The Effect of Using Metacognitive Reading Strategies on Fourth Semester English Students at Benghazi University

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this humble study to my father, my mother, and my family.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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ABSTTRACT

The Effect of Using Metacognitive Reading Strategies on Fourth Semester English Students at Benghazi University

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Using metacognitive strategies activate students' prior knowledge and this operates students' thinking and restores their experience about topic. Meta cognitive reading strategies enable students to enhance their attitudes in learning.

The training on metacognitive reading strategies involved concrete strategies: predicating, inference, and summarizing to achieve the purpose of this study.

In order to answer the research questions a quasi experimental study was conducted in which thirty one students from the fourth semester in the English Department at Benghazi University sat a pretest. After the administration of the pre-test, sixteen students were randomly selected to participate in the experimental group. They were taught reading comprehension by the researcher using metacognitive reading strategies whereas the other fifteen students received ordinary instruction in reading comprehension. At the end of the study, a post- test was administrated to all students from both groups. The data collected was analyzed both descriptively and statistically. Results demonstrated that there was no improvement in reading comprehension skills among the control group which received no special instruction. On the contrary, the experimental group improved significantly after the treatment. Hence, the results attest to the effect of using metacognitive reading strategies to improve reading comprehension ability.

Chapter one
Background to the study

1.1 Introduction

Reading is one of the four necessary language skills for acquiring knowledge and gathering information for those learning English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL), for academic success, and for professional development (Wei, 2005). According to Anderson (2003), reading is the interaction of four aspects including the reader, the text, fluent reading, and strategic reading; in other words the ability of the reader to use a variety of strategies to accomplish the purpose for reading. "Learning to read is not only learning to recognize words; it is also learning a sense of the texts" (Tierney, 2005, p.19).

The main objective of reading at the primary and secondary school levels is to teach students to read English books and to encourage them to keep up with global developments. Students at the university level need to understand textbooks, articles, or magazines written in English in order to acquire knowledge and gather information for their careers and their academic studies (Wei, 2005).

A strategy is an individual's comprehensive approach to a task. It includes how a person thinks and acts when planning and evaluating his or her study. Teaching students to become strategic readers is a universal goal of teachers. Strategic reading involves the knowledge of how to approach a text, how to make meaning out of the texts, and what action to take when comprehension challenges arise (Singhal, 2001). Moreover, knowing why and understanding under what conditions a strategy works helps readers use correct strategies in appropriate situations.

One group of reading strategies is metacognitive reading strategies. Flavell (1979) first coined the term metacognition in the mid 1970s. According to Anderson (2002), metacognition is thinking about thinking; according to Byrd, Carter, and Waddoups (2001), it is defined as the self-awareness of mental process. Metacognition is regarded as a part of the effective strategies that enhance learners' reading ability (Cohen, 1998). To be able to read effectively and intelligently, students need to refine their reading ability by integrating their prior knowledge, language proficiency, and metacognitive strategies with the understanding of words and sentences in a text (Hammadou, 1991).

Metacognitive reading strategies involve thinking about what one is doing while reading, checking the outcome of problem solving techniques, planning how to use an effective strategy, controlling the effectiveness of an action plan, testing, revising, and evaluating one's learning strategy (Block, 1992; Salataci & Akyel, 2002). These strategies should play a role in reading tasks as they can help learners plan, organize, control, and evaluate the reading process (Chumpavan, 2000; Cohen, 1998; Li&Munby, 1996; Urquhart& Weir, 1998).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Metacognitive reading strategies need to be given due emphasis in reading classes. They should be introduced to students to allow them to make use of metcognitive reading strategies when they read academic texts.

There are potential problems of metacognitive reading strategies which fourth semester English students at Benghazi University encounter when they read academic texts. These problems are lack of background knowledge, lack of vocabulary and lack of comprehension.

1.3 Research Questions

The aim of this study is to investigate the following two questions:

1. Do fourth semester English students face difficulty in comprehending an academic text?
2. What effect does the use of metacognitive strategies have on the comprehension of academic texts among fourth semester at the University of Benghazi?

1.4 The Aim of the study

The researcher aims to investigate the differences in the use of meta cognitive strategies among students, and the difficulties that these students encounter when reading academic texts.

1.6 The Scope and Limitations of the Study

The sample of the present study is limited to fourth semester students at Benghazi University; thus, the results of the study are not generalized to other semesters. The present study focusing on the effect of using some metacognitive reading strategies on fourth semester students only.

1.7 Methodology

This research is an example of a quasi-experimental. The sample was chosen from the population of fourth semester English students at the University of Benghazi who volunteered to participate in the research. The volunteers were divided into two groups, an experimental group and a control group.

A pre-test in overall reading ability was administrated to both groups initially in order to ascertain that the groups were homogenous. For a period of two months, the control group was taught reading without reference to metacognitive reading strategies, while

the experimental group utilized the same reading passages with an emphasis on exercises which focused on metacognitive strategies. A post-test was conducted to discover if there were any statistically significant differences in reading comprehension ability among members of both groups.

1.8 Organization of the study

Chapter One of the study introduces the topic of the research. Chapter two presents a review of the related literature and research studies pertaining to the subject of this thesis. Chapter three details the methodology of this research. Chapter four presents and analyzes the results of the study, while chapter five summarizes these results and suggests recommendations for the teaching of reading comprehension in the University of Benghazi.

Chapter two
Background to the Research

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a general theoretical background of the skill of reading. It presents the factors that influence reading in second and foreign languages. Moreover, it will give a classification of reading strategies and meta cognitive strategies in reading. Finally, the chapter concludes with relevant research in the field.

2.2 What is Reading?

It seems that reading is not completely understood nor can it be described easily (Aebersold & Field,1997; Taverner,1990;Urquhart & Weir,1998). In the early 1960s, educational psychologists argued over various definitions for reading, but it still was difficult to define exactly. However, they outlined two main possible wide meanings: (a) reading is the decoding process of syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic knowledge; and (b) reading is "the whole parcel of cognitive activities carried out by a reader in contact with a text" (Urquhart & Weir,1998:17).

In the 1970, reading was defined as a "means of extending experience" (Taverner, 1990:4). In other words, reading is concerned with the experiences reflecting the readers' interest and their reading motivation. Hence, an easy way to describe reading in general terms is that it involves a reader, a text, and the interaction between the two (Aebersold & Field, 1997).

The reader or the individual is the first factor in the learning process. Readers are unique in that they differ in the way they apply their individual experiences towards what they read. They need to be aware of themselves as readers and base their reading process on their past knowledge acquired in their learning of both how to read and how to apply their reading to their everyday use. In addition, they need to know what memories they themselves have about their life experiences gathered from the family, community, school, society, and culture while they learned to read (Aebersold & Field, 1997).

The next factor in the reading process is the text. There are many types of texts that individuals read every day such as books, labels on medicine containers, instructions, street signs, advertisements on television, and so on. To succeed in their reading comprehension, readers need to realize the differences in the language considerations in different written materials –the organization of information, grammar, cohesion, and vocabulary.

Reading is "what happens when people look at a text and assign meaning to the written symbols in that text"(Aebersold & Field, 1997, p. 5). Readers have an interaction with the text, applying to it an area of knowledge such as content, formal knowledge, and linguistic knowledge. The interaction between readers and a text is constantly changing, depending on the readers' comprehension of what they read. That is, if readers possess more complete knowledge about what they read, they can better understand the text being read.

Cook (1991: 54) defines reading comprehension as follows:

> Reading is a cognitive process that is restricted in the L2. Reading, like speaking, occurs in a context rather than in isolation. The meaning of a text is not found just in the sentences themselves, but is derived from the previous knowledge stored in the reader's mind and the processes through which the reader tackles.

Mikulecky (2008, p.1) classifies the reading process on the same grounds as Cook does, taking into account the reader's background knowledge as a crucial factor in the comprehension process.

> Reading is a conscious and unconscious thinking process. The reader applies many strategies to reconstruct the meaning that the author is assumed to have intended. The reader does this by comparing information in the text to his or her background knowledge and prior experience.

2.3 Literature Review

Keene and Zimmerman (1997) elaborated on meta cognitive reading strategies. First, readers will prepare an action while they are reading. That is, they are aware of their own thinking and understanding. Readers concentrate on their own thinking process and can select strategies before, during, and after reading. Then readers will gather knowledge from their past experience, habits, beliefs, and events or situations concerning society or the world in general to create connections with reading texts in order access them more easily. Second, readers will try to understand the important part of the reading text. While reading, they evaluate the importance of a text at three levels of understanding: the word level, the sentence level, and the paragraph level (Anderson, 2002). Next, readers use self-questioning. They ask themselves questions before, during, and after the reading of a text in order to, support their understanding, and guess its content.

Additionally, readers often draw pictures in their mind using the five senses (sight, hearing, touch, smell, and taste) to promote emotions while they are reading. They use this strategy in reading short stories to imagine the characters. Moreover, readers can combine the important information in the reading text with their personal background knowledge to create inference beyond a written text (Anderson, 2000). Retelling the reading text using the reader's own words is also important in the reading process. When readers reread, they gain information, think about it, and express the author's meaning with their own words (Flemming, 1997).

Finally, readers use a variety of fix-up strategies to remediate reading problems and extract meaning from a text (Duffy & Roehler, 1993). The fix-up strategies include inferring, asking questions, determining importance, and synthesizing. These strategies help readers to better comprehend what they read in academic texts.

O'Malley and Chamot (as cited in Safosto, 2015, P. 16) classify self-monitoring and self-evaluation as metacognitive strategies. Self-monitoring has been underlined in instruction of reading skills as part of learners' taking responsibility for their own learning. It supplies learners with both the opportunities and strategies to continue their learning beyond the classroom (Velde, Zhuang, and Kang, 2012). Jensen (2011) defines self-monitoring as paying close attention to one specific aspect of language in

terms of grammar or pronunciation. It helps learners remember to produce the accurate version of language. Fortunately, in due course with practice, learners will be able to produce the accurate form in free speech even when they are not paying attention in high-pressure conditions like giving academic presentations.

Covarrubias and Stone (2014) define self-monitoring as the extent to which students regulate or monitor their behaviors in classroom and believe that it is an important factor in performance and endorse that self-monitoring strategies correlate positively with academic achievement. They precede saying that there are reliable differences in the extent to which people monitor, regulate, or control their behavior in social situations. In academic context, learning to self-monitor would enable students to adopt behaviors that lead to academic success.

Learners with high levels of self-monitoring have a proactive nature to modify and regulate. Moreover, they have the characteristics to read both the context and the audience and perform their role in accordance with the desired setting.

They also express their true inner self regardless of the situational demands. However, those with low self-monitoring lack the characteristics to modify and adjust their behavior (Khan , Qureshi .Rasli,2014 ,46). The findings some researchers reached saying that the application of self -monitoring strategies can improve academic performance. He proceeds to say that low involvement of self-monitoring strategies prevented his students from learning effectively.

The following tips have been found useful to foster self-monitoring in reading among learners. EFL learners should be assisted and trained to:

1- Identify a specific language feature.

2- Practice self-monitoring even if it seems to slow the learner's rate of speech. At first, it will be difficult, but the more the learner practices, the easier it will become.

3- Evaluate how successful they were at monitoring the specific feature of English they selected.

4- Self-monitor, in the beginning, only during low stress conversations. When a particular conversation makes the learners tense or it is very important for him, it is harder to improve just one specific feature of his speech.

5- They should be made aware that even with the practice, changes do not happen in a short period. They need to persevere (Jensen, 2011).

Hsu (n.d.) considers self-monitoring as an influential sub-process for the success of self-regulation. Lan, 1998 (as cited in Hsu, n.d., p.2) reports that a number of

researchers have found that through the application of self-monitoring, learners can improve their academic performance. In English speech skills, low involvement of self-monitoring prevents students from learning effectively. In order to learn successfully and effectively in college, learners need to practice self-monitoring. More importantly, teachers can provide external cues to stimulate self-monitoring process to help students involve in self-monitoring when studying English speech. Monitoring refers to supervision of activities in progress to ensure that everything is under control, thus the performance goal can be effectively done. Monitoring is what we take to keep track of how the learning process is going .These strategies assist notice that they are encountering a hurdle in comprehension and concentration. As a result, they can find problems and correct them timely.

