KELİME ANLAMLARINI TAHMİN ETME YÖNTEMLERİ KONUSUNDA ÖĞRENCİLERİN BİLİNÇLENDİRİLMESİYLE OKUDUKLARINI ANLAMALARINI ARTIRMA: AFYON KOCATEPE ANADOLU LİSESİ LİSE II. SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİYLE BİR UYGULAMA

ENHANCING EFL STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION THROUGH CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING TRAINING ON CONTEXTUAL GUESSWORK.

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ENHANCING EFL STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION THROUGH CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING TRAINING ON CONTEXTUAL GUESSWORK: AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY WITH AFYON KOCATEPE ANATOLIAN LYCEE II STUDENTS.

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ÖZET

Bu çalışmada metin okuma esnasında karşılaşılan anlamı bilinmeyen İngilizce kelimelerin anlamlarını tahmin etmenin okuduğunu anlamaya katkısı araştırılmıştır. Metinde geçen anlamı bilinmeyen kelimelerin tahmini konusunda öğrencilerin bilinçlerinin artırılmasıyla öğrencilerin okuduklarını anlamada daha başarılı olacakları varsayılmıştır.

Sözü edilen konunun araştırılması amacıyla Afyon Kocatepe Anadolu Lisesi Lise II. Sınıf öğrencileriyle deneysel bir çalışma yapılmıştır. 23'er kişiden oluşan iki gruptan biri deney, diğeri de kontrol grubu olmuştur.

Gruplar 16 ders saatinden oluşan çalışma süresince Interactions I adlı kitaptan alınan 8 tane metin okumuşlardır. Kontrol grubunda anlamı bilinmeyen kelimelerin anlamı verilirken, deney grubunda ise anlamı bilinmeyen kelimelerin anlamlarını metnin sunduğu ipuçlarından yararlanarak tahmin etme konusunda öğrenciler bilinçlendirilmişlerdir.

Gruplara 2 ayrı metinden oluşan ve her biri 10 tane çoktan seçmeli, 10 tane açık uçlu, ve 10 tane kelime tahmini sorusundan oluşan bir ön ve bir son test verilmiştir.

İstatistiksel analizler sonucunda her iki grubun da metinleri anlama açısından ön test ile son test arasında gelişme kaydettikleri gözlenmiştir. Kontrol Grubu ile Deney Gurubu'nun karşılaştırılması sonucunda Deney Grubu'nun Kontrol Grubun'a oranla her üç soru grubunda da daha başarılı oldukları gözlenmiştir.

Sonuç olarak anlamı bilinmeyen kelimeleri tahmin etmenin okuduğunu anlamayı olumlu yönde etkilediği sonucuna varılarak Yabancı Dil derslerinde öğrencilere anlamı bilinmeyen kelimelerin tahmin etme yöntemlerinin öğretilmesi önerilmiştir.

ABSTRACT

This study was an attempt to investigate the influence of consciousness-raising training on guessing the meanings of unknown vocabulary from contextual clues on reading comprehension. It was hypothesized that students would be more successful in reading comprehension if they could guess the meaning of unknown vocabulary from contextual clues. An experimental study was conducted with the Lycee II students of Afyon Kocatepe Anatolian High School. Two Intermediate level groups, consisted of twenty-three students each, were treated as experimental and control groups.

Both groups read eight texts from a reading book titled Interactions 1 during the sixteen class-hour instruction. While the control group was given definitions of unknown vocabulary, the experimental group was instructed to guess the meaning of unknown vocabulary from contextual clues.

A pre and a post test, consisted of two seperate texts with ten multiple choice, ten open ended, and ten vocabulary guessing questions, were given to both groups.

Analysis of statistical results showed that there was significant difference between the pre and post test scores of both groups in terms of multiple choice, open ended, and vocabulary guessing questions. The comparison of the post test scores Experimental Group with the post test scores of the Control Group yielded meaningful difference in favor of the Experimental Group. Depending on the data obtained from this comparison, it is claimed that guessing the meanings of unknown vocabulary from contextual clues

has a positive effect on the readers' reading comprehension. Therefore, it has been suggested that learners should be taught ways of guessing the meanings of unknown vocabulary from contextual clues.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Tinker and McCullough suggest:

> It is inexcusable to live in ignorance today. As a medium of communication and a tool of learning, reading serves as an indispensible function in society. To be able to read just enough to get by is not sufficient: a person must read well if s/he is to broaden her/ his experience, develop new concepts, solve challenging problems, and acquire clear-headed and up-to-date ways of thinking all of which are needed to insure continuing personal growth and ongoing adjustment to our changing world (1975:3).

Williams (1990:19) also emphasizes the importance of reading in an educational setting adding that "reading is the core of curriculum." Rivers (1981:259), appreciating reading on two grounds, claims that " reading is a most important activity in any language class, not only as a source of information and a pleasurable activity, but also as a means of consolidating one's knowledge of language."

Rivers (1981:19) appreciates reading as a means of consolidating one's knowledge of language as a by-product of reading, which according to Silberstein(1987:28ff), has

been turned out to be a tool of improving pronunciation, practice grammatical forms, and study syntax under the influence of Audiolingualism. While accepting that language improvement as a by-product of reading on the one hand, Nuttal(1982:31) emphasizes that the focus of interest in a reading lesson is neither language nor content, but the two together: we should set out to teach learners how language is used for conveying content, and to develop the skills needed to extract content from the language that expresses it. Carrel & Eisterhold (1983:552) point out how this objective of reading instruction turned out to be the other way stating that:

> Traditionally in the study of second language comprehension, (....) the emphasis has been almost exclusively on the language to be comprehended and not on the comprehender. In this perspective, each word, each well-formed sentence, and every well-formed text passage is said to "have" a meaning. Meaning is often conceived to be " in the utterance or text, to have a separate, independent existence from both the speaker or writer and the listener or reader. In this view, failures to comprehend a non-defective communication are always attributed to language-specific deficits.

Carrel & Eisterhold (1983:556) clarify the place of text in reading by stating that "a text only provides directions for listeners or readers as to how they should retrieve and construct meaning from their previously acquired knowledge according to schema theory, upon which all information processing depends. Schema theory describes the processing of information in the memory and use of it in comprehension. Schema theory maintains that processing a text is an interactive process between the text and the prior background knowledge or memory schemata of the listener or reader.

Several researchers have recently emphasized that "efficient and effective second language reading requires both top-down and bottom-up strategies operating

interactively (Rumelhart, 1980; Sandford & Garrod, 1981; Dijk & Kintsch, 1983; Carrel & Eisterhold, 1983; cited in Carrel, 1987:24) The research carried out by Goodman and Smith, who have contributed a lot to Interactive Model of Reading, which has wide application in the field of research and practice in the twentieth century, evolved into a "psycholinguistic model of reading." Goodman proposes that reading is not primarily a process of picking up information from the page in a letter-by-letter, word-by-word manner. Rather, he argued that "reading is a selective process" (Grabe, 1993:206). Goodman ,1967, (cited in Chastain, 1988:223) holds that:

> ...Selective process involves partial use of available minimal language cues selected from perceptual input on the basis of the reader's expectations....Efficient reading does not result from precise perception and identification of all elements, but from skill in selecting the fewest, most productive cues necessary to produce guesses that are right the first time.

Carrel & Eisterhold (1983: 555) cite Coady (1979), who has suggested that various sub-components of reading are involved, such as general language processing skills, syllable-morpheme information, syntactic information, lexical meaning, and contextual meaning in a psychological model of reading. Besides these, the ability to make linguistic prediction has an important place in reading(Clarke & Silberstein, 1977, cited in Grabe 1993:207).

Among these, we shall concentrate upon lexical meaning. Development of lexical skills involves building vocabulary, developing techniques of word recognition in a sequential program, and accumulating an ever-increasing supply of words which are recognized at a glance, i.e. without analysis (Silberstein,1987:4 ff). That lexical processes are heavily involved in comprehension is assumed by recent theories of reading

and the existence of a close relationship between lexical knowledge and comprehension has been empirically demonstrated through several studies. Such an assumption, according to Omanson et al. (1984:1253), implies that a reader's knowledge of lexical items will affect text comprehension. The ultimate objective of reading instruction, in Nuttall's(1982:21) words, is to enable learners to read without help unfamiliar authentic texts, at appropriate speed, silently and with adequate understanding. Thus, we have to make sure that learners have *conceptual*, *propositional*, *contextual*, and *pragmatic* meaning included in every sentence used in a text since the smooth flow of words into phrases, phrases into sentences, and sentences into paragraphs is essential in reading comprehension. Comprehension, which is basic in all reading, depends upon grasping word meanings, grouping words into unitary thought complexes so that sentences, paragraphs, and the larger units become intelligible. Such grouping ability involves grasping the relations between words in sentences, between sentences and paragraphs, and larger wholes (Tinker & McCullough 1975:5). A good reader, according to Silberstein,(1987:4) and Grabe, (1993:215), will be the one who has mastered the essential techniques of word identification and word recognition.

As readers' eyes fix on 70 to 80 % on content words, and the fixation is lower in the case of function words according to (Perfetti's eye movement research, cited in Chastain, 1988:222) lexical access is accepted to be important in reading because of its central recurring nature in reading process.

This study deals with the development of reading, the proficiency of which is of vital importance for the subjects, this is because they will be involved in reading, especially related to their field of study after their graduation. That is why our courses have to be planned and carried out to serve the needs of the learners.

The subjects have been observed to have problems with reading comprehension. These problems might be due to inadequate familiarity with some of the basic reading skills and strategies and due in part to EFL teaching strategy and learners' wrong notion about the reading process. They read a text word by word due to their wrong notion about (foreign) language reading. Studying a text as though it were a series of independent units, according to Grellet (1981:6), is no good as it would only lead the students to become dependent on understanding every single sentence in a text with the result that readers tend to read all text at the same speed and to be reluctant to infer the meaning of sentences or paragraphs from what comes before or after. Such learner dependency on understanding every single word or sentence contradicts the widely agreed object of reading instruction aiming at developing self-reliant, independent, discriminating readers. Contrary to what learner-readers often assume, readers do not first assign a meaning to all the words in a text and then arrive at a global meaning Wallace (1988: 27). She (1988:29) also emphasizes the importance of the surrounding sentences in the interpretation of any one sentence saying that "we cannot easily pluck up sentences out of context, they can only be interpreted in their context." Likewise Wallace, Williams (1984:3) states that "the readers are not simply a passive object, fed with letters, words and sentences, but is actively working on the text and is able to arrive at understanding without looking at every letter and word" citing support from reading research claiming that "efficient readers generally read in groups of words, not word by word, far less letter by letter."

Lewis and Hill (1985:107) believe that nothing is more depressing than struggling word-by-word at snail's pace through a piece of material so that you can do something with it or talk about it only to find that understanding the material has taken so long the

interesting follow-up activity lasts only a moment or two or disappear altogether . This kind of word-boundness denies the constructive process which claims that meaning does not reside in words, sentences, paragraphs, or even entire passages considered in isolation; but rather involves the interactive product of text and context of various kinds, including linguistic, prior knowledge, situational, and task context, among others (Spiro,1980:245ff).

Cole (1938:215ff) traces the cause of reading word-for-word to either training in oral language or to a too conscientious attention to detail and declare that reading word-for-word is wholly unnecessary and objectionable on two grounds: because it is slow and it inevitably interferes with the acquisition of meaning. According to top-down models of reading, poor readers are word-bound because they do not know how to use context, or are afraid to try to use context (Eskey & Grabe, 1988: 226).

Starting reading with the fear that problems related with unfamiliar vocabulary and structures will be faced, according to Lucas (1990:29), leads the readers to read slowly and carefully, weighing and measuring every word with a dictionary at their elbow as a life-support system. Struggling with unfamiliar words or reading on word-level as if in proof reading, according to Lautamatti (1978: 98), makes processing of the text at higher levels of meaning difficult or impossible.

Lucas (1990:29) finds similarities between the above types of reading procedure and having a meal procedure consisting of handling knife, fork, chopstick without any mental effort and suggests that, "the first step in teaching people reading is to make them aware of what they do when they read efficiently in their own language".

Struggling with lower-units such as stressing the importance of every word and structure for understanding, which is the major characteristics of language-oriented

model, works against the nature of reading. According to Lautamatti (1978:97) "the teaching of a foreign language should serve the needs of the reading process, not dominate and thus hamper it, and the syllabus of a reading course should be based on actually observed difficulties in reading not on preconceived idea of what the student should know about the language."

As an alternative to reading word-for-word habit, Chastain (1988:223); Grellet (1981:6); Lautamatti (1978:98); Tomlinson & Ellis (1980:128) believe that readers need to break out of the word-for-word habit and be trained to read in broad phrases in order to become independent readers, since as has been stated above, successful readers do not concentrate on words and sentences, instead they take in groups of words at a time and start with global understanding and then work toward comprehending detailed aspects of the reading.

Although the ultimate objective of reading instruction is to help students to become independent readers, what is generally done in traditional reading courses does not serve that goal. Hamayan (1993:16ff) states that Traditional ESL methods and approaches, which tended to focus on the form and structure of English, have been found to contradict the way in which language naturally develops, making the language learning process more tedious and cumbersome for the learner than it needs to be. Any ESL curriculum or classroom activity must be primarily functional for the learner. ESL students need to learn the language for what they need to accomplish in their daily lives, both socially and academically or vocationally. As an alternative to traditional reading courses, which are language-oriented, a student centered-approach can be applied, the primary purpose of which is to present the language in accordance with the needs of the learners. With the application of a student-centered approach, it will be more likely that

more learning will take place with the increase of student responsibility which decreases teacher dominancy in classes. (Gairns & Redman, 1986, cited in Ooi & Kim Seach, 1996:57) regard learner engagement as of primacy importance and recommend that learners should be encouraged to contribute items they want to learn. While not denying the importance of mastering the grammatical system of the language, the functional approach, according to Salimbene (1983:2), presents a systematic development of structural mastery and grammatical form which is taught as a means of carrying out communicative intent not as an end in itself.

As reading is viewed as a set of skills that must be employed by readers, reading skills can be learned in a functional approach at the heart of which lies student's initiatives of discovery, communication with one another rather than the teacher, learning by doing, and learner's independence.

1. 2 Problem

Students at Afyon Kocatepe Anatolian High School, like some of the other learner readers, have problems in reading comprehension. They, as Cole (1938:215ff) points out, get the idea that "they must look at every word as if omitting one will be a sin" as a result they read a text word by word, stress every word to acquire meaning, which contradicts the contributions from psycholinguistic research since an efficient reader, according to Silberstein, (1987:80), does not proceed in a rigid word-by-word fashion, decoding information from print to speech to aurol comprehension. They also have the wrong notion that a text can only be comprehended if the meaning of every word is known. Consequently, they try to pay the same amount of attention to every word, sentence or structure to arrive at meaning. As a result, they miss the overall meaning.

Moreover, they begin reading with the fear that they will not comprehend the text because of unknown vocabulary, a habit which can be overcome through training the students to approach unknown vocabulary positively and provide them to use specific techniques to deal with unknown vocabulary (Nutall, 1982: 66)

1. 3 Purpose of the Study

This study will investigate the influence of consciousness-raising training on guessing the meanings of unknown vocabulary from contextual clues on reading comprehension. It is an attempt to find out the role of strategy training by consciousness raising in teaching reading. This thesis will answer the following question:

If the students' consciousness on guessing unfamiliar vocabulary from contextual clues is raised through instruction of this strategy, will there be an improvement in their reading comprehension of the target language, i.e. English?

1. 4 Limitations

This study will be carried out at Afyon Kocatepe Anatolian High School and the effect of guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues on reading comprehension will be investigated.

- Personality and background differences, and diverse interest were not taken into consideration in this study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2. 0 Introduction

This study is concerned with the application of the strategy of Guessing Vocabulary from Context in reading for comprehension. In this chapter, some of the terms related to reading and reading comprehension will be dealt with.

2. 1 Reading Comprehension

2. 1. 1 Definitions of Reading

The concept of the reading phenomenon in our heads is crucially important as it shapes the way it is handled in practice. (Clymer, 1968, cited in V. S., et al. 1976:22) emphasizes the dominating role which a definition of reading plays in the teaching of reading stating that:

> If reading to him is word recognition, he will drill on the basic sight vocabulary and word recognition skills. If he thinks reading is merely reproducing what the author says, he will direct the students' attention to the literal meaning of the passage and check his comprehension of it. If he views reading as a thinking process, he will be concerned with the reader's skill in making

interpretations and generalizations, in drawing inferences and conclusions.

A phenomenon, accepted as complex by some specialists such as (Smith, 1988:1; Tinker & McCullough, 1975: 8), is totally open to numerous definitions as it has been for many years. Thus, it is important to explain what reading means before dealing with reading and reading comprehension. This is because the goals of reading instruction, as Tinker & McCullough (1975:7) emphasize, "cannot be achieved unless our techniques of teaching are based upon a sound understanding of the nature of reading."

Mosenthal (1985:11) gives the following definitions of reading phenomenon appeared on the *Reading Teacher* between (1984 and 1985)

-Reading is the student's ability to answer teacher's questions about what is written in the text.

-Reading is the student's ability to decode words, using knowledge of phonics.

-Reading is the student's ability to revise hypothesis and make use of prior knowledge.

-Reading is a responsibility shared by parents and teachers alike.

-Reading is the student's ability to do well on standardized tests.

-Reading depends upon the student's visual capacity, visual skill efficiency and visual perceptual-motor development.

-Reading is the student's ability to read critically and to monitor his or her own comprehension

-Reading is the student's ability to understand idioms.

And then he (1985:11) makes an analogy between reading researchers and a group of blind people investigating an elephant and claims that "reading is a hosepipe, a pillar, or a throne" and concludes that "reading is a multifaceted process that goes beyond the description of any single facet and there is no single definition considered to be absolutely right (1985:111) as (Spache & Spache, cited in Tinker & McCullough,

1975:8), Duran, McLaughin, Rumelhart, Schank, Swaffer, and Weaver (cited in Hawkins, 1991:169) agree with Mosenthal because of its complexity of the reading phenomenon. For Burns et al. (1978:2) numerous attempts to define reading is partly because of this multifaced process of reading, which includes two major components-a process and a product-each of which is complicated.

Likewise, Grabe (1993:209) maintains that simple definitions misrepresent complex cognitive processes such as reading and claims that descriptions of basic knowledge and processes required for fluent reading make a more appropriate starting point. According to Anderson, Hiebert, Scott & Wilkinson, 1985; Grabe,1988; Hall, White & Guthrie,1986; Smith,1982; (cited in Grabe 1993:208), a description of reading has to account for the notions that fluent reading is rapid, purposeful, interactive, comprehending, flexible, and gradually developing.

The diverse varieties of the definitions of the reading phenomenon might result from the simplicity of the reading act from the outset. At first glance, reading seems simple as words having meanings; reading, therefore, is a straightforward translation from symbol to thought or to speech. However, the exploration of it any further reveals the fact that reading is a marvelously complex process in which many cognitive activities must occur simultaneously-each affecting all others.

