, and Salt Lake City. Equally dramatic were the effects of the establishment of aluminium plants in Oregon and Washington and the burgeoning steel industry in Utah and California. The flow of people into these areas provided an enormous impetus to the expansion of the service industries - banks, health care services, and schools. Although strained to the limit by the influx of newcomers, western communities welcomed the vast reservoir of new job opportunities. At the same time, the unprecedented expansion of government installations in the West, such as military bases, created thousands of new civilian openings. As land had served as a magnet for western migrants in the late nineteenth century, so wartime mobilization set in motion another major expansion of population. Indeed, it could be said that the entire western United States became a giant boomtown during the Second World War. This was especially true of California. Of the more than eight million people who moved into the West in the decade after 1940, almost one-half went to the Pacific coast. In fact, between 1940 and 1950, California's population surged by more than three million people.

**18.** What is the main point of the passage?

- (A) California dominated the economic growth of the West during the Second World War.
- (B) Industrial growth during the 1940's attracted large numbers of people to the West.
- (C) The military drew people away from civilian jobs during the 1940's.
- (D) The West experienced gradual and steady economic growth from 1900 to 1940

**19.** The word "triggered" in line 1 is closest in meaning to

- (A) was connected to
- (B) generated
- (C) interfered with
- (D) illuminated

**20.** Why does the author mention "the gold and silver rushes of the 1850's and 1860's" in the first paragraph?

- (A) As causes of gradual population growth
- (B) As contrasts to later patterns of population growth
- (C) As illustrations of a market economy
- (D) As examples of western population booms

**21.** Which of the following occurred in the West during the 1920's?

- (A) Gold and silver deposits were discovered.
- (B) The population density gradually increased.
- (C) The population of the cities increased significantly.
- (D) Many military bases were established.

- 22.** According to the passage, the depression of the 1930's caused which of the following?  
(A) A lack of population growth in the West  
(B) The building of new suburbs  
(C) A creation of more job opportunities  
(D) A growth in immigration from abroad
- 23.** Which of the following statements about the shipbuilding industry is suggested by the passage?  
(A) It came into being during the First World War.  
(B) Many new shipbuilding yards were established on the Pacific coast during the 1940's.  
(C) Denver was considered to be a poor location for shipbuilding factories.  
(D) Shipbuilding was the dominant industry in Oregon and Washington.
- 24.** The word "it" in line 13 refers to  
(A) expansion  
(B) Denver  
(C) manufacturing  
(D) the Pacific coast
- 25.** The word "enormous" in line 16 is closest in meaning to  
(A) unexpected  
(B) immense  
(C) adequate  
(D) important
- 26.** The passage suggests that industrialization in the West led to all of the following EXCEPT  
(A) A reduction in the price of land  
(B) An increase in school construction  
(C) Improved access to doctors  
(D) An increase in the number of banks
- 27.** According to the passage, what was one result of the building of new military bases in the West in the 1940's?  
(A) Military bases in other parts of the United States were closed.  
(B) Many settlers were forced off their land.  
(C) Many civilian jobs were created.  
(D) The cost of living rose sharply in California and other Western states.
- 28.** It can be inferred from the passage that the principal cause of California's population surge between 1940 and 1950 was  
(A) the increased availability of land  
(B) people's desire to live in a warm, coastal climate  
(C) the industrial mobilization necessitated by the Second World War  
(D) overcrowding in urban areas in other regions of the United States

### Questions 29-39

For 150 years scientists have tried to determine the solar constant, the amount of solar energy that reaches the Earth. Yet, even in the most cloud-free regions of the planet, the solar constant cannot be measured precisely. Gas molecules and dust particles in the atmosphere absorb and scatter sunlight and prevent some wavelengths of the light from ever reaching the ground.

With the advent of satellites, however, scientists have finally been able to measure the Sun's output without being impeded by the Earth's atmosphere. Solar Max, a satellite from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), has been measuring the Sun's output since February 1980. Although a malfunction in the satellite's control system limited its observation for a few years, the satellite was repaired in orbit by astronauts from the space shuttle in 1984. Max's observations indicate that the solar constant is not really constant after all.

The satellite's instruments have detected frequent, small variations in the Sun's energy output, generally amounting to no more than 0.05 per cent of the Sun's mean energy output and lasting from a few days to a few weeks. Scientists believe these fluctuations coincide with the appearance and disappearance of large groups of sunspots on the Sun's disk. Sunspots are relatively dark regions on the Sun's surface that have strong magnetic fields and a temperature about 2,000 degrees Fahrenheit cooler than the rest of the Sun's surface. Particularly large fluctuations in the solar constant have coincided with sightings of large sunspot groups. In 1980, for example, Solar Max's instruments registered a 0.3 per cent drop in the solar energy reaching the Earth. At that time a sunspot group covered about 0.6 per cent of the solar disk, an area 20 times larger than the Earth's surface.

Long-term variations in the solar constant are more difficult to determine. Although Solar Max's data have indicated a slow and steady decline in the Sun's output, some scientists have thought that the satellite's aging detectors might have become less sensitive over the years, thus falsely indicating a drop in the solar constant. This possibility was dismissed, however, by comparing Solar Max's observations with data from a similar instrument operating on NASA's Nimbus 7 weather satellite since 1978.

**29.** What does this passage mainly discuss?

- (A) The launching of a weather satellite
- (B) The components of the Earth's atmosphere
- (C) The measurement of variations in the solar constant
- (D) The interaction of sunlight and air pollution

**30.** Why does the author mention "gas" and "dust" in line 3?

- (A) They magnify the solar constant.
- (B) They are found in varying concentrations.
- (C) Scientific equipment is ruined by gas and dust.
- (D) They interfere with accurate measurement of the solar constant.

**31.** Why is it not possible to measure the solar constant accurately without a satellite?

- (A) The Earth is too far from the Sun.
- (B) Same areas on Earth receive more solar energy than others.
- (C) There is not enough sunlight during the day.
- (D) The Earth's atmosphere interferes with the sunlight.

**32.** The word "scatter" in line 4 is closest in meaning to

- (A) emit
- (B) capture
- (C) transform
- (D) disperse

**33.** The word "its" in line 10 refers to the

- (A) orbit
- (B) atmosphere
- (C) satellite
- (D) malfunction

- 34.** The word "detected" in line 13 is closest in meaning to  
(A) estimated  
(B) disregarded  
(C) registered  
(D) predicted
- 35.** According to the passage, scientists believe variations in the solar constant are related to  
(A) sunspot activity  
(B) unusual weather patterns  
(C) increased levels of dust  
(D) fluctuations in the Earth's temperature
- 36.** The word "decline" in line 25 is closest in meaning to  
(A) fall  
(B) reversal  
(C) release  
(D) fluctuation
- 37.** Why did scientists think that Solar Max might be giving unreliable information?  
(A) Solar Max did not work for the first few years.  
(B) The space shuttle could not fix Solar Max's instruments.  
(C) Solar Max's instruments were getting old.  
(D) Nimbus 7 interfered with Solar Max's detectors.
- 38.** The phrase "This possibility" in line 27 refers to the likelihood that the  
(A) solar constant has declined  
(B) Nimbus 7 satellite is older than Solar Max  
(C) solar constant cannot be measured  
(D) instruments are providing inaccurate data
- 39.** The attempt to describe the solar constant can best be described as  
(A) an ongoing research effort  
(B) an issue that has been resolved  
(C) a question that can never be answered  
(D) historically interesting, but irrelevant to contemporary concerns

### Questions 40-50

Even before the turn of the century, movies began to develop in two major directions: the realistic and the formalistic. Realism and formalism are merely general, rather than absolute, terms. When used to suggest a tendency toward either polarity, such labels can be helpful, but in the end they are still just labels. Few films are exclusively formalist in style, and fewer yet are completely realist. There is also an important difference between realism and reality, although this distinction is often forgotten. Realism is a particular style, whereas physical reality is the source of all the raw materials of film, both realistic and formalistic. Virtually all movie directors go to the photographable world for their subject matter, but what they do with this material -how they shape and manipulate it- determines their stylistic emphasis.

Generally speaking, realistic films attempt to reproduce the surface of concrete reality with a minimum of distortion. In photographing objects and events, the filmmaker tries to suggest the copiousness of life itself. Both realist and formalist film directors must select (and hence emphasize) certain details from the chaotic sprawl of reality. But the element of selectivity in realistic films is less obvious. Realists, in short, try to preserve the illusion that their film world is unmanipulated, an objective mirror of the actual world. Formalists, on the

other hand, make no such pretense. They deliberately stylize and distort their raw materials so that only the very naive would mistake a manipulated image of an object or event for the real thing.

We rarely notice the style in a realistic movie; the artist tends to be self-effacing. Some filmmakers are more concerned with what is being shown than how it is manipulated. The camera is used conservatively. It is essentially a recording mechanism that reproduces the surface of tangible objects with as little commentary as possible. A high premium is placed on simplicity, spontaneity, and directness. This is not to suggest that these movies lack artistry, however, for at its best the realistic cinema specializes in art that conceals art.