2.4 Factors that Influence EFL Reading.

In teaching English as foreign language (FL) in order to help their students comprehend a text the reading teacher must understand the key factors that affect the students' reading ability. According to Aebersold and Field (1997, p. 21-34), there are six factors that influence students' reading ability.

1. Cognitive development and cognitive style orientation: the age and level of cognitive or mental development of the learners when beginning their learning of L2 or FL influence their flexibility in learning a language. Teachers must be aware of their students' to help them build a personal learning style that will include a variety of strategies, and to remediate effectively their reading difficulties.
2. Reading performance and competence in their L1: the level of L1 students' reading proficiency has an influence on the development of reading skills in L2 reading.
3. Metacognitive knowledge: metacognitive knowledge is the combination of students' ability in discussing, describing, and commenting on how they use their learning ability. Skilled readers have a good command of their metacognitive knowledge; thus, they see more improvement in their EFL reading process than poor readers do.
4. L2 or FL proficiency: students' second language proficiency influences their reading performance. L2 reading problems come from readers' inadequate

knowledge of the target language. In other words, readers can better understand a target text if they have a high level of reading proficiency in the target language. Adequate knowledge of the target language helps them to solve difficulties in reading target texts.

5. Degree of differences between L1 and L2: The degree of difference between a first language (L1) and a second language (L2) is evaluated within the L1 and L2 writing system and the individual's purpose of reading. When a target text is too difficult and shows great difference between the native language and the target language, it becomes more difficult to comprehend it.

6. Cultural orientation: Cultural orientation involves students' reading attitudes toward a text and the purpose of their reading, the types of their reading skills and the strategies they use in L2, as well as their background knowledge in L2.When readers in L2 have knowledge of their cultural orientation in reading, it is leads to greater enhancement their understanding of a text.

2.5 The Classification of Reading Strategies

In this sub-section, different classifications of language learning strategies will be summarized first and then O'Malley and Chamot's (1991) classification will be focused on. The reading strategies which will be introduced are based on O'Malley and Chamot's learning strategies.

Second language acquisition researchers have spent much time studying language learning strategies.

Various researchers have provided different classifications of learning strategies. Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as behaviors or actions which are consciously taken by learners to make language learning more successful and self-directed. O'Malley and Chamot (1991, p.1) maintain that "language learning strategies are the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information". The present study is based on O'Malley and Chamot's classification of learning strategies, because their classification is more clear and easier to understand by comparison with that of Oxford's. In addition O'Mally and Chamot's (1990) classification is better related to this study in that they divide the learning strategies into three sub-categories. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) think that

learning   strategies   are   mental   and social-affective processes, so they divide the learning strategies into three main branches, namely metacognitive, cognitive and social-affective strategies. Oxford (1990) proposes that language strategies can be divided into direct and indirect groups. Among them, memory strategies, cognitive strategies and comprehension strategies are classified into direct strategies, whereas metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies belong to indirect strategies.

Cohen's classification of language strategies is slightly different from the two researchers mentioned above. In consideration of the purposes of using strategies, Cohen (1998) classified second language learner strategies in two types: language learning strategies and language use strategies. Language learning strategies are strategies used to learn a language, which include identifying the materials that need to be learned; distinguishing some materials from others; grouping materials for easier learning; having repeated contact with materials for easier learning; having repeated contact with materials and committing to memorize materials when they cannot be acquired naturally. Language use strategies refer to strategies that are adopted by learners in order to use a language. They contain retrieval strategies, rehearsal strategies, compensation strategies and communication strategies.

The following chart of characteristics, designed for teachers using the textbook edition of *Distant Voyages. Trophie*s, (Harcourt (2003:29), called "Strategies And Behaviors Of Proficient Readers is useful."This chart is a guide for teachers to choose specific strategies to implement in the classroom while reading, as well as student behaviors to observe during tutoring reading sessions. The following strategies apply to reading in all content areas. Look at table 1

	Strategy	**Objective**
Strategy 1	Finding details that are directly stated	To find information that is directly stated; information that is based on recall
Strategy 2	Drawing inferences reading between the	To gain understanding from information that is not directly

	lines	stated
Strategy 3	Cause and effect	To determine what makes something happens-that is, why it happens(cause) and the result (effect)
Strategy 4	Finding the main idea of a paragraph	To supply the main thought of a paragraph by determining what is the topic is and what is special about the topic. All sentences in the paragraph should develop the main idea
Strategy 5	Finding the central idea of a story	To supply the central thought of a group or a story by determining what the topic is and what is special about the topic. All paragraphs should develop the central idea.
Strategy 6	Using divergent thinking	To go beyond what the author has written to come up with new or alternative solutions.
Strategy 7	Following directions	To read instructions and then carry them out.
Strategy 8	Categorizing	To classify items into more general group or to determine whether an item belongs in a specific group.
Strategy 9	Completing word relationships analogies	To discern relationships between words and ideas
Strategy 10	Finding inconsistencies	To supply the correct word by drawing a logical conclusion from a sentence or story material
Strategy 11	Distinguishing	To differentiate between

	between fact and opinion	information that can be verified and information that cannot be proven
Strategy 12	Character analysis	To understand characters feeling, and emotions.

Table 1 Strategies and Behaviors of Proficient Readers

2.6 Metacognitive Strategies in Reading

In the last decades, educational psychologists interested in developing readers' cognitive proceses combined reading strategies with metacognitive strategies (e.g. Cohen 1997; Hummadou,1991;Li& Munby,1996; Muniz-Swicegood, 1994; O'Malley&chamot,1995; Rubin, 1993). According to these educators, students can be taught independently to employ specific reading strategies during the reading process, especially in meta cognitive processes, i.e., those processes in which readers "consider thoughts in problem solving situations through the strategies of self-planning, self-monitoring, self-regulating, self-questioning, self-reflecting, and self-reviewing" (Muniz-Swicegood,1994: 83). In addition, according to Hammadou (1991), understanding words, sentences, and a text and a complex integration of the readers' background knowledge, language proficiency, and meta cognitive strategies is vital.

Metacognition refers to thinking about what one is doing while reading. It includes checking the results of the problem-solving techniques, planning how to use an effective strategy, controlling the effectiveness of an action plan, testing, and revising and evaluating one's learning strategy (Block, 1992; Salataci & Akely, 2002). Metacognition consists of three basic parts: (a) developing a plan of action, (b) monitoring the plan, and (c) evaluating the plan. Firstly, readers develop a plan of action before they read a text. Next, while they read, they ask themselves what important information they need to remember or what they need to do if they cannot understand the context. Finally, when these proficient readers evaluate their plan, they ask themselves how they might apply reading strategies to other reading (Pressly, 2002).

According to Cohen (1998), the metacognitive strategies of reading are divided into three parts: pre-reading (planning) strategies, while-reading (monitoring), and post-

reading (evaluating) strategies. The pre-reading strategies are related to scanning and guessing what a text is about. It helps them to guess the information from its context, think about the topic, and ask themselves questions (Cohen, 1998). The while-reading strategies are related to self-questioning, self-monitoring, and problem-solving (Cohen,1998). In self-questioning, readers pay attention to their reading by asking themselves about the significance of the text. In self-monitoring they concentrate on their strategy and check their comprehension. And with problem-solving readers can find solutions to their reading problems. The post-reading strategies involve evaluation and response to evaluation. Skilled learners can evaluate their strategy by asking themselves what they are trying to do, how well they use this strategy. All of these questions help them to evaluate whether their course of action is effective, and respond accordingly (Anderson, 2000).

According to Keene and Zimmerman (1997), metacognitive readers use the following eight meta cognitive strategies when they read: (a) planning for action before, during and after reading, (b) using background knowledge, (c) deciding what is important, (d) self questioning, (e) creating mental pictures; (f) inferring; (g) retelling or synthesizing, and (h)using fix up strategies for reading problems.

In addition, we may infer the information of a text by creating " an original meaning, a meaning born at the intersection of our background knowledge (schema), the words printed on a page, and our mind's capacity to merge that combination into something uniquely ours" (Keene & Zimmeman, 1997; p. 149). In other words, this techniques combines the readers' background knowledge (schema) with the text and helps them draw conclusions through critical analysis, and predict new ideas and new meanings implied or not stated directly in the reading passage (Alderson, 2000; Keen & Zimmerman, 1997; Harvey & Goudvis, 2000).

The first metacognitive strategy is planning for action, and it can be applied before, during, and after the reading process. Proficient readers have an action plan to manipulate their thinking and comprehension. Their planning incorporates the following:

1. Rephrase the headings or title as a question to give them a reading direction.

2. Examine the subheadings and illustrations as a direction to identify significant information in the selected reading.

3. Read the introductory paragraph, the summary, and the questions for study at the end of the selection.

4. Read the first sentence of every paragraph, which contains generally, though not always, the main idea of the paragraph.

5. Evaluate their reading by answering questions that arise from reading the text.

6. Write a brief summary of what they read from skimming information in the text (Zimmerman, 1997).

All these techniques help the readers identify or understand the basic framework of the selected text and interpret or evaluate what is written. These techniques relate to readers' action plans occur throughout their reading process, including before and after, and help them understand and remember the information.

The Second metacognitive strategy t is called prior or background knowledge as it comes from the readers' past experiences, habits, beliefs, and events and situations concerning society or the world at large, and creates connections with reading texts (Keen & Zimmerman, 1997; Ruddell & Ruddell, 1995). In addition, proficient readers possess literary background and prior knowledge of the story, on which they draw upon to identify the story schema, such as a folktale, which is helpful in inferring the meaning of storytelling necessary for the understanding of a story and its outcomes (Ruddell & Ruddell, 1995). Therefore, proficient readers may construct knowledge structures in their memory, which organize their environment and experiences, and allow them to adapt to new experiences. Furthermore, while using their background knowledge, readers can add information that is not explicitly provided in a text by connecting this new information to the existing one. This technique helps readers to understand and remember information more easily (Keen & Zimmerman, 1997 ; Ruddell & Ruddell, 1995).

The third metacognitive strategy is deciding what is important. Determining the key information of a reading passage is related to identifying its main idea, topic sentences, and key points (Anderson, 2000; Carrell, 2001). According to Carrell (2001), reading passages normally combine the following: (1) main idea; (2) topic sentences ;(3) supporting sentences; (4) transitional devices.

1. The main idea: the main idea refers to the key information of the passage being read.

2. Topic sentence: the topic sentence refers to the main idea being presented in a paragraph.

3. Supporting sentences: the supporting sentences involve specific details, facts, evidences, and explanations to ascertain and to give credibility to the writers' point of view.

4. Transitional devices: the transitional devices refer to connective devices (e.g. conjunction words such as in addition, furthermore, however), that move the authors' information from one point to another. They also bridge one paragraph to the next by creating a logical development of information. When readers understand the chain of the framework of a reading passage, they may better determine and understand its key information or main points. In addition, readers may better summarize the entire content.

The fourth metacognitive strategy is self questioning which refers to the many questions that readers ask themselves while reading in order to clarify their understanding (Chumpavan, 2000). Proficient readers tend to engage in this technique to determine whether they understand what they are reading (Chumpavan, 2000; Li &Munby, 1996).The purpose of self-questioning is to "to construct meaning, enhance understanding, find answers, solve problems, find specific information, acquire a body of information, discover new information, propel research efforts, and clarify confusion" (Harvey & Goudvis, 200: 22). Readers, for instance, while reading the first sentence in an EFL academic textbook, may ask themselves, "what is plagiarism?" They then read the sentence and the paragraph again to guess the meaning of this word and consciously predict that it refers to "steal or use the ideas of others".

This technique may occur throughout the reading process-before, during, and after (Keen & Zimmerman, 1997). In pre-reading, proficient readers may use this strategy to anticipate what the upcoming text is about. They may also use this strategy to clarify confusion that occurred while reading or to recheck whether they understand accurately. Finally, they may ask themselves questions to evaluate and summarize the

information they have just read, to ensure that their understanding is accurate. If they find themselves still confused, they may read the text to ascertain understanding.