The variety of the definitions of reading implies that reading is a complex process involving a number of skills and depends on coordination of these special skills. This coordination necessitates active participation of the reader. In this process, students may need to be taught some skills to read more efficiently. Upon defining understanding as not an "all or nothing" process and reading as not an "all or nothing" process, Williams (1984:3), likens reading to a struggle after understanding especially when second

language learners are concerned and concludes that "part of the teacher's job is to develop within the learner strategies that will help him in this struggle." Clark & Silberstein.1977; (cited in Grabe (1993:207) emphasize the importance of providing students with instructional objectives as:

> Reading was characterized as an active process of comprehending and students needed to be taught strategies to read more efficiently (e.g., guessing the meaning of words from context, define expectations, previewing an article before reading in order to have an overall view of its theme, engaging actively in predicting what the author might say next, reading for main ideas, skimming ahead to fill in the context, looking for details and reading as rapidly as possible in order to understand the overall theme of a passage. For teachers, the goal of reading instruction was to provide students with a range of effective approaches to texts- including helping students to define goals and strategies for reading, to use pre-reading activities to enhance conceptual readiness, and to provide students with strategies to deal with difficult syntax, vocabulary and organizational structure.

As a result many researchers; such as Carpenter & Just, 1986; Carry & Levy, 1990; Haynes & Car, 1990; Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989; (cited in Grabe 1993:209) attempt to understand and explain the fluent reading process into a set of component skills. The effort to subdivide into component skills has led researchers to propose at least six general component skills and knowledge areas:

i. Automatic recognition skills

ii. Vocabulary and structural knowledge.

iii. Formal discourse structure knowledge

iv. Context / world background knowledge.

v. Synthesis and evaluation skills / strategies

vi. Metacognitive knowledge and skill monitoring

In addition to these, there are a variety of skills to be developed in order to be an efficient reader. Grellet(1981:4-5) offers the following list:

Recognizing the script of language.

Deducing the meaning and use of unfamiliar lexical items.

Understanding explicitly stated information.

Understanding information when not explicitly stated.

Understanding conceptual meaning.

Understanding the communicative value (function) of sentences and utterances.

Understanding relations within the sentences.

Understanding relations between the parts of a text through lexical cohesion devices.

Understanding cohesion between parts of a text through grammatical devices.

Interpreting text by going outside of it.

Recognizing indicators in discourse.

Identifying the main point or important information in a piece discourse.

Distinguishing the main idea from supporting details.

Extracting salient points to summarize (the text, an idea etc.)

Selective extraction of relevant points from a text.

Basic reference skills.

Skimming.

Scanning to locate specifically required information.

Transcoding information, diagromatic display.

Nuttal (982:31-32) examines reading skills in four categories:

i. Skills involving flexibility of techniques: variations in reading rate; skimming scanning, studying reading ,etc.

ii. Skills of utilizing information that is not strictly speaking part of the text itself; reference apparatus, graphic conventions and diagrams.

iii. Word-attack skills: how to tackle unfamiliar lexical items by using morphology, inference from context, etc., or, by using dictionary.

iv. Text-attack skills: the process of interpreting the text as a whole, using all the clues available including cohesion and rhetorical structure.

As a result, various definitions of reading with their own set of features that characterize the relationship between the reading phenomenon and the labels within the reading research literature do exist in the reading research literature. It can be concluded that reading has been defined by different writers in various ways at different periods in history in accordance with the prevailing theories of language. As a result, reading has been defined under a variety of headings: reading as skill development, as a visual act, as a reflection of cultural background, and as a thinking process.

2. 2. Reading Strategies

Learning strategies, which are specific actions, steps or techniques, are employed in the course of communication in the target language or in the course of an effort to overcome a difficult task which will enhance learning. While strategies may be used consciously, they may also be turned into a habit and used unconsciously. Strategies, according to Oxford (1990:1), are especially important for language learners because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, and are essential for developing communicative competence. Proficient readers are efficient and effective. They are effective in that they are able to use the least amount of effort to achieve effectiveness. To achieve efficiency, they

> maintain constant focus on constructing the meaning throughout the process, always seeking the most direct path to meaning, always using strategies for reducing uncertainty, always being selective about the use of the cues available and drawing deeply a prior conceptual and linguistic competence. Efficient readers minimize dependence on visual detail. Any reader's proficiency is available depending on the semantic background brought by the reader to any given reading task (Carrel et al. 1990:12)

While accepting the majority of learning strategies as being conscious actions taken by the learners, Oxford(1990:12) also admits the existence of instinctively, unthinkingly, and uncritically employed strategies. Learning strategies, which are employed consciously, are accepted to be made fully automatic-unconscious, as it is often desired, through practice and use, and learner's awareness of the already employed strategies and their utility may be increased. Oxford(1990:9) lists the following as the features of learning strategies:

i. Allow learners to become more self-directed.

ii. Expand the role of teachers.

iii. Are Contribute to the main goal.

iv. problem oriented.

v. Are specific actions taken by the reader.

vi. Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.

vii. Supports learning both directly and indirectly.

viii. Are not always observable.

ix. Are of conscious.

x. Can be taught.

xi. Are flexible.

xii. Are influenced by a variety of factors.

While (O'Malley et al. 19985, cited in Brown, 1994:116-117), the pioneers in the field of learning strategies, divided learning strategies into three groups as metacognitive learning strategies, cognitive learning strategies, and socioeffective learning strategies, Oxford(1990:47) categorizes them as direct and indirect learning strategies. Direct strategies include memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies while indirect strategies include metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Whereas (O'Malley et al., 1985 cited in Brown, 1994:117) considered guessing words-in-context strategies as a kind of cognitive strategies referring it as inferencing, Oxford (1990:47) accepts it as a compensation strategy and divides it into two kinds: (a) guessing intelligibly and (b) overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. Compensation strategies, according to her:

> enable learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitations in knowledge. Compensation strategies are intended to make up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar, and especially, of vocabulary.

Reading strategies, according to Cohen (1990:83; Oxford , 1990:1ff) are mental processes readers actually choose to use in accomplishing reading tasks to make reading easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. Readers can use a variety of reading comprehension strategies to improve their comprehension of text and their retention of important information. These include such top-down strategies as scanning to obtain an overview of the text structure and major ideas, asking themselves questions about what they want to know from the

text, predicting answers or information in forthcoming paragraphs looking for specific words or concepts, inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words, taking notes, and summarizing important information.

(Hosenfeld et al. 1981, cited in Chastain 1988:231) identify twenty good reading strategies. The skilled reader

1) reads for meaning

2) skips unknown words or guesses

3) uses context of prior or subject material

4) identifies grammatical structure

5) evaluates the validity of the guesses

6) makes predictions based on the title

7) continues to read

8) recognizes cognates

9) makes interpretations based on his knowledge of the world

10) analyzes unknown words

11) reads expecting the material to be meaningful

12) reads for meaning rather than language

13) is willing to guess

14) uses illustrations

15) makes uses of glosses

16) looks up the meaning of words only as a last resort

17) gets the correct meaning when looking up words

18) skips unimportant words

19) follows through on predictions, and

20) utilizes context clues.

While acknowledging the existence of many possible reading strategies, Cohen (1990: 84 ff) lists three reading strategies based upon the findings of some researchers such as, (Baker & Brown 1984; Hosenfeld, 1977, 1979, 1984; Hosenfeld et al 1981).

1) classification of purpose

2) organization of text, and

3) reading for meaning.

Cohen (1990:84ff) classify the possible reading strategies into four categories based upon Sarig's doctoral dissertation;

a) Support Strategies- types of reading acts that are undertaken to facilitate high level strategies; for example, skimming, scanning, skipping, marking the text, and using a glossary.

b) Paraphrase Strategies-decoding strategies to clarify meaning by simplifying syntax, finding synonyms, identifying the function portions of the text.

c) Strategies for Establishing Coherence in the Text- the use of world knowledge or clues in the text to make the text intelligible as a piece of connected discourse, for example, looking for organizations, using context and distinguishing the discourse functions in the text such as, introduction, definition, exemplification.and conclusion.

d) Strategies for Supervising Strategy Use- conscious strategies for checking on the reading process as it takes place; planning, ongoing self-evaluation, changing the planning and executing tasks, identifying misunderstandings, and remediating when reading problems are faced.

Krashen & Terrel, 1983, (cited in Chastain 1988:225) outline the following communicative reading strategy:

1) Read for meaning

2) Do not look up every word

3) Predict meaning

4) Use context

2. 2. 1 Guessing Unknown Vocabulary From Context

Language, which is a vehicle for communication, involves the interaction of linguistic competence-knowledge of forms and meaning and communicative competence-knowledge of the functions language is used for and of how to use language appropriate to a given social situation.

While Carter & McCarthy (1988:42) emphasize the place of vocabulary in communication saying that "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without words nothing can be conveyed", Nation & Coady(1988:98) express the importance of vocabulary knowledge in reading stating that "vocabulary knowledge seems to be the most clearly identifiable sub-component of the ability to read." That language tasks in which students with inadequate vocabulary will be involved will cause them to suffer from frustration indicates the vital importance vocabulary has in reading comprehension. Viewing vocabulary knowledge from the point of view of reading skills, Nutall (1982: 65) sees vocabulary knowledge as a pre-requisite for dealing with most of the reading skills and concludes that "reading skills cannot be developed with texts that are loaded with unfamiliar words." On the relationship between levels of word meaning and comprehension, Beck et al. (1982: 507) state that there is a close relationship between the ratio of the accessibility of the words in a given text and comprehension and conclude that "if all of the words in a given text are highly accessible, processing can be directed toward the overall meaning of a sentence or passage, but if the text contains too many unknown words, comprehension of a text may be restricted since unknown words can

create gaps in the meaning of a text, which prevents the reader's ability to construct meaning.

Harmer (1991 154) draws attention attached to the importance and new ways of teaching vocabulary in recent years by stating that "methodologists and linguists have increasingly been turning their attention to vocabulary-stressing its importance in language teaching and reassessing some of the ways in which it is taught and learnt." Questions about learning vocabulary have held the interest of reading educators and psychologists over several decades. It has been argued that vocabulary knowledge of learners could be enlarged through *direct teaching, incidental* or intentional *learning* or *a combination of these*. Although direct teaching procedures are shown to have been effective in producing vocabulary learning including keyword lessons (Levin, McCormik, Miller, Berry & Presley, 1982), synonym drill (Penny, Jenkins & Screck, 1982), and classification, defining sentence production tasks(Beck, Perfetti & Mckeown, 1982; cited in Lenkins et al. 1984: 768), the strongest support of an empirical support for this matter is that children can derive meanings for unfamiliar words by using surrounding context(Carnine, Coyle & Kameenui, in press; Werner & Kaplan 1982; cited in Lenkins et al. 1984:769). While some earlier research on vocabulary focused on memory strategies such as retention, some focused on rehearsal strategies such as the number of repetitions needed to learn word lists, and some recent research focused on mnemonics, a key-word method which starts with an acoustic link(finding a *keyword* in L_1 that sounds like the foreign word) and then links the keyword and the foreign word by means of an interactive image. (Pressley et al. 1970 cited in Cohen, 1990:159) state that the objectives of vocabulary instruction-that is retention and remembering-determine the strategies used in instruction. If the purpose is to maximize remembering, the mnemonic

approach is appropriate, but if the objective is to enhance other aspects of vocabulary instruction and use, then inferring may work. As a result of the researches on vocabulary learning through reading (Krashen, 1989; Parry, 1991; Saragi, Nation & Meister; 1978; cited in Gu & Johnson; 1996:643-679), vocabulary is no longer thought of as acquired as separate items; it is viewed as an integral part of discourse and is developed along with reading strategies such as contextual guessing.

In an answer to an inquiry, Wallace(1982:31) states that only a small percentage of the vocabulary knowledge of an educated native speaker, which may vary between 100.000 and 200.000, has been specially taught and similarly many language teaching programs aspire to teach only 2000 words. The remaining words, according to him, are learned in two ways: (a) guessing the meanings of words by learning them used in certain situations or sometimes by reading in certain context and (b) guessing their meanings from context.

Though various techniques or ways of teaching/learning vocabulary do exist, teaching/learning the meanings of unfamiliar lexical items through contextual guessing is generally viewed to be one of the effective ways since through contextual guessing, learners are equipped with the ways of learning vocabulary and finding their own ways of expanding and organizing their word stores. In her interpretation of Halliday's idea of 'meaning potential', (Rivers, cited in Carter & McCarthy, 1988:48) states that "*the task of vocabulary teaching is to give learners the means to mean*, to help learners to 'analyze' their meanings, in relation to the linguistic and cultural ideas of their native background, as they select from the options the new language provides."

While discussing the problems of the readers such as; unknown vocabulary, sentence structure, the fear and concentration on getting the correct answer than on the more

important process of how to get the answer, and excess dependence on dictionary , Aspatora, (cited in Chastain 1988:63), Cohen ,(1990:77), Levine & Hughon ,(1985:1); Oxford, (1990:47ff), Zukowski et al. (1982:65) agree on the idea that developing the ability of inferring the meaning of a word by considering its context is one way of freeing students from dependence on the dictionary or other help sources. Moreover, guessing helps learners let go of the belief that they have to recognize and understand every single word before they can comprehend the overall meaning. Learners, according to Oxford (1990:90), can understand a lot of language through systematic guessing, without necessarily comprehending the details. While good language learners can make educated guesses when confronted with an unfamiliar item, less adept language learners and anxious readers often panic, tune out, and worries about not knowing the words. As it is impossible to teach learners all the words they need to know and they may encounter, it is important to assure them that they can read pretty well for their purpose without knowing all the words as proficient speakers do and teach them guessing strategies that will enable them tackle unknown words and lose their reliance on other help sources. This, according to McCarthy(1988:42), is the beginning of viewing vocabulary learning as a language skill, of shifting the responsibility to the learner.

Guessing Vocabulary From Context, sometimes called inference, is defined as making use of logical, syntactic, and cultural clues to discover the meaning of unknown elements. According to Nation & Coady(1988:104-105), contextual guesswork involves the reader in seeking clues to meaning by following a number of steps, which lead from the word first to its immediate context, and then to its operation in the surrounding context. If the learner lacks strategies to attack unfamiliar words they encounter, s/he has

to rely on other sources such asking someone or looking them in a dictionary which has their own disadvantages.

Nuttall (1982:70ff) points out that " we all infer the meaning of words to some degree in our first language since we learn most of our vocabulary by using them: meeting frequently with them in concrete situations." Thus, she advises that students' ability of inferring the meaning of a word by considering its context should be developed in order to free students from dependence on dictionary or other sources since too much attention to vocabulary has a harmful effect on the reading habits such as slowing down the reading speed or interrupting the thought process. She also claims that training students to infer meaning from context "not only gives the students aid to comprehension but also will ultimately speed up their reading". She (1982:70) cites Bright & McGregor who claim that there are two reasons for specific training for inferring;

a) most students are not aware that it is possible to understand new words without being told what they mean

b) students should be encouraged to adopt a positive attitude to new lexical items in order to eliminate instinctively adopted negative attitude.

Rivers & Temperley (1978:70) state that students can usually work out the meaning of most of the remaining words in a passage by intelligent guesswork or inference once they are familiar with the function words and common verbs, and have a recognition knowledge of some additional basic vocabulary. Johnson (1982) cited in Seal (1991:305) suggests that "students should be allowed to read the text and confront the difficult vocabulary in context and thereby work out the meaning for themselves" since such a process aids retention as "any meaning the pupils work out for themselves will be better remembered than any one they are given. He also warns that providing the

students with glosses and pre-teaching vocabulary "may encourage word-by-word reading and consequently prevent the ESL reader from the development of the skill of processing syntax and context in sampling and confirming meaning."

Oxford (1990:48) draws attention to the close relationship between the notion of guessing vocabulary from context and the central idea of Top-Down model of reading, that is; "meaning is in fact created by the receiver in the light of the experience s/he already posses" . ESL learners, while poor decoders on the one hand, they are already literate in their native language, can make use of their top-down processing familiarity to compensate for their weaknesses in decoding. She also acknowledges that " guessing is actually just a special case of the way people typically process new information, that is, interpreting the data by using the immediate context and their own life experiences." She sees this experience as the source of many intelligent guesses for both language experts and novices and claims that "not only beginners but also advanced learners, even native speakers use guessing when they have not heard something well enough, when they do not know a word, or when the meaning is hidden between the lines."

As the ability to unlock a word not recognized at sight is an auxiliary in the guest for comprehension, the teaching of word-attack skills, according to Stauffer(1970:17), should not take precedence over the teaching of reading for meaning. Therefore, students should be assured at the beginning of strategy training that they do not have to know all the words of a page before they can understand its meaning and they should be also convinced to rely on the kinds of techniques for discovering meaning rather than on other sources.

Mondria & De Boer (1991:252-253) acknowledge the existence of a distinct interaction between contextual factors, word factors, and reader/learner factors, which

determine guessability of an unfamiliar word. While contextual factors may include the redundancy of the text, the occurrence of synonyms and antonyms or words that are typically associated with the word concerned, the word factor may include such categories as part of speech, the degree of concreteness or abstraction, the transparency of word structure, the likelihood of inference, the degree of correspondence between the referential meaning of the foreign word and that of the word in the reader's mother tongue, the extend to which the word-form and the meaning bear with each other, and the frequency of the equivalent word in the reader's mother tongue. The redundancy of a text may be demonstrated by synonym in opposition, antonym, cause and effect, association between an object and its purpose or use, description, and example. The reader/learner factor, according to (Schouten-van Parreren, 1985; van Esch,1987, cited in Mondria & De Boer, 1991: 252-253) concerns the knowledge and skill of the person who is guessing such as knowledge of the words that occur in the context, the ability to analyze the word-form with the aid of morphology and etymology, the ability to make use of syntactic and semantic and possibly stylistic context, knowledge of the world, a good knowledge of words in one's mother-tongue(notably cognates), and a good knowledge of words in other foreign languages(notably related languages).

Nation & Coady(1988:104-106) present an elaboration the following strategy for guessing from context developed by Clarke & Nation(1980). The strategy, which presupposes that the learners can follow the ideas in the text they are reading which necessitates sufficient command of vocabulary, grammar and reading skills, and the learners bring some relevant background knowledge to the text, consists of five steps:

i. Finding the part of speech of the unknown word.

ii. looking at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplifying this context if necessary. Immediate context can be elaborated by listing possible sources of information that learners can look for:

a. Use the context to answer the question 'What does what?' about the unknown word.

b. Make use of any related phrases or relative clauses.

c. Remove *and* or *or* and make two or more simple sentences.

d. Interpret punctuation clues such as italics(showing the word will be defined), quotation marks(showing the word has a special meaning), dashes(showing apposition) or brackets(enclosing a definition).

iii. looking at the wider context of the unknown word. Looking at the relationship between the clause containing the unknown word and the surrounding clauses and sentences. These relationship include *cause and effect*, *contrast*, *generalization -detail, exclusion(* on the contrary, instead), *explanation*(in other words, that is), *time(*before, subsequently, finally), and *arrangement(*in the first place, secondly). Although these relationships are generally signaled, these implicit relationship can be made explicit to help the learners. The wider context can also be elaborated by citing possible sources of information for learners to make use of:

a. Make use of any reference word clues like *this*, *that*, *it*, etc.

b. Complete any comparison clues.

c. Choose and interpret the appropriate *conjunction relationship* between sentences the clause or sentence with the unknown word and the preceding and following clauses or sentences.

iv. Guessing, which consists of the actual guesses made by the learner using the clues obtained in steps 1-3, can be made in the mother tongue or in English.

v. Checking the guess. There are several ways of checking the guess:

a. Check that the part of speech of the guess is the same as the part of the speech of the unknown word.

b. Break the unknown word into parts and see if the meaning of the part relates to the guess.

c. Substitute the guess for the unknown word. Does it make sense in context?

d. Look in a dictionary.