**40.** What does the passage mainly discuss?

- (A) Acting styles
- (B) Film plots
- (C) Styles of filmmaking
- (D) Filmmaking 100 years ago

**41.** With which of the following statements would the author be most likely to agree?

- (A) Realism and formalism are outdated terms.
- (B) Most films are neither exclusively realistic nor formalistic.
- (C) Realistic films are more popular than formalistic ones.
- (D) Formalistic films are less artistic than realistic ones.

**42.** The phrase "this distinction" in line 6 refers to the difference between

- (A) formalists and realists
- (B) realism and reality
- (C) general and absolute
- (D) physical reality and raw materials

**43.** Whom does the author say is primarily responsible for the style of a film?

- (A) The director
- (B) The actors
- (C) The producer
- (D) The camera operator

**44.** The word "shape" in line 9 is closest in meaning to

- (A) specify
- (B) form
- (C) understand
- (D) achieve

**45.** The word "preserve" in line 15 is closest in meaning to

- (A) encourage
- (B) maintain
- (C) reflect
- (D) attain

**46.** The word "They" in line 17 refers to

- (A) films
- (B) realists
- (C) formalists
- (D) raw materials

**47.** How can one recognize the formalist style?

- (A) It uses familiar images.
- (B) It is very impersonal.
- (C) It obviously manipulates images.
- (D) It mirrors the actual world.

**48.** The word "tangible" in line 23 is closest in meaning to

- (A) concrete
- (B) complex
- (C) various
- (D) comprehensible

**49.** Which of the following terms is NOT used to describe realism in filmmaking?

- (A) Simple
- (B) Spontaneous
- (C) Self-effacing
- (D) Exaggerated

**50.** Which of the following films would most likely use a realist style?

- (A) A travel documentary
- (B) A science fiction film
- (C) A musical drama
- (D) An animated cartoon

## ANSWER KEY # 1

Section 1	Section 2	Section 3
1. C	1. B	1. C
2. A	2. C	2. A
3. D	3. C	3. D
4. D	4. D	4. B
5. C	5. B	5. A
6. C	6. A	6. A
7. A	7. B	7. D
8. D	8. C	8. D
9. B	9. A	9. A
10. C	10. B	10. B
11. A	11. D	11. A
12. C	12. D	12. C
13. A	13. A	13. A
14. A	14. C	14. D
15. C	15. B	15. B
16. B	16. B	16. A
17. C	17. C	17. B
18. D	18. A	18. B
19. B	19. B	19. B
20. D	20. A	20. D
21. C	21. C	21. C
22. B	22. A	22. A
23. D	23. A	23. B
24. C	24. A	24. A
25. D	25. D	25. B
26. C	26. C	26. A
27. A	27. B	27. C
28. D	28. D	28. C
29. D	29. A	29. C
30. B	30. D	30. D
31. A	31. C	31. D
32. B	32. C	32. D
33. D	33. D	33. C
34. C	34. D	34. C
35. C	35. D	35. A
36. D	36. A	36. A
37. C	37. C	37. C
38. B	38. D	38. D
39. A	39. A	39. A
40. D	40. D	40. C
41. C		41. B
42. B		42. B
43. C		43. A
44. B		44. B
45. C		45. B
46. B		46. C
47. D		47. C
48. B		48. A
49. C		49. D
50. A		50. A



## LISTENING COMPREHENSION SCRIPTS

### PART A

1.     *(man)*            *Pardon me, Miss. Do you have change for a dollar?*  
           *(woman)*        *I'm afraid not; you'll have to ask someone else.*  
           *(narrator)*    *What does the woman mean?*
  
2.     *(woman)*        *Do you know Jean's phone number?*  
           *(man)*            *Try calling Kathy.*  
           *(narrator)*    *What does the man imply?*
  
3.     *(man)*            *How was the weather for your hiking trip last Saturday?*  
           *(woman)*        *It drizzled in the morning, but got sunny in the afternoon.*  
           *(narrator)*    *What does the woman mean?*
  
4.     *(man)*            *I've had this cold for two weeks now, and I can't seem*  
                           *to get rid of it.*  
           *(woman)*        *Have you tried taking large doses of vitamin C?*  
           *(narrator)*    *What does the woman mean?*
  
5.     *(woman)*        *Did you get the tickets for the concert tomorrow?*  
           *(man)*            *Sorry, they were sold out.*  
           *(narrator)*    *What does the man mean?*
  
6.     *(man)*            *Do you know anybody who might want to buy my typewriter?*  
                           *It's pretty old, but it still works.*  
           *(woman)*        *How much do you want for it?*  
           *(narrator)*    *What does the woman want to know?*
  
7.     *(woman)*        *If this snowstorm gets any worse, the police will have to*  
                           *close Route 27.*  
           *(man)*            *Better keep the radio on.*  
           *(narrator)*    *What does the man suggest they do?*
  
8.     *(woman)*        *I need to be in the city by 9 a.m. to get to a 9:30 doctor's*  
                           *appointment .... Do you think I should take the bus or the train?*  
           *(man)*            *Let's see ... the bus doesn't arrive till 9:45 ...*  
                           *Oh! But the train gets in at quarter to nine.*  
           *(narrator)*    *What does the man suggest the woman do?*
  
9.     *(woman)*        *There were so many people at Kate's party. I can't believe the*  
                           *number of friends she has.*  
           *(man)*            *It's really no surprise. She was extremely popular even when*  
                           *she was a child.*  
           *(narrator)*    *What does the man say about Kate?*
  
10.    *(man)*            *Jeff's a good roommate, but I'm tired of washing the dishes*  
                           *he leaves in the sink.*  
           *(woman)*        *You really ought to speak up about it.*  
           *(narrator)*    *What does the woman suggest the man do?*

11. (woman) *Are you sure you can't join us for the picnic? It'll be a lot of fun - and everyone from the office'll be there.*  
 (man) *I've got to stick around home. The delivery service called, and my TV should arrive this afternoon.*  
 (narrator) *What does the man mean?*
12. (woman) *We'll be needing more computer paper soon. Could you take care of that right away?*  
 (man) *I put the order through last week. It should be in any day now.*  
 (narrator) *What does the man mean?*
13. (man) *The box warned that you need to do some assembly yourself, but I've spent all afternoon trying to put this bookcase together.*  
 (woman) *I know what you mean. The last time I tried to assemble a bookcase, I almost gave up.*  
 (narrator) *What does the woman mean?*
14. (woman) *I didn't know it got so hot here in summer!*  
 (man) *Hot! This is nothing compared to summertime in Florida.*  
 (narrator) *What does the man mean?*
15. (man) *Would you like to see a movie with me tonight?*  
 (woman) *I'd like to, but I have to hit the books.*  
 (narrator) *What will the woman probably do?*
16. (man) *Did you give the cashier five dollars for the hamburgers?*  
 (woman) *No, I had Jack do it.*  
 (narrator) *What does the woman mean?*
17. (man) *Professor Jones, would you like to come to dinner at our dorm tomorrow? We're trying to get to know the faculty.*  
 (woman) *If only you'd asked me earlier; I just accepted a speaking engagement.*  
 (narrator) *What will Professor Jones do tomorrow night?*
18. (woman) *We had a great time the other night. You should've come.*  
 (man) *I just wasn't in the mood for dancing.*  
 (narrator) *What does the man mean?*
19. (man) *What have you heard about Professor Smith? I'm thinking of taking an advanced engineering course with him.*  
 (woman) *You really should. One of his articles just won some sort of award - and I heard he's always publishing something in the journals.*  
 (narrator) *What does the woman say about the professor?*

20. (man) *I can't believe my phone bill! This's the second month in a row it's been over a hundred dollars.*  
 (woman) *Maybe you should start writing down all your long-distance calls - and keep that next to the phone as a reminder.*  
 (narrator) *What does the woman suggest the man do?*
21. (man) *All I can turn in today is my chemistry homework.*  
 (woman) *Is everything all right? You usually have everything completed on time.*  
 (narrator) *What does the woman imply about the man?*
22. (man) *Professor Cohen, would it be all right if I left class early today? I have a dentist appointment.*  
 (woman) *That's not a problem.*  
 (narrator) *What does the woman mean?*
23. (woman) *Look what was stuck behind the drawer.*  
 (man) *What is it?*  
 (narrator) *What does the man want to know?*
24. (woman) *I wouldn't want to have gone through this last week without air conditioning. It's been so muggy!*  
 (man) *Really? I've made do quite well with a window fan.*  
 (narrator) *What does the man imply?*
25. (man) *How did your interview for the summer internship go?*  
 (woman) *Okay, I guess. It's down to three of us.*  
*But the other two are seniors and better qualified.*  
 (narrator) *What does the woman imply?*
26. (woman) *We'll never get into the movie at this rate!*  
 (man) *Ah, the line'll start moving in a minute.*  
 (narrator) *What does the man imply?*
27. (man) *Do I have to check in two hours before departure?*  
 (woman) *You do for overseas flights.*  
 (narrator) *What does the woman mean?*
28. (woman) *I've heard that the university is changing the number of required credits.*  
 (man) *When it goes into effect, though, is still a mystery.*  
 (narrator) *What does the man mean?*
29. (woman) *My friend Alice spent her whole weekend helping me prepare for my sociology exam.*  
 (man) *There aren't many people who would put themselves out like that.*  
 (narrator) *What does the man imply?*

30. (man) *Shall I return this almanac to the reference desk?*  
 (woman) *I want to check a few dates first.*  
 (narrator) *What does the woman mean?*

**PART B.**

Questions 31 through 34. Listen to a conversation between two college students.