The fifth meta cognitive strategy is creating mental pictures. Imaging or visualizing is an effective technique that makes the text come alive as it draws pictures in the readers' mind (Keen &Zimmerman, 1997). According to the Cambridge International Dictionary of English (1995), the term "imagery" or "imaging" refers to the use of words, pictures, films, and so on in order describe ideas or situations. When proficient readers use imagery to help them understand a text, they often draw pictures in their mind using five senses-that is, sight, sound, touch, taste, and smell in order to pay attention to their emotions while they read (Keen & Zimmerman, 1997). In general, readers use this technique in reading short stories in order to help them imagine the characters, scenes, or situation. In addition, this technique may increase readers' level of motivation because when they imagine pictures, the story comes alive.

The sixth meta cognitive strategy, inferring, is a reading process that goes beyond the literal meaning of a text. To infer is to go beyond the literal interpretation and to open a world of meaning by using background knowledge and the personal experiences in order to reach beyond a simple understanding of the written texts. (Keen &Zimmerman, 1997)

The seventh met acognitive strategy, retelling or synthesizing, is more than summarizing the parts. It requires critical thinking involving the whole text. According to Keen and Zimmerman (1997), synthesizing occurs before, during, and after the reading process since this technique involves asking questions, predicting, imaging, organizing and discussing the information, and determining the key points of this information. That is, when proficient readers synthesize a text, they use all the strategies mentioned above to help them. In addition, when they do this, they may create a new set of information by adding opinions, predictions or evaluations that go beyond the reading message.

Finally, the last metacognitive strategy, fix-up strategies are effective tactics that proficient readers use to help them reach high levels of comprehensions at word level, sentence level, and text level. According to Miller (2002), for readers to develop their schema, mental images, and lower their anxiety when meet with problems in reading,

they may need to use the following fix-up strategies-inferring, asking questions, determining what is important, and synthesizing the text being read. In summary, metacognitive strategies are useful techniques combining various reading strategies. Readers may use these strategies to help them effectively plan, monitor, evaluate, and remediate their comprehension before, during and after their reading process.

2.7 Instruction Utilizing Metacognitive and Comprehension- Related strategies

2.7.1. Informed Strategies for Learning

Informed Strategies Instruction (Paris, Cross & Lipson, 1984; Paris & Jocobs, 1984) was designed "to stimulate greater awareness of declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge, while also teaching children how to evaluate, plan and regulate their own comprehension in strategic ways" (Cross & Paris, 1988: 133). The instructional component of informed strategy involves modeling the strategies and discussion of reasons for their use, guided practice and independent implementation of the strategies. The teachers and peers provide feedback. Paris and Jacobs (1984) found significant correlations between reading awareness and comprehension for both 3rd and 5th graders, with the students in the informed strategy learning group improving more than the control group from pre- to post- test on assessments of strategies and the value of using strategies as a result of informed strategy learning. The specific strategies taught as part of informed strategy learning in this study were: understanding the purpose of reading, activating background knowledge, attention to the main ideas, evaluating critically, monitoring comprehension and making inferences. In an experimental study, performance gains were larger on cloze and error detection tasks for the informed strategy learning group. Thus informed strategy learning was effective in enhancing metacognitive knowledge and improving the comprehension monitoring of these students. It is clear to see that the focus on the declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge aspects about reading and on the teaching of relevant strategies increased students' reading comprehension and was particularly valuable in assessing poor readers to improve their comprehension.

2.7.2. Reciprocal Teaching

Reciprocal Teaching (Palincsar,1986; Palinscar & Brown, 1984) was designed to foster reading comprehension and to teach students to monitor their comprehension. Reciprocal teaching consists of the teaching of four strategies that can be used to comprehend texts: predicting, questioning, summarizing, and clarifying. Instruction initially involves teacher explanation and modeling of the strategies. Then together the teacher and students create discussion about how, when and why these strategies should be used. One of the most well known studies of reciprocal teaching is Palinscar and Brown (1984) that comprised two investigations. In the first, involving 7th graders, the teacher initially discussed the four strategies and showed how they should be used. Then, working in peer teaching groups, the students learned how to use strategies until independence. The comprehension performance of this group was then compared to the performance of another intervention group and non-intervention groups. The study demonstrated positive effects for the students involved in reciprocal teaching on strategy use and in comprehension. The second investigation replicated the first except it was undertaken in a regular classroom setting using the students usual reading groups.

In a recent German study, Sporer and Seuring (2009) undertook an intervention involving reciprocal teaching and cognitive and metacognitive activities in order to enhance the reading comprehension of 3rd to 6th graders. The researchers also examined which strategies mediated the intervention effects on the comprehension. The students were first taught the reciprocal teaching strategies of summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting. Then they practiced the strategies in peer-tutored pairs, in small groups or in instructor-guided groups. The results indicated the students who practiced in small groups outperformed students in the instructor-guided groups and the traditional instruction groups as assessed on a standardized reading comprehension measure. The regression analyses indicated that summarizing was the only skill that had a significant effect on change in reading comprehension. As a consequence of their findings the researchers suggested that the use of multiple strategies of reciprocal teaching is valuable in teaching comprehension, as is the use of small groups in meta cognitive instruction.

2.7.3. Direct Explanation of Strategies

Duffy's research has been very influential in the field of strategy instruction and indeed the direct explanation of strategies has become a major component of many approaches to the teaching of strategies. Research Duffy, et al. (1986) involved 5th grade teachers and their students who were poor readers (i.e., a low reading group). The teachers explicitly discussed the cognitive processes and strategies involved in comprehension with their students, focusing on the specific strategies to be learned as well as why they were important, and how and when they should be used. In similar study by Duffy, et al. (1987), third grade teachers and their students who were poor readers were involved. In both studies the teachers who were provided with training in the use of direct explanation were compared with no training control group. The results of both studies indicated the effectiveness of the training, with the trained teachers being more explicit in their awareness of the need for the strategy use in their metacognitive awareness of strategies.

2.7.4 Transactional Strategies Instruction

Transactional strategies instruction promotes the idea that students should develop as flexible strategy users and therefore they should be taught as flexible strategy to enhance reading comprehension. No specific strategies have been endorsed in transactional strategy instruction, but the transactional strategies instruction research has involved teaching students to make links with prior knowledge, make and confirm predictions, summarize, and re-read as they work to understand and interpret texts. Massey (2009: 396) has pointed out "though sharing some commonalities with reciprocal strategies instruction, the researchers differentiated transactional instruction from reciprocal teaching in several ways, including the use of more direct explanation of comprehension strategies, longer times given for instruction and introducing new strategies, and more focus on motivation of students".

In transactional strategies instruction the teacher works with students at the whole class level and in small groups. Strategies are directly explained and modeled with classroom dialogue being used to develop strategy use. The students then practice the strategies under teacher guidance and the students use the strategies independently.

The transactions occur between teachers and students, students and students, students and texts (El-Dinary, 2002).

2.7.5 Concept Oriented Reading Instruction

Concept oriented reading instruction promotes instruction that includes opportunities for students to engage with real-world topics to achieve content goals, read frequently on topics of their interest, use texts comprising a verity of genres, participate in hands-on activities, work collaboratively, and choose amongst activities and texts. The strategy instruction focuses on the activation of prior knowledge, questioning, seeking information, summarizing, and displaying information graphically (Guthrie, et al., 1999; Guthrie, et al., 2004).

Students work in small groups and as individuals as they apply the strategies they have learned in various reading and writing activities. Students build metacognitive knowledge as they actively choose strategies, monitor their comprehension, and integrate information (Baker & Beall, 2009).

In a study that examined the efficacy of concept oriented reading, Guthrie et al. (1998) compared 4th and 5th grade classrooms that had been exposed to concept oriented reading instruction with classrooms offering science instruction using basal readers. The results indicated that after prior knowledge had been controlled, students in the concept oriented reading instruction classrooms outperformed the students in the learning and using strategies that had been taught. The concept oriented reading instruction students also improved their use of strategies, their conceptual learning in science and the transfer of this learning.

2.7.7 Collaborative Strategic Reading

Collaborative strategic reading students are encouraged to preview the text (i.e., "view beforehand"), monitor comprehension and use fix up strategies (i.e., "click and chunk"), identify the main ideas by restating them (i.e., "get the gist"), and summarize the text (i.e., "wrap up"). First, the teacher conducts instruction of the strategies at the whole class level and small group settings are used as students apply strategies to their texts. Using the structure from collaborative learning each student in the group

assigned a particular role and then tasks it turn to each one of the strategies. Over time each student learns to apply each strategy.

Rresearchers taught collaborative strategies reading to 4th grade students using a social studies text (Klingner, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1998). These students' achievement was compared to the achievement of students in two control classrooms, where the students had been offered traditional lessons using the same text. The results indicated that, when compared to the students in the control classrooms, students in collaborative strategic reading classrooms improved in comprehension, but they did not improve in content knowledge, where equal improvement was shown.

2.7.8 Peer Assisted Learning Strategies

Peer assisted learning strategies focuses on developing students' decoding and comprehension. The decoding-focused component of peer assisted learning strategy concentrates on the development of sounds and words, while the comprehension component, known as story sharing, focuses on the making of predictions, oral reading, and comprehension through retelling. In delivering instruction, the teacher uses a script so that students become familiar with standard procedures. A sequence of instructional steps is always followed. It comprises teacher directed modeling of the code-focused activities, then the students practice these activities, followed by pair or partner work involving the story reading. The student pairs alternate roles as coach and leader. (Delquadri, Greenwood, Whorton, Carta &Hall, 1989; Greenwood, Delquadri & Hall, 1989).

2.8 Relevant research in the field

Mevarech and Haibi (2009) provided three groups of grade 4 students with peer assisted learning strategy meta-cognitive instruction. The groups were offered strategy instruction before, or during, or after reading science texts. A control group did not receive an intervention. The results indicated that all the intervention groups benefited from reading the scientific texts embedded within meta-cognitive instruction.

Abdelhafez (2006), aimed at investigating the effects of a training program in some meta cognitive Language Strategies on developing listening and reading comprehension of first year EFL students. The sample of the study consisted of 80

first year EFL majors at the Faculty of Education, Minia University. Subjects were divided in equal groups: one as an experimental (forty students) and the other as the control (forty students). The study adopted pre-post experimental and control group design. The experimental group was trained in some metacognitive language learning strategies embodied in listening and reading comprehension tasks, while the control group completed the tasks without any metacognitive training. Listening comprehension tests a reading comprehension test at English Proficiency Examination were used to measure the program. The finding revealed that the experimental group surpassed the control group in post-measurement of the listening comprehension test, the reading comprehension test and the English proficiency examination. It was concluded the training in metacognitive language strategies helped develop EFL learner's listening and reading skills and arise their help Language Proficiency Levels. Yüksel & Yüksel, (2012) conducted a study that was designed to determine the Turkish university student's metacognitive awareness of academic reading strategies. Thus, the Survey of Reading Strategies, the students' metacognitive awareness of Global, Problem- solving and Support reading strategies used in academic reading were investigated. The results indicated that the participants usually used academic reading strategies so they were aware of these strategies. They mostly used of problem-solving strategies but the supporting lastly used in academic reading.

Khonamri and Ahmadi (2014)

A study investigating the effect of metacognitive and reading comprehension strategy training on reading ability of Iranian Elementary EFL learners. There were two experimental groups and one control group at elementary level. The first experimental group was taught reading comprehension strategies and the second one received metacognitive strategy training. Seventy-five (75) non-English major students divided in three groups, both male and female, took a reading comprehension test at the beginning of a reading course and again at the end of the course. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the respondents" reading performance on the reading test. The analyses indicated that the participants" reading ability in the two experimental groups has increased. Furthermore, the results of paired t-test illustrate that metacognitive strategy training had more significant effect on students' reading ability compared to reading comprehension strategy instruction. In short, the findings of this study suggest that strategy awareness significantly contributes to reading ability of

students and the higher their knowledge of reading processes, the better their reading ability.