In addition to these steps, several classroom activities are devised to begin to develop an ability to guess from context. One of the most common of them, according to Ruth & Gairns (1986:83), Nuttal (1982:71-73), is to provide students with sentences containing nonsense words in order to show them that some kind of understanding is possible and that they can get a good deal of information from the sentences even though they do not really understand them. Another classroom activity is to get students to suggest what range of words could be used to complete incomplete given sentences. The last of them is to show that possible fillers for any particular slot in a given sentence are limited makes it possible for us to work out the sort of thing an unknown word must mean.

Guessing skills can be built systematically by leading students step by step through different stages of guessing such as starting with global comprehension, asking students some preview questions before they start reading, interrupting in the middle to ask for predictions, and discussing the source of guesses in order to give the learners chance of learning from each other and make sure whether they are using all possible sources of clues.

2.3 Context

Context is defined as the sentence or paragraph in which a word appears, and can be categorized as the context in a text consisting of morphological, syntactic, and discourse information in a given text, and the general context consisting of the background knowledge of the reader on the subject matter. It is obvious that most words in a text do not exist in isolation as they are not usually simple meaning-bearing units. They almost always exist with other words in context which controls or supplies more information to make the meaning of a word clear. As context shapes the words and directs toward certain meanings, words without context may be awkward, nonsense, or at least have numerous meanings. Context is categorized as immediate and wider contexts. Nation & Coady (1988:105) state that immediate context can be elaborated by possible sources of information such as asking questions about the unknown word, making use of any related phrases or relative clauses, removing *and* or *or* to make two or more simple sentences, interpreting punctuation clues such as italics, quotation marks(showing the word will be defined), dashes(showing opposition), or brackets(enclosing a definition). The wider context, which consists of the relationships of clauses and sentences with surrounding clauses and sentences, can be elaborated by making use of possible sources of information such as making use of any reference word clues, completing any comparison clues, and interpreting the appropriate conjunction relationships between the clause or sentence with the unknown word and the preceding and following clauses and sentences.

While Dixon & Nessel (1983:69) emphasize the importance of direct instruction in the use of contextual clues and suggest particular attention that must be paid that the

students employ context clues that through which the beginning reader learns that reading is a sensible, meaningful activity as the use of context is encouraged.

Nuttal (1982:73) states that one must have clues in order to be able infer meaning from context and it must be made sure that "there are enough clues to make the inference possible and there are few or no other words in the context that will interfere with the attempt to deduce meaning." Likewise, Seal (1991:305) says that the proportion of known to unknown words in a text is a factor that appears to affect the case the learner can acquire words in context by citing Liu & Nation's study (1985), which suggests that " the higher the percentage of known word in a text, the easier it is for the learner to interpret the unknown words." Nation & Coady(1988:104) go one step further stating that it is not unrealistic to expect learners to guess between 60 percent and 80 percent of the unknown words in a text if the density of the unknown words is not too high.

2. 3. 1 Contextual Clues

Context, which is of great importance to readers in guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words, are viewed in two different ways: one view is that context is used primarily as a word recognition skill, the other view maintains that context is used primarily in determining the meaning of unfamiliar or unknown word. Guessing vocabulary form context, which is one of the frequent ways readers discover the meanings of unfamiliar words, consists in the inference of the meaning of an unknown word from context and the word form. In the process of guessing, learners are helped by numerous clues: first of all, they are helped by the topic which may be signaled by an abstract or outline of a text, and title. Secondly, the other words in discourse, which is full of redundancy, anaphora, and parallelism, help the learners. Finally, grammatical

structure and punctuation contain clues that help the learners in inferring the meaning of unfamiliar items. Many times, the sentence or sentences around the unfamiliar word will offer an indication of, or clue to, the word's meaning that will assist the readers in decoding unknown or unfamiliar words; that is, the text is characterized by;

i. relatively few difficult words.

ii. a topic that is familiar to the reader.

iii. syntactic patterns that are easy to process, and

iv. typographical clues like italics and subheadings. (Haynes, cited in Cohen 1990: 88).

Several researchers have developed lists of clues which are available in context to help in guessing the meaning of an unknown word. These lists, according to Nation and Coady(1988:106), were developed in several ways:

a) by analysis of texts(Artley, 1943; Oulin, 1970.)

b) by getting learners to describe the clues they used on words they selected themselves (McCullough, 1943, 1945, 1958.)

c) by getting learners to describe the clues they used to guess words which were randomly chosen by the experimenter (Ames, 1966.)

Faerch et al.(1984:96) divide the types of cues to meaning in three groups: contextual, inter-lingual, and intra-lingual cues. Contextual cues include one's knowledge of the world in relation to topic in question, the immediate linguistic context of the lexical item, and the other sentences in the text. Inter-lingual cues come from learner's L_1 knowledge and knowledge of other foreign language(s). Intra-lingual cues are supplied by the target language such as phonological, orthographic, morphological(i.e., prefix,

suffix, and stem), lexical, word class, collocation, and semantic. Oxford (1990:51-90), who categorizes contextual clues as linguistic and nonlinguistic clues, labels the contextual, inter-lingual, and intra-lingual clues as *linguistic clues* and states that linguistic clues are the bedrock of many correct guesses about the meaning of many passages. Linguistic clues, which are already said to consist of previously gained knowledge of the target language, the learners' own language, or some other language, can provide clues to the meaning. Suffixes, prefixes, and word order are useful linguistic clues for guessing meanings. Non-language clues come from a variety of sources: knowledge of context, situation, text structure, personal relationships, topic, or general world knowledge. Besides text structure-that is introductions, summaries, conclusions, titles, transitions, ways of dividing the text, and general background knowledge such as knowledge of the target culture, knowledge of the topic under discussion, and general knowledge of current affairs, arts, politics, and literature, graphs, pictures, tables, and appendices can help learners get an idea of the meaning..

Ames, 1966 (cited in Nation & Coady 1988:106), who thoroughly researched sources of clues, identified thirteen contextual clues that aid the reader in guessing the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items. While four of these-modifying phrases or clauses, words connected or in series, preposition clues, non-restrictive clauses or appositive phrases-can be applied in the process of guessing through making use of the immediate context, nine of these clues-definition or description, comparison or contrast, synonym, tone, setting and mood, referral, main idea-details, question-answer, and cause-effect-can be applied in the process of guessing through making use of the wider context.

The staff of the Wisconsin Design for reading Skills Development classify contextual clues into three categories: explicit, implicit, and structure clues. While explicit clues

include synonym, definition, equivalent phrase(s), and summary, structure clues include parentheses, commas, dashes, quotes, underlines, quotation mark, and type size(s). Implicit clues include cause and effect, contrast, example, and modifying phrase (cited in Morrison, 1979:38.)

Besides being great aid to learners in process of guessing, contextual clues just any other word-attack skills used alone, are claimed to have their limitations. These limitations, according to Bammam et al. (1959:237), can be overcome and the skill in the use of context clues can be promoted in case the teacher

i. scrutinizes the material closely to determine whether context does give a clue

ii. aids learners in attaching appropriate meanings to the new words that are encountered

iii. provides many opportunities for the learner to extend their skill in the use of context clues.

Among reading experts, two views concerning who can gain most from contextual clues do exist: One view is that good readers should gain most from contextual clues since they are likely to be more sophisticated with respect to the syntactic and semantic relationships of text, more sensitive to contextual clues, more adept at letter and word recognition, and they have more processing capacity available for purposes of exploiting contextual clues than poor readers can. The opposing view, that poor readers should gain most from context, according to Adams & Huggings(1985:263-264), rests on the premise that they gain most from context due to their weakness in decoding since they can use the syntactic and semantic dimensions of a text as top-down support for their difficult or uncertain bottom-up encoding of the text's visual dimensions.

2. 3. 2 Word Analysis

As mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, context clues are of great importance to readers in determining the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items. When the context is rich in cues for word meaning, it is sufficient for the generation of a likely meaning and the reader does not need any other cues. But context, especially a less rich or an supportive context may not always provide the reader with clues sufficient for guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words. When the reader cannot interpret the surrounding context due to her/his poor vocabulary knowledge, s/he is forced into a word-by-word reading strategy, and has to guess blindly or has to pay more attention to a detailed analysis of the word, which can also provide learners with clues to meaning. Apart from being one of the most effective ways of expanding vocabulary, a knowledge of word structure is also of great use in inferring word meaning. The analysis of word-form, according to Mondria & De Boer(1991:251-252), involves the recognition of relationship between new words and already known words in the target language, the mother tongue, and other languages. Gairns & Redman(1986: 48) claim that an understanding of all three aspects of word building is essential to make educated guesses about the meaning of unknown items.

The staff of the Wisconsin Design for Reading Skills Development, according to Morrison(1979:41), proposes for the word-parts strand of meaning study the following skills:

2. 3. 2. 1 Uses Word Parts: Prefixes

The learner recognizes that a prefix is a meaning bearing unit that can modify the meaning of a word in one of the following ways:

i. to signify range (i.e., ab-, ad-, en-, ex-, in-, sub-, super-, inter-,)

ii. to indicate time (i.e., pre-, post-, re-,)

iii. to signify approval or support (i.e., com-, pro-,)

iv. to signify opposition (i.e., de-, dis-, un-, anti-, mis-, non-,,in-,)

v. to signify number (i.e., bi-, tri-, di-, semi-,)

2. 3. 2. 2 Uses Word Parts: Suffixes

The learner recognizes that a suffix is itself a meaning bearing unit that can modify a base word and with that modification identify the grammatical function of the base word as noun (i.e., -ance, -ation, -ism, -ure, -ment, -hood, -ness, -ty, -ess, -ist, -er, -or, -let); as adjective or adverb (i.e., -less, -able, -ful, -ant, -ish, -al, -ly, -est); or verb (i.e., -en,)

2. 3. 2. 3 Uses Word Parts: Combining Forms

The learner recognizes that combining forms (i.e., bio, geo, graph, logy, meter, phone, ploto, zoo, homo, pseudo, auto, hydro, micro, aero, demo, psycho, astro, gram, magni, petro) are meaning bearing units that join together to constitute new English words.

2. 3. 2. 4 Uses Word Parts: Word Roots

The learner recognizes that some unfamiliar words may consist of prefixes or suffixes combined with word roots (i.e., fac, sta, pos, fer, mit (mis), tend, spect, ten, part, cap(t), duc(t), pli) which have their origin in a language other than English.

Clarke & Nation, 1980, (cited in Cohen, 1990:32) suggest leaving word analysis as the last resort, after exhausting contextual clues-for example, determining the part of speech of the unknown word, determining the relationship between the unknown word and other words in the clause or sentence, and looking at the relationship between the clause or sentence containing the unknown word and other sentences or paragraphs due to the likely-hood of arriving at an incorrect or inappropriate meaning for the given context. Another warning on the application of word analysis is that both context clues and word analysis should not be focused at the same time even though they are used to determine word meaning.

2. 4 Studies Done To Investigate Strategy Training

It is accepted by the experts in the field of reading that vocabulary knowledge is an inseparable component of reading ability. The findings of David's study(1972), which investigated whether there are identifiable subskills within the overall ability to read, verified that recalling word meaning, determining meaning from context, finding answers to explicit questions, and drawing inferences are some of the subskills within the overall ability to read (cited in Nation & Coady, 1988:98)

In recent years more and more attention has been paid to the problems involved in vocabulary acquisition. One of the theories about vocabulary acquisition is the theory of Schouten-van Parraren (1985), which maintains that words are best learned through reading. She advises the presentation of words in texts since they , according to him, provide many points of reference for the retention of words. The results of Ames's study (1966) are in agreement with the theory of Schouten-van Parraren in that they both claim that learning vocabulary through reading do exists. Ames(1966), who carried out an

experiment to investigate the success in guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary from context, found out that his doctoral level students successfully guessed 60 per cent of the unknown words (cited in Nation & Coady, 1988:103)

Our prediction that guessing unfamiliar vocabulary from contextual clues should improve reading comprehension is supported by studies carried out by Perfetti & McKeown, 1982; Draper & Moeller, 1971; Kameenui & Carnie, 1982; Sözöz, 1983.)

Sözöz(1983) carried out an experimental study on two groups-a pilot and a control group of students to find out the effect of guessing training on reading comprehension. The groups, which consisted of 30 students each, were at the same level of English. During the study, which lasted for a term, the pilot group spent one or two extra hours a week to do exercises on guessing. During the instruction, oral discussions were held after the learners' guesses to find out their guessing strategies. The test, which was given before and after the study, included a cloze test with 240 blanks to be filled in, 150 comprehension passage questions and 210 unknown vocabulary items in context. The results of this study indicate that the pilot group did better than the other group in terms of the cloze test, comprehension passage, and unknown vocabulary items in context.

The results presented here are in agreement with the theoretical discussions presented by Perfetti et al.(1982: 520.) They maintain that a vocabulary training program can lead to gains in comprehension claiming that subjects process individual word meanings more accurately and more rapidly after the instruction. Improvements of comprehension follow because construction of a passage meaning, especially noncentral content, is made easier because individual word meanings are understood.

Several studies were also carried out to investigate the factors that might influence the guessability of words. Mondria & De Boer found out that the pregnancy or non-

pregnancy of a subject, verb, and function in a sentence influences the correct or incorrect guessing of the meaning of a word (1991). The findings of a similar study, carried out by Sternberg & Powell (1983) to distinguish between clues to the meaning of an unknown word in context, and variables that facilitate or hinder the use of these clues, were strikingly similar to those obtained in Mondria & De Boer's study in that they both show that density of the unknown words to known words in a text, the number of times the same word occurs in a text, the variety of contexts in which it occurs in the text, the importance of the unknown word to understanding of the context, and the closeness of the influence the guessability of an unknown word.

In tracing the causes of wrong guesses, Bensoussen & Laufer (1984) claim that using the contextual information to the unknown word are some of the variables that might influence it and using word form instead of the context in guessing is one of the common errors made mostly by untrained readers and even by the better readers. Studies of incorrect guessing, according to Nattinger(1988:63), indicate the importance of getting learners to delay making use of word clues until they have made full use of the available context clues.

2. 5 Strategy Training

Learning strategies-techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions taken by learners to facilitate learning-can be taught and modified through strategy training which is an essential part of education.

That good language learners use a variety of strategies to assist them in gaining command over new language skills not only in ESL classrooms but also in out of classroom acquisition environments implies that less competent learners can improve

their skills in a second language through training on strategies evidenced among more successful language learners. With successful training, less competent learners can apply strategies to the acquisition of a variety of different language skills and transfer them to similar language tasks. Besides less competent language learners, even the best learners can improve their strategy use through strategy training which help them guide learners to become more conscious of strategy use and more adept at employing appropriate strategies. Another implication is that teachers could convey the strategy applications to students and direct them to utilize strategies for a variety of language learning activities. Students, according to Wenden & Rubin (1987:82), can make more effective use of learning opportunities they encounter with teacher provision of the learning tools.

Language learning strategies, according to Oxford (1990:202 ff) can be taught in at least three different ways: awareness training, one-time strategy training, and long-term strategy training. Strategy training is most effective when the students learn why and when specific strategies are important, how to use these strategies, and how to transfer them to new situations. Chamot & O'Malley (1994:98) suggest that strategies should be taught by naming the strategy, indicating that the purpose of the strategy is to help the student comprehend and remember new information, and remind the student to use strategies with subsequent reading.

Apart from extensive reading, students, according to Stoller (1987:38), can benefit from explicit reading instruction that focuses on strategy training. By the help of strategy training the instructor can build learner's repertoire of deliberate and purposeful strategies to construct meaning, to remove meaning blockage, and to read critically.

Seal (1991:305) claims that learner training is a factor that affects the learners' ability to use context to guess the meaning of an unknown word citing Clarke & Nation's

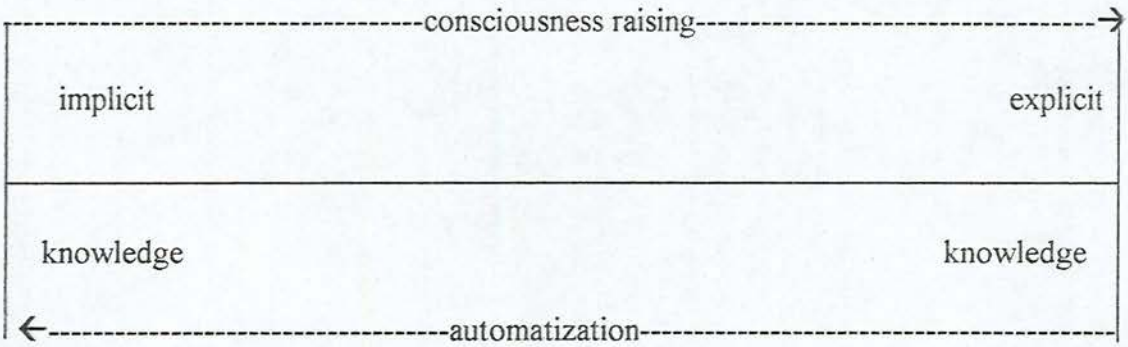
(1980) study, which demonstrates that learners can improve their guessing skills by being trained to search for context clues within a text.

2. 5. 1 Awareness Training

In studies on L_2 learning a distinction is often made between explicit and implicit linguistic knowledge which, according to Smith(1988:51), have occurred in various forms both in the literature on language instruction and within a more strictly learning-oriented context. Implicit linguistic knowledge is what the individual can use but not describe whereas explicit linguistic knowledge is knowledge which the individual can describe but does not necessarily use. The issue concerns whether the learner should treat the language task intellectually and systematically as a mental problem, or whether s/he should avoid thinking about the language and absorb it more intuitively. It is argued that the second should be done by providing direct experience and avoiding the explicit knowledge promoted by the first. On the other hand, it is claimed that a conscious awareness of how language works and the subjection of student's experience to analysis would suit their cognitive style, increase motivation by giving added point to their activities, and so enhance learning. Widdowson (1990:98) claims that learners need to realize the *function* of the device as a way of mediating between words and contexts, as a powerful resource for the purposeful achievement of meaning.