- (man) *Cindy! Have you heard the news?*
- (woman) *No, Steve. What do you mean?*
- (man) *You know all the classes we've missed because of the snow?*
- (woman) *Uhoh ...*
- (man) *Yup - we're going to have to make them up and the dean says it will have to be during spring break.*
- (woman) *Steve! We have our vacation all set! What are we going to do? Do the others know?*
- (man) *I don't know but I certainly can't afford to miss five days of classes this semester, with that week I was sick ...*
- (woman) *But I really don't want to cancel our trip. All of us have already made our plane reservations!*
- (man) *I can try to call the travel agency; maybe they can refund our money. But before we do anything we need to speak with our professors.*
- (woman) *You think they'll excuse us from class?*
- (man) *Probably not. But I was talking to Kevin this morning and he said that one of his professors told him that they could make up the class at a different time.*
- (woman) *Wow - that's great! Which professor was it?*
- (man) *I don't know. But we're going to have to speak to all of them anyway.*
- (woman) *Why didn't they add extra days at the end of the semester before summer classes?*
- (man) *Because of the graduation date, which can't be changed.*

- (woman) *Are other colleges around here doing the same thing?*
- (man) *I would imagine so - it's been such a bad winter and we've missed too many classes. We do really need to make them up.*
- (woman) *I know, I know. I was just really looking forward to this vacation. The idea of the sun and the beach!*
- (man) *Oh look, there's Professor Hampton right now!*
- (woman) *Come on, let's go talk to her!*

31. *Why are the man and woman upset?*
32. *What can be inferred about the man's and woman's vacation?*
33. *Why can't the semester be extended?*
34. *Why can't the man miss classes?*

Questions 35 through 37. *Listen to two students talking.*

- (man) *Hey, Christine, remember how we were complaining that we wanted to see the drama series but couldn't afford the tickets? I've found a solution.*
- (woman) *Yeah? Won the lottery, huh?*
- (man) *Huh-uh. But, seriously, I did find a way for us to see all the plays - and we don't have to pay a cent.*
- (woman) *Come on, Jim. That's impossible.*
- (man) *No, really, we can. I called Stanhope Theater to ask if they had student discounts. They didn't, but they did have another suggestion.*
- (woman) *What's that?*
- (man) *The man there told me they just lost four of their ushers so they have openings.*
- (woman) *Really?*
- (man) *Yeah. You don't get paid, but you do get to stand in the back and watch the play after you've helped everyone find their seats. No seat, but a good view. Then during intermission you help sell refreshments.*
- (woman) *But Jim, each play is performed on six nights. Can we make that big a commitment?*
- (man) *We don't have to. That's the best part. They have enough ushers so that each person works only two nights at the same play.*
- (woman) *I never imagined we'd be able to see the whole series. Let's take a look at the schedule right now.*

35. *Why did Christine and Jim think they would not be able to see the drama series?*
36. *What did Jim learn when he called the theater?*
37. *At the end of their conversation, how does Christine feel about Jim's solution?*

**PART C.**

Questions 38 through 41. Listen to a park ranger talk to a group of campers.

(man) *I know you're anxious to get your permits and get started. But there're just a few things I'd like to mention that might help you avoid trouble during your stay. First of all, make sure you carry adequate water. You' ll need it if you're hiking, especially in this heat. A good rule of thumb is to bring one gallon per person per day this time of year. Don't try to rely on the park's natural springs to supply all your water needs. And please, do not use soap in the springs. It's your responsibility to protect the park's natural features.*

*For those of you staying beyond the weekend ... make sure that you set up camp well away from dry creekbeds. We may get some heavy rainfall, and those creekbeds could quickly become filled with water, and you and all your equipment might end up washed downstream.*

*When you pick up your permits, you'll also get a park services booklet. It'll tell you everything you need to know about the hiking trails. They vary in length, of course, but most of them are under five miles - relatively easy day hikes. Remember, if you're hiking solo, make sure you let someone know you're going and when they can expect you back. And ... uh, for your own safety, we recommend that you not climb rock faces. A lot of the rock throughout the park is very unstable.*

*One final word ... watch out for poisonous snakes. Rattlesnake activity is at its peak this time of year - especially at night. For your own good, we recommend wearing protective clothing ... and carry a flashlight after dark.*

38. *What is the main purpose of the talk?*
39. *What does the speaker tell hikers about drinking water?*
40. *What information does the park services booklet contain?*
41. *What does the speaker say about rattlesnakes?*

Questions 42 through 45. Listen to part of a history lecture.

(woman) *Last week we talked about Anne Bradstreet and the role of women in the Puritan colonies. Today I want to talk about some other women who've contributed to American history - some famous and some not-so-famous. The first woman I'd like to talk about is Molly Pitcher. Those of you who are familiar with the name may know her as a hero of the American Revolution. But, in fact, there never was a woman named Molly Pitcher. Her real name was actually Mary Ludwig Hays. She got the nickname Molly Pitcher for her acts of bravery during the Revolutionary War.*

*As the story goes, when Mary's - or Molly's - husband, John Hays, enlisted in the artillery, Mary followed ... like many other wives did. She helped out doing washing and cooking for the soldiers. She was known to be a pretty unusual woman -she smoked a pipe and chewed tobacco.*

*Anyway ... in the summer of 1778, at the Battle of Monmouth, it was a blistering hot day - maybe over a hundred degrees and fifty soldiers died of thirst during the battle. Molly wasn't content to stay back at camp. Instead, she ran through gunshots and cannon fire carrying water in pitchers from a small stream out to the thirsty American soldiers. The relief that she brought with her pitchers of water gave her the legendary nickname Molly Pitcher. The story also says that she continued to load and fire her husband's cannon after he was wounded. They say she was so well liked by the other soldiers that they called her "Sergeant Molly." In fact, legend has it that George Washington himself gave her the special military title.*

42. *This talk is part of a series on what subject?*
43. *Why was Mary at the Battle of Monmouth?*
44. *Why was Mary considered an unusual woman?*
45. *How did Mary Hays earn her nickname?*

*Questions 46 through 50. Listen to part of a lecture on child psychology.*

*(man) Today we're going to talk about shyness and discuss recent research on ways to help children learn to interact socially.*

*Many people consider themselves shy. In fact, forty percent of the people who took part in our survey said they were shy - that's two out of every five people. And there are studies to indicate that the tendency toward shyness may be inherited. But just because certain children are timid doesn't mean they are doomed to be shy forever. There are things parents, teachers, and the children themselves can do to overcome this tendency - and even to prevent it.*

*One researcher found that if parents gently push their shy children to try new things, they can help these children become less afraid and less inhibited. Another way to help shy children is to train them in social skills. For example, there are special training groups where children are taught things like looking at other children while talking to them, talking about other people's interests, and even smiling.*

*These groups have been very successful at giving shy children a place to feel safe and accepted, and at building up their self-esteem.*

46. *What is the lecture mostly about?*
47. *What does the speaker say about shyness?*
48. *According to the speaker, which people are most likely to be shy?*
49. *According to the speaker, what should parents of shy children do?*
50. *What might the group sessions help shy children do?*



**APPENDIX 3**

NAME :

NUMBER :

SECTION :

**ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVEL TEST # 2****PART I. LISTENING COMPREHENSION****PART A.**

*You will hear short conversations between two people. After each conversation you will hear question about the conversation. The conversations and questions **will not** be repeated. After you hear a question, read the four possible answers and circle the best answer on your sheet.*

1. (A) The woman should check the bus schedule.  
(B) The buses stop running on Fridays.  
(C) The bus doesn't stop at the corner.  
(D) The schedule on the corner is out-of-date.
2. (A) Make some tea for the man.  
(B) Take the man to see a doctor.  
(C) Ask the man's mother to come over.  
(D) Look up a recipe for chicken soup.
3. (A) She finished packing a half hour ago.  
(B) The man should get ready quickly.  
(C) She'll meet the man at the airport.  
(D) The man doesn't like to travel.
4. (A) She's too busy to have dinner with the man this month.  
(B) She doesn't know her new schedule yet.  
(C) She'll go to dinner with the man on Monday.  
(D) She doesn't want to cook dinner.
5. (A) He returned home without any seeds.  
(B) He brought home some vegetables.  
(C) He forgot to stop at the nursery.  
(D) He bought the wrong seeds.
6. (A) He's already completed the program.  
(B) He doesn't know the nurse's phone number.  
(C) He doesn't have time to call.  
(D) He'd like to get additional information.