Mehrdad, Ahghar, and Ahghar, (2012), is an attempt to find out whether teaching "cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies" affects EFL students" reading comprehension across proficiency levels. To that end, one hundred and eighty B.A. students majoring in English from Azad University were randomly selected and were divided into three proficiency groups on the basis of their scores on the quick Test of Michigan. Subsequently, the subjects at each proficiency level were divided into two equal sub-groups, and were randomly assigned to the control and experimental groups. The subjects in each experimental group were taught the desired cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies, whereas those in the control groups received some sort of instruction on vocabulary and structure. At the end, all the subjects were given reading comprehension tests geared at their proficiency levels. The data thus collected were then analyzed by SPSS statistical package to find out the difference between the means of the groups through the estimation of independent samples t-tests. The results revealed that "teaching cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies" had no significant effects on the reading comprehension of elementary students; neither did it have any effect on the reading comprehension of advanced students. However, teaching such strategies had significant effects on the reading comprehension of intermediate students.

Temura, Kargin, Bayar, & Bayar, (2010), the purpose of the study was to investigate the differences among 6th, 7th, and 8th grades in respect to their meta cognitive awareness in the field of reading. The research was conducted using a correlation method. The study group consisted of 101 students from a public school in Kutahya province of Turkey. In that school, there are four classes for each grade level from 6-8. The participants consisted of one randomly selected class from each grade. *The Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI),* which is designed to assess 6th- through 12th grade students" awareness and perceived use of reading strategies while reading academic or school-related materials. MARSI was developed by Mokthari and Reichard (2002). The Inventory consists of 30 items. In order to assess students" metacognitive reading awareness an adopted version was used. The finding of the study shows that lower grade students more frequently use supportive strategies and achieved better result in reading comprehension when compared with the older ones and suggested that different school levels and larger

sample size may give different information. When some similar researches are done on some different kinds of students, such as successful readers and less successful readers or boys and girls, different results can be found.

Li and Munby (1996) performed a qualitative research on meta cognitive strategies. The research was conducted with two native speakers of Chinese, one male and one female, both graduate students in the Social Sciences Master's Degree Program at Queen's University, Canada. The participant were chosen for their low background knowledge of Western Social Sciences, a constraint that compelled them to use problem-solving strategies when reading. Interviews, think-aloud sessions and journals were used to evaluate these two students' reading comprehension. The study found that, in their reading, the students used personal background knowledge, translation, self questioning, summarization and prediction. It was found that one student used key words and the other used Chinese to resolve problems when reading difficult passages. Furthermore, when the passages were hard to think about in English, these EFL students immediately reverted to their own language. Therefore, the researchers concluded that the participants used meta cognitive strategies to succeed in their comprehension.

Chumpavan (2000) investigated the metacognitive strategies that two Thai students used in learning English as a foreign language (EFL). These participants had enrolled in the Bachelor's and Master's Degree Programs in Communications and Economics at Illinois State University. Interviews, field observation via think - aloud sessions, and the participants' journals were used to gather information on the students' meta cognitive reading strategies. It was found that while they were reading, they were also planning, monitoring and remediating their reading comprehension. Therefore, Chumpavan concluded that participants used meta-cognitive strategies such as prior knowledge and experience, grammatical knowledge, self- questioning and summarization to facilitate their reading comprehension. She also found that the participants did not use translation in their reading process because it was very time-consuming. Furthermore, unfamiliar words in sentences and paragraphs, and grammatical structure problems were the main reading problems for these participants.

Phakiti (2003) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between the test takers' use of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies in EFL reading test performance. Qualitative and quantitative data analyses were performed in the study. Three hundred and eighty-four students from a northern Thai university were asked to participate. They were tested with 85 multiple - choice questions on reading comprehension in the final examination of the fundamental English course. After the test, 75 students were categorized as highly successful (test score 70% or above), 256 as moderately successful (test score between 46% and69%), and 53 as unsuccessful (test score of below 45%). Four from the highly successful group and four from the unsuccessful group, were then randomly selected to be interviewed after their reading activity. The findings showed that use of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies increased the students' reading test performance. It was also found that highly successful students made use of meta cognitive strategies more often than the moderate and unsuccessful test-takers.

Finally, Huy (2005) conducted a study to investigate the effects of extensive reading on the subjects' perceptions about their reading ability and metacognitive strategies. Six students majoring in computer science at the Saigon Institute of Information Technology in Saigon, Vietnam, were asked to participate in the study. Pre- Post-questionnaires metacognitive strategies were used to explore the students' perception about their own reading ability and use of meta cognitive strategies while they performed extensive reading. Semi - structured pre-and post-interviews were also used to obtain further information. All the students, furthermore, were asked to write their reflections about their reading experience and performance during the seven weeks of the study. The findings revealed that extensive reading played a vital role in facilitating the students' reading ability and increased their motivation in reading. The findings from the pre- questionnaire and pre-interview also showed that the students had some knowledge about metacognitive strategies to facilitate their reading ability. In turn, the findings from the post-questionnaire and post-interviews showed that the extensive reading gave more chance for the students to practice and to select effective cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies to enhance their reading achievement. In addition, the findings showed that both types of strategies were useful for improving the participants' extensive reading.

The conclusion from these investigations pinpoint the fact that meta-cognitive strategies play an important role during the reading process of ESL/ EFL students. These strategies help learners plan, organize, control or monitor, and evaluate their reading. Therefore, it would be beneficial to investigate, as the present study does, the importance of metacognitive strategies in Libyan students' reading ability.

Chapter Three
Research methodology

3.1 Research Design.

Quasi-experimental is the type of research design utilized in this study. A quasi-experiment is an empirical study used to estimate the causal impact of an intervention on its target population. Quasi-experimental research shares similarities with the traditional experimental design or randomized controlled trial, but they specifically lack the element of random assignment. Instead, quasi-experimental designs typically allow the researcher to control the assignment to the treatment condition, but using some criterion other than random assignment. In some cases, the researcher may have control over assignment to treatment. With random assignment, study participants have the same chance of being assigned to the intervention group or the comparison group. Any change in characteristics post-intervention is likely attributable to the intervention. With quasi- experimental studies, it may not be possible to convincingly demonstrate the link between the treatment condition and observed outcomes.

Quasi-experiments are effective because they use the pre-post test design. This means that there are tests done before any data is collected to see if there are any confounds or if any participants have certain tendencies. Then the actual experiment is done with post test results recorded. This data can be compared as part of the study or the pre-test data can be included in the explanation for the actual experimental data.

Since quasi-experimental designs are used when randomization is impractical or unethical, they are typically easier to set up than true experimental designs, which require random assignment of subjects. Additionally, utilizing quasi-experimental designs minimizes threats to ecological validity as natural environments do not suffer the same problems of artificiality as compared to a well-controlled laboratory setting. Since quasi-experiments are natural experiments, findings in one maybe applied to other subjects and settings, allowing for some generalization to be made about the population.

3.2 The Samples

The samples in this study were chosen randomly which consisting of fourth semester students of the English language at the University of Benghazi who volunteered to participate in the research. All the samples of two groups have similar characteristics with respect to age, gender and English language background. The only difference is the instructional context in which both groups study reading. One group studied reading with reference to metacognitive strategies; whereas the other group studied reading without training on using metacognitive reading strategies.

3.3 Materials

The lessons that were used in this study were planned in accordance with the students' levels and interests and choosing texts that were unfamiliar to the students. The reading passages were chosen according to subject matter that was part of the English Department curriculum (language acquisition and linguistics).

The control group and the experimental groups studied the same reading passages and were taught five weeks of one and half-hour lectures. However, the experimental group received training on metacognitive strategies, including the skills of inference, summarization, prediction, guessing meaning from context, as well as overall comprehension.

The procedure for the strategy instruction of the experimental group was divided into three phases: Pre-reading, while reading and post reading. In the pre-reading phase, inferring was the focus of strategy instruction. In the pre-reading phase, prediction and activation of learners' knowledge were the two strategies introduced in this phase.

The students were required to share their experiences so that their background knowledge could be activated to facilities their predictions. In the while- reading phase, inferring was the focus of strategy instruction. Students were encouraged to infer the meaning of unknown words based on the context.

In the post-reading, strategies like question generation and question answering, identifying structure, and summarizing were the strategies utilized Finally, they were asked to summarize the main idea of the passage.

3.4 Pre- and Post- Tests

A pre-test in overall reading ability was administered to both groups in order to ascertain that the groups were homogeneous. For the period of five weeks, the control group was taught reading without training on the metacognitive reading strategies, while the experimental group utilized the same reading passages with an emphasis on metacognitive strategies.

A post-test was given to both groups of students at the end of the study, the aim of which was to measure students' achievement in metacognitive reading strategies. The post-test was administrated in the same conditions as the pre-test and students were allowed an hour and half to complete it.

The pre-test was the starting point of this study. At the beginning, all of the thirty-one students were given the same test at the same time under the same circumstances. The test was administrated for the students in a quiet environment in which they were allowed a two-hour period for completing it.

The passage (see Appendix A) was "Money" which was followed by four questions. The first question aimed at measuring students' ability to check the true and false information. The second question, aimed at checking student's understanding general comprehension of the passage, was multiple choice format. The third question to check students vocabulary knowledge require them to choose the correct word from the box. The final question was to check the skill of writing, by having students rewrite sentences from words of the box.

The post-test was the last point of this study. At the end of the study all of the thirty one students were given the post test at the same time under the same circumstances.

The test was administrated for the students in a quiet environment in which they were allowed a two-hour period for completing it.

The passage (see Appendix B) was "Children's language at home and school" which was followed by eight sections (the passage is an excerpt from the book Applied). The first section is a matching question. The second section is guessing words from context. The third section, writing the main idea of the paragraph, is aimed to write the topic of the paragraph. The fourth section is inference, the process of putting of information together so that it makes sense. The fifth section represents true false questions aimed at measuring students' ability to check true and false information. The sixth section requires students to complete sentences from words of the box. The seventh section requires students to rewrite sentences aimed to improve their writing skill and rewrite sentences in their own words. The last section is writing a summary, summary, then students asked to go back to the text.

3.5 Lesson Plans

Lesson planning is the key to successful teaching and learning. No matter how experienced a teacher is, the lesson will not be as coherent if it was not planned. Furthermore, students can always tell whether the teacher put an effort into planning ahead what was taught in a class. Planning reflects commitment and devotion on the part of the teacher. It makes the lesson more organized and logical. When planning a lesson, the teacher should take into consideration the number and ages of the students. Also, the interests and levels of students should be taken into account. Next, the teacher should define the aims of the lesson clearly. Finally and most importantly, the teacher should decide on how to achieve those aims i.e. the stages and the activities that will be used in the lesson to achieve its aims (Harmer,1998).

Lesson Plan 1: Experimental Group
Description versus Prescription

Time: 80mintues

Note: this is authentic material, an expert from the book *Applied Linguistics by Guy Cook* (Oxford University Press) pp.15-16

Reading skills: building vocabulary, understanding the main idea, inference, and summarization

Before Reading: 15 minutes

Whole class. The teacher drew students attention's to the lesson focus, content, reading skills, and then the teacher asked them to guess the content. Then students were asked to discuss the following questions:

1. The aims of description and prescription; students were asked to work on it individually, the teachers share ideas with them.
2. The differences between description and prescription.

Building vocabulary

Guessing will help you get a rough ideas about the word while you are reading. When students try to guess the meaning of unknown word, they use the text surrounding the word context to provide them with clues. Sometime they can guess the meaning of a word from other words in the sentence.

Guessing the meaning of underlined words from context.

While-Reading 30: minutes

1. Students were asked to read the article silently. Meanwhile, the teacher monitored the class to help students with any difficulties that might arise. Asked them to write the main idea of the paragraphs.

   A. Schools are a good barometer of both language use and social values, and their approach to teaching the national language or languages, which is much the same all over the world, arises from two interesting facts. The first fact is that language- any language- is subject to enormous variation. There are differences between individual, social groups, generations, and nations, and language is used differently in speech and writing, and in formal and informal situations. The second fact is that many people are intolerant of this variation.

   _____
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   _____

   B. Thus linguists tend to favor description (saying what does happen) prescription (saying what ought to happen) and argue that, from a linguistics point of view, the standard is neither superior no more stable than any other variety.