Language awareness could be roughly defined and viewed as a sensitivity to, or explicitly awareness of, the grammatical, lexical, or phonological features, and the effect on meaning brought about by the use of different forms. Language consciousness raising is assumed to consists of complete and unrelenting focus on the formal structures of the target language. Awareness Training, which is also known as consciousness-raising or

familiarization training, is viewed as important elements in a comprehensive model of foreign language learning. Consciousness-raising implies a deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention to the formal properties of the target language by explicitly stating items, which were signaled implicitly. Participants, in awareness training, are helped to become aware and familiar with the general idea of language learning strategies and the way such strategies help them accomplish various language tasks. Faerch et al. (1984:203) accept the process of developing more consciousness about implicit knowledge as part of the general process of consciousness-raising and illustrates the process of consciousness-raising and automatization in the following way:



Participants, in awareness training, do not have to use strategies, on-the-spot language tasks. Zvetina(1987:235) cites Van Parreren & Schoute-Van Parreren, who advocate explicit teaching of contextual guessing, argue that such guessing may improve reading comprehension and speed: "... guessing the meaning of words from context can enhance retention of these words..." She also claims that teachers would do much for students' reading ability, as well as their perceptions of themselves as capable language learners, an affective need far too often neglected in L_2 classrooms by explicitly teaching students to be aware of their (often) ineffective strategies, and giving them tools to correct these deficiencies.

2. 5. 2 One-time Strategy Training

One-time Strategy Training involves learning and practicing one or more strategies with actual language tasks, usually those found in the regular language learning program. This kind of training gives the learner information on the value of strategy, when it can be used, how to use it, and how to evaluate the success of the strategy. One-time strategy is appropriate for learners who have a need for particular, identifiable, and very targeted strategies that can be taught in one or just a few sessions.

2. 5. 3 Long-term Strategy Training

Long-term Strategy Training involves learning and practicing strategies with actual language tasks. Students learn the significance of particular strategies, when and how to use them, and how to monitor and evaluate their performance. Like one-term training, long-term training should be tried to the tasks and objectives of the language program. However, long-term training is more prolonged and covers a greater number of strategies. It is likely to be more effective than one-time training.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

3. 1 Research Design

The main purpose of this study was to find out the effect of consciousness raising training on guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues on reading comprehension. Any significant difference between the scores of the Experimental Group which had the consciousness raising treatment during the sixteen class-hour instruction and the scores of the Control Group which had no consciousness raising treatment was investigated. The two groups were taught the same texts through the same ELT method except the experimental group's consciousness on guessing vocabulary from context was raised through contextual clues. In this study, two groups of students were examined in a pre-test and a post-test (Appendix A, B). Before any treatment, the Michigan Placement Test was administered on both groups to determine their levels. Then an Experimental and a Control Group of twenty students were formed. After the formation of the groups, a test (the pre and the post test), which was prepared by the researcher, was given as the pre-test to both groups to determine their success in reading comprehension. A set of ten Multiple Choice, ten Open Ended, and ten Vocabulary

Guessing questions was constructed for each of the two reading passages. The Multiple Choice and Open Ended Questions required understanding of implicitly or explicitly stated ideas and the Vocabulary Guessing Questions required understanding of the target words in the passages. The format for the Vocabulary Guessing Questions test was multiple choice, with the target word used in the texts and four alternatives were offered in the from of either brief definitions or synonyms and antonyms. In the pre and post tests, which were administered in two sessions of 45 minutes, students' success in answering multiple-choice, open-ended questions, and inferring the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary items from contextual clues was investigated.

After that, a sixteen class-hour instruction consisting of four class hours a week was applied to both groups in the first term of the academic year 1997-1998. The same reading passages, appropriate for Intermediate Level learners, were given to both groups at the same length of time. Text-book reading extracts were used for instruction.

The sequence of the reading instruction in both groups consisted of the following:

1) Setting an overall purpose for reading the text: Students were given purpose(s) suitable for each texts in order to judge what they can skim over, what they must attend to in detail.

2) Introducing the text: The texts were introduced in order to get the students in the right direction, help them relate the text to their own experience, involve them actively, get them into the right mood, and make them interested in reading them. Students interest in the text was raised by means of questions such as;

"Have you ever....?", " What would you like to.....?", "What is your opinion of.....?", etc.

3. Skimming and Scanning exercises / questions in the whole texts were given or asked in order to have them involve actively in the reading process.

4. Each section was tackled section by section by means of

a) utilizing non-text information, if there was any.

b) utilizing reference apparatus; such as title, summary, biographical information about the author, etc.

c) utilizing non-verbal information; such as pictures, illustrations, tables, etc.

d) utilizing word-attack skills; such as ignoring some lexical items.

The procedure for each section consisted of:

a) dealing with essential language points for the section

b) assigning questions for the section

c) silent reading of the section by whole class

d) checking answers to the questions asked above and assigning some other questions for the class.

5. After completing section by section study, tasks were assigned to individuals or groups requiring assessment of the texts as a whole, drawing together information obtained from the detailed study and including the contribution of each part to the total message.

6. Individuals or groups attempt tasks

7. report back session and evaluation.

In addition to these, the Experimental Group's consciousness on guessing vocabulary from contextual clues was raised through training them by making use of the available contextual clues accompanied by some extra and tasks. The strategy training in question

was integrated with the tasks, objectives, and materials used in the instruction in order to help the learners better understand how the strategies can be used in significant, meaningful contexts since "meaningfulness makes it easier to remember the strategies"(Oxford, 1990:206).

As the main concern of this study was to develop the learners' reading comprehension through contextual guesswork, the primary purpose throughout the study was, first of all, to make sure that the learners had at least a general understanding of the studied texts, and the secondary aim was to show how the meanings of certain unknown words could be inferred from contextual clues. This procedure, according to Wallace(1992:41) makes sense at least for two reasons:

1. It is important in any EFL reading program to train students to go for the overall meaning of the article or book that they are reading, and not to allow themselves to be put off or distracted by individual words they don not know.
2. The meaning of an individual word depends on the general meaning of the passage. Most common words have at least a vast range of denotations; which denotation is the appropriate one will depend on the meaning of the passage as whole.

Showing the learners that the gist of an article or a passage can be understood even though it contains some unknown words was another purpose of this procedure, since they had the wrong belief that all the words of a text had to be known for an understanding of it, which was one of the obstacles at the beginning of the treatment awaiting us. The usual procedure in dealing with the comprehension passages, studied in the course of the treatment, was to ask some questions to establish a general sense of the

passage, and then to come to questions about the meanings of individual words in order to discourage word-decoding.

At the very beginning of the consciousness-raising treatment, the Experimental Group was shown how some words are used in different senses and how the context of the word shapes the meaning of them. They were asked to analyze what the same word meant in different sentences in order to increase their awareness on the importance of the context the word used in.

maintain

1. He took the lead and maintained it until the end of the race.
2. The police were unable to maintain law and order.
3. Despite some evidence to the contrary, the police maintained that he involved in the robbery.
4. The railways lines have to be constantly maintained.

Involve

1. My job involves traveling extensively.
2. He was involved in some critical activities.
3. The community progress involves recreational, cultural, and economic features.
4. The witness's statement involves you in the robbery.
5. Do not involve me in your problems.

(From Building Skills for Proficiency by Cesur Öztürk)

The following two paragraphs were given to them and speculations on the possible word(s) that fitted in the blanks were made with them in order to emphasize further how

the meanings of individual words depend on the general meaning of a passage as a whole.

Paragraph 1.

When we went inside, the----------had already started, and there was complete darkness. We looked for a seat, but I remember the first scene of the--------took place at night, so there was not any light from the screen to show us where to sit. Finally, a woman with a torch came and helped us. It was only at the end of the---------(which was terrible, by the way) and lights came on, we realized that we were the only people there.

(From Penguin Elementary Reading Skills by Anne Parry and Mark Bartram)

Q: Suggestions for the place they entered into.

A: A building, a room.

Q: Did the place have any light when they entered into?

A: No, it was dark.

Q: They looked for a seat to sit. Then, in a way they had to sit. A woman with a torch came to help them. What kind of places keep people with torches to help people?

A: A theater, a cinema, a concert hall.

Q: What do people watch in a theater, in a cinema, or in a concert hall?

A: A play, a film, a concert.

Q: Look at the last sentence. Were there any other people there?

A: No, there were not.

Q: We know from sentence 2 and three that the thing in that place had a scene. What things have scenes?

A: A play, a film, and etc.

Q: We know from the last sentence that they did not like it. Now, let's remember the clues: it was in a dark place where people go to watch it. A number of people were expected to come there. It had a beginning and an end. A person with a torch helped them. Which of the two suggestions seem most likely?

A: The place is a cinema and it was a film.

Paragraph 2.

People nowadays complain about 'convenience food'-you know, food that comes in tins or packets-but in many ways the----------is the perfect convenience food. It has its own container-though we call it a shell. You keep it in the fridge for some time. It can be used for all kinds of different dishes-omelettes, cakes, pankaces, or you can have it fried, scrambled or parched. Of course, ---------are full of cholesterol and probably bad for you. But who cares?

(From Penguin Elementary Reading Skills by Anne Parry and Mark Bartram)

Q: What is it?

A: Food.

Q: What does it have?

A: A shell.

Q: In what way does the writer compare it with other convenience foods?

A: About their packets, containers.

Q: Where can you keep it and why?

A: In a fridge, to keep it fresh.

Q: Can it be used with other meals, or dishes? Suggestions?

A: Omelettes, cakes, pankaces.

Q: How can it be served?

A: Fried, scrambled, parched.

Q: Taking into account all the information mentioned so far, what can it be?

A: Egg

Having emphasized the importance of context through the previous two paragraphs, the following sentences (From Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language by Christine Nuttall) were presented to them in order to show them how the number of the possible meanings of an unknown item increase with the wider context when all of the following sentences were given together and how the number of the possibilities narrow down when the following four sentences were given one at a time.

1. She poured water into a tock.

Q: What can we learn from sentence one?

A: That a tock can hold water.

Q: Suggestions?

A: It can be a bucket, a bowl, a hole, a sieve.

Q: Now, look at this sentence and think how does it narrow down the possibilities.

2. Then, lifting the tock, she drank.

A: It can be lifted and it can be drunk from.

Q: Can it be a hole, then?

A: No, it can not. It can be a kind of container.

Q: Now, read the next sentence and think about what new information does it give.

3. Unfortunately, as she was setting it down again, the tock slipped from her hand and broke.

A: We know that it broke when she slipped it. It can be broken.

Q: You mean it is fragile. What might it have been made of?

A: Glass-china-clay-stone

4. Only the handle remained in one piece.

Q: It has a handle. What could it be?

A: It could be a cup.

Q: Right. That seems to be the most likely.

Then a text titled "**He called it Penicillin**" from Reading For Adults by R. D. Lewis (Appendix C) was given to the subjects who were assumed to have some prior knowledge on the content of it. The main purpose of this activity was to show the learners that prior knowledge makes it easier the understanding of texts and guessing of unknown words. The words that were thought to have been unfamiliar were qualify, research, inoculation, and antibiotic.

1. T: Look at the underlined word in paragraph one and read the whole sentence.

T: What did he do to enter to the university?

A: He qualified.

T: What do students in Turkey have to do for entrance to university?

A: They have to pass entrance examinations.

T: Then, qualify may mean something like pass necessary examinations.

2. research . Now, look at the underlined word in paragraph 2.

T: What was Wright's job?

A: A scientist, a bacteriologist

T: Why does the author think that many people owed their lives to him?

A: Because of his development of inoculation against typhoid fever

T: What does a scientist have to do to develop or discover a thing?

A: They have to study, they have to make experiments.

T: Then, we can substitute the word study for research

3. inoculation . Paragraph 2.

T: What is an inoculation?

A: A kind of substance. It was used against typhoid fever.

T: As it was developed against typhoid fever, typhoid fever is a kind of illness that causes problems in the body.

T: Then, we can say that inoculation is a kind of substance that protects the body against typhoid fever-a kind of fever, illness.

4. antibiotic

T: Why were the bacteria all round the mould dead?

A: Because of the mould.

T: Was it also effective with other kinds of bacteria?

A: yes, it was very effective.

T: Were other kinds of the same substance discovered?

A: Yes, to fight against all known bacteria and other deadly germs.

T: Then, bacteria can sometimes be harmful to human body and the body should be protected against them. Remember that the germs were destroyed by the mould. And Doctor Fleming called the germs as antibiotic.

Having formed a general sense on the importance of context in guessing the meanings of unfamiliar words, the learners' consciousness on making use of the contextual clues was raised in order of their appearance in the studied texts with the help of a few extra examples. Although some of these clues are usually implied by authors, the learners were not aware of the fact that these could be made use of in contextual guesswork. In order to increase their awareness on this matter, these clues were explicitly signaled with the help of a few examples. The following contextual clues were focused on as they were the most common ones found in the text studied during the sixteen class-hour consciousness-raising treatment.

The practical strategy for guessing unknown words in text, suggested by Nation & Coady(1988:110), was applied in the course of the consciousness-raising treatment.

1. Find the part of speech of the unknown word.
2. Examine the immediate context.
3. Examine the wider context.
4. Guess the meaning.
5. Check the meaning.

1. The immediate context of every unfamiliar item to be guessed was elaborated by asking some questions to show them what to do in dealing with unfamiliar words.

a. As a first step, the grammatical function of the unknown word(verb, noun, adjective, adverb, etc.) was decided

b. Then, the kind of meaning-positive, or negative- the unknown word seemed to have was analyzed

c. Whether the word involved movement or not was discussed

d. The text was analyzed whether the unknown word was contained elsewhere by a different name.

e. Whether the word could be a thing, a substance, an emotion, and etc., was speculated with the learners.

f. Each unknown word to be guessed was analyzed whether it had any suffixes or prefixes.

g. Related words with the unknown word were searched for.

h. If the sentence containing the unknown word had and or or , these words were removed to make two or more simple sentences.

i. Punctuation clues such as comma(,), dash(-), parenthesis( ), colon(:), and semicolon(;) contained in the texts were analyzed and their functions in the sentence were discussed with the help of the following examples.

Comma(,) Let's look at the following sentence to find out the function that commas(,) serve.

-In Japan, people use landmarks in their directions. They talk about hotels, markets, and bus stops.

Q: What do the words 'hotels, markets, and bus stops' have in common in this sentence?

A_1: They are names of places.

A_2: They are generally known by the residents of that place

Q: For what purpose are these words used in the above sentence?

A: To tell directions.

Q: Then, what might be a landmark?

A: It could be well-known building . in a place.

Q: Then, we can say that a comma can be used to separate similar items in a series.

Now look at this example and think whether the commas used give any clues regarding the meaning of the underlined word.

Meteorology, the science of measurements, is based on precision.

Q: What does the underlined word seem to mean?

A: The science of measurement.

Q: Thus, we can say that commas give information on the meaning of an unfamiliar word contained in the same sentence by separating items in a series.

Now, look at the following sentence and think about the functions of paranthesis ( ), and dash(-).

-Most people think that the typical North American diet consists of fast-foods (hamburgers and fresh fries). It also includes convenience foods, usually frozen or canned, and "junk food"-candy, potatoes, chips, cereal with lots of sugar but no vitamins, and so on.

Q: What examples of fast-foods are given in the sentence?

A: They are hamburgers and fresh fries.

Q: What examples of junk food were given in the sentence?

A: Candy, potatoes, chips, cereal with lots of sugar but no vitamins

Then, we can say that a dash(-) and a parenthesis( ) give the meaning or explanation of a word.

Colon(:) and a semicolon(;).

There has been a series rise in the cost of utilities: water, gas, and electricity

Q: What do the words water, gas ,and electricity have in common?

A: Things people use in everyday life.

Q: What are water, gas, and electricity?

A: They are utilities.

As we have seen, a colon(:), or a semicolon(;) can separate two closely related items.

2. The wider context of every unfamiliar item to be guessed was elaborated through the following contextual clues by giving some extra examples which explicitly signaled the meaning of the word to be guessed.

I. Definition or description: Word(s) or phrase(s) that are commonly found in the sentences that define or describe something were focused on through the following examples.

Be:

-The context is the words around the new items.

Can be described as:

Fatigue can be described as the tiredness and exhaustion that result from muscular work.

Refers to

Segregation refers to the setting apart of one group from another.

Involves

Rationalization involves substituting an acceptable motive for an unacceptable one.

Means

Drug abuse means becoming dependent on drugs.

II. That an explanation or an equivalent(equal) of a new vocabulary is presented in another part of the sentence and the phrases in other words ,that is , and i.e. are clues to explanation were emphasized through the following examples.

-I'm not sure that this business is strictly legitimate. i.e. is legal.

-According to ethnologists, most animal behavior is governed by innate or instinctive mechanisms, in other words, mechanisms inherited at birth.

-Most human beings are omnivores; that is, they eat both animal and plant material, while others are carnivores, eating only animal fish.

III. That examples of the meaning of a new vocabulary item are in the sentence or in another part of the sentence and the phrases for example, for instance, and such as are the clues to the meaning were stressed through the following examples.

-In the markets basic commodities such as meat, sugar and cooking oil are often unattainable.

-In Japan, people use landmarks in their directions. For example, the Japanese will say, "Go straight down the corner. Turn left at the big hotel and go past the fruit market. The post office is across the bus stop."

IV. That authors sometimes use the words however, but, unlike, on the contrary, on the other hand, although, yet, while, whereas, etc. to alert the reader to the fact that a word with an opposite meaning is being used were emphasized through the following examples.

-While deserts are expanding, forests are shrinking.

-He is not stingy. On the contrary, he is quite generous.

-Some actions are learned, but other actions are innate.

-Although they look similar, these plants are actually quite distinct.

V. Context clues are often found in the form of synonyms, words that mean the same as the unknown one. Authors sometimes use another word in the same sentence or a neighboring sentence that has the same meaning as the unfamiliar word. Synonyms may be purposely included by an author to help readers understand a less unfamiliar word. In such cases the synonyms may be set off by special punctuation within the sentence such as commas, dashes, or a parenthesis. Also, they may be introduced by or, and that is. A synonym may also appear as a restatement of the meaning of the unknown one.

-The velocity, or speed of light , about 300.000 kilometers Per second.

-To repeat one small job hour after hour is both tedious and uninteresting. The job becomes tiring and uninteresting.

V. The following ways of checking the guess were applied:

a. Whether the part of speech of the guess was the same as the part of speech of the unknown word was checked.

b. The unknown word was broken into parts and analyzed whether the meanings of the parts made sense or not.

c. The guess was substituted for the unknown word and inspected whether it made sense or not.

At the end of the sixteen class-hour instruction, the post-test, which consisted of the same items in the pre test, was given to both groups and possible differences between the pre and post tests of each group and likely differences between the scores of the two groups were evaluated. In order to achieve the goal of this study, statistical techniques were applied. T-test for dependent samples was used to compare the pre and post test scores of each group within itself and t-test for independent samples was used to compare the scores the experimental group obtained from the post test with the scores the control group obtained from the post test.

3. 2 Subjects

This study was carried out with forty-six Lycee grade two students of Afyon Kocatepe Anatolian High School. The age of the students were 17-18. The subjects, who had had a prep class, received English lessons eight hours a week for three years and have been receiving English lessons four hours a week for three months. The subjects were considered to be representative of the **Intermediate level**. This was tested with a standard 'Michigan University Placement Test'. Forty-six students, who got the mark 32-71 from the test, were selected for this study. Then an Experimental and a Control Group were formed. After the formation of the groups, a test consisted of two texts, which was prepared by the researcher, was given to both groups in order to determine their scores in the pre test. The number of students in each group was twenty-three. The experiment took place during four regular English lessons.