7. (A) Get the woman another carton of eggs.  
(B) Give the woman a refund.  
(C) Clean up the floor.  
(D) Tell the woman where she can find the eggs.
8. (A) Go to bed earlier.  
(B) Wake up earlier in the morning.  
(C) Register for later classes.  
(D) Use an alarm clock to wake up.
9. (A) Give her a new suitcase.  
(B) Give her store credit.  
(C) Fix her suitcase.  
(D) Give her a refund.
10. (A) She doesn't agree with the man.  
(B) She wants the man's opinion.  
(C) The man is overqualified.  
(D) The man shouldn't react so strongly.
11. (A) He needs some change.  
(B) He seldom counts his money.  
(C) He doesn't have that much cash.  
(D) He owes the woman fifty dollars.
12. (A) He'll take work with him on his vacation.  
(B) Work stacked up while he was on vacation.  
(C) He has too much work to do.  
(D) He's already made his vacation plans.
13. (A) He's already been picked up.  
(B) He got delayed at the airport.  
(C) He'll be standing outside.  
(D) He'll be easy to recognize.
14. (A) He drank too much coffee.  
(B) He thinks the stain can be removed.  
(C) He'll clean the shirt himself.  
(D) He's worried about his shirt.
15. (A) He still has a lot to do.  
(B) He has to wait a while before he buys a house.  
(C) He hasn't been able to sell his house.  
(D) He appreciates the woman's help.
16. (A) She's studying for a physics exam.  
(B) She's planning her class schedule.  
(C) She has a degree in astrophysics.  
(D) She plans to graduate this year.
17. (A) She doesn't like bowling.  
(B) She probably won't be able to go.  
(C) She'll go bowling with Dennis next week.  
(D) She'll help Dennis with his project this weekend.

18. (A) He'd like to ride with the woman.  
(B) He'll try to get a ride with someone else.  
(C) He already has a ride.  
(D) His car has already been fixed.
19. (A) The museum might be closed before they arrive.  
(B) They should find a different way to get to the museum.  
(C) He won't be able to go with the woman.  
(D) It isn't worth getting upset about the delay.
20. (A) Ten minutes is a long time for spaghetti to cook.  
(B) She'll tell the man when the time is up.  
(C) She doesn't want to have spaghetti for dinner.  
(D) The man should start the spaghetti in ten minutes.
21. (A) The man's paper was due last week.  
(B) The man has a lot of work to do.  
(C) She'll help the man with his paper.  
(D) The library is closed on weekends.
22. (A) She'd rather not go to the late show.  
(B) She'll miss the rehearsal because she is sick.  
(C) She's too tired to go to the concert.  
(D) She wishes the man had fewer rehearsals.
23. (A) The gym is always very crowded.  
(B) The gym offers many different activities.  
(C) He doesn't know how late the gym stays open.  
(D) The number of people in the gym varies.
24. (A) Gloria hasn't been with the company very long.  
(B) Gloria got her promotion after only a year.  
(C) Gloria hasn't gotten what she deserved.  
(D) Gloria earned her promotion.
25. (A) Most people don't like it.  
(B) Some people aren't enthusiastic about it.  
(C) The enthusiasm people feel will soon disappear.  
(D) She'll take it next semester.
26. (A) Anyone would have difficulty without directions.  
(B) It was surprising that the store provided a manual.  
(C) Mike expected the bike to be assembled at the store.  
(D) Mike couldn't understand the instructions.
27. (A) He knows how to use the camera.  
(B) He's a professional photographer.  
(C) He isn't sure he knows how the camera works.  
(D) He has used the woman's camera before.
28. (A) Nancy wouldn't send a thank-you note.  
(B) Nancy hadn't received the scarf.  
(C) Nancy wouldn't like the gift.  
(D) Nancy doesn't wear scarves.

29. (A) The car is dependable.  
(B) The car isn't very old.  
(C) This car is better than his old one.  
(D) He paid too much for the car.
30. (A) She should have bought a new book bag earlier.  
(B) She wanted to buy the new statistics book.  
(C) She spends money extravagantly.  
(D) She lost her new book bag.

## PART B.

*In this part of the test, you will hear longer conversations. After each conversation, you will hear several questions. The conversations and questions will not be repeated.*

*After you hear a question, read the four possible answers in your book and choose the best answer. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen. Remember, you should not take notes or write on your test pages.*

31. (A) The zoo has built a rookery there.  
(B) He's writing a book about penguins.  
(C) He's interested in seeing a certain species.  
(D) It has recently been renovated.
32. (A) It lives near the equator.  
(B) It is able to fly.  
(C) It lays its eggs underwater.  
(D) It is the largest kind of penguin.
33. (A) They have no feathers.  
(B) They are used for swimming.  
(C) They differ on males and females.  
(D) They are present only on certain species.
34. (A) He keeps the egg warm.  
(B) He builds a nest for the egg.  
(C) He defends the colony.  
(D) He gathers food for the female.
35. (A) A comparison of unconscious behaviour patterns.  
(B) Recent trends in psychology.  
(C) Reasons for certain behaviour problems.  
(D) Causes of anxiety.
36. (A) He feels angry.  
(B) He wants attention.  
(C) He's too quiet.  
(D) He's very nervous.
37. (A) He's late for social occasions but not for work.  
(B) He's a quiet person but likes to make grand entrances.  
(C) He expects others to be on time but is usually late himself.  
(D) He loses pay for being late to work but doesn't seem to mind.

38. (A) Trying to get Mark to talk about his problem.  
(B) Helping Mark relax and be more comfortable in a group.  
(C) Waiting fifteen minutes and then leaving without Mark.  
(D) Telling Mark to come earlier than the planned meeting time.

**PART C.**

*In this part of the test, you will hear several short talks. After each talk, you will hear some questions. The talks and the questions will not be repeated.*

*After you hear a question, read the four possible answers in your test book and choose the best answer. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen.*

39. (A) Whether it is necessary to put labels on prepared foods.  
(B) What the daily requirements for certain nutrients should be.  
(C) How to get consumers to read labels more carefully.  
(D) What information food manufacturers should provide to consumers.
40. (A) To demonstrate that current consumer trends are stable.  
(B) To compare current consumer trends to those of the past.  
(C) To indicate that most consumers actively research the products they buy.  
(D) To show that there has been a decrease in consumer awareness.
41. (A) Stricter standards for food preparation.  
(B) More detailed labels on food.  
(C) Removing certain foods from the market.  
(D) Regular testing of food products.
42. (A) They were unable to comprehend a label without percentages.  
(B) They preferred more basic labelling.  
(C) They were unwilling to do simple arithmetic.  
(D) They thought the language on labels was too technical.
43. (A) To describe a college training program.  
(B) To recruit people for a job.  
(C) To discuss problems faced by the airline industry.  
(D) To describe a recent trip.
44. (A) A four-year college degree.  
(B) Letters of reference.  
(C) Extensive travel experience.  
(D) Experience working with the public.
45. (A) Psychology.  
(B) World history.  
(C) Modern languages.  
(D) Geography.
46. (A) To introduce the next speaker.  
(B) To explain her previous job.  
(C) To describe some of the skills flight attendants need.  
(D) To describe the background needed by applicants.

47. (A) The high salary.  
 (B) The free college tuition.  
 (C) The chance to meet people.  
 (D) The opportunity for advancement.
48. (A) By categorizing the world's climate.  
 (B) By defining the term "climate."  
 (C) By summarizing the previous lecture.  
 (D) By referring to the weather map.
49. (A) The releasing of heat from the Earth's core by volcanoes.  
 (B) The amount of energy used by different countries around the world.  
 (C) The rate at which sunlight is converted to heat by the Earth.  
 (D) The amount of fossil fuels stored in the Earth.
50. (A) Computer models are inadequate.  
 (B) Climate changes too quickly.  
 (C) Instruments for collecting field samples are not reliable.  
 (D) Meteorologists cannot agree on key terms.