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   _____
   _____

2. Are the following statements true or false? Circle the correct answer. (T) (F)

a. Both home and school are different in learning children's language. T F

b. All variants are equally valid simply by virtue the fact that they occur, and that no one form is more or less correct than the other.   T   F

c. Some forms in grammar in some dialect are improper and illogical. T F

d. Description is what ought to happen, whereas prescription saying what happens. T   F

Post-reading: 35 minutes

Inference

The process of putting information together so that make sense is called making an inference. In other words, when you "infer" something, you are drawing an unstated conclusion from the information that you already have.

1. Ask students to underline the clues first to help them to make a logical inference.

    A.   There are differences between individual, social groups, generations, and nations, and language is used differently in speech and writing, and in formal and informal situations. The second fact is that many people are intolerant of this variation.

        _____

        _____

        _____

    B.   For they have generally argued, not for one side or the other, but that all variants are equally valid simply by virtue of the fact that they occur, and that no one form in any more or less correct than another.

        _____

        _____

        _____

2. Asked them to re write sentences in their own words.
3. Asked to write a summary, students asked to go back to the text.

Lesson Plan 1: Control Group

Description versus Prescription

Time: 80mintues

Note: this an authentic material, an article was written by *Applied Linguistics by Guy Cook* (Oxford University Press) pp.15-16

Reading skills: understanding text, building vocabulary, rewriting sentences.

Multiple choice question is to understand information in the text.

A. Choose the correct answer.

Building vocabulary substitution (synonyms) they may use different words or phrases to name the same thing. It is important to remember that even though two different words to refer the same thing. Substitute the underlined words from the words of the box that have almost the same meaning.

Write sentences help students to improve their writing skill

B. Ask them to write sentences of your own using the words from the box.
C. Students were asked to mark some sentences as being true and false.

Lesson Plan 2: Experimental Group

The Interlangue

Time: 80mintues

Note: this is an authentic material, an excerpt from the book *Second Language Acquisition* by Rod Ellis (Oxford University Press, 1997) pp 33-34

Reading skills: background knowledge, vocabulary building, understanding main idea, inference, and summarization.

Before Reading :15 minutes

The teacher asked students about their background knowledge and then shares ideas with them.

1. The teacher asked students about the title and guessing what it will be about.
2. The teacher asked students about the age they began to study English? and their opinions about starting at an earlier age.
3. guessing the meaning of underlined words from context.

While-Reading: 30 minutes.

Students were asked to read the article silently. Meanwhile, the teacher monitored the class to help students with any difficulties that might arise.

Locating the main idea asked them to identify the topic of the paragraph, remember that it should be general enough to cover the material the paragraph, but not so general that the label could apply to many paragraphs.

1. Write the main idea of the following paragraph

a. The term 'interlanguage' was coined by the American linguist, Larry Selinker, in recognition of the fact that L2 learner's construct a linguistic system that draws, in part, on the learner's L1 but is also different from it and also from the target language. A learner's interlanguage is , therefore, a unique linguistic system.

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Students were asked to read some sentences and mark The learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which underlies comprehension and production of theL2.This system of rules is viewed as a "mental grammar" and is referred to as an "interlanguage".

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_____

2. Are the following statements true or false? Circle the correct answer.

a. The "interlanguage" is the same as L1 and the target language. T F

b. The learner's grammar is unchangeable. T F

c. Overgeneralization and transfer errors are learning methods.   T F

d. Fossilization occurs inL1 and L2 grammars.   T   F

e. Variability is an aspect of competence rather than performance. T F

Post –reading 35 minutes

Inference

The process of putting of information together so that they make sense is called making an inference. In other words, when you "infer" something, you are drawing an unstated conclusion from the information that you already have.

1. The teacher asked students to underline the clues first to help them to make a logical inference.

a. These researchers see variability as an aspect of performance rather than competence.

   _____
   _____
   _____

b. These researchers see variability as an aspect of performance rather than competence.

_____
_____
_____

c. Fossilization does not occur in L1 acquisition and thus is unique to L2 grammar.

   _____
   _____
   _____

d. Learners employ various learning strategies to develop their interlanguage.

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e. Fossilization does not occur in L1 acquisition and thus is unique to L2 grammar.

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f. Learners employ various learning strategies to develop their interlanguage.

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2. The teachers asked students to rewrite sentences in their own words.

3. The teacher asked students to write a summary, students asked to go back to the

text.

The Lesson Plan 2: Control Group

The Interlanguage

Time: an hour and half

Note: this an authentic material, an excerpt from the book *Second Language Acquisition* by Rod Ellis (Oxford University Press, 1997) pp 33-34.

Reading skills: understanding text, building vocabulary, rewriting sentences.

Multiple choices question is to understand information in the text.

A. Choose the correct answer.

B. Substitute the underlined words, from the words, of the box have almost the same meaning

Rewrite sentence help them to improve their writing skill

C. The teacher asked students to write sentences of their own using the words from the box.

True and false information

D. Students were asked to read some sentences and mark Tor F

<h1 style="text-align:center">Lesson Plan 3: Experimental Group</h1>

<h1 style="text-align:center">The Role of Media in Instruction</h1>

Time: 80 minutes

Note: this an authentic material, an excerpt from the book *Applied Linguistics* by Guy Cook (Oxford University Press, 2003) pp.15-16

Reading skills: back ground knowledge building vocabulary, understanding main idea, inference, and summarization.

Before Reading 15 minutes

Teacher asked them about their background knowledge and then shares ideas with them

1. The teacher asked students about the title and guessing what it will be about.

2. guessing the meaning of underlined words from context.

While-Reading 30 minutes

Students were asked to read the article silently. Meanwhile, the teacher monitored the class to help students with any difficulties that might arise.

Locating the main idea asked them to identify the topic of the a paragraph, remember that it should be general enough to cover the material the paragraph, but not so general that the label could apply to many paragraphs.

1. The teacher asked students to write the main idea of the paragraph

a. The term media typically conjures up images of computer-assisted instruction, instructional television , videocassette and CD/DVD recordings, and similar mechanized delivery systems. However, instructional media also include the teacher's voice, printed text, and real objects-in short, any physical means that communicates an instructional message (Gagne&Briggs,1979; Reiser&Gagne,1983).

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b. The typical approach to media selection is to choose a media form and then plan the instruction. However, this approach is deficient in two ways. First, research on media utilization indicates that no one medium is universally superior to all others for every type of learning out come for all learners (Gagne et al., 1988,p.204).Therefore, to choose arbitrarily a computer, television, or some other medium for a lesson is to ignore factors such as learner characteristics and task variables that can influence the effectiveness of a particular delivery system.

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Second, the arbitrary selection of media can result in the omission of essential instructional events. A film or audiotape, for instance, may provide content but exclude instructional events such as providing learning guidance or pauses with a few notable exceptions, many of the computer materials developed for the public school classroom are inadequate examples of instruction.

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c. The media selection model is useful for expanding one's thinking about the various types of media for instruction will be replicated several times with similar groups of students.

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2. Are the following statements true or false? Circle the correct answer.

a. The typical approach to media selection is to the choose instruction then plan the media.   T F

b. First, research on media utilization indicates that no one media is universally superior to all others for every type of learning outcome for all learners. T   F

c. The computer materials for the public school classroom are adequate examples of instruction. T F

d. All types of medium ignore factors such as learner characteristics and task variables that can influence the effectiveness of a particular delivery system. TF

Post-reading 35 minutes

Inference

The process of putting of information together so that they make sense is called making an inference. In other words, when you "infer" something, you are drawing an unstated conclusion from the information that you already have.

1. Teacher asked students to underline the clues first to help them to make a logical inference.

a. An interactive videodiscs can provide instruction on intellectual skills and cognitive strategies.

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2. The teacher asked students to re write sentences in their own words.

3. The teacher asked students to write a summary, students asked to go back to the text.

Lesson Plan 3: Control Group

The Role of Media in Instruction

Time: 80 minutes

Note: this an authentic material, an excerpt from the book *Applied Linguistics* by Guy Cook (Oxford University Press, 2003) pp.15-16

Reading skills: understanding text, building vocabulary, rewriting sentences.

Multiple choices question is to understand information in the text.

A. Choose the correct answer.

Building vocabulary substitution (synonyms) they may use different words or phrases to name the same thing. It is important to remember that two different words can refer the same thing.

B. Substitute the underlined words from the words of the box have almost the same meaning

Write sentences help students to improve their writing skill

C. Ask them to write sentences of your own using the words from the box.

True and false information

E. Students were asked to mark some sentences as being true or false.

Lesson Plan 4: Experimental Group

The Punishment

Time: 80mintues

Note: this an authentic material, an excerpt from the book *Second Language Acquisition* by Rod Ellis (Oxford University Press, 1997) pp 33-34.

Reading skills: building vocabulary, understanding main idea, inference, and summarization

Before Reading: 15 minutes

1. Whole class: The teacher drew students, the lesson focus, content, reading skills, and then the teacher asked them to guess the content.   2.Then in pairs students were asked to discuss and answer the following questions:
a. When you were younger and did something wrong, how did your parents usually punish you ?
b. Did the punishment lead you to improve, or did you make the mistakes again?
c. What do you expect the article to say about punishment?
2. guessing the meaning of underlined words from context.

While-reading 30 minutes

Students were asked to read the article silently. Meanwhile, the teacher monitored the class to help students with any difficulties that might arise.

1. Write the main idea of the paragraphs.
   a. The term punishment, like many commonly used words, is associated with a variety of meanings. Typically, punishment is viewed as imposing unwanted consequences on the individual to stop a particular behaviour.

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b. Behavior may be punished in either of two ways. One form of punishment is the removals of a positive reinforce(Skinner, 1953, 1968b). Withdrawing the privilege of watching television is an example. The other form of punishment is the addition of negative reinforcer to a situation. Examples include being sent to one's room and writing 50 times "I will not talk in class".

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c. The major shortcoming associated with punishment, however, is that it does not generate positive behaviors (Skinner,1953, 1968b).Interest in school work does not result from the punishment of indifferences(Skinner,1968,p.149). Similarly, students do not learn correct speech by being punished for bad grammar.

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d. If punishment should not be used, then what are some alternatives? First, avoid the conditions that make punishment necessary. For example, punishing students for shouting out in class can be avoided by eliminating events that ask for call-out behaviors such as, "who has their homework done"? Also, lessons with purpose that move briskly with clear signals to students leave few opportunities formisbehavior. Interruptions and confusion resulting from missing props, unclear directions, false starts, and backtracking do not occur.

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2. Are the following statements true or false. Circle the correct answer.

a. Both punishment and negative reinforcement are similar. T   F

b. Punishment suppresses bad behavior.   T   F

c. Punishment does not create positive behavior.   T   F

d. There are some alternatives instead of punishment.　　　　T　　　F

Post-reading 35 minutes

Inference

The process of putting of information together so that they make sense is called making an inference. In other words, when you "infer" something, you are drawing an unstated conclusion from the information that you already have.

3. The teacher asked students to underline the clues first to help them to make a logical inference.

a. The major shortcoming associated with punishment, however, is that it does not generate positive.

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4. The teacher asked students to re write sentences in their own words.
5. The teacher asked students to write a summary, students asked to go back to the text.

<h1 align="center">Lesson Plan 4: Control Group</h1>

<h2 align="center">The Punishment</h2>

Time: an hour and half

Note: this is an authentic material, an excerpt from the book *Second Language Acquisition* by Rod Ellis (Oxford University Press, 1997) pp 33-34.

Reading skills: understanding text ,building vocabulary, rewriting sentences.

Multiple choices question is to understand information in the text.

A. Choose the correct answer.

Building vocabulary substitution (synonyms) they may use different words or phrases to name the same thing. It is important to remember that even though two different words to refer the same thing.

B. Substitute the underlined words from the words of the box have almost the same meaning

Write sentence help them to improve their writing skill

C. Ask them to write sentences of your own using the words from the box.

True and false information

Students were asked to mark some sentences as being true and false.