3. 3 Data Collection Procedures

This study was carried out for four class-hours a week in the first term of the academic year 1997-1998. To obtain data regarding the students' efficiency in reading comprehension, a pre-test before the treatment and a post-test after the treatment were carried out. The test, which consisted of two texts, has three parts. Ten multiple-choice and ten open-ended questions were prepared for each text. These questions aimed to elicit explicit and implicit information in the texts. Besides, each text included ten unknown words for guessing. The students were asked to choose the most suitable alternative to underlined words. Before the treatment, it was made sure that the students did not know the meaning of these words and the texts had enough context clues to help the learners. The students were given 45 minutes per passage. After the pre-test, the same reading passages were studied in both groups using the same techniques except the Experimental Group's consciousness about guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary from context was raised by making use of contextual clues. Eight texts from Interactions I by Elaine Kirn and Pamela Hartmann were studied during the instruction. The texts were suitable for Intermediate learners. Then the same pre-test was given as the post-test to both groups.

3. 4 Data Analysis

In order to measure the Experimental and Control Group learners' performance, the scores were calculated on the basis of correct answers of the multiple-choice, open-ended, and vocabulary guessing questions. Statistical techniques were applied in order to determine the meaningful difference between the pre and post test scores of the two groups. T-test for paired samples was applied to investigate likely meaningful difference

between the pre and post test scores of each group and t-test for independent samples was applied to compare the scores of the two groups at the 0.05 confidence level. The results were examined and compared in terms of the following:

1. Differences between the pre and the post test scores of the Experimental Group in correctly answered multiple choice, open ended and vocabulary guessing questions.

2. Differences between the pre and post test scores of the Control Group in correctly answered multiple choice, open ended and vocabulary guessing questions.

3. Differences between the scores of the Experimental and the scores of the Control Group in correctly answered multiple choice, open ended and vocabulary guessing questions in the pre test.

4. Differences between the scores of the Experimental and the scores of the Control Group in correctly answered multiple choice, open ended and vocabulary guessing questions in the post test.

5. Differences between the pre and post test Placement Test scores of the Experimental Group.

6. Differences between the pre and the post test Placement Test scores of the Control Group.

7. Differences between the Placement post test scores of Experimental Group and the Placement post test scores of the Control Group.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This study was designed to investigate the effects of consciousness-raising training on guessing the meanings of unknown words on EFL learners reading comprehension. Any meaningful difference between the pre and post test scores of the Experimental Group and the Control Group, and any significant difference between the post test scores of the Experimental Group and the post test scores of the Control Group, which were sought, would be the verification of our prediction that guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues should improve reading comprehension.

This chapter contains the analysis of the pre and post test results which consisted of three sections: multiple choice questions, open ended questions, and vocabulary guessing questions. It also contains the analysis of Placement Test results.

4. 1 Analysis of the Pre-test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups.

The questions in section 1. 3 were investigated through the following.

Table 4. 1. 1: Mean Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the Pre-test of Text I Multiple Choice Questions.

Pre Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	6,0	23	0,10	0,9
Cont. G.	5,9	23		

(p= 0,9 ; p>0,05)

As shown in Table 4. 1. 1, large differences did not exist between the performance of the Experimental and Control Groups in terms of the Multiple Choice Questions in the pre test of Text I. The results presented in the above table (t=0,10; p>0,9) and the following five tables, obtained from the pre tests of Text I and Text II, are in agreement with each other in that both groups were at the same level of English. As will be noted through the following results showing the scores obtained from the pre tests of Text I and II, both groups did slightly better in Multiple Choice Questions compared to Open Ended and Vocabulary Guessing Questions of Text I and II.

Table 4. 1. 2: Mean Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the Pre-test of Text I Open Ended Questions.

Pre Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	4,9	23	-0,31	0,7
Cont. G.	5,0	23		

(p= 0,7; p> 0,05)

As displayed in this table, the scores of both groups obtained from the pre test of Text I Open Ended Questions intensify our claim regarding English Proficiency level of the subjects. The mean scores of both groups and the value of p as being higher than that of α value are some of the indicators of our claim. The subjects in both groups did worse in Open Ended Questions of both Text I, and II compared to that of their performance in Multiple Choice Questions of Text I and II.

Table 4. 1. 3: Mean Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the Pre-test of Text I Vocabulary Guessing Questions.

Pre Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	4,2	23	0,0	1,0
Cont. G.	4,2	23		

(p= 1,0; p> 0,05)

The results presented in table 4. 1. 3 are strikingly similar to those presented so far in that the subjects in both groups were at the same level of English. In the above table, we see that (t=0,0; p>1) there is no significant difference between the Experimental and the Control Groups in terms of the Vocabulary Guessing Questions of Text I.

Table 4. 1. 4: Mean Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the Pre-test of Text II Multiple Choice Questions.

Pre Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	4,4	23	0,0	1,0
Cont. G.	4,4	23		

(p= 1,0; p> 0,05)

As can be seen from this table, both groups showed similar performance in the pre test of the Multiple Choice Questions of Text II as they did in the pre test of Text I Multiple Choice Questions. (t=0,00; p> 1) indicates that both groups were at the same level. As will be noted through the pre test results of Text II, they got lower mean scores from Text II pre test than they did from Text I pre test.

Table 4. 1. 5: Mean Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the Pre-test of Text II Open Ended Questions.

Pre Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	2,2	23	-0,8	0,4
Cont. G.	2,6	23		

(p=0,4; p> 0,05)

The results presented in the above table show that both groups obtained nearly the same scores from the pre test of the Open Ended Questions of Text II. The subjects in both groups did worse in Text II Open Ended Questions than they did in the other question types of Text I, and II pre tests.

Table 4. 1. 6: Mean Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the Pre-test of Text II Vocabulary Guessing Questions.

Pre Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	3,8	23	1,8	0,6
Cont. G.	3,1	23		

(p= 0,6; p> 0,05)

From the above table it appears that there is not any significant difference between the scores of the Experimental and the Control Groups. The subjects in both groups have showed similar performance in the pre test of the Vocabulary Guessing Questions of Text II. (t= 1,8; p>0,6) This result obtained from the pre test of the Vocabulary

Guessing Questions of this test also intensify our claim regarding their level of English made so far.

4. 2 Comparison of the Pre-Test and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group.

The question concerning whether the sixteen class-hour consciousness-raising treatment on guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary from contextual clues had a positive effect on the Experimental Group learners' performance was investigated through the following.

Table 4. 2. 1: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental Group in Text I.

Exp. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre Test	6,0	23	-6,6	0,01
Post Test	7,6	23		

(p= 0,01; p< 0,05)

The results in table 4. 2. 1, like the following five results showing the scores of the Experimental Group in the pre and post tests of Text I and II, indicate that the sixteen class hour treatment had a positive effect on the Experimental Group learners' Multiple Choice Question scores since they gained a 1.6 mean increase in the post test of Text I Multiple Choice Questions. While twenty subjects showed improvement in the Multiple Choice Questions of Text I from pre-to post test by increasing the number of their correct answers, only three subjects did the same number as they did in the pre test. No

one showed decrease in the number of their correct answers. There is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores in terms of (t= -6,6; p<0,01). Depending on their mean increase and statistically significant difference, we therefore can conclude that the consciousness-raising treatment given to the Experimental Group subjects helped them show significant improvement in the post test in terms of the Multiple Choice Questions of Text I .

Table 4. 2. 2: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Open Ended Question Scores of the Experimental Group in Text I.

Exp. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	4,9	23	-7,4	0,01
Post T.	7,0	23		

(p=0,01; p< 0,05)

As displayed in this table, the mean score of the Experimental Group in the pre test of Text I Open Ended Questions was 4,9 and in the post test it was 7,0. The mean increase they gained in the post test denotes that this difference was gained through the treatment which was given between the pre and the post test. (t=-7,4; p<0,01) indicates that the treatment had also a positive effect on the Open Ended Question scores of the Experimental Group. While only three of the subjects got the same number of correct answers in the post test, twenty students showed better performance in the post test.

Table 4. 2. 3: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Experimental Group in Text I.

Exp. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre Test	4,2	23	-15,8	0,01
Post Test	6,6	23		

(p=0,01; p< 0,05)

The results in table 4. 2. 3 show that the mean value of the Experimental Group rose from 4,2 to 6,6 with an increase of 2,4 points. Analysis of the above presented results yielded identical results to the ones obtained from the two previous data. Data analysis showed that the increase in their score in the vocabulary guessing questions was significantly larger than either the increase in the multiple choice questions and open ended questions. The mean increase and (t= -15,8 ; p<0,01) indicate that the Experimental Group subjects showed improvement their vocabulary guessing skills from pre-to post test.

Table 4. 2. 4: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental Group in Text II.

Exp. G	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	4,4	23	-14,5	0,01
Post T.	6,9	23		

(p= 0,01; p< 0,05)

Analysis of the results presented in table 4. 2. 4 , like the following three results showing the scores of the Experimental Group in the pre and post tests of Text II, are in agreement with those of the Text I pre and post test results in that they show that the treatment had also a positive effect on the learners' Text II Multiple Choice Question Scores since they increased their pre test mean score from 4,4 to 6,9 in the post test. While only one subject showed the same performance in the post test as he did in the pre test, the other twenty two subjects performed better in the post test than they did in the pre test. In addition to this, they showed larger improvement in the Multiple Choice Questions of Text II than they did in the Multiple Choice Questions of Text I. Depending on (t= -14,5; p<0,01), it can be said that the treatment helped the learners to show significant performance in the Multiple Choice Questions in this test.

Table 4. 2. 5: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Open Ended Question Scores of the Experimental Group in Text II.

Exp. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	2,2	23	-13,8	0,01
Post T.	5,2	23		

(p=0,01; p< 0,05)

As can be seen from Table 4. 2. 5, the mean score of the Experimental Group in the post test of Text II Open Ended Questions increased from 2,2 in the pre test to 5,2 in the post test. All of the subjects in this group showed improvement in this test. In addition to this, the subjects had a higher mean increase in this test than they did in the Multiple Choice Questions of Text I. (t=-13,8; p<0,01) indicates the significant difference the

group gained through the treatment that were given to them between the pre and the post tests.

Table 4. 2. 6: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Experimental Group in Text II.

Exp. G	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	3,8	23	-12,6	0.01
Post T.	5,9	23		

(p=0,01; p< 0,05)

The results the Experimental Group obtained from the pre and post tests of the Vocabulary Guessing Questions of Text II show that the group increased their mean score from 3,8 in the pre test to 5,9 in the post test. Depending on (t= -12,6; p<0,01), it can be claimed that the treatment had a positive effect on the answers of the Experimental Group subjects in the Vocabulary Guessing Questions of Text II.

4. 3 Comparison of the Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Control Group.

The question whether the sixteen class-hour reading instruction had a positive effect on the Control Group learners reading comprehension was investigated through the following.

Table 4. 3. 1: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Control Group in Text I.

Cont. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	5,9	23	-7,11	0,01
Post T.	6,9	23		

(p=0,01; p< 0,05)

The results presented in the above table indicate that the sixteen class-hour instruction had a positive effect on the Control Group learners' Multiple Choice Question Scores since their mean score increased from 5,9 to 6,9 in the post test with an increase of 1 point. While five subjects did the same number of correct answers in both tests, the other eighteen subjects showed improvement in the post test. Depending on the results (t= -,11; p<0,01) presented here, we can claim that the instruction had also a positive effect on the Text I Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Control Group.

Table 4. 3. 2: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Open Ended Question Scores of the Control Group in Text I.

Cont. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	5	23	-7,8	0,0 1
Post T.	6,2	23		

(p=0,01; p<0,05)

As it will be seen from the above table, Open Ended Questions pre test mean value of the Control Group increased from 5 to 6,2 in the post test with an increase of 1,2 points. While four subjects did not show any progress by doing the same number of correct answers in both tests, the rest of the group showed improvement in the number of their correct answers. Three of the four subjects, who did not show any improvement in this test, did not also show improvement in the post test of the Multiple Choice Questions of Text II. The mean increase and (t= -7,8; p<0,01) show that the instruction helped the learners in this group to show significant performance on the Open Ended Questions of Text I.

Table 4. 3. 3: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Control Group in Text I.

Cont. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	4,2	23	-10	0,01
Post T.	5,6	23		

(p=0,01; p< 0,05)

The results presented in the above table show that the mean score of the Control Group in the pre test of Vocabulary Guessing Questions was 4,2 and it was 5,6 in the post test. While only one subject did the same number of correct answers in both tests, the other twenty-two subjects showed progress in the post test. Their progress in terms of the Vocabulary Guessing Questions was due largely to the items in the test similar of which were dealt with in the course of the instruction. The Control Group subjects showed exactly the same degree of improvement in the Vocabulary Guessing Questions of both Text I and II. The results (t= -10, p<0,01) presented here denote that the instruction given to the Control Group between the pre and post tests had a positive effect on the Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of them.

Table 4. 3. 4: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Control Group in Text II.

Cont. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	4.4	23	-10	0,01
Post T.	6	23		

(p=0,01; p< 0,05)

The results in table 4. 3. 4, like the previous three results showing the scores of the Control Group in the pre and post tests of Text I, are in agreement with each other in that the instruction was a great help to the learners since their pre test mean score rose from 4,4 to 6 points in the post test. Twenty-one subjects did better in the post test whereas only one subject did not show any progress in the post test. The increase in their score in Text II Multiple Choice Questions were higher than the increase in their score in Text I Multiple Choice Questions. Depending on these results(t= -10; p<0,01), we can claim that the instruction had a positive effect on the Control Group learners' Text II Multiple Choice Question scores.

4. 3. 5: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Open Ended Question Scores of the Control Group in Text II.

Cont. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	2,6	23	-17	0,01
Post T.	4,4	23		

(p= 0,01; p<0,05)

As can be seen from the above table, the mean score of the Control Group in the pre test of Text II Open Ended Questions increased from 2,6 to 4,4 in the post test with an increase of 1,8 points. The increase they gained in text I Open Ended Questions were higher than the increase they gained in Text II Open Ended Questions. Although all of the subjects showed progress in the post tests of Text I and II, they still had difficulties in supplying economic answers as they usually supplied more than what was required of them. It is hypothesized that their difficulties are probably due to their uncertainties of the meanings of the vocabulary included in the text. (t= -17; p<0,01) indicates that the instruction had a positive effect on the learners' Open Ended Question Scores of Text II.

Table 4. 3. 6: Comparison of the Pre and Post-test Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Control Group in Text II.

Cont. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	3,1	23	-13	0,01
Post T.	4,6	23		

(p=0,01; p< 0,05)

The results in table 4. 3. 6 show that the Control Group increased its pre test mean score from 3,1 to 4,6 in the post test with an increase of 1,5 points. Analysis of the results presented here are identical to the ones that were obtained from the post test of Vocabulary Guessing Questions of Text I. Although all of the subjects showed progress in this test, their progress was due largely to the items in the test similar of which were dealt with in the course of the instruction. (t= -13; p<0,01) indicates the significant difference the Control Group gained through the sixteen class hour instruction. The

results presented here are in agreement with the previous five results in that they indicate the significant improvement the Control Group learners showed in the post test.

4. 4 Comparison of the Post-test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups.

Table 4. 4. 1: Comparison of the Post-test Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental Group with the Scores of the Control Group in Text I.

Post T.	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	7,6	23	2,15	0,03
Cont. G.	6,9	23		

(p=0,03; p< 0,05)

As shown in the above table, the Experimental Group learners' increase were higher than the Control Group learners' increase since the Control Group had a mean score of 6,9 points in the post test while the Experimental Group's mean score was 7,6. As it was mentioned before, twenty subjects in the Experimental Group showed improvement in the post test of Text I Multiple Choice Questions whereas this number was eighteen in the Control Group. (t= 2,15; p<0,03) indicates that the Experimental Group did better than the Control Group in terms of the Multiple Choice Questions of Text I. This increase may be due largely to the sixteen class-hour consciousness-raising instruction on guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues. The results presented here are only one of the five results supporting our prediction that guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues should improve reading comprehension.

Table 4. 4. 2: Comparison of the Post-test Open Ended Question Scores of the Experimental Group with the Scores of the Control Group in Text I.

Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	7	23	2,11	0,04
Cont. G.	6,2	23		

(p=0,04, p<0,05)

As was displayed in this table, the Experimental Group had a mean score of 7 points while the Control Group's mean score was 6,2 points. Four subjects in the Experimental Group did not show any progress in the post test whereas this number was four in the Control Group. Although both groups had difficulties in the pre tests of the Open Ended Questions of both texts in supplying what was required of them, the Experimental Group was observed to do better than the Control Group in the post tests of the same question types. This was predicted to have been due to their relatively more knowledge about the form and meaning of the unknown words, which was dealt with in the course of the consciousness-raising treatment given to them. Although both groups increased their pre test mean value, the Experimental Group's increase in their score were significantly higher than the increase of the Control Group. We can say that there is a significant difference between the scores of the two groups in favor of the Experimental Group due to the consciousness-raising treatment on guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues given to them in the course of the sixteen class-hour instruction. (t=2,11; p<0,04)

Table 4. 4. 3: Comparison of the Post-test Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Experimental Group with the Scores of the Control Group in Text I.

Post Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	6.6	23	2,43	0,01
Cont. G.	5.6	23		

($p=0,01$; $p<0,05$)

Table 4. 4. 3 shows that the Experimental Group had a mean score of 6,6 points in the post test of the Vocabulary Guessing Questions of Text I while the Control Group's mean score was 5,6 points. Although both groups improved, the Experimental Group learners' had a 1.3 higher increase than the Control Group learners.. The Control Group's progress was due largely to the items in the test similar of which were dealt with in the course of the instruction, although the Experimental Group's progress was not due to these items only since they were able to answer correctly the other items in the post test similar of which were not dealt with before. Besides these items, they were successful in answering correctly the other items in this test. The results presented here denote that the Experimental Group did better than the other group in this test($t=2,43$; $p<0,01$) because of the sixteen class-hour consciousness-raising treatment on guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues given to them.

Table 4. 4. 4: Comparison of the Post-test Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental Group with the Scores of the Control Group in Text II.

Post Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	6,9	23	2,12	0,04
Cont. G.	6	23		

(p=0,04; p<0,05)

As can be seen from Table 4. 4. 4, the Experimental Group had a mean score of 6.9 while the Control Group's mean score was 6. Both Experimental Group subjects and Control Group subjects showed significant improvement. As found in the previous three results, a significant difference did exist between the scores of the Experimental Group and the scores of the Control Group in favor of the Experimental Group. (t= 2,12; p<0,04) This shows that the Experimental Group subjects did better than the Control Group subjects in Text II Multiple Choice Questions due largely to the consciousness-raising treatment on guessing vocabulary from contextual clues.

Table 4. 4. 5: Comparison of the Post-test Open Ended Question Scores of the Experimental with the Scores of the Control Group in Text II.