## PART II. STRUCTURE AND VOCABULARY

### PART A.

*Questions 1-15 are incomplete sentences followed by four words or phrases. Choose the word or words that best completes the sentence.*

1. ----- is helping to break new ground in drug research.  
 (A) Computers are being used more if  
 (B) The increasing use of the computer  
 (C) If an increase in the use of the computer  
 (D) Computers are being used more
2. An elephant ----- vigorously when it is overheated.  
 (A) flapping its ears  
 (B) its ears flap  
 (C) flaps its ears  
 (D) ears flap it
3. Broadway musical comedy has been called ----- of the United States to modern theatre.  
 (A) the major contribution that  
 (B) what is the major contribution  
 (C) the major contribution  
 (D) to the major contribution
4. ----- in 1968 as a non-profit agency to finance the growth of non-commercial radio and television in the United States.  
 (A) The Corporation for Public Broadcasting established  
 (B) The Corporation for Public Broadcasting was established  
 (C) When the Corporation for Public Broadcasting was established  
 (D) Even though the Corporation for Public Broadcasting was established

5. Cold temperatures, short growing seasons, and heavy snows prevent ----- at high elevations.  
(A) grow trees  
(B) the growth of trees  
(C) trees are growing  
(D) and growth of trees
6. Usually, the more skilled an athlete ----- the more effortless the athlete's movements appear to be.  
(A) what is  
(B) that is  
(C) that it is  
(D) is
7. Trilobites, a group of spineless animals, flourished in the oceans for several hundred million years ----- some 200 million years ago.  
(A) until they became extinct  
(B) and their extinction  
(C) that were extinct  
(D) because their extinction
8. Recent engineering developments have made ----- to recycle plastic soda bottles into polyester fabric.  
(A) possible, and  
(B) it is possible  
(C) the possible  
(D) it possible
9. -----, bottle-nosed dolphins become talented performers at many aquariums.  
(A) When to train  
(B) Are training  
(C) When trained  
(D) To train them
10. The art of the 1970's was characterized by diversity and by the independence of artists ----- main affinities were more often socio-political than stylistic.  
(A) whose  
(B) that  
(C) they have  
(D) of which
11. Flower oils are ----- of the ingredients used in making perfume.  
(A) among expensive  
(B) among the most expensive  
(C) being most expensive  
(D) expensive
12. A quilt that looks ordinary ----- may become a work of abstract art when it is hung on a white wall.  
(A) lying on a bed  
(B) lies on a bed  
(C) to be lying on a bed  
(D) to lie on a bed

13. -----, the hummingbird gets its name from the sound that its wings make during flight.
- (A) Has a brilliant color
  - (B) The brilliant color
  - (C) Which is brilliantly colored
  - (D) Brilliantly colored
14. Except for the Sun, all stars are too far from the Earth for their distances ----- in miles or kilometers.
- (A) to be conveniently measured
  - (B) which conveniently measured
  - (D) to measure conveniently
  - (D) conveniently measured
15. Many technological innovations, such as the telephone, ----- the result of sudden bursts of inspiration in fact were preceded by many inconclusive efforts.
- (A) whose appearance
  - (B) that appear to be
  - (C) and appear to be
  - (D) are appearing

#### PART B. Written Expression

*In questions 16-40 each sentence has four underlined words or phrases. The four underlined parts of the sentence are marked (A), (B), (C), and (D). Identify the one underlined word or phrase that must be changed in order for the sentence to be correct. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen.*

16. Corporations, companies owned by much stockholders rather than by a single proprietor, began to play an important economic role in the late nineteenth century.
- A                      B                      C  
D
17. Diamonds have the unique ability to allow the passage of neither infrared and visible light.
- A                      B                      C  
D
18. Gilbert Newton Lewis, a chemist, helped to develop the modern electron theory of valence, a theory what explains the forces holding atoms together in molecules.
- A                      B  
C                      D
19. The first women governor in United States history was Nellie Tayloe Ross, who was elected governor of Wyoming in 1925.
- A                      B  
C                      D
20. Because of a high birthrate and considerable immigration, the United States population in the late nineteenth century increased tremendously into 31 million in 1860 to 76 million in 1900.
- A                      B  
C                      D





32. Turreted mansions decorated with elaborate wooden ornamentation became a mark of wealthy and elegance in the United States in the late nineteenth century.  
 A B C  
 D
33. Most of our ideas of what ancient people looked and dressed come from the works of Renaissance artists.  
 A B C  
 D
34. Plants require much less moist in cold weather than in warm weather.  
 A B C D
35. All nations may have to make fundamental changes in their economic, political, and the technological institutions if they are to preserve the environment.  
 A B C D
36. Massachusetts was first explored in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries, and the first permanent settlement at Plymouth in 1620.  
 A B C D
37. Sarah Vaughan had a voice like a perfect instrument, and it was an instrument that she knew how to use it with the utmost skill.  
 A B C D
38. During early nineteenth century, the building of canals and railroads strengthened the state of Indiana's links with the eastern United States.  
 A B C D
39. Maryland, even though a southern state, remained loyalty to the Union during The Civil War.  
 A B C D
40. A monsoon is an enormous cycle of air set in motion by differences temperature over land and sea.  
 A B C D

**PART III. READING COMPREHENSION**

*In this section you will read several passages which are followed by several questions. Answer the questions on the basis of what is stated in that passage.*

**Questions 1-11**

The growth of cities, the construction of hundreds of new factories, and the spread of railroads in the United States before 1850 had increased the need for better illumination. But the lighting in American homes had improved very little over that of ancient times. Through the colonial period, homes were lit with tallow candles or with a lamp of the kind used in ancient Rome - a dish of fish oil or other animal or vegetable oil in which a twisted rag served as a wick. Some people used lard, but they had to heat charcoal underneath to keep it soft and burnable. The sperm whale provided a superior burning oil, but this was expensive. In 1830 a new substance called "camphene" was patented, and it proved to be an excellent illuminant. But while camphene gave a bright light it too remained expensive, had an unpleasant odor, and also was dangerously explosive.

Between 1830 and 1850 it seemed that the only hope for cheaper illumination in the United States was in the wider use of gas. In the 1840's American gas manufacturers adopted improved British techniques for producing illuminating gas from coal. But the expense of piping gas to the consumer remained so high that until midcentury gaslighting was feasible only in urban areas, and only for public buildings or for the wealthy.

In 1854 a Canadian doctor, Abraham Gesner, patented a process for distilling a pitchlike mineral found in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia that produced illuminating gas and an oil that he called "kerosene" (from "keros," the Greek word for wax, and "ene" because it resembled camphene). Kerosene, though cheaper than camphene, had an unpleasant odor, and Gesner never made his fortune from it. But Gesner had aroused a new hope for making an illuminating oil from a product coming out of North American mines.

1. Which of the following is NOT mentioned as a reason why better lighting had become necessary by the mid-nineteenth century?
  - (A) Development of railroads
  - (B) Demand for better medical facilities
  - (C) Increases in the number of new factories
  - (D) Growth of cities
2. The phrase "served as" in line 6 is closest in meaning to
  - (A) differed from
  - (B) functioned as
  - (C) rested upon
  - (D) reacted to
3. The word "this" in line 8 refers to
  - (A) lard
  - (B) charcoal
  - (C) wick
  - (D) oil
4. Which of the following is NOT mentioned as a disadvantage of camphene?
  - (A) High cost
  - (B) Bad smell
  - (C) Potential to explode
  - (D) Greasy texture

5. What can be inferred about the illuminating gas described in the second paragraph?
- (A) It was first developed in the United States.
  - (B) It was not allowed to be used in public buildings.
  - (C) It was not widely available until midcentury.
  - (D) It had an unpleasant smell.
6. The word "resembled" in line 19 is closest in meaning to
- (A) was similar to
  - (B) cost the same as
  - (C) was made from
  - (D) sounded like
7. According to the passage, what advantage did the kerosene patented by Gesner have over camphene?
- (A) Kerosene had a more pleasant smell.
  - (B) Kerosene was less expensive.
  - (C) Kerosene burned more brightly.
  - (D) Kerosene was safer to use.
8. The word "it" in line 20 refers to
- (A) fortune
  - (B) odor
  - (C) camphene
  - (D) kerosene
9. Which of the following best describes the organization of the passage?
- (A) A description of events in chronological order
  - (B) A comparison of two events
  - (C) The statement of a theory and possible explanations
  - (D) An analysis of scientific findings
10. Where in the passage does the author mention the origin of a word?
- (A) Lines 4-6
  - (B) Lines 7-8
  - (C) Lines 12-13
  - (D) Lines 16-19

### Questions 11-21

The penny press, which emerged in the United States during the 1830's, was a powerful agent of mass communication. These newspapers were little dailies, generally four pages in length, written for the mass taste. They differed from the staid, formal presentation of the conservative press, with its emphasis on political and literary topics. The new papers were brief and cheap, emphasizing sensational reports of police courts and juicy scandals as well as human interest stories. Twentieth-century journalism was already foreshadowed in the penny press of the 1830's.

The *New York Sun*, founded in 1833, was the first successful penny paper, and it was followed two years later by the *New York Herald*, published by James Gordon Bennett. Not long after, Horace Greeley issued the *New York Tribune*, which was destined to become the most influential paper in America. Greeley gave space to the issues that deeply touched the American people before the Civil War- abolitionism, temperance, free homesteads, Utopian cooperative settlements, and the problems of labor. The weekly edition of the *Tribune*, with 100,000 subscribers, had a remarkable influence in rural areas, especially in Western communities.

Americans were reputed to be the most avid readers of periodicals in the world. An English observer enviously calculated that, in 1829, the number of newspapers circulated in Great Britain was enough to reach only one out of every thirty-six inhabitants weekly; Pennsylvania in that same year had a newspaper circulation which reached one out of every four inhabitants weekly. Statistics seemed to justify the common belief that Americans were devoted to periodicals. Newspapers in the United States increased from 1,200 in 1833 to 3,000 by the early 1860's, on the eve of the Civil War. This far exceeded the number and circulation of newspapers in England and France.