<h2 align="center">The lesson plan 5: Experimental Group</h2>

<h2 align="center">The goals of SLA</h2>

Time: 80mintues

Note: this is an authentic material, an excerpt from the book Second Language Acquisition by Rod Ellis (Oxford University Press, 1997) pp 33-34.

Reading skills: building vocabulary, understanding main idea, inference, and

summarization

Before reading: 15 minutes

Whole class: The teacher drew students, the lesson focus, content, reading skills, and then the teacher asked them to guess the content. Then in pairs students were asked to discuss the following questions.

a. Answer the following questions:
b. Which language is spoken by most people in the world?
c. Which language has the largest vocabulary?
   1. Of the following countries, China, India, Indonesia, and the United States.
   2. Which has the largest number of native speakers of English?
      guessing the meaning of underlined words from context.

While-reading :30 minutes

Students were asked to read the article silently. Meanwhile, the teacher monitored the class to help students with any difficulties that might arise.

1. Write the main idea of the paragraphs.
   a. One of the external factors is the social milieu in which learning takes place. Social conditions influence the opportunities that learners have to hear and speak the language and the attitudes that they develop towards it. For example, it is one thing to learn a language when you respect and are respected by native speakers of that language. It is entirely different when you experience hostility from native speakers or when you wish to distance yourself from them.

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   b. Another external factor is the input that learners receive, that is, the samples of language to which a learner is exposed. Language learning cannot occur without some input question of considerable inters is what type of input facilities learning. For example, do learners benefit more from input that has

been simplified from them or from the authentic language of native –speaker communication?

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c. A final set of internal factors explain why learners vary in the rate they learn an L2 and how successful they ultimately are. For example, it has been suggested that people vary in their language aptitude (i.e. their natural disposition for learning an L2), some finding it easier than others.

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1. Are the following statements true or false? Circle the correct answer.

a. Learners learn second language by native speakers or authentic language of native speakers.   T   F

b. The focus is on vocabulary and pronunciation rather than grammar in learning second language.   T   F

c. One goals of SLA is explanation. T   F

d. The input in internal factor that learners receive. T F

Post-reading 35 minutes

Inference

The process of putting of information together so that they make sense is called making an inference. In other words, when you "infer" something, you are drawing an unstated conclusion from the information that you already have.

1. The teacher asked students to underline the clues first to help them to make a logical one

a. One of the external factors is the social milieu in which learning takes place. Social conditions influence the opportunities that learners have to hear and speak the language and the attitudes that they develop towards it. For example, it is one thing to learn a language when you respect and are respected by native speakers of that language. It is entirely different when you experience hostility from native speakers or when you wish to distance yourself from them.

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b. Another external factor is the input that learners receive, that is, the samples of language to which a learner is exposed. Language learning cannot occur without some input. question of considerable inters is what type of input facilities learning. For example, do learners benefit more from input that has been simplified from them or from the authentic language of native –speaker communication?

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c. A final set of internal factors explain why learners vary in the rate they learn an L2 and how successful they ultimately are. For example, it has been suggested that people vary in their language aptitude (i.e. their natural disposition for learning an L2), some finding it easier than others.

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2. The teacher asked students to rewrite sentences in their own words.
3. The teacher asked students to write a summary, and to go back to the text.

Lesson Plan 5: Control Group

The goals of SLA

Time: 80 minutes

Note: this is an authentic material, an excerpt from the book *Second Language Acquisition* by Rod Ellis (Oxford University Press, 1997) pp 33-34.

Reading skills: understanding text, building vocabulary, rewriting sentences.

multiple choices question is to understand information in the text.

A. Choose the correct answer.

Building vocabulary substitution (synonyms) they may use different words or phrases to name the same thing. It is important to remember that even though two different words to refer the same thing.

B. Substitute the underlined words from the words of the box have almost the same meaning

Write sentence help them to improve their writing skill

C. The teachers asked students to write sentences of your own using the words from the box.

D. True and false information Students were asked to read some sentences and mark Tor F.

Chapter Four

Presentation and Analysis of Data

4.1Introduction

A detailed analysis of the data obtained via pre-test and post- test is provided in this section. Of the various statistical calculations, the researcher employed the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science) software for the purpose of analyzing the attained numerical data.

4.2 Control Group

This section presents the data on the both pre- and post- tests for the Control Group.

Control Group		
Student	Pre-test Score	Post-test score
1	27	50
2	48	66
3	52	33
4	44	24
5	33	45
6	32	26
7	12	37
8	28	23
9	33	26
10	64	38
11	12	36
12	32	10
13	44	23
14	42	39
15	15	22
Test	-4.023	-4.741
P. value	0.001	0.000

As can be seen from the above table, there were no statistically significant differences between the pre-test scores and the post-test scores among the members of the control group. The statistical analysis revealed the following: pre-test t-test score= -4.023 (p value .001) with the post-test t-test score of -4.741 (p value .000).

These results demonstrated that the majority of this group remained at the same level. Only three out of fifteen students improved slightly whereas one improved significantly. As for the rest of the groups' level, it remained unchanged. Some students still had difficulties in summarizing the text even though they were provided clues to answer it.

4.3 Experimental Group

This section presents the data on pre- and post- tests for the Experimental Group.

Experimental Group		
Student	Pre-test score	Post-test score
E1	27	91
E2	32	72
E3	64	66
E4	64	65
E5	32	55
E6	48	55
E7	27	59
E8	56	52
E9	32	55
E10	40	51
E11	44	50
E12	24	66
E13	44	43
E14	16	49
E15	64	42
E16	64	24
Test	-2.519	1.604
p. value	0.024	0.130

Table 3 Experimental Groups

As can be seen from the above table, a statistically significant difference was obtained the pre- and post-test scores: pre-test -2.519 (p value 0.024) post-test 1.604 (p value 0.130). This statically significant difference between the scores illustrates a drastic change in students' performance in this group. Students' ability to comprehend the text in general has improved significantly. The same applied to students' ability to guess the meaning of words from context. There was also an improvement in students' ability to make a summary. Only one out of sixteen students' remained at the same level with no improvement. As the rest of the group, the level improvement with was highly significant, with a p values of .05.

4.4 Comparison of Control and Experimental Groups

This section presents the statistical analyses for both Control and Experimental Groups.

Students	Control Group Pre-test Score	Experimental Group Pre-test score
1	27	27
2	48	32
3	52	64
4	44	64
5	33	32
6	32	48
7	12	27
8	28	56
9	33	32
10	64	40
11	12	44
12	32	24
13	44	44
14	42	16
15	15	64
16	0	32
Test		-4.881
P .value		0.000

Table4 Pre-Test Scores For Both Groups

Table 4, which illustrates the pre-test scores for both groups, demonstrates no significant difference between the scores. This result confirmed that both groups began the research at the same basic level. In other words, there was similarity with the levels of ability among all the students at the start of the study.

Students	Control Group	Experimental Group
	Post –test Score	Post-test score
1	50	91
2	66	72
3	33	66
4	24	65
5	45	55
6	26	55
7	37	59
8	23	52
9	26	55
10	38	51
11	36	50
12	10	66
13	23	34
14	39	49
15	22	42
16	0	24
Test		-1.550
P .value		0.132

Table 5 Post-Test Scores For Both Groups

Table 5, which illustrates the post-test scores the post-test scores for both groups, demonstrates that there was a statistically significant difference between the scores (t-test= -1.550, p value 0.132).   This result confirms that the development of metacognitive skills among the numbers of the experimental group lead to their increased ability to comprehend academic texts. This section of chapter four seeks to provide answers to research questions posed at the out-set of this research.

5.4.1 Examination of the Research Questions.

This section of chapter four seeks to provide answers to research questions posed at the out-set of this research.

4.4.2 Research Question 1

Q. Do fourth semester English students face difficulty in comprehending an academic text?

A close analysis of students' pre-test results from both groups showed that where there were areas of difficulty, the two groups were similar. The majority of the students in both groups had difficulty in comprehend texts in general and in guessing the meaning of words from context. Some students seemed to have found choosing correct words from the box to put in a suitable place a difficult task to complete. In addition, the students in both groups on the pre-test found rewriting sentence, and summary writing to be a formidable task.

4.4.3 Research Question 2

Q. What effect does the use of metacognitive strategies have on the comprehension of academic texts among fourth semester at the University of Benghazi?

The analysis of the post-test scores revealed statistically significant difference between the Control Group students and the Experimental Group students (See Table 5 on page66). This results confirms the efficacy of metacognitive reading skills training such as understanding, predicting, inferring, etc. Predicting helped the experimental students activate their background knowledge, as they will have to utilize their prior knowledge of the text topic in order to be able to create a good prediction of the text content. In addition, inference helped students to draw the unstated ideas from the information that they already have. Summarizing helped the students to be able to distinguish the ideas in the passage and summarize them into an appropriate organizational pattern. Metacognitive reading strategies enhanced their reading ability and led to greater comprehension of the texts.

Chapter Five

Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

This study was conducted in order to investigate the questions made by the research, which stated that fostering students' reading comprehension skills can be achieved through the use of metacognitive reading strategies. In other words, the researcher wanted to examine the effect of metacognitive reading strategy training on the enhancement of comprehension. Hence, the researcher administered the pre-test at the outset of this study on thirty-one students. After the pre-test, the researcher, chose sixteen volunteer students to participate in the experimental group whereas the other fifteen volunteer made up the control group who were taught traditional reading. Both groups attended weekly classes for a period of five weeks. The experimental group received training in metacognitive skills. Finally, the two groups were given a post-test to measure students' progress in both cases.

The data was collected and analyzed for the purpose of answering the research questions posed in chapter one.

Therefore, it can be concluded that metacognitive strategy training led to improvement in 4th semester English students' comprehension of academic texts. The focus and effort made by the researcher in the pre-reading stage in order to prepare students for the reading and to encourage them to interact with one another helped them to interact in reading and had a considerably positive effect on improving their ability to comprehend the text that were exposed to. In the same respect, the fact the researcher used the post-reading stage to integrate students' previous background with information that they learned from the reading contributed to the students' progress in general.

5.2 Recommendations

Having reached the previous conclusion, the researcher strongly recommends the following:

1. Metacognitve reading strategies should be part of pre/while/after you reading activities. They include planning, summarizing, inferring meaning, etc. These strategies should be adopted by teachers giving reading comprehension instruction in the English Department at the Benghazi University.

2. Teachers of reading should give substantial effort and time into planning their lessons, focusing mainly on the pre-reading stage since this stage is the most significant in making the reading task more accessible to the students encouraging them and motivate them to read.

3. Teachers should include as many group discussions as possible because it makes the lesson more enjoyable for both the teacher and the students. It is thought-provoking and makes students learn much faster and better while at the same time it makes them learn a lot and from each other and from the teacher.

4. Teachers should focus on the after reading or summary writing stage of the reading lesson, otherwise the benefit that the students gained from the before and while reading stage will not be completed. The last stage, according to the researcher , gives useful closure to the lesson. Students feel that they achieved something and it incorporates what they learn in the lesson to their previous knowledge in a structured manner.

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Appendix A

Pre-test of both groups

Money

The good life?

How much money do you need to be happy? For many ,the answer to this question is simple: 'More' Despite paying lip service to the notion that money and materials things are secondary to family ,love, and friends ,people all around the world still pursue money as if it is the only thing that can make them happy. Everyone seems to be working hard errand harder for more money at the expense of spending time with their families. People are spending more than ever before, and falling deeper and deeper into debt each year. We want bigger homes in better neighbour hoods, the latest cars, and bigger wide-screen TVs. It is the good life,and everyone is clamouring to get it. But does having and spending a lot money really make us happier?

Researchers have been interested for a long time in the link between income and happiness. Some conclude that once you have enough money to meet basic needs, such as food and shelter, having more money does little to help your happiness and general satisfaction with life. As a matter of fact, a recent study of 1,000people in the United States found that those whose monthly income was $4,000.

In the West and Asia, people own more and spend more than their parents' generation ,yet some researchers claim that overall levels of happiness have remained even. While North Americans have twice as much spending power as they did in the 1950s, today they are ten times more likely to be depressed. Japan and Korea have become some of the wealthiest countries in the world, but they also have third and fourth highest rates of poverty often have the lowest rates of suicide respectively ,while countries with some of the highest rates of poverty often have the lowest rates of suicide. People are beginning to question the belief that wealth really makes our lives better. Indeed, the blind pursuit of being rich and consuming more and more products may actually do the reserve.