Post Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	5,2	23	2,11	0,04
Cont. G.	4,4	23		

(p=0,04; p<0,05)

The results presented in the above table show that the Experimental Group had a mean score of 5,2 in this post test while the Control Group had a mean score of 4,4. Although all of the subjects in both groups showed improvement in this test, they still

had the same problem of supplying relevant information. This problem, as it was mentioned before, predicted to be due to the fact that they, especially the Control Group subjects, had little or no idea of the meanings of the unknown words. As a result, they usually tried to answer the majority of the Open Ended questions by writing down the whole sentence or a complete paragraph, which included the answer in it. As it will be seen from the results, the Experimental Group had a higher mean score in this test than the Control Group due probably to the fact that they made use of the available contextual clues for the discovery of their meanings, since the ratio of irrelevant information they supplied for the Open Ended Questions of Text II and Text I was lower than the ratio of the irrelevant information the Control Group supplied. We can say that the treatment enabled the subjects in the Experimental Group do better than the subjects in the other group in Text II Open Ended Questions as they did in the post test of the same question type of Text I. ($t= 2,11$; $p<0,05$)

Table 4. 4. 6: Comparison of the Post-test Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Experimental Group with the Scores of the Control Group in Text II.

Post Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	5,9	23	3,07	0,001
Cont. G.	4,6	23		

($p=0,001$; $p<0,05$)

As displayed in this table, the Experimental Group's mean score is higher than the mean score of the Control Group. Although the Experimental Group increased their pre test mean score to 5,9 in the post test, the other group increased their pre test mean score to

4.6. The results presented here are in agreement with the previous five results in that they indicate a meaningful difference in favor of the Experimental Group. Although all of the subjects in both groups showed progress in the Vocabulary Questions of Text II, analysis of the right answers of both groups denoted that the Control Group's improvement was due largely to the three items in this test which were dealt with in the course of the instruction, while the Experimental Group's improvement did not only focused around few items, on the contrary, they successfully answered the vocabulary guessing questions, which were focused during the treatment. ($t = 3.07$; $p<0.01$)The results obtained from this section, along with those that were obtained from the Multiple Choice, Open Ended and Vocabulary Guessing Questions of Text I, and II, indicate that the sixteen class-hour consciousness-raising treatment on guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues had a positive effect on the Experimental Group learners' reading comprehension. These results revealed statistically significant effects of consciousness-raising treatment on guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues, they therefore support our prediction that guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues can improve reading comprehension.

4. 5 Comparison of the Post-Test Total Scores of the Experimental with and the Control Group.

Table 4. 5. 1: Comparison of the Post Test Multiple Choice Question Total Scores

Post Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	14,5	23	2,64	0,01
Cont. G.	13	23		

(t= 2,64, p<0,05)

As was seen from the above table, the Experimental Group had a mean score of 14,5 from the total Multiple Choice Questions while the Control Group had a mean score of 13. Inspection of these data (t=2,64; p<0,01) indicating that the Experimental Group subjects' increase is significantly higher than the Control Group subjects' increase intensifies our claim made so far that the sixteen class-hour consciousness-raising instruction on guessing vocabulary from contextual clues helped the subjects in the Experimental Group to do better on Multiple Choice Questions than the subjects in the other group.

Table 4. 5. 2: Comparison of the Post-test Open Ended Question Total Scores of the Experimental Group with the Scores of the Control Group.

Post Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	12,2	23	2, 48	0,01
Cont. G.	10,6	23		

(p=0,01; p<0,05)

The results presented in the above table also show that the Experimental Group had a higher mean score from the total Open Ended Questions than the Control Group.

Although the Open Ended Question pre test scores of the Experimental and Control Groups were not significantly different (t=-0,31; p>0,7), the post test scores of these two groups were statistically significant (t=2,48, p<0,01).

Table 4. 5. 3: Comparison of the Post-test Vocabulary Guessing Question Total Scores the Experimental Group with the Scores of the Control Group.

Post Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	12,5	23	2,98	0,01
Cont. G	10,3	23		

(p=0,01; p<0,05)

The results, like the previous results presented in the last two tables, indicates the significant difference that the Experimental Group gained over the Control Group in terms of the Vocabulary Guessing Questions. (t= 2,98; p<0,01) proves our claim that the sixteen class-hour consciousness-raising instruction on guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues had a positive effect on the Experimental Group learners' vocabulary guessing question scores.

4. 6 Comparison of the Michigan Placement Pre and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group and Control Groups.

Table 4. 6. 1: Comparison of the Michigan Placement Pre and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group

Exp. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	54,3	23	-9,0	0,01
Post T.	57,8	23		

(p=0,01; p< 0,05)

As shown in Table 4. 6. 1, large differences existed between the pre and post test Michigan Placement Test mean scores of the Experimental Group since they had an increase of 3,5 points. While twenty subjects showed improvement in the post test, three of the subjects got the same number of the correct answers in both tests. Analysis of the answers of the subjects showed that their progress was due largely to the eight items. While the first three items include vocabulary, similar of which were dealt with in the course of the treatment, the rest include vocabulary that could be answered correctly by making use of contextual Clues. The Experimental Group subjects' success in doing the last five items, which were not answered correctly by the Control Group, show that the consciousness-raising treatment on guessing unknown vocabulary from contextual clues had been a great help to them. (t= -9,0; p<0,01) proves that the sixteen class hour treatment helped them improve their reading skills from pre-to post test. The results presented here are in agreement with those that were obtained from the comparison of

the Pre and Post test Scores of the Experimental Group to asses the likely meaningful difference between the pre and post test scores of the Experimental Group. To summarize thus far, it was found out that the sixteen class-hour consciousness-raising treatment on guessing vocabulary from contextual clues had a positive effect on the Experimental Group learners' reading comprehension.

In brief, the sixteen class hour treatment, given between the pre and the post tests, had a positive effect on the Experimental Group learners' reading comprehension, which is in coincidence with our prediction that guessing unfamiliar vocabulary from contextual clues should improve reading comprehension is supported by the results presented so far.

Table 4. 6. 2: Comparison of the Michigan Placement Pre and Post-test Scores of the Control Group.

Cont. G.	Mean	n	t	p
Pre T.	51,9	23	-6,6	0,01
Post T.	53,6	23		

(p=0,01; p<0,05)

The results presented in the above table show that the Control Group increased its Placement Test pre test mean score 51,9 to 53,6 in the post test with an increase of 0,19 points. While eighteen subjects showed progress in the post test, the others did the same number of correct answers in the post test. Their post test analysis showed that their progress was due largely to three items similar of which were dealt with in the course of the instruction. The results(t= -6,6; p<0,01) presented in the above table prove that the

sixteen class hour instruction had a positive effect on the learners' reading comprehension which was also intensified by the previous six results showing the pre and post test scores of the control group in terms of Multiple Choice, Open Ended, and Vocabulary Guessing Questions in Text I and II. The conclusion to be drawn from the results is that the instruction enabled the Control Group learners improve their reading skills from pre-to post test.

4. 7 Comparison of the Michigan Placement Pre and Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group with the Post-test Scores of the Control Group.

Table 4. 7. 1: Comparison of the Michigan Placement Pre-test Scores of the Experimental Group with the Post-test Scores of the Control Group.

Pre Test	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	54,3	23	0,8	0,4
Cont. G.	51,9	23		

(p=0,4; p> 0.05)

The results in table 4. 7. 1, alongside with the previous results obtained from the pre tests of Text I and Text II, show that the subjects in both groups were at the same level of English proficiency. The pre test scores of the Experimental and Control Groups did not significantly (t= 0,8; p>0,04) differ from each other. Depending on this and the mean scores that both groups obtained from the pre test of the Placement Test, we can

say that the subjects in both groups showed similar performance in the pre test of the Placement Test.

Table 4. 7. 2. Comparison of the Michigan Placement Post-test Scores of the Experimental Group with the Post-test Scores of the Control Group.

Post T.	Mean	n	t	p
Exp. G.	57,8	23	1,27	0,1
Cont. G.	53,6	23		

(p=0,1; p>0.05)

The results in the above table show that the Experimental Group had a mean score of 57,8 points while the Control Group's mean score was 53,6. As it was mentioned before, twenty subjects in the Experimental Group showed improvement in the post test whereas the number of the subjects in the Control Group, who showed in improvement, was eighteen. While the progress of the Control Group was due largely to three items, which include vocabulary or expressions similar of which were dealt with in the course of the instruction, the Experimental Group's improvement, in addition to the above mentioned items, was due largely to five items which could be done by making use of contextual clues for guessing unknown vocabulary. As presented before, the comparison of the Pre and Post Test Scores of both groups in terms of Text I and II Multiple Choice, Open Ended and Vocabulary Guessing Questions yielded statistically significant results. Although the Experimental and the Control Groups have developed with the treatment, there is not any statistically significant difference between the Experimental and Control Groups in terms of the Placement Post Test Scores.

5. 2 Conclusion

Several authors have emphasized the importance of guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary from contextual clues claiming that developing the ability of inferring the meaning of a word by considering its context is one way of freeing students from dependence on the dictionary and other help sources (e. g., Chastain, 1988:65; Cohen, 1990:77; Levine & Hughon, 1981:1; Oxford, 1990:47; Zukowzki et al. 1982:65). Therefore, it is usually recommended that students should be helped to develop their ability to infer the meaning of unknown vocabulary by considering its context through training. Several pieces of research, according to Seal (1991:305) strongly suggest that "unknown vocabulary should be dealt with when they are faced instead of pre teaching them since pre teaching vocabulary may have a negative effect on reading comprehension."

The analysis of statistical results of the t-test for paired samples showed that the sixteen class-hour reading instruction with or without the consciousness-raising treatment had a positive effect on the reading comprehension scores of both groups since they gained significant increase in the post test of Text I, Text II, and the Michigan Placement Test. Although the pre test scores of the Experimental and Control Group subjects in terms of the Text I and II Multiple Choice, Open Ended, Vocabulary Guessing Questions, and the Michigan Placement Test were not significantly different, their post test scores were significantly different from those that were obtained in the pre test.

Analysis of t-test for Independent Samples revealed the fact that the Experimental Group subjects' increase in their scores were significantly higher than that of the increase of the Control Group subjects' in terms of the Text I and II Multiple Choice, Open

Ended, and Vocabulary Guessing Questions. The result presented here is not only in agreement with the theoretical discussion presented by Perfetti et al.(1982: 520) who maintain that a vocabulary training program can lead to gains in comprehension since subjects process individual word meanings more accurately and more rapidly after the instruction, but also in agreement with the findings of Zözöz(1983) and Ames'(1966) studies. Ames 1966, who carried out an investigation to find out the success in guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary from contextual clues found out that his students successfully guessed 60 percent of the unknown words(cited in Nation &Coady, 1988:103.)

One of the important revelations of this study is that subjects in both groups had some difficulties in answering the Open Ended Questions of both Text I and II. Their inefficiency in answering these questions was predicted to have been due to their uncertainties on the meanings of the unknown words. Inspection of the correct answers of both groups in the pre test of both Text I and II revealed that the majority of their correct answers had two features in common: they were either the words with a prefix or suffix or were the words that had pregnant contexts. Although the Control Group subjects showed improvement in the post test of Text I and II Vocabulary Guessing questions, their progress has been observed to have been due to the same or similar items similar of which were dealt with in the course of the instruction because the majority of their correct answers focused on the same words. Using the word form rather than the context, according to Bensaussen & Lauffer (1984), is a common error made mostly by untrained readers and even by the better readers. The Control Group subjects' difficulty in answering the Open Ended Questions of both Text I and II is predicted to have been due to their inefficiency in making use of the contextual clues for guessing the

meanings of unknown vocabulary since supplying more information by writing down the whole sentence or paragraph than what was required of them for these questions was the most striking feature in their answers. Although the Experimental Group subjects did not seem to overcome completely the difficulty they experienced in the pre test in answering the Open Ended Questions of both texts, they were quite efficient in supplying what was required of them in the Open Ended post test questions compared with the Control Group subjects.

Another striking finding of this study is that although nearly 20 percent of our subjects did not seem to take the strategy training serious, they showed improvement in the post test of the two texts and in the post test of the Placement Test.

Analysis of t-test for Paired Samples for the Michigan Placement Test scores of each group yielded similar results obtained from the comparison of the pre and post test scores of each group in terms of the Multiple Choice, Open Ended, and Vocabulary Guessing Questions of both Text I and II in that they indicate that the sixteen class-hour reading instruction with or without the consciousness-raising treatment had a positive effect on the learners' reading comprehension. Although statistically significant differences between the scores of the Experimental Group and the scores of the Control Group in terms of the Multiple Choice, Open Ended, and Vocabulary Guessing Questions were found in the post test, any statistically significant difference was not obtained between the Placement post test scores of the Experimental Group and the Control Group even though the Experimental Group subjects answered more questions than the other group subjects in the post test of the Placement Test. It was hypothesized to be due to the fact that instruction of only one strategy was not enough to increase the learners' proficiency in English. While the Control Group's post test mean increase were

observed to have been due largely to three items, which include vocabulary dealt with during the instruction, the Experimental Group's post test gains were observed to have been due largely to five items besides the above mentioned three items. The last five items, which the Experimental Group subjects answered correctly in the post test, contain question that can be answered correctly by making use of contextual clues.

5. 3 Suggestions for Further Studies

In this study, the contribution of consciousness-raising instruction on guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary from contextual clues on reading comprehension was investigated. As the findings of this study are in agreement with some of the studies on the same subject and with the majority of the theoretical discussions, a generalization based on the results of the present study might be offered to second language learners and teachers. Nevertheless, some other researches with elementary, intermediate or advanced students in different settings may be conducted to test the contribution of making use of the contextual clues in guessing the meanings of unknown vocabulary on reading comprehension.

Guessing-words-in-context strategies might be suggested to ESL and EFL learners in order to strengthen their reading comprehension. Students, depending on the findings of this and similar studies, might be advised to try to apply guessing words-in-context strategies to guess the meanings of unknown vocabulary items instead of depending on other help sources.

The roles of some other factors (e.g. time limitations, length of texts, the students' interest, the content, and age) on reading comprehension, which were not taken into consideration in this study, may also be investigated.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Text 1 Pre and Post Test

The Secrets of a Very Long Life

There are several places in the world that are famous for people live a very long time. These places are usually in mountainous areas, far away from modern cities. Doctors, scientists, and public health experts often travel to these regions to solve the mystery of a long, healthy life; the experts hope to bring to the modern world the secrets of longevity.

Hunza is high in the Himalayan Mountains of Asia. There, many people over one hundred years of age are still in good physical health. Men of ninety are new fathers, and women of fifty have babies. What are the reasons for this good health? Scientists believe that the people of Hunza have these three benefits: (1)physical work, usually in the fields or with animals; (2) a healthful environment with clean air and water; and (3) a simple diet high in vitamins and nutrition but low in fat, cholesterol, sugar, and chemicals.

People in the Caucasus Mountains in the Soviet Union are also famous for their longevity. In this area, there are amazing examples of very long-lived people. Although birth records are not usually available, a woman called Tsurba probably lived until age 160; a man called Shirali may have lived until age 168. His widow was 120 years old. In general, the people not only live a long time, but also live *well.* They are almost never sick, and when they die, *they* have not only own teeth but also a full head of hair, and good eyesight.

Vilcabamba, Ecuador, is another area famous for the longevity of its inhabitants. This region-like Hunza and Caucasus-is also in high mountains, far away from cities. In Vilcabamba, too, there is very little serious disease. One reason for the good health of the people might be the clean, beautiful environment. The temperature is 70 Fahrenheit

(Appendix A continued)

all year long; the wind always comes from the same direction; and the regions is rich in flowers, fruit, vegetables, and wildlife.

In some ways, the diets of the inhabitants in the three regions are quite different. Hunzukuts eat mainly raw vegetables, fruit; they eat meat only a few times a year. The Caucasan diet consists mainly of milk, cheese, vegetables, fruit, and meat; most people there drink the local red wine daily. In Vilcabamba, people eat a small amount of meat each week, but the diet consists largely of grain, corn, beans, potatoes, and fruit.

Experts found one surprising fact in the mountains of Ecuador: Most people there, even the very old, consume a lot of coffee, drink large amounts of alcohol, and smoke forty cigarettes a day!

However, the diets are similar in two general ways: (1) the fruits and vegetables that the inhabitants of the three areas eat are all natural; that is, they contain no chemicals; and (2) the people consume fewer calories than do people in other parts of the world. A typical North American takes in an average of 3,300 calories every day; a typical inhabitant of these mountainous areas, between 1,700 and 2,000 calories.

Inhabitants in the three regions have more in common than calories, natural food, their mountains, and their distance from modern cities. Because these people live in the countryside and are mostly farmers, their lives are physically hard. Thus, they do not need to go to health clubs because they get a lot of exercise in their daily work. In addition, although their lives are hard, the people do not seem to have the worries of city life. Their lives are quiet. Consequently, some experts believe that physical exercise and freedom from worry might be the two most important secrets of longevity.

(From Interactions I by Elaine Kirn and Pamela Hartmann)

A. Choose the correct choice that completes the following statements according to the passage.

1. The passage is about .....

a. the mountainous area of the world.

b. the diets of the inhabitants of these areas.

c. the effect of a healthful environment on people.

d. the secrets of a long, healthy life.

2. The main idea of paragraph 8 is.....

a. the similarities of the diets of these people.

b. what these people eat.

c. the average calories a typical North American takes in a day.

d. the kinds of places they live.

3.The people of Hunza have a healthy life over one hundred years of age because.....

a. they do physical work.

b. they live in healthful environment with clean air and water.

c. they have a diet high in vitamins but low in fat.

d. of their physical work healthful environment, and diet.

4. Although the inhabitants of Hunza, Caucasus, and Vilcabamba are healthy and live long,.....

a. their lives are not quiet.

b. their environments are similar.

c. their diets are the same.

d. their diets are different.

5.....diet consists of milk, cheese, vegetables, fruit, and meat.

a. Experts'

b. Vilcabambas'

c. Caucasus'

d. Hunzukuts'

6. People in these three regions do not need to go to health clubs because.....

a. they live in the countryside.

b. they are farmers.

c. they eat natural food.

d. their lives are physically hard.

7. According to some experts, ..., ... are the most two important secrets of a long life.

a. physical exercise and diet.

b. a healthful environment and physical exercise.

c. physical exercise and freedom from worry.

d. freedom from worry and a healthful environment.

8. People of Vilcabamba are healthy because.....

a. they live in a clean environment.

b. they get a lot of exercises in their daily lives.

c. they live in mountainous areas faraway from cities.

d. they eat nutritious food.

9. they(line 19) refers to.....

a. mountains

b. Shirali and his wife

c. Tsurba and Shirali

d. inhabitants of Caucasus

10. their (line 41) refers to.....

a. inhabitants' in Hunza

b. inhabitants' in Caucasus

c. inhabitants' in Vilcabamba

d. inhabitants' in the three regions

B. Answer the following questions according to the passage.

1. What are the characteristics of the environments in Vilcabamba?
2. How are the diets of the inhabitants of Hunza, the Caucasus and Vilcabamba similar?
3. How old were the two Hunzukuts in the reading (Tsurba and Shirali) when they die?
4. How many calories a day do the people of these regions consume?
5. Why do experts often travel to these mountainous areas?
6. How do the diets of the inhabitants of Vilcabamba differ from the diets of the inhabitants of Caucasus?
7. Do these people have worries of city life?
8. What other things do the inhabitants of these three regions have in common?
9. What might be the secrets of longevity?
10. In which area do people consume a lot of coffee, and drink alcohol?