11. What is the author's main point in the first paragraph?
- (A) The penny press was modeled on earlier papers.
  - (B) The press in the nineteenth century reached only a small proportion of the population.
  - (C) The penny press became an important way of disseminating information in the first half of the nineteenth century.
  - (D) The penny press focused mainly on analysis of politics.
12. What does the author mean by the statement in lines 6-7 that twentieth-century journalism was foreshadowed by the penny press?
- (A) The penny press darkened the reputation of newswriting.
  - (B) Twentieth-century journalism is more important than nineteenth-century journalism.
  - (C) Penny-press news reporting was more accurate than that in twentieth-century newspapers.
  - (D) Modern news coverage is similar to that done by the penny press.
13. Which of the following would LEAST likely be in a penny-press paper?
- (A) A report of theft of union funds by company officials
  - (B) An article about a little girl returning a large amount of money she found in the street
  - (C) A scholarly analysis of an economic issue of national importance
  - (D) A story about land being given away in the West
14. The word "it" in line 8 refers to
- (A) the New York Sun
  - (B) the New York Herald
  - (C) America
  - (D) the Civil War
15. Who was Horace Greeley (line 10) ?
- (A) The publisher of the first penny-press paper to make a profit
  - (B) The founder of the penny-press paper that did the most to influence the thinking of the public
  - (C) The most successful writer for the penny press
  - (D) The man who took over James Gordon Bennett's penny-press paper and made it Successful
16. The word "remarkable" in line 14 is closest in meaning to
- (A) significant
  - (B) discussable
  - (C) remote
  - (D) uneven
17. The word "avid" in line 16 is closest in meaning to
- (A) intelligent
  - (B) eager
  - (C) critical
  - (D) thrifty

18. The figures concerning newspaper circulation in Pennsylvania in 1829 are relevant because they
- (A) explain why so many different periodicals were published
  - (B) prove that weekly periodicals were more successful than daily papers
  - (C) show the difference between reading habits before and after the Civil War
  - (D) support the belief that Americans were enthusiastic readers of periodicals
19. The word "justify" in line 20 is closest in meaning to
- (A) generate
  - (B) calculate
  - (C) modify
  - (D) prove
20. The third paragraph is developed primarily by means of
- (A) descriptions
  - (B) contrasts
  - (C) ordering events in time sequence
  - (D) analysis of a process
21. It can be inferred that penny-press newspapers were all of the following EXCEPT
- (A) inexpensive
  - (B) informal
  - (C) profitable
  - (D) thorough

### Questions 22-34

Broad-tailed hummingbirds often nest in quaking aspens, slender deciduous trees with smooth, gray-green bark found in the Colorado Rockies of the western United States. After flying some 2,000 kilometers north from where they have wintered in Mexico, the hummingbirds need six weeks to build a nest, incubate their eggs, and raise the chicks. A second nest is feasible only if the first fails early in the season. Quality, not quantity, is what counts in hummingbird reproduction.

A nest on the lowest intact branch of an aspen will give a hummingbird a good view, a clear flight path, and protection for her young. Male hummingbirds claim feeding territories in open meadows where, from late May through June, they mate with females coming to feed but take no part in nesting. Thus when the hen is away to feed, the nest is unguarded. While the smooth bark of the aspen trunk generally offers a poor grip for the claws of a hungry squirrel or weasel, aerial attacks, from a hawk, owl, or gray jay, are more likely.

The choice of where to build the nest is based not only on the branch itself but also on what hangs over it. A crooked deformity in the nest branch, a second, unusually close branch overhead, or proximity to part of a trunk bowed by a past ice storm are features that provide shelter and make for an attractive nest site. Scarcely larger than a halved golf ball, the nest is painstakingly constructed of spiderwebs and plant down, decorated and camouflaged outside with paper-like bits of aspen bark held together with more strands of spider silk. By early June it will hold two pea-sized eggs, which each weigh one-seventh of the mother's weight, and in sixteen to nineteen days, two chicks.

22. What aspect of broad-tailed hummingbird behavior does the passage mainly discuss?
- (A) Migration routes
  - (B) Mating habits
  - (C) Caring for the young
  - (D) Selection of nest sites

- 23.** According to the passage, in what circumstances do hummingbirds build a second nest?
- (A) If the winter is unusually warm
  - (B) If the chicks in the first nest hatch early
  - (C) If there is an unusually large supply of food
  - (D) If the eggs are destroyed early in the season
- 24.** The word "counts" in line 6 is closest in meaning to
- (A) weighs
  - (B) estimates
  - (C) matters
  - (D) numbers
- 25.** The word "clear" in line 8 is closest in meaning to
- (A) bright
  - (B) exact
  - (C) unobstructed
  - (D) transparent
- 26.** The word "they" in line 9 refers to
- (A) male hummingbirds
  - (B) territories
  - (C) meadows
  - (D) females
- 27.** According to the passage, which of the following is true of the male broad-tailed hummingbird?
- (A) It finds food for the female and the chicks.
  - (B) It protects the nest while the female searches for food.
  - (C) It is not involved in caring for the chicks.
  - (D) It shares nesting duties equally with the female.
- 28.** It can be inferred from the passage that the broad-tailed hummingbirds' eggs and chicks are most vulnerable to attacks by
- (A) insects
  - (B) humans
  - (C) birds
  - (D) small animals
- 29.** Which of the following would be a good location for a broad-tailed hummingbird to build its nest?
- (A) A branch near the top of a tree
  - (B) The longest branch of a tree
  - (C) A thick branch
  - (D) A protected branch
- 30.** The word "Scarcely" in line 17 is closest in meaning to
- (A) obviously
  - (B) barely
  - (C) consistently
  - (D) needlessly

31. Which of the following was NOT mentioned in the passage as a nest-building material of the broad-tailed hummingbird?
- (A) Paper
  - (B) Plant down
  - (C) Spider webs
  - (D) Tree bark
32. The author compares the size of the broad-tailed hummingbird's nest to
- (A) a pea
  - (B) a golf ball
  - (C) a spider web
  - (D) an egg
33. According to the passage, how long does it take for broad-tailed hummingbird eggs to hatch?
- (A) Less than a week
  - (B) Two to three weeks
  - (C) One month
  - (D) More than six weeks
34. Where in the passage does the author mention the number of eggs generally found in the Nests of broad-tailed hummingbirds?
- (A) Line 5
  - (B) Lines 10-11
  - (C) Lines 15-17
  - (D) Lines 20-22

### Questions 35-40

The ice sheet that blanketed much of North America during the last glaciation was in the areas of maximum accumulation more than a mile thick. Everywhere the glacier lay, its work is evident today. Valleys were scooped out and rounded by the moving ice; peaks were scraped clean. Huge quantities of rock were torn from the northern lands and carried south. Long, high east-west ridges of this eroded debris were deposited by the ice at its melting southern margin. Furthermore, the weight of the huge mass of ice depressed the crust of the Earth in some parts of Canada by over a thousand feet. The crust is still rebounding from that depression.

In North America, perhaps the most conspicuous features of the postglacial landscape are the Great Lakes on the border between the United States and Canada. No other large freshwater body lies at such favorable latitudes. The history of the making of these lakes is long and complex.

As the continental ice sheet pushed down from its primary centers of accumulation in Canada, it moved forward in lobes of ice that followed the existing lowlands. Before the coming of the ice, the basins of the present Great Lakes were simply the lowest-lying regions of a gently undulating plain. The moving tongues of ice scoured and deepened these lowlands as the glacier made its way toward its eventual terminus near the present Ohio and Missouri rivers.

About 16,000 years ago the ice sheet stood for a long time with its edge just to the south of the present Great Lakes. Erosional debris carried by the moving ice was dumped at the melting southern edge of the glacier and built up long ridges called terminal moraines. When the ice began to melt back from this position about 14,000 years ago, meltwater collected behind the dams formed by the moraines. The crust behind the moraines was still depressed from the weight of the ice it had borne, and this too helped create the Great



Lakes. The first of these lakes drained southward across Illinois and Indiana, along the channels of the present Illinois and Wabash rivers.

- 35.** With what topic is the passage primarily concerned?
- (A) The formation of the Great Lakes
  - (B) How geographical structures develop
  - (C) Damage done by the last ice age
  - (D) How the last ice age developed
- 36.** The glaciers discussed in this passage traveled
- (A) north to south
  - (B) south to north
  - (C) east to west
  - (D) west to east
- 37.** The word "its" in line 6 refers to
- (A) margin
  - (B) ice
  - (C) rock
  - (D) valley
- 38.** According to the passage, the weight of the ice had its greatest direct effect upon the continent's
- (A) crust
  - (B) plain
  - (C) rivers
  - (D) peaks
- 39.** In line 11, the word "lies" could best be replaced by which of the following?
- (A) reclines
  - (B) is located
  - (C) originates
  - (D) expands
- 40.** According to the passage, at the time of glacial movement the basins of the present Great Lakes were
- (A) low-lying
  - (B) small
  - (C) hilly
  - (D) flat

### Questions 41-50

In the two decades between 1929 and 1949, sculpture in the United States sustained what was probably the greatest expansion in sheer technique to occur in many centuries. There was, first of all, the incorporation of welding into sculptural practice, with the result that it was possible to form a new kind of metal object. For sculptors working with metal, earlier restricted to the dense solidity of the bronze cast, it was possible to add a type of work assembled from paper-thin metal sheets or sinuously curved rods. Sculpture could take the form of a linear, two-dimensional frame and still remain physically self-supporting. Along with the innovation of welding came a correlative departure: freestanding sculpture that was shockingly flat.