Why do more money and more things fail to make us happier? The problem is that is we quickly get used to having more money and new things. Initially, we may feel euphoric when we get that bigger house or a new car, but we soon get used to having it, and then it does not seem so special any more. And when we hear that our friends or relatives now have bigger houses and newer cars, we become dissatisfied with what we have.

Indeed, money may be more effective in making us unhappy, rather than the other way around. An increase in salary may only produce temporary happiness, but getting a decrease in salary can adversely affect in salary can adversely affect happiness in the long term. we become used to a certain level of sociological researcher Glenn Firebaugh claims that it is not just a question of having or not having a lot of money. The key factor is whether or not you have a lot of money compared to those around you. People can be quite satisfied with their salaries, forexample, until they find out that their peers earn more. The desire as those around us(or keeping up with Joneses, as the common expression goes) turns life into a never-ending competition. Says Firebaugh, Rather than promoting overall happiness, continued income growth could promote an ongoing consumption race in which individual consume more and more, just   to   maintain a constant level of happiness.

Sociologistalso point out that to earn a large amount of money we often have to sacrifice the things that really make us happy. Strong relationships, such as a loving family, a strong marriage and good friends are a among the most powerful predictors of happiness and satisfaction with life. Simply finding what you love to do and having time to do it is also a key factor. In the most cases, the amount of money earn little effect on these things and quite often requires us to actually spend less time doing what really makes us happy. High-paying jobs tend to be very demanding, and can leave people with little energy for loved ones and hobbies.

So what place should money in your life? This is entirely up to you, but consider what you would like to say when you look back on your life in your retirement. My marriage broke down, my children are strangers to me, and I usually felt miserable and stressed due to my high-powered job, but I drove the best car in the neighboured! Is that really what life is all about?

Answer the following questions

A. Are the following statements true or false? Circle the correct answer.
1. In the West and in Asia, people own more and spend more than their parents'generation.   T   F
2. As a matter of fact, a recent study of 1,000people in the united states found that those earning $1,000or less month were slightly sad than those whose monthly income was above $4,000.   T   F
3. Countries with some of the highest rates of poverty often have the lowest rates of suicide.   T   F
4. People can be quite satisfied with their salaries, even their peers earn more.   T   F

5. Sociologists also point out that to earn a large amount of money we often have to sacrifice the things that really make us happy.   T   F

B. Each sentence in the summary has one mistake. Underline the mistakes.

- Researchers have been interested for a long time in the link between income and salary.
- However, in Asia and the United States, even though people today have more money, the levels of happiness are lower than before and level of depression have greatlyincreased.
- Generally, earning more money and buying new things helps one become happier only in the long term
- One researcher found that earning less money than others you compare yourself with has a positive effect on your happiness
- Finally, researchers claim that well-paid jobs usually give you more time to be with your loved ones.
- In conclusion, the author infers that at the end of your life, good relationships with your family are less important than the things you owned.

C. Choose the correct answer
1. In line 2, what does the expression *paying lip service* to mean?
a. People often say money is more important than family, friends, and love.
b. People say money is not that important, but pay for a lot of services that they link will make them happy.
c. People might say family, friends, and love are the most important things in their lives, but they behave as though money is the most important thing.

2. Which is the best the paraphrase of lines 5-7?
a. People work harder because it is expensive to do things with families
b. People work harder for more money, but this results in less time to spend with their families.
c. People want to spend more time with families, so they work harder.

3. In lines 20-21, overall levels happiness have remained even means.
a. The percentage of happy people has neither increased or decreased.
b. The number of happy people is still fair and appropriate.
c. The number of people who are happy is not odd number.

4. What is the best paraphrase of lines 23-26.
a. Japan has the third highest suicide rate in the world and Korea has fourth.
b. B .Koreahas the third highest suicide rate in the world and Japan has fourth.
c. Both of a and b.

5. Why do sociologists point out that to earn large amount of money we often have to give up things that make us happy?
a. They spend much money with their family.
b. They sacrifice a loving family, a strong marriage and good friends.
c. They satisfied with their work other than their families.

6. What is the best paraphrase of lines 37-38?
a. Money can make us unhappy in ways we do not expect.
b. Money might have more power to make us unhappy than to make us happy
c. Money might make us feel unhappy and lost.

7. What is the ongoing consumption rate that is described in lines 52-53.
a. People continually compete with others to buy more and more products , just so they can remain satisfied.
b. A situation in which people buy more and more things ,thus increase their level of happiness continually.
c. A situation in which business encourage people to buy products, thereby keeping the economy the economy strong and more happy.

8. What does the phrase up to you lines 65-66 mean?
a. It is out of your control.
b. It is unknown to you.
c. It is your choices.

9. In line 28, what does blind pursuit mean?
a. Trying to get something without really understanding why you want it.
b. Trying to get something, but you do not know how to do it.
c. Trying to get something that you cannot see.

10. Researchers have been interested for a long time in the link between income and happiness why.
a. Because a high income gives them good shelter ,food, and happiness.
b. Because a high income make you work and work more.
c. Because happiness make you happy without income.

11. What is the tone of the writer at the end.
a. Happy
b. Miserable.
c. Comfortable.

D. Complete the sentences with words in the box.

Sacrifice Wealth Debt Temporary Logically Satisfied Earn Income

1. Have you ever borrowed money and fallen into——————

2. Do you believe that money can bring lasting happiness or is it just —————————

3. Having money is great, but would you choose——————before love?

4. What would you never——————just for more money :family ,friends, free time, or true love?

5. When it comes to love ,do you emotionally or——————

6. Have you ever had a part –time job? how much money did you——————

7. Would you be——————with your life if you never a lot of money? or would you always feel disappointed.

8. What kind of job gives a ——————high, but also allows you a lot of free time?

E. Write five sentences of you own using the words in the previous box

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix B

Materials for control groups of five lessons

Lesson 1 : Description versus prescription

Schools are a good barometer of both language use and social values, and their approach to teaching the national language or languages, which is much the same all over the world, arises from two interesting facts. The first fact is that language- any language- is subject to enormous variation. There are differences between individual, social groups, generations, and nations, and language is used differently in speech and writing, and in formal and informal situations. The second fact is that many people are intolerant of this variation. The struggle for a single 'standard' way of using the language and care very deeply about achieving this norm. This is why there is general support for schools in their attempt to teach a standard form of language to all pupils, and why many people get so hot under the collar about anything they perceive as incorrect, whether it be the 'dropping' of h at the beginning of words, failure to distinguish 'who' from 'whom', or the use of new words such as 'flammable' for 'inflammable'. Objections to such language can be very strong, and low personal morals are often imputed to its perpetrators. Incorrect language is seldom seen as just different, but is typically described as 'wrong', 'lazy', slovenly'. 'degenerate', 'dirty', 'illogical' , or 'corrupt'. Yet while there is general agreement over the need for a standard and the need to preserve standards- the two words are, of course, related- there is often disagreement over the details, and when this happens there can be some very bitter arguments indeed. For example, should 'all right' be written as two words, as it used to be taught, or as a single 'alright', as it is often taught now?

Given the depth of feeling which such apparently trivial differences can arouse, applied linguistics needs to approach such debates with both caution and respect. If it is need to approach the people who are in the thick of decision making about which forms are acceptable in which contexts, then a major task is not only to understand the nature of variation in the system itself, but also why this variation can be such an emotive issue.

Where in such cases of disagreement over usage can people appeal for authority? One obvious answer might be to linguistics, the academic discipline charged with the study of language. There, surely decisive and authoritative judgments can be found? However, the response of academic linguists to this general public concern for correctness has only the added fuel to the fire, uniting the advocates of both 'all right and 'al right in a common cause! For they have generally argued, not for one side or the other, but that all variants are equally valid simply by virtue of the fact that they occur, and that no one form in any more or less correct than another. As in the natural sciences, they argue , the task is not evaluate but to describe and explain. A botanist, for example, should describe and explain the facts about the plants, not tell you which plants are the most beautiful.

Thus linguists tend to favor description (saying what does happen) prescription (saying what ought to happen) and argue that, from a linguistics point of view, the standard is neither superior no more stable than any other variety.

A. choose the correct answer.

1. why schools are a good barometer of language use and social values?
a. No one form in any more or less correct than another.
b. Any language is subject to enormous variation.
c. There are no differences between individual and social groups.

2. In line 18 the word "intolerant" means:
a. Unacceptable behavior.
b. Unpredictable behavior
c. Useful behavior.

3. In line 13 the word "moral" means:
a. Relating to norms.
b. Relating to ethics.
c. Relating to rules.

4. In line the 6 the word "variation" means:
a. Being the same.

b. Being different.

c. Being equal.

5. In line4 "enormous" mean:

a. Huge.

b. Big.

c. Much.

6. The pronoun "they" in line 26 refers to:

a. Variation.

b. Social groups.

c. People.

7. In line 28 the word botanist mean:

a. A specialist in history.

b. A specialist in biology.

c. A specialist in planets.

B. substitute the underlined words, from the words, of the box have almost the same meaning

ethics   dispute   impatient   different   norms

1. The second fact is that many people are <u>intolerant</u> of this variation. ——————————

2. Objections to such language can be very strong, and low personal <u>morals</u> are often imputed to its perpetrators. ——————————

3. The first fact is that language- any language- is subject to enormous <u>variation</u>. —————————

4. Where in such cases of <u>disagreement</u> over usage can people appeal of authority. —————————

C. Write sentences of you own using the words in the previous box

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

D. Are the following statements true or false? Circle the correct answer.

e. Both home and school are different in learning children's language.   T   F

f. All variants are equally valid simply by virtue the fact that they occur,
   and that no one form is more or less correct than the other.   T   F

g. some forms in grammar in some dialect are improper and illogical.   T   F

h. description is what ought to happen, whereas prescription saying
   what happens.   T   F

Appendix C

Materials for an experimental group of five lessons

Lesson 1 : Description versus prescription

Pre- Reading tasks

1. What do you think are the aims of description and prescription?
   _____
   _____

2. What do you think the differences are between description and prescription ?
   _____
   _____

3. Match the words to their definitions ?

a. Discipline   ─Not agreeing with something.

b. Disagreement   ─A person who studies plants.

c. Explain   ─The amount of by which the money you received is less than money you have spent.

d. description   ─Make something clearer.

e. Botanist   ─Something that one says or writes that tells about something or someone.

f. Deficits   ─The practice of making people obey rules and orders.

g. Variation   ─The quality of not being the same.

4. What do you think the underlined word mean? circle the correct one.

a. Objections to such language can be very strong ,and low personal <u>morals</u> are often imputed to its perpetrators.

1. Relating to norms.
2. Relating to ethics.
3. Relating to rules.

b. The second fact is that many people are <u>intolerant</u> of this variation.
1. Something that is unaccepted.
2. Something is unpredictable.
3. Something is unusual.

c. The educational <u>sociologist</u> Basil Bernstein ,that some social-class variations indicates not only differences but deficits.
1. An expert in biology.
2. An expert in history.
3. An expert in society.

5. Complete the following sentences with suitable words from the box

> lingua franca   linguistics   dialects   language use   standard

a. The chief aim of linguistic prescription is to specify——————language form in a way that is easily taught and learned.
b. Standardized languages are useful for inter-regional communication, allowing speaker of divergent——————to understand language use.
c. Linguistic prescription is the practice of elevating one variety or manner of ——————over another.
d. The normative practices may address such——————Aspects as spelling, grammar, semantics, pronunciation, and syntax.