C. Choose the word or phrase that is closest in meaning to the underlined word or phrase.

1. Longevity

a. A long period of life b. A long time c. Health d. Long period of living ill

2. Expert

a. Professional b. Novice c. Clumsy d. Specialist

3. Benefit

a. Loss b. Increase c. Profit d. Disadvantage

4. Inhabitant

a. Resident b. Tourist c. Ruler d. Visitor

5. Disease

a. Health b. Illness c. Pain d. Weariness

6. Environment

a. Location b. Surrounding c. Neighborhood d. Situation

7. Bean

a. A kind of drink b. A kind of fruit c. A kind of sweet d. A kind of food

8. Consume

a. Plant b. Use c. Waste d. Save

9. Consequently

a. For this reason b. Certainly c. However d. As a result of this

10. Secret

a. Visible b. Reason c. Hidden d. Mystery

APPENDIX B: Text II Pre and Post Test

Advertising: The Selling of a Product

A consumer walks into a store. He stands in front of hundreds of boxes of laundry detergent. He chooses one brand, pays for it, and leaves. Why does he pick *that* specific kind of soap? Is it truly better than the others? Probably not. These days, many products are nearly identical to one another in quality and price. If products are nearly the same, what makes consumers buy one brand instead of another? Although we might not like to admit, commercials on television and advertisements in magazines probably influenced us much more than we think they do.

Advertising informs consumers about new products available on the market. It gives us information about everything from shampoo to toothpaste to computers and cars. But there is one serious problem with *this*. The "information" is actually very often "misinformation." It tells us the products' benefits but hides their disadvantages. Advertising not only leads us to buy things that we do not need and cannot afford, but it also confuses our sense of reality. "Zoom toothpaste prevents cavities and gives you white teeth!" the advertisement tells us. But it does not tell us the complete truth; that a healthy diet and a good toothbrush will have the same effect.

Advertisers use many methods to get us buy their products. One of their most successful methods is to make us feel dissatisfied with ourselves and our imperfect lives. Our teeth are not white enough. Our hair is not shiny enough. Our clothes are not clean enough. Advertisements make us afraid that people will not like us if we do not use the advertised products. "Why don't I have any dates?" a good-looking girl sadly asks in a commercial. "Here," replies her roommate, "try Zoom toothpaste!" Of course she tries it, and immediately the whole football team falls in love with her. "That is a stupid

(Appendix B continued)

commercial," we might say. But we will buy Zoom toothpaste out of fear of being unpopular and having no friends.

If fear is the negative motive for buying a product, then wanting a good self-image is the positive reason for choosing it. Each of us has a mental picture of the kind of person we would like to be. For example, a modern young woman might like to think that she looks like a beautiful movie star. A middle-aged man might want to see himself as a strong, attractive athlete. Advertisers know this. They write specific ads to make certain groups of people choose their product. Two people may choose different brands of toothpaste with the identical price, amount, and quality; each person believes that he or she is expressing his personality by choosing that brand.

Advertisers get psychologists to study the way customers think and their reasons for choosing one brand instead of another. These experts tell advertisers about the motives of fear and self-image. They also inform them about recent studies with colors and words. Psychologists have found that certain colors on the package of an attractive product will cause people to reach out and take that package instead of buying an identical product with different colors. Also, certain words attract our attention. For example, the words "new," "improved," "natural,", and "giant size" are very popular and seem to pull our eyes and hand towards the package.

Many people believe that advertising does not affect them. They know that there is freedom to choose, and they like to think they make wise choices. Unfortunately, they probably do not realize the powerful effect of advertising. They may not clearly understand that advertisers spend billions of dollars each year in aggressive competition

(Appendix B continued)

for our money, and they are extremely successful. Do you believe that ads do not influence your choice of products? Just look at the brands in your kitchen and bathroom.

(From Interactions I by Elaine Kirn and Pamela Hartmann)

A. Chose the correct choice that completes the following statements according to the passage.

1. Advertising.....

a. informs us about few products.

b. does not influence us very much.

c. always tells us everything about a product.

d. does not always tell us everything about a product.

2. A person often buys a product because.....

a. he or she is not happy with himself or herself.

b. he or she does not need a good self-image.

c. he or she hates the colors on the packages.

d. of certain drawings on the packages.

3. Psychologists tell advertisers.....

a. to stop influencing people.

b. how much money to spend on TV commercials.

c. which brands toothpaste to produce.

d. about people's motives for buying.

4. The words.....on products seem to attract attention.

a. "improved," "new"

b. "artificial," "our hair is not shiny enough"

c. "good enough"

d. "our teeth are not white enough"

5. Advertisers.....to make us buy products.

a. offer very low prices.

b. do not spend much money

c. need to use better detergents and shampoo

d. get information from psychologists.

6. Many people believe that advertising does not affect them because.....

a. they think that they have the freedom to choose.

b. they think that they have a good self-image.

c. they think that they have a negative motive for buying.

d. advertisements tell us the benefits of products.

7. The main idea of paragraph four is.....

a. the negative motive for buying a product.

b. the positive motive for buying a product.

c. the advantage of advertisements.

d. the disadvantages of advertisements.

8. The passage is about.....

a. the benefits of products.

b. what colors attract people's attention.

c. the influences of advertising on people.

d. what words attract people's attention.

9. that (line 2) refers to.....

a. a consumer

b. one brand

c. advertising

d. another brand

10. this (line 12) refers to.....

a. advertising

b. market

c. information

d. consumer

B. Answer the following questions according to the passage.

1. Why do consumers buy things they do not need and cannot afford ?
2. How does advertising make us fell dissatisfied with ourselves and our imperfect lives?
3. What two things does advertising force us to do?
4. How do psychologists help advertisers?
5. What things attract people's attention?
6. What things cause people to buy a product instead of another identical one?
7. Why do two people choose different brands of toothpaste with the identical price, amount, and quality?
8. Why do advertisers spend billions of dollars each year?
9. Why do some people would like to be another person?
10. How does advertising confuse our sense of reality?

C. Choose the word or phrase that is closest in meaning to the underlined word or phrase.

1. Identical

a. Equal b. Similar c. Alike d. Different

2. Dissatisfied

a. Pleased b. Discontented c. Depressed d. Contented

3. Motive

a. Basis b. Fear c. Idea d. Reason

4. Brand

a. Mark b. Quality of goods c. Type of goods d. Ingredients of goods

5. Consumer

a. A person who sells goods b. A person who saves money

b. A person who spends a lot of money d. A person who buys goods

6. Advertisement

a. A notice of something for sale in a newspaper, on wall, or made as a film

b. Announcement c. Newscast d. Commercials

7. Misinformation

a.. True information b. Give true information c. Wrong information

d. Give wrong information

8. Cavity

a. Bacteria b. Dirt c. A large hole d. A small hole

9. Pull

a. Disturb b. attract attention c. Show d. Take away attention

10. Available

a. Impossible b. Reliable c. Attainable d. Unattainable

APPENDIX: C

He Called It Penicillin

Alexander Fleming was born on a farm in Scotland in the year 1881. When he was thirteen he went to live with his brother, who was a doctor in London. For five years he worked as a clerk in a shipping office, but he did not stop studying. In 1902 he qualified for entrance to a university. An uncle left him a little money, and that made it possible for Fleming to become a student at the medical school of St Mary's Hospital, a part of London University.

One of the famous doctors who taught the students at St Mary's at that time was Sir Almroth Wright, a bacteriologist. He had done a great deal of the most useful research into the work of blood in protecting the body against bacteria. Very many thousands people owed their lives directly to his work, especially his development of inoculation against typhoid fever. Probably millions owe their lives to him indirectly-because of the work of people like Fleming who learnt from him.

During the First World War, Fleming worked as an army doctor in France. He saw large number of soldiers die of their wounds because the wounds made it possible for bacteria to work and multiply so quickly that the blood could not deal with them

After that war Fleming specialized in bacteriology, and in 1924 he himself became the professor of bacteriology at St Mary's Hospital. He continued the research for which St Mary's was famous. In particular he was looking for substances which would directly attack harmful bacteria without doing any harm to the body themselves.

In 1928 he was studing the bacteria which caused a painful skin disease. In order to find out how to deal with these germs he was growing them on small plates. One day he noticed a small area of blue-green mould on one of the dishes. It would be necessary to

(Appendix C cuntinued)

grow the bacteria again. Meanwhile his training made him put the mould under his microscope. It was a very common mould, *Penicillium notatum*. But the microscope showed Fleming something else: the bacteria all round the mould were dead. His trained mind started to ask questions.

Dr Fleming put some of the mould with more bacteria of the same kind. The germs were destroyed. He tried it on bacteria of other kinds. It stopped the growth of many other harmful germs. He seemed to have a powerful antibiotic.

The question, and the experiments to find the answers to them, had only just begun. What was the substance in *Penicillium notatum* which killed the germs? Was it possible to isolate it, to prepare it as a separate substance? Would it harm the human body or any part of it?

For years Fleming continued his experiments. He found that the substance was indeed a powerful antibiotic. He was able to isolate it. He called it penicillin, and he showed that it did not harm the body. But the substance was very hard to control. Fleming was a bacteriologist of very great ability, but he did not have a specialist's knowledge of chemistry, and particularly of biochemistry. Biochemistry is the study of the substance in living things.

It was not until 1940 that biochemists were able to find a way of producing penicillin as a powder with an unchanging character. The research which led to this discovery was done at Oxford by two extremely clever biochemists: Professor Howard Florey, an Australian, and Dr Ernst Chain, a German-born scientist. They were helped by Florey's wife, who was also a doctor. And their research was supported by money from the

(Appendix C continued)

Rockefeller Foundation of America. That seems to be quite a good example of international co-operation for a good purpose.

Penicillin has saved lives and prevented suffering all over the world. It was for this reason that the Nobel Prize was given to Sir Alexander Fleming, Sir Howard Florey and Dr Chain in 1945. But the discovery of penicillin also showed the way for the discovery of other wonderful substances which fight disease germs without harming the body. Antibiotics have been found which deal with almost all known bacteria and many other deadly germs. These include germs which attack animals and others which prevent the proper growth of plants.

Very many countries showed how much they valued Fleming's work. When he died in 1955 he was honoured in one more way. His body was laid to rest in St Paul's Cathedral in London. It is a recognition that a man has served his country or the world extraordinarily well.

(From Reading For Adults by R. D. Lewis)

APPENDIX: D (Sample Lesson)

The course of instruction in both groups in the course of the sixteen class-hour treatment was carried out in the same way as presented here in the sample lesson with an exception that the Experimental Group's consciousness-raising on making use of the contextual clues in guessing unfamiliar vocabulary was raised through signaling the clues explicitly which were implicitly signaled

A. Let's discuss the answers of the following questions.

1. What comes into your mind when you hear the word "family"?
2. Was the family structure the same in the past? If not, what were the differences?
3. What are the advantages or disadvantages of today's family structure ?
4. In your opinion, is it good or bad for a woman to work outside? Why, why not?
5. Who does the most of the housework in your family?
6. Who is the head of your family? In your opinion, is it good or bad for husbands and wives to share housework?
7. Do you think women have more freedom than they did in the past?
8. Can you describe the relationships in you ideal family?

B. Now read the following passage quickly and decide whether the following statements are true or false.

1. ----- Families around the world are generally smaller than they used to be.
2. ----- In most countries, wives have most of the power in the family.
3. ----- Living in the nuclear family is both good and bad for a woman.
4. ----- Women in extended families used to help each other with the housework and children.

(Appendix D continued)

1. ----- Generally, women are happy with marriage, but are not satisfied.

2. ----- Women with jobs are the most satisfied because they have freedom from housework.

WOMEN IN THE NUCLEAR FAMILY

A The family is changing. In the past, grandparents, parents, and children used to live together, in other words, the had an " extended family." Sometimes two or more brothers with their wives and children were part of this large family group. But family structure is changing throughout the world. The "nuclear family" consists of only one father, one mother, and children; it is becoming the main structure everywhere.

B The nuclear family offers married women some advantages: They have freedom from their relatives, and the husband does not have all the power of the family. Family structure in most parts of the world is still "patriarchal"; that is, the father is the head of the family and makes most of the important decisions. Studies show, however, that in the nuclear families, men and women usually make an equal number of decisions about family life. Also, well-educated husbands and wives prefer to share the power.

C But wives have to "pay" for the benefits of freedom and power. When women lived in extended families, sisters, grandmothers, and aunts helped one another with housework and child care. In addition, older women in a large family had important positions. Wives in nuclear families do not enjoy this benefit, and they have another disadvantage, too: Women generally live longer than their husbands, and so older women from nuclear families often have to live alone.

(Appendix D continued)

D Studies show that women are generally less satisfied with marriage than men are. In the past, men worked outside the home and women worked inside. Housework and child care were a full-time job, and there was no time for anything else. Of course, this situation is changing. Women now work outside the home and seem to have more freedom than they did in the past. Why, then, are some women still discontent?

E In most parts of the world today, women work because the family needs more money. However, their outside jobs often give them less freedom, not more, because they still have to do most of the housework. The women actually have two full-time jobs-one outside the home and another inside-and not free time.

F The nuclear family will probably continue to be the main family form in the future. Change, however, usually brings disadvantages along with benefits, and the family form of the past had many advantages.

(From Interactions I by Elaine Kim and Pamela Hartman)

C. In the reading selection, there is a capital letter next to each of the six paragraph. Match each paragraph with its topic. Write the correct letter on the line.

1.----- The changing family structure.

2.----- Comparisons of women's work in the past in the present.

3.----- The advantages of nuclear family for women.

4.----- The disadvantages of nuclear family.

5.----- Why women are dissatisfied with their work.

6.----- Conclusion or summary.

(Appendix D continued)

D. Circle the letter of the correct answer to each of the following questions, according to the reading selection.

1. Who used to live in an "extended family"?

a. There were only grandparents and children.

b. There was one father, one mother, and their children.

c. There were many relatives.

2. What advantages does the nuclear family offer women?

a. The women have more freedom and can share in decisions.

b. The women do not have to be the heads of the family.

c. The women's relatives do not help them with the housework and child care.

3. What are some disadvantages of the nuclear family for women?

a. Husbands have to share power with their wives and help them with the housework.

b. Older women do not often have important positions and often live alone when their husbands die.

c. Family structure is more patriarchal in the nuclear family.

4. Why are many women dissatisfied with marriage and the nuclear family?

a. They want to stay home and do the housework.

b. They do not enough money.

c. they have too much work and not free time.

E. Now, let's discuss the following questions.

1. Do you live in an extended family or in a nuclear family? What is the main family structure in Turkey?

(Appendix D continued)

2. What do you think is good about nuclear families? What is good about extended families?

3. Do you think that there is a relationship between the degree of education women have and their expectations from marriage and life, such more freedom, financial independence, share in the decisions, ect.?

F. Now, let's look at the unknown words that were underlined.

Look at the words extended family in paragraph one line two.

First of all, let's look at the position of these words in this sentence. Are these used as the subject, verb, or object of this sentence?

Ss: As the object of the sentence.

T: And in front of what types of words do we use "a, or an"?

Ss: Before countable singular nouns.

T: That is right. As we know the grammatical function of the word "family" is a noun. If so, what kind of words do we usually use in front of a noun?

Ss: Another noun, an adjective, etc.

T: Then, we can say that the grammatical function of the word "extended" is an adjective in this sentence as it defines the word that comes after it. Is the word used elsewhere in the same passage?

Ss: In paragraph tree. In the same way.

T: Does the word seem to have any prefixes or suffixes?

Ss: It has "ed" suffix.

(Appendix D continued)

T: All right. Who does an extended family include?

Ss: It includes grandparents, parents, and children

T: Who helps an old woman who lives in an extended family?

SS: Sisters, grandmother, and aunts.

T: So, can we say that an extended family is small?

Ss: No, it is large. So, we can say that an extended family means a large family including grandparents, parents, and children. Now, let's look at the following sentence and talk about what the phrases "in other words" add to the sentence.

Example: Many women work both outside the home and inside; **in other words**, they have two *full-time jobs*. What are their jobs?

Ss: Work outside the home and inside.

T: That is right. Can we say that the phrases used **in other words,** used in the above example, express the sentence before it in different words?

Ss: Yes, that is right.

T: Than, we can say that the phrases "**in other words**" used in the above passage in paragraph one serve to the same goal.

T: Our next word to be guessed is "nuclear " used with the word "family" in the same paragraph. As you will remember, we said that family is used as a noun in the previous example and extended is used as an adjective to define it. Does it make any difference if we replace the word "extended" with the word "nuclear" except the change of meaning?

Ss: No, than we can say that the word "nuclear" in front of the word "family" is used to define family.

(Appendix D continued)

T: Who does the nuclear family consist of? Does it include grandparents and other relatives as an extended family does?

Ss: No, it includes only one father, one mother, and children.

T: Does the woman in a nuclear family get help from her relatives like the woman in an extended family?

Ss: No, she does not.

T: How many types of family structure does the author mention here?

Ss: Two. The writer compares these two family structures.

T: Right. As you will remember, we said that an extended family is large. The author uses the word "but" in line three in the first paragraph to indicate that s/he is going to make a contrast with "extended family." The author compares a family structure with another one. Therefore, we can say that the word extended is used as having an opposite meaning to nuclear.

T: Our third word is "patriarchal." Let's analyze the grammatical function of this word. Which word is used before the word "patriarchal" in line three paragraph two.

Ss: The link verb "to be" .

T: As patriarchal used after the link verb "to be", it cannot be used as the subject of the sentence. It is used as the complement of the link verb. Can it be a verb, an adverb, a noun, or an adjective?

Ss: An adjective.

T: For what purpose is the word used for?

Ss: To define a father in an extended family.

(Appendix D continued)

T: Does it have any prefixes or suffixes? If so, what might be the root of the word?

Ss: It has "-al" suffix. Patriarch.

T: What comes into your mind when you hear this word, ie., power, Christianity, leader of a group, etc.

Ss: All of them, but in this sentence, patriarchal might be used as the head or leader of home.

T: Who does the most of the important decisions in an extended family?

Ss: The father. He is the head of the family.

T: Now, let's read the following sentence and then we will speculate what the phrases "**that is**" add to the sentence in which they are used.

"Most human beings are omnivores; **that is**, they eat both animal and plant material, while others are carnivores, eating only animal flesh.

T: What does the word "omnivores" mean?

Ss: Someone who eats both animal and plant material.

T: Then, we can say that the phrases "**that is**" present an explanation or equivalent of an unknown word used in the same sentence.

T: Now, let's look at the third sentence in paragraph two.

"Family structure in most part of the world is still patriarchal , **that is**, the father is the head of the family and makes most of the important decisions.

T: As we said before, the phrases "**that is**" are clues to an explanation. Keeping this in mind, we can say that the word "patriarchal" imply authority, leadership in the family.

T: Our next word is "benefits" used in the first line of paragraph three. The sentence is;

(Appendix D continued)

"But wives have to pay for the benefits of freedom and power."