Yet another technical expansion of the options for sculpture appeared in the guise of motion. The individual parts of a sculpture were no longer understood as necessarily fixed in relation to one another, but could be made to change position within a work constructed as a moving object. Motorizing the sculpture was only one of many possibilities taken up in the 1930's. Other strategies for getting the work to move involved structuring it in such a way that external forces, like air movements or the touch of a viewer, could initiate motion. Movement brought with it a new attitude toward the issue of sculptural unity: a work might be made of widely diverse and even discordant elements; their formal unity would be achieved through the arc of a particular motion completing itself through time.

Like the use of welding and movement, the third of these major technical expansions to develop in the 1930's and 1940's addressed the issues of sculptural materials and sculptural unity. But its medium for doing so was the found object, an item not intended for use in a piece of artwork, such as a newspaper or metal pipe. To create a sculpture by assembling parts that had been fabricated originally for a quite different context did not necessarily involve a new technology. But it did mean a change in sculptural practice, for it raised the possibility that making sculpture might involve more a conceptual shift than a physical transformation of the material from which it is composed.

41. The word "innovation" in line 8 is closest in meaning to
- (A) limitation
  - (B) important concept
  - (C) use
  - (D) new idea
42. It could be inferred that between 1929 and 1949 sculptors changed in what way?
- (A) They depended less on patrons to finance their work.
  - (B) They were less imaginative in their designs.
  - (C) They exhibited sculpture more often outside than in galleries.
  - (D) They used a wider variety of materials and techniques.
43. It can be inferred that which of the following happened when sculptors began to use welding as a technique?
- (A) Some sculpture became lighter and thinner.
  - (B) Sculpture became more expensive to create.
  - (C) Sculptors took more time to complete their work.
  - (D) Sculpture became more ornate.
44. The word "initiate" in line 16 is closest in meaning to
- (A) cause
  - (B) alter
  - (C) hinder
  - (D) prolong
45. The word "it" in line 16 refers to
- (A) viewer
  - (B) movement
  - (C) attitude
  - (D) issue
46. According to the passage, how did the use of motion affect sculpture?
- (A) It caused the old materials to be discarded.
  - (B) It required sculptors to collaborate with engineers.
  - (C) It changed the concept of sculptural unity.
  - (D) It forced sculptors to weld all parts permanently.

47. The word "diverse" in line 17 is closest in meaning to
- (A) dissimilar
  - (B) unappealing
  - (C) unreliable
  - (D) distinctive
48. What is the main idea of the third paragraph?
- (A) Found objects make unattractive sculptures.
  - (B) Sculptors looked for found objects in garbage cans.
  - (C) The use of found objects changed the way sculpture is created.
  - (D) Sculptors who used found objects enjoyed great success.
49. The word "fabricated" in line 24 is closest in meaning to
- (A) enlarged
  - (B) made
  - (C) ordered
  - (D) revealed
50. Which of the following was NOT a new technique developed during this period?
- (A) Creating sculptures that move
  - (B) Welding metal pieces together
  - (C) Including found objects in sculpture
  - (D) Making a bronze cast

## ANSWER KEY # 2

Section 1	Section 2	Section 3
41. A	1. B	1. B
42. A	2. C	2. B
43. B	3. C	3. D
44. A	4. B	4. D
45. A	5. B	5. C
46. D	6. D	6. A
47. C	7. A	7. B
48. C	8. D	8. D
49. A	9. C	9. A
50. A	10. A	10. D
51. C	11. B	11. C
52. C	12. A	12. D
53. D	13. D	13. C
54. B	14. A	14. A
55. A	15. B	15. B
56. B	16. B	16. A
57. B	17. C	17. B
58. B	18. C	18. D
59. D	19. A	19. D
60. B	20. D	20. B
61. B	21. B	21. D
62. D	22. C	22. D
63. D	23. C	23. D
64. D	24. A	24. C
65. B	25. B	25. C
66. A	26. A	26. A
67. A	27. A	27. C
68. C	28. D	28. C
69. A	29. C	29. D
70. A	30. D	30. B
71. C	31. C	31. A
72. D	32. D	32. B
73. B	33. A	33. B
74. A	34. C	34. D
75. C	35. C	35. A
76. B	36. D	36. A
77. A	37. C	37. B
78. D	38. A	38. A
79. D	39. C	39. B
80. C	40. C	40. A
81. B		41. D
82. A		42. D
83. B		43. A
84. D		44. A
85. A		45. B
86. C		46. C
87. C		47. A
88. B		48. C
89. C		49. B
90. A		50. D

## LISTENING COMPREHENSION SCRIPTS

### PART A

1.     *(woman)*     How often do the buses run?  
           *(man)*         Every half hour on weekdays, but I'm not sure about weekends.  
                           There's a schedule on the corner by the bus stop.  
           *(narrator)*   What does the man imply?
  
2.     *(man)*         It's really nice of you to visit me when I'm so miserable with  
                           the flu. I'm sure I'd feel much better if I just had some of my  
                           mom's homemade chicken soup.  
           *(woman)*     That will be hard to come by, but a cup of hot tea  
                           might help.  
           *(narrator)*   What will the woman probably do next?
  
3.     *(man)*         I still have some things to pack before we leave.  
           *(woman)*     We're supposed to be at the airport in half an hour, so you'd  
                           better get a move on.  
           *(narrator)*   What does the woman mean?
  
4.     *(man)*         Maybe one night next week we could get together for dinner?  
                           How about Monday?  
           *(woman)*     I have two classes on Monday and Wednesday, one class on  
                           Thursday, and I work Monday to Friday. Maybe next month  
                           during vacation.  
           *(narrator)*   What does the woman mean?
  
5.     *(woman)*     Did you bring home the seeds for the vegetable garden?  
           *(man)*         The nursery was closed when I got there.  
           *(narrator)*   What did the man do?
  
6.     *(woman)*     We're offering quite a few programs this fall, feel free to call  
                           any time and talk to the nurse.  
           *(man)*         Maybe I'll do that. There are some things I'd like to know  
                           about the weight reduction program you're offering.  
           *(narrator)*   What does the man imply?
  
7.     *(woman)*     Excuse me. An egg fell out of the carton and broke on the floor.  
           *(man)*         Thanks for telling me. I'll take care of it before someone slips on it.  
           *(narrator)*   What is the man going to do?
  
8.     *(man)*         I tell you, I'm not sure how much longer I can keep waking up  
                           for these early morning classes.  
           *(woman)*     Well, you've never been an early riser. Maybe you should  
                           remember that when you choose your classes for next semester.  
           *(narrator)*   What does the woman suggest the man do?

9. (woman) You're the manager? Look, the strap on this suitcase broke the first time I used it. I'd like to get my money back, or at least store credit.  
(man) I've sold hundreds of these suitcases, and this is the first time anything's happened. Why don't you try another?  
(narrator) What does the man want to do for the woman?
10. (man) You know I'm on your side, Alice, and even I think you're overreacting.  
(woman) Well, that's your opinion, isn't it?  
(narrator) What does the woman mean?
11. (woman) Do you have change for a fifty-dollar bill?  
(man) A fifty-dollar bill! I hardly have fifty cents!  
(narrator) What does the man mean?
12. (woman) I think you've been working too hard. You should take a vacation.  
(man) Tell that to this stack of papers on my desk!  
(narrator) What can be inferred about the man?
13. (man) Julia asked me to pick up the guest speaker, Bob Russell, at the airport this afternoon. Do you know what he looks like?  
(woman) He stands out. He's really tall and always wears a bow tie.  
(narrator) What can be inferred about the guest speaker?
14. (woman) Whoops! Oh no! I got coffee all over your shirt. I'm so sorry.  
(man) Don't worry about it. That's what dry cleaners are for.  
(narrator) What does the man imply?
15. (woman) Hey, Bill, how's it going with the new house? Are you all settled in yet?  
(man) Far from it. There are boxes everywhere. I can't wait for everything to get back to normal.  
(narrator) What does the man imply?
16. (man) To major in astrophysics you need to take two semesters of physics and math as a freshman.  
(woman) O.K., and I see the college bulletin suggests waiting until my second year to take astronomy.  
(narrator) What can be inferred about the woman?
17. (man) Dennis would like us to go bowling with him this weekend.  
(woman) I'd love to-but not until I get this project out of the way .... and that could take weeks!  
(narrator) What does the woman mean?