Description versus prescription:

Schools are a good barometer of both language use and social values, and their approach to teaching the national language or languages, which is much the same all over the world, arises from two interesting facts. The first fact is that language- any language- is subject to enormous variation. There are differences between individual, social groups, generations, and nations, and language is used differently in speech and writing, and in formal and informal situations. The second fact is that many people are intolerant of this variation. The struggle for a single 'standard' way of using the language and care very deeply about achieving this norm. This is why there is general support for schools in their attempt to teach a standard form of language to all pupils, and why many people get so hot under the collar about anything they perceive as incorrect, whether it be the 'dropping' of h at the beginning of words, failure to distinguish 'who' from 'whom', or the use of new word such as 'flammable' for 'inflammable'. Objections to such language can be very strong, and low personal morals are often imputed to its perpetrators. Incorrect language is seldom seen as just different, but is typically described as 'wrong', 'lazy', slovenly'. 'degenerate', 'dirty', 'illogical' , or 'corrupt'. Yet while there is general agreement over the need for a standard and the need to preserve standards- the two words are, of course, related- there is often disagreement over the details, and when this happens there can be some very bitter arguments indeed. For example, should 'all right' be written as two words, as it used to be taught, or as a single 'alright', as it is often taught now?

Given the depth of feeling which such apparently trivial differences can arouse, applied linguistics needs to approach such debates with both caution and respect. If it is need to approach the people who are in the thick of decision making about which forms are acceptable in which contexts, then a major task is not only to understand the nature of variation in the system itself, but also why this variation can be such an emotive issue.

Where in such cases of disagreement over usage can people appeal for authority? One obvious answer might be to linguistics, the academic discipline charged with the study of language. There, surly decisive and authoritative judgments can be found? However, the response of academic linguists to this general public concern for correctness has only the added fuel to the fir, uniting the advocates of both 'all right

and 'al right in a common cause! For they have generally argued, not for one side or the other, but that all variants are equally valid simply by virtue of the fact that they occur, and that no one form in any more or less correct than another. As in the natural sciences, they argue , the task is not evaluate but to describe and explain. A botanist, for example, should describe and explain the facts about the plants, not tell you which plants are the most beautiful.

Thus linguists tend to favor description (saying what does happen) prescription (saying what ought to happen) and argue that, from a linguistics point of view, the standard is neither superior no more stable than any other variety.

While you read

1. Write the main idea of the following paragraphs.
a. Schools are a good barometer of both language use and social values, and their approach to teaching the national language or languages, which is much the same all over the world, arises from two interesting facts. The first fact is that language- any language- is subject to enormous variation. There are differences between individual, social groups, generations, and nations, and language is used differently in speech and writing, and in formal and informal situations. The second fact is that many people are intolerant of this variation.
   _____
   _____
   _____

b. Thus linguists tend to favor description (saying what does happen) prescription (saying what ought to happen) and argue that, from a linguistics point of view, the standard is neither superior no more stable than any other variety.
   _____
   _____
   _____

Post-reading tasks.

1. Study the facts from each situation. Underline the clues to help you make a logical inference.
a. There are differences between individual, social groups, generations, and nations, and language is used differently in speech and writing, and in formal and informal situations. The second fact is that many people are intolerant of this variation.
   _____
   _____

b. For they have generally argued, not for one side or the other, but that all variants are equally valid simply by virtue of the fact that they occur, and that no one form in any more or less correct than another.

_____
_____
_____

2. Are the following statements true or false? Circle the correct answer.
i. Both home and school are different in learning children's language.　　T　　F
j. All variants are equally valid simply by virtue the fact that they occur, and that no one form is more or less correct than the other.　　T　　F
k. some forms in grammar in some dialect are improper and illogical.　T　　F
l. description is what ought to happen, whereas prescription saying what happens.　　T　　F

3. Rewrite the following sentences in your own words
a. The second fact is that a language is that many people are intolerant of this variation.

_____
_____
_____

But that all variants are equally valid simply by virtue of the fact that they occur, and that no one form in any more or less correct than another.

_____
_____

4. Write a brief summery about description and prescription?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Appendix D

Post test of both groups

Lesson 6 :Children's language at home and school

Pre-reading tasks

1. Answer the following questions.
a. At what age do you think it is best for children to start learning a foreign language such as English?

_____

_____

In the future, if you have children, what might you do for their language

education?

_____

_____

2. Match to the words to correct definitions.

a. Dialect — Something that makes speaking difficult.

b. Standard —All the people about the same age.

c. Impediment — Form of language that is spoken in one part of a country.

d. Norm —Very worried about something.

e. Anxious —Pattern of behavior that is accepted.

f. Variation —The values of civilized society.

g. Generations —The quality of not being the same.

3. What do you think the underlined mean? Circle the correct one.

a. Schools are good <u>barometer</u> of both language use and social values
   1. Something that indicates the state of something.
   2. Something that indicates the plan of something.
   3. Something that indicates the changes of something..

b. Parents - even the most anxious ones- are usually <u>indulgent</u> of such deviations.

1. Being able to do a lot of work.

2. Being able to do anything you want.

3. A high ability or skill to do anything.

c. They are the stuff of anecdotes and affectionate <u>memories</u> rather the serious concern.

1. Something that will happen in the future.

2. Something that is happening now.

3. Something remembered from the past.

d. Indeed, teaching children their own national language is, in many people view, synonymous with eliminating such <u>deviations</u>.

1. Something usual.

2. Something very different.

3. Something very special.

e. The second fact is that many people are <u>intolerant</u> of this variation. The struggle for a single 'standard' way of using the language and care very deeply about achieving this norm.

1. Believe something is unacceptable.

2. Believe something is unpredictable.

3. Believe something is useful.

4. Complete the sentences with the words in the box

capacity   motivation   consistent   wise   bilingual   delay
infants   native language

a. Good parents are——————with rules for their childern.The rules should generally stay the same, and not change according to the parents' mood.

b. Some parents worry if they—————————.English education for their child, the child will never be able to learn English well.

c. Some children living in US do not have any ——————————to learn a foreign language. They just cannot see why they should learn it.

d. Dr.Petitto claims that children have the——————————to learn even more than two languages perfectly.

e. It is generally not considered——————————to let very young children learn grammar. The results are usually not so good.

Children's language at home and school

As every parent knows, young children speak idiosyncratically. A child growing up in an English- speaking family, for example, might say "I brang it", even though everyone around them says "I brought it" to mean the same thing. Even when the child does say " I brought it", they may still not pronounce the words as adults do. They might, For example, say 'I bwort it ". Parents- even the most anxious ones- are usually indulgent of such deviations. They are the stuff of anecdotes and affectionate memories rather than the serious concern. It is clear, after all, what the child is saying, and most idiosyncrasies disappear of their own accord.

At school, however, the situation is very different. Here the child is expected, and taught, to use language 'correctly'. Not only are English-speaking children expected, and taught, to use language "correctly". Not only are English-speaking children expected to say the words "I brought it" clearly it clearly and properly pronounced, also to write them correctly spelt (or should that be spelled?) and punctuated. So not only
is " I brang it" wrong, but also, in writing, are "I brort it, and "I brought, it". Indeed, teaching children their own national language is, in many people's view, synonymous with eliminating such deviations. good deal of school time is spent on this task, and good deal of the child's educational success will depend upon the results.

In the case of pre-school "brang" or "bwort" there is little to be concerned about . In school, however, the issue of what counts as correct is much more complex. What of the child who, through some speech impediment, never does make the transition from "bwort" to brought" ? what of the child who pronounces "I brought it" in a regional

accent with an ah sound as "I brart it", or says" seen it" (instead of "I saw it"), not for some short-lived developmental reason, but because this is what their family and friends say too, as part of their dialect? What of the child who has recently moved to Britain from USA and says, as their parents do, " I 've gotten it" instead of " I have got it", and writes " color" instead of "color" ? should the teacher eliminate these dialectal and national variations, thus seeming to correct the parents as well? The voice of school and home are not always the same. To make matters more complex still, a third voice of the peer group- speaks ever louder and more persuasively as children grow older. They put "Ru" instead of "are you" in text messages; they give words different fashionable senses, invent new ones, and include slang or swear words of which the adults disapproves, even if they use them themselves.

Within the school context by far the most controversial aspect of this situation involves the relationship of the standard form of the language to dialects. The standard is generally used in written communication, taught in schools, and codified in dictionaries and grammar books. Dialects are regional and social-class varieties of the language which differ from the standard in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, and are seldom written down at all. The teaching of the standard can be viewed in two quite contradictory ways. On the one hand it can be seen as conferring an unfair advantage upon those children who already speak a variety close to it, while simultaneously denying the worth of dialects and damaging the heritage of those children who speak them. On the other hand, given that the standard exists, has prestige and power, and provides a gateway to written knowledge, it can be argued that teaching it helps to give an equal opportunity to all. In support of this latter view, there is no reason why children cannot grow up knowing both a dialect and the standard form, valuing both in different ways and using them appropriately according to context.

In educational theory, from 1960s onwards, this ongoing debate has been further aggravated and complicated by the claim, made by the educational sociologist Basil Bernstein, that some social-classes variations indicate not only differences but deficits. In Bernstein's view ,the language used some sections of the society is restricted code which lacks the full resources of the elaborated code of the standard. Not surprisingly, this view has been hotly contested by others who argue that all varieties are equal complex, functional, and expensive.

Schools are a good barometer of both language use and social values, and their approach to teaching the national language or languages, which is much the same all over the world, arises from two interesting facts. The first fact is that language- any language- is subject to enormous variation. There are differences between individual, social groups, generations, and nations, and language is used differently in speech and writing, and in formal and informal situations. The second fact is that many people are intolerant of this variation. The struggle for a single 'standard' way of using the language and care very deeply about achieving this norm. This is why there is general support for schools in their attempt to teach a standard form of language to all pupils, and why many people get so hot under the collar about anything they perceive as incorrect, whether it be the 'dropping' of h at the beginning of words, failure to distinguish 'who' from 'whom', or the use of new word such as 'flammable' for 'inflammable'. Objections to such language can be very strong, and low personal morals are often imputed to its perpetrators. Incorrect language is seldom seen as just different, but is typically described as 'wrong', 'lazy', slovenly'. 'degenerate', 'dirty', 'illogical' , or 'corrupt'. Yet while there is general agreement over the need for a standard and the need to preserve standards- the two words are, of course, related- there is often disagreement over the details, and when this happens there can be some very bitter arguments indeed. For example, should 'all right' be written as two words, as it used to be taught, or as a single 'alright', as it is often taught now?

Given the depth of feeling which such apparently trivial differences can arouse, applied linguistics needs to approach such debates with both caution and respect. If it is need to approach the people who are in the thick of decision making about which forms are acceptable in which contexts, then a major task is not only to understand the nature of variation in the system itself, but also why this variation can be such an emotive issue.

While reading task

1. Write the main idea of the following paragraphs
a. As every parent knows, young children speak idiosyncratically. A child growing up in an English speaking family, for example, might say "I brang it", even though everyone around them says "I brought it" to mean the same thing. Even when the

child does say " I brought it", they may still not pronounce the words as adults do. They might, For example, say 'I bwort it ". Parents- even the most anxious ones- are usually indulgent of such deviations.

_____

_____

_____

At school, however, the situation is very different. Here the child is expected, and taught, to use language 'correctly'. Not only are English-speaking children expected to say the words "I brought it" clearly it clearly and properly pronounced, also to write them correctly spelt (or should that be spelled?) and punctuated. So not only is " I brang it" wrong, but also, in writing, are "I brort it, and "I brought, it".

_____

_____

_____

b. The teaching of the standard can be viewed in two quite contradictory ways. On the one hand it can be seen as conferring an unfair advantage upon those children who already speak a variety close to it, while simultaneously denying the worth of dialects and damaging the heritage of those children who speak them. On the other hand, given that the standard exists, has prestige and power, and provides a gateway to written knowledge, it can be argued that teaching it helps to give an equal opportunity to all. In support of this latter view, there is no reason why children cannot grow up knowing both a dialect and that standard form, valuing both in different ways and using them appropriately according to context.

_____

_____

_____

Post-reading tasks.

1. Write on the lines what you infer from the sentence.
a. Parents- even the most anxious ones-are usually indulgent of such deviations.

_____

_____

b. Children cannot grow up knowing both a dialect and standard form, valuing both in different ways and using them appropriately according to context.

_____

_____

2. Are the following statement true or false? Circle the correct answer.

a. Both home and school are the same in learning children's language.   T   F

b. Dialects   is generally used in written communication ,taught in school, and codified   in   dictionaries   and   grammar