T: What can we roughly say about the grammatical function of the word benefits, ie. subject, object, verb, adjective, adverb, or noun?

Ss: The object of the sentence.

T: Then, it is a noun then, isn't it?

Ss: That is right.

T: What kind of a meaning does it seem to have? Positive or negative?

Ss: Positive.

T: What does the author refer to by this word? The help the women in extended families get from their relatives, the freedom from their relatives of the women in nuclear families, or their share of the power in the family?

Ss: Their freedom from their relatives, and their share of power.

T: Do you think these are good or bad for a woman?

Ss: Both good and bad.

T: Does the author imply that these are good or bad in this passage?

Ss: Good.

T: With which word does the author describe these benefits in the first line of the second paragraph?

Ss: With the word "advantage."

T: Does the word benefits have any prefixes or suffixes?

Ss: It has the plural "-s."

T: Now, let's look at the rest of the same paragraph to find out whether the same word is used elsewhere.

(Appendix D continued)

Ss: Line three.

T: The sentence says "Wives in nuclear families do not enjoy this benefit, and they have another disadvantage, too."

As we know, the words "and" and "another" are used to add something similar in meaning to the other elements in the same sentence. Here, the author mentions two things that wives in nuclear families do not have. One is getting help from their relatives and the other is older women's power in extended families. Are these referred to as advantageous or disadvantageous in the passage?

Ss: Advantageous.

T: Then, we can say that the word "benefit" is used as an antonym to the word "disadvantage" in this sentence. Thus, "benefit" and "advantage" are synonym words.

T: Our last unknown word is the word discontent used in the last line of paragraph four. The sentence runs; "Why, then, are some women still discontent."

T: First of all, let's look at the grammatical function of this word. What part of speech does the word seem to be? Verb, adjective, adverb, or noun? What comes before it?

Ss: Women. Wives in nuclear families are discontent.

T: That is right. Look at the link verb be and remember what kind of words come after it. Adjectives, adverbs, or nouns? All of them may come after the link verb "be" depending on the situation. But what is "discontent" here? Does it seem to be a verb?

Ss: As it come after the link verb, it might be an adjective or a noun.

T: Does it seem to have a positive or a negative meaning?

Ss: A negative meaning because of "-dis" at the beginning of the it.

(Appendix D continued)

T: Let's analyze the text whether the same word is sued elsewhere by the same name or by a different name. Look at paragraph three. Who don't enjoy the benefits of getting help from their relatives, having important positions at home, and living with others in the family in their old age?

Ss: Wives in nuclear families.

T: Who are generally less satisfied with marriage than men are?

Ss: Wives in nuclear families.

T: Why?

Ss: Because they have to work both outside and inside their homes. And they have less freedom.

T: Are they happy with this situation?

Ss: No, they are not.

T: Does the word discontent have any suffixes or prefixes? What is the root of the word?

Ss: It has the prefix "-dis" at its beginning.

T: Then, the root of the word is "content." Remember the meanings of "disadvantage" and "dissatisfied" and the meaning "-dis" adds to them.

Ss: Not content, not satisfied.

T: Then, the word discontent means dissatisfied.

APPENDIX E : Number of the Correct Answers of the Experimental Group in the Pre and Post Tests of Michigan Placement Test.

	Pre Test	Post Test
1.	31	34
2.	38	41
3.	39	41
4.	42	44
5.	48	52
6.	48	51
7.	51	55
8.	53	55
9.	53	56
10.	57	60
11.	58	61
12.	58	62
13.	58	61
14.	58	62
15.	60	66
16.	60	67
17.	60	66
18.	60	68
19.	61	66
20.	61	66

(Appendix E continued)

21.	65	69
22.	65	69
23.	67	71

APPENDIX F: Number of the Correct Answers of the Control Group in the Pre and Post Tests of Michigan Placement Test.

	Pre Test	Post Test
1.	32	33
2.	33	35
3.	33	35
4.	37	38
5.	40	43
6.	43	45
7.	48	50
8.	48	51
9.	50	51
10.	52	53
11.	54	56
12.	54	55
13.	56	59
14.	57	59
15.	58	60
16.	59	61
17.	60	64
18.	60	62
19.	60	63
20.	62	65

(Appendix F continued)

21.	66	69
22.	66	68
23.	66	70

APPENDIX G: Number of the Correct Answers of the Experimental Group in the Pre and Post Tests of Text I.

	Multiple Choice		Open Ended		Vocabulary Guessing	
	Pre T.	Post T.	Pre T.	Post T.	Pre T.	Post T.
1	8	9	7	7	3	5
2	6	7	4	6	2	5
3	7	7	5	6	2	5
4	4	6	5	7	3	5
5	6	7	1	6	4	7
6	6	7	4	7	2	4
7	3	7	5	7	4	6
8	4	6	4	7	4	6
9	5	8	3	6	4	6
10	4	6	7	7	5	8
11	6	8	3	6	4	7
12	5	7	4	7	5	6
13	6	7	6	8	4	7
14	8	9	6	7	5	8
15	8	9	6	7	5	7
16	4	7	6	8	5	8
17	8	8	3	7	4	6
18	7	8	7	8	6	8
19	4	8	3	7	5	8

(appendix G continued)

20	8	8	7	7	4	8
21	5	8	5	8	5	7
22	8	9	6	7	6	8
23	8	9	6	8	6	7

APPENDIX H: Number of the Correct Answers of the Experimental Group in the Pre and Post Tests of Text II.

	Multiple Choice		Open Ended		Vocabulary Guessing	
	Pre T.	Post T.	Pre T.	Post T.	Pre T.	Post T.
1	2	5	2	4	1	3
2	4	6	1	4	1	3
3	4	6	1	3	2	5
4	2	5	3	5	3	5
5	3	6	1	4	3	4
6	6	8	3	5	4	5
7	5	8	1	4	4	6
8	3	6	1	5	4	5
9	3	7	3	6	4	5
10	7	9	3	5	5	7
11	5	7	2	5	4	7
12	6	8	1	6	4	6
13	4	7	1	4	5	6
14	8	8	3	6	4	6
15	3	6	3	6	4	5
16	4	6	2	6	6	6
17	2	5	1	5	4	7
18	6	9	6	7	5	8
19	5	7	2	6	4	7

(Appendix H continued)

20	3	6	1	5	4	7
21	4	7	2	6	5	8
22	8	9	4	5	5	7
23	6	9	5	8	5	8

APPENDIX I: Number of the Correct Answers of the Control Group in the Pre and Post Tests of Text I.

	Multiple Choice		Open Ended		Vocabulary Guessing	
	Pre T.	Post T.	Pre T.	Post T.	Pre T.	Post T.
1	3	5	2	4	1	2
2	7	7	1	3	2	4
3	5	6	4	5	3	4
4	5	6	2	4	3	4
5	7	7	4	5	4	5
6	4	6	5	6	3	5
7	6	8	4	6	4	6
8	7	8	7	8	5	7
9	5	6	3	4	3	5
10	7	7	6	7	5	6
11	8	9	5	7	6	7
12	5	7	8	8	6	6
13	6	7	6	7	4	6
14	5	7	7	8	5	7
15	7	8	6	7	5	6
16	6	7	3	4	3	5
17	7	7	8	8	6	7
18	6	7	8	8	5	8
19	6	7	6	7	5	7

(Appendix I continued)

20	4	5	4	6	4	5
21	5	6	3	5	3	4
22	8	8	8	8	6	7
23	8	9	7	8	6	7

APPENDIX J: Number of the Correct Answers of the Control Group in the Pre and Posts Tests of Text II.

	Multiple Choice		Open Ended		Vocabulary Guessing	
	Pre T.	Post T.	Pre T.	Post T.	Pre T.	Post T.
1	1	3	1	2	1	2
2	2	4	1	3	1	3
3	4	4	1	3	1	3
4	3	5	1	3	1	2
5	4	6	6	7	4	5
6	4	6	2	4	3	4
7	1	3	2	4	3	4
8	4	6	4	5	4	5
9	3	5	2	4	3	5
10	4	7	4	6	4	5
11	5	6	1	3	3	5
12	5	5	1	3	3	5
13	5	7	2	4	3	5
14	6	8	4	5	4	5
15	5	7	1	4	3	5
16	6	7	1	3	3	5
17	6	7	2	4	3	4
18	6	7	4	6	4	6
19	7	8	5	6	5	7

(Appendix J continued)

20	3	5	3	5	4	5
21	6	7	4	6	4	5
22	8	9	4	6	5	7
23	5	7	4	6	4	6

APPENDIX K: The Number of the Total Correct Answers of the Experimental and Control Group in the post test of Text I and II.

	Exp. Group			Cont. Group		
	M. C.	O. E.	V. G.	M. C.	O. E.	V. C.
1	14	11	8	8	6	4
2	13	10	8	11	6	7
3	13	9	10	10	8	7
4	11	12	10	11	7	6
5	13	10	11	13	12	10
6	15	12	9	12	10	9
7	15	11	12	11	10	10
8	12	12	11	14	13	12
9	15	12	11	11	8	10
10	15	12	15	14	13	11
11	15	12	14	15	10	12
12	15	13	12	12	11	11
13	14	12	13	14	11	11
14	17	13	14	15	13	12
15	15	13	12	15	11	11
16	13	14	14	14	7	10
17	13	12	13	14	12	11
18	17	15	16	14	14	14
19	15	13	15	15	13	14

(Appendix K continued)

20	14	12	15	10	12	10
21	15	14	15	13	11	9
22	18	12	15	17	14	13
23	18	16	15	16	14	13

APPENDIX L: Statistical Tables

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for the Michigan Placement Test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the pre-test.

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	54,3913	9,438	1,968
Cont. G.	23	51,9130	10,917	2,276

Mean Difference=2,4783

Levene's Test for Equality of Variance: F=,748 P=,392

t-test for Equality of Means					95%
Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff.	CI for Diff
Equal	,82	44	,415	3,009	(-3,587; 8,544)
Unequal	,82	43,10	,415	3,009	(-3,591; 8,548)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for Text I Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the pre-test.

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	6,0000	1,679	,350
Cont. G.	23	5,9565	1,364	,285

Mean Difference = ,0435

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= 1,429 P=,238

(Appendix L continued)

t-test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail-Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	,10	44	,924	,451	(-,866; ,953)
Unequal	,10	42,24	,924	,451	(-,867; ,954)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for Text 1 Open Ended Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the pre-test.

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	4,9130	1,621	,338
Cont. G.	23	5,0870	2,151	,449

Mean Difference = -,1739

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= 3,065 P=,087

t-test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	-,31	44	,758	,562	(-1, 306; ,958)
Unequal	-,31	40,89	,758	,562	(-1, 309; ,961)

The results of t-test for Independent samples for Text I Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the pre-test.

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	4,2174	1,204	,251
Cont. G.	23	4,2174	1,413	,259

(Appendix L continued)

Mean Difference = ,0000

Levene's Test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	,00	44	1,000	,387	(-,780; ,780)
Unequal	,00	42,92	1,000	,387	(-,780; ,781)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for Text II Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the pre-test.

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	4,4783	1,806	,377
Cont. G.	23	4,4783	1,780	,371

Mean Difference = ,0000

Levene's Test for Equality of Variance: F= ,080 P= ,779

t-test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	,00	44	1,000	,529	(-1, 066; 1, 066)
Unequal	,00	43,99	1,000	,529	(-1, 066; 1, 066)

(Appendix L continued)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for Text II Open Ended Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the pre-test.

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	2,2609	1,389	,290
Cont. G.	23	2,6087	1,559	,325

Mean Difference = -,3478

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= 1,693 P= ,200

t-test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	-,80	44	,429	,435	(-1, 225; ,530)
Unequal	-,80	43,42	,429	,435	(-1, 226; ,530)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for Text II Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the pre-test.

Variable	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	3,8261	1,154	,241
Cont. G.	23	3,1739	1,193	,249

Mean Difference = ,6522

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= ,176 P= ,677

(Appendix L continued)

t-test for Equality of Means					95%
Variances	t-value	df	2-tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	1,88	44	,066	,346	(-,045; 1,350)
Unequal	1,88	43,95	,066	,346	(-,045; 1,350)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for Text I Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental Group in the pre and post-test.

Exp. G.	Number of Cases	Corr	2-Tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				6,0000	1,679	,350
	23	,740	,000			
Post T.				7,6087	,988	,206

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig
-1,6087	1,158	,241	-6,66	22	,000

95% CI (-2, 109; -1,108)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for Text I Open Ended Question Scores of the Experimental Group in the pre and post-test.

Exp. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				4,9130	1,621	,338
	23	,582	0,004			
Post T.				7,0000	,674	,141

(Appendix L continued)

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-2,0870	1,345	,281	-7,44	22	,000

95% CI (-2,669; -1,505)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for Text I Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Experimental Group in the pre and post-test.

Exp. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				4, 2174	1,204	,251
	23	,825	,000			
Post T.				6,6087	1,234	,257

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-2,3913	,722	,151	115,88	22	,000

95% CI (-2, 704; -2,079)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for text II Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental Group in the pre and post-test.

Exp. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				4,4783	1,806	,377
	23	,898	,000			
Post T.				6,9565	1,331	,277

(Appendix L continued)

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-2, 4783	,846	,176	-14,05	22	,000

95% CI (-2, 844; -2,112)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for text II Open Ended Question Scores of the Experimental Group in the pre and post-test.

Exp. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				2,2609	1,389	,290
	23	,689	,000			
Post T.				5,2174	1,126	,235

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-2,9565	1,022	,213	-13,88	22	,000

95% CI (-3i 398; -2,515)

(Appendix L continued)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for Text II Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Experimental Group in the pre and post-test.

Exp. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				3,8261	1,154	,241
	23	,836	,000			
Post T.				5,9130	1,443	,301

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-2,0870	,793	,165	-12,63	22	,000

95% CI (-2,430; -1,744)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for the Michigan Placement Test Scores of the Experimental Group in the pre and post-test.

Exp. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				54,3913	9,438	1,968
	23	,989	,000			
Post T.				57,8261	10,513	2,192

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-3,4348	1,830	,382	-9,00	22	,000

95% CI (-4,226; -2,643)

(Appendix L continued)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for Text I Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Control Group in the pre and post-test.

Cont. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				5,9565	1,364	,285
	23	,874	,000			
Post T.				6,9565	1,065	,222

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	Se of Mean	t-value	df	2-tailSig
-1, 0000	,674	,141	-7,11	22	,000

95% CI (-1, 292; -, 708)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for Text I Open Ended Question Scores of the Control Group in the pre and post-test.

Cont. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				5,0870	2,151	,449
	23	,967	,000			
Post T.				6,2174	1,650	,344

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-1, 1304	,694	,145	-7,81	22	,000

95% CI (-1, 431; -,830)

(Appendix L continued)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for Text I Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Control Group in the pre and post-test.

Cont. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				4,2174	1,413	,295
	23	,892	,000			
Post T.				5,6522	1,434	,299

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-1,4348	,662	,138	10,39	22	,000

95% CI (-1, 721; -1, 148)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for text II Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Control Group in the pre and post-test.

Cont. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				4,4783	1,780	,371
	23	,913	,000			
Post T.				6,0435	1,581	,330

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-1, 5652	,728	,152	-10,31	22	,000

95% CI (-1, 880; -1,250)

(Appendix L continued)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for Text II Open Ended Question Scores of the Control Group in the pre and post-test.

Cont. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				2, 6087	1,559	,325
	23	,952	,000			
Post T.				4,4348	1,376	,287

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-1, 8261	,491	,102	-17,84	22	,000

95% CI (-2, 038; -1,614)

The result of t-test for Paired Samples for Text II Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Control Group in the pre and post-test.

Cont. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				3,1739	1,193	,249
	23	,943	,000			
Post T.				4,6087	1,438	,300

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-1, 4348	,507	,106	-13,58	22	,000

95% CI (-1, 654; -1,216)

(Appendix L continued)

The results of t-test for Paired Samples for the Michigan Placement Test Scores of the Control Group in the pre and post-test.

Cont. G.	Number of Pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Pre T.				51,9130	10,917	2,276
	23	,995	,000			
Post T.				53,6957	11,574	2,413

Paired Differences

Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig
-1, 7826	1,278	,266	-6,69	22	,000

95% CI (-2, 335; -1, 230)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for the Michigan Placement Test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the post-test.

Post T.	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	57,8261	10,513	2,192
Cont. G.	23	53,6957	11,574	2,413

Mean Difference = 4, 1304

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F=, 422 P= ,519

t-test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	1,27	44	,212	3,260	(-2, 442; 10, 702)
Unequal	1,27	43,60	,212	3,260	(-2, 442; 10; 702)

(Appendix L continued)

The result of t-test for Independent Samples for Text I Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the post-test.

Post T.	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	7,6087	,988	,206
Cont. G.	23	6,9565	1,065	,222

Mean Difference = ,6522

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= ,226 P= ,637

t-test for Equality of Means

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	2,15	44	,037	,303	(,042; 1, 263)
Unequal	2,15	43,75	,037	,303	(,042; 1, 263)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for Text I Open Ended Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the post-test.

Post T.	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	7,0000	,674	,141
Cont. G.	23	6,2174	1,650	,344

Mean Difference = ,7826

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= 26, 354 P= ,000

(Appendix L continued)

t-test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-values	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	2,11	44	,041	,372	(,033; 1, 532)
Unequal	2,11	29,14	,044	,372	(,022; 1, 543)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for Text I Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the post-test.

Post T.	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	6,6087	1,234	,257
Cont. G.	23	5, 6522	1, 434	,299

Mean Difference = ,9565

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= ,367 P= ,548

t-test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	2,43	44	,019	,394	(,162; 1, 751)
Unequal	2,43	43,04	,020	,394	(,161; 1, 752)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for Text II Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the post-test.

Post T.	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	6,9565	1,331	,277
Cont. G.	23	6,0435	1,581	,330

(Appendix L continued)

Mean Difference = ,9130

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= ,492 P= ,487

t-test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	2,12	44	,040	,431	(,045; 1, 781)
Unequal	2,12	42,76	,040	,431	(,044; 1, 782)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for Text II Open Ended Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the post-test.

Post T.	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G	23	5,2174	1,126	,235
Cont. G.	23	4,4348	1,376	,287

Mean Difference = , 7826

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= 2, 541 P= , 118

t-test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	2,11	44	,041	,371	(,035; 1, 530)
Unequal	2,11	42,35	,041	,371	(,034; 1, 531)

(Appendix L continued)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for Text II Vocabulary Guessing Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the post-test.

Post T.	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	5,9130	1,443	,301
Cont. G.	23	4,6087	1,438	,300

Mean Difference = 1, 3043

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= ,101 P= ,753

t-test for Equality of Means 95%

Variances	t-value	df	2-Tail Sig	SE of Diff	CI for Diff
Equal	3,07	44	,004	,425	(,448; 2, 161)
Unequal	3,07	44,00	,004	,425	(,448; 2, 161)

The results of t-test for Independent Samples for the Total Multiple Choice Question Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in the post-test.

Post T.	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
Exp. G.	23	14,5652	1,779	,371
Cont. G.	23	13,0000	2,216	,462

Mean Difference = 1, 5652

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= 1,875 P= ,178