18. (woman) Will you need a ride to work while your car's being repaired?  
 (man) Actually, I thought I'd ask Eric. He lives closer to me.  
 (narrator) What does the man mean?
19. (woman) Look at this traffic. By the time we get to the museum, we'll  
 only have an hour to look around before it closes.  
 (man) You may be right, but since we can't do anything about it, we  
 may as well try to relax.  
 (narrator) What does the man mean?
20. (man) Hey, Judy, will you let me know when ten minutes have passed?  
 I'm putting the spaghetti in now.  
 (woman) Sure. There's nothing worse than soggy, overcooked spaghetti.  
 (narrator) What does the woman mean?
21. (man) I've got to do well on this research paper to pass history.  
 (woman) So I guess you'll be spending the weekend in the library.  
 (narrator) What does the woman imply?
22. (man) I have band rehearsal tonight. I guess we won't be able to  
 go to the movies.  
 (woman) Another rehearsal! Am I ever sick and tired of your rehearsals!  
 (narrator) What does the woman imply?
23. (woman) The gym looks pretty crowded. Are there always this many  
 people here?  
 (man) It changes according to the time of day.  
 (narrator) What does the man mean?
24. (man) Gloria is really pleased with her promotion.  
 (woman) She certainly deserves it after all these years.  
 (narrator) What does the woman mean?
25. (man) The people in this course seem really enthusiastic about it.  
 (woman) Most of them do, at any rate.  
 (narrator) What does the woman imply about the course?
26. (woman) Mike sure was surprised that he had a hard time  
 assembling his new bike.  
 (man) Well, that's to be expected with no instruction manual.  
 (narrator) What does the man imply?
27. (woman) Have you ever used a camera like this before?  
 (man) I used to have one very similar to it.  
 (narrator) What does the man imply?

28. (man) We got a thank-you note from Nancy today. She said she's already worn the scarf we sent.  
 (woman) That's great. I wasn't sure if she'd wear red.  
 (narrator) What had the woman been concerned about?
29. (woman) This is the car you bought? I've never seen such an old jalopy!  
 (man) It may not look like much, but it gets me where I'm going.  
 (narrator) What does the man mean?
30. (man) I see you got a new book bag. You're not using that old ripped one any more.  
 (woman) On top of that, I had to buy a new statistics book 'cause my old one fell out of the ripped book bag.  
 (narrator) What can be inferred about the woman?

## PART B.

**Questions 31 through 34.** Listen to a conversation at a zoo.

- (woman) I was hoping to stay in the warmer section. You know, they have some penguins here from the Galapagos Islands - and that's practically on the equator.
- (man) But the emperor penguin's huge! It's a lot bigger than the Galapagos penguin - in fact, it's bigger than all the other penguins - almost four feet high.
- (woman) Imagine a bird that size flying through the air.
- (man) Penguins don't actually fly.
- (woman) I know that. They just sort of waddle.
- (man) They swim, too. Even though they're feathered, their wings are more like flippers - they work like paddles in the water.
- (woman) I thought they were land animals.
- (man) They lay their eggs on land. They make their nests in these enormous colonies called rookeries. See, the emperor penguin has this interesting nesting habit. The female bird leaves the ocean at the beginning of autumn. She lays an egg on the ice and then immediately returns to the water.
- (woman) What happens to the egg?
- (man) The male rolls it onto his feet and then covers it with the lower part of his belly.



(woman) Then what?

(man) For two whole months, during the worst part of the winter, he huddles together with other male penguins to keep the eggs warm.

(woman) So the female brings him food?

(man) No. See, the penguin can fast for up to four months. The female comes back after the chick hatches. When she does, the male goes out to sea to get food for himself and the chick.

**31.** Why does the man want to visit the penguin house?

**32.** What is unique about the emperor penguin?

**33.** What does the man say about the wings of the penguin?

**34.** What does the male emperor penguin do after the female lays an egg?

**Questions 35 through 38.** Listen to two friends talk about a magazine article.

(woman) Mark really needs to see this article in *Psychology Weekly*.

(man) Why? What's it on?

(woman) Reasons for negative behavior patterns - like procrastination, habitual lateness.

(man) You're right. That's Mark. He's never on time.  
So what does it say?

(woman) That people who are always late often do it for a reason - either conscious or unconscious. It could be an expression of anger and resentment - or a way of resisting authority. It could even be anxiety.

(man) Well, I don't know. In Mark's case, I think it's because he wants to be noticed.

(woman) That's the next reason in the article - the need for attention. They give the example of movie stars who used to make these grand entrances.

(*man*) That's not really Mark's style though - he's so quiet.

(*woman*) What gets me is that he's late for his friends all the time - but not for other things, like work.

(*man*) Well .... but they might deduct pay for that.

(*woman*) Exactly. You know, sometimes I'm tempted to tell him to come at, say, seven, and everybody else at 7: 15. Then maybe we wouldn't have to wait so long.

(*man*) We have to try something. You know, he confessed to me one day that he was even late for his sister's wedding. She was really angry.

(*woman*) I remember that. He was in the wedding - so they couldn't start until he got there.

(*man*) Maybe you should slip that magazine under his door anonymously. And hope he gets the message.

**35.** What is the main subject of the magazine article?

**36.** What do Mark's friends think is the reason for his problem?

**37.** What do the speakers say about Mark's recent behavior?

**38.** What solution does the woman consider?

### **PART C.**

**Questions 39 through 42.** Listen to a talk about food labels.

(*man*) Current studies show that what goes on labels is an important consideration for manufacturers, since more than seventy percent of shoppers read food labels when considering whether to buy a product. A recent controversy as to whether labels on prepared foods should educate or merely inform the consumer is over, and a consumer group got its way. The group had maintained that product labels should do more than simply list how many grams of nutrients a food contains. Their contention was that labels should also list the percentage of a day's total nutrients that the product will supply to the consumer, because this information is essential in planning

a healthy diet. A government agency disagreed strongly, favoring a label that merely informs the consumer, in other words, a label that only lists the contents of the product. The agency maintained that consumers could decide for themselves if the food is nutritious and is meeting their daily needs.

The consumer group, in supporting its case, had cited a survey in which shoppers were shown a food label, and were then asked if they would need more or less of a certain nutrient after eating a serving of this product. The shoppers weren't able to answer the questions easily when they were not given a specific percentage. This study, and others helped get the new regulation passed, and now food products must have the more detailed labels.

39. What was the controversy about?
40. Why does the speaker mention that more than seventy percent of people read food labels?
41. What did the consumer group propose?
42. What did the survey of food shoppers reveal?

**Questions 43 through 47.** Listen to a talk being given by an airline representative at a college fair.

*(woman)* Good afternoon. I'm here today to talk to you about a career with our airline. We're especially interested in recruiting people to fill openings for flight attendants.

First of all, to work as a flight attendant with us, you must be accepted into our training program - and with so many people applying, it's not easy to be selected. From the thousands of applications that we receive annually, we choose fewer than a thousand people for training. So, we require experience serving the public; and it also helps if you've earned some college credits.

Also, not everybody who gets accepted into the training program makes it through. The course meets six days a week for five weeks. The training includes extensive classroom work in such subjects as first aid and passenger psychology as well as practical training in flight procedures and meal service. A lot of our graduates say that our flight attendants develop the skills of a nurse, a headwaiter, and a public relations executive!

But, as a flight attendant myself, I can say that all of the hard work is worth it. Of course, I get to travel throughout the country, and the airline pays all of my expenses while I'm away from my base station. And, what I like best of all is that I've made friends with people from all over the country!

43. What is the purpose of the talk?
44. According to the speaker, what are applicants to the training program required to have?
45. What subject matter does the speaker mention is included in the training?
46. Why does the speaker mention headwaiters?
47. What does the speaker like most about her job?

**Questions 48 through 50.** Listen to part of a talk in a geology class.

(*woman*) Today I want to talk about the Earth's last major climatic shift, at the end of the last ice age.

But first, let's back up a moment and review what we know about climatic change in general. First, we defined "climate" as consistent patterns of weather over significant periods of time.

In general, changes in climate occur when the energy balance of the Earth is disturbed. Solar energy enters the Earth's atmosphere as light and is radiated by the Earth's surface as heat. Land, water, and ice each affect this energy exchange differently. The system is so complex that, to date, our best computer models are only crude approximations and are not sophisticated enough to test hypotheses about the causes of climatic change.

Of course, that doesn't keep us from speculating. For instance, volcanic activity is one mechanism that might affect climatic change. When large volcanoes erupt, they disperse tons of particles into the upper atmosphere, where the particles then reflect light. Since less light is entering the system of energy exchange, the result would be a cooling of the Earth's surface.

Of course, this is just one possible mechanism of global climate change. In all probability, a complete explanation would involve several different mechanisms operating at the same time.

48. How does the speaker begin her discussion?
49. What does the speaker mean by the phrase "the energy balance of the Earth"?
50. Why do meteorologists have difficulty testing hypotheses about climatic changes?

**RESUME**

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24 December 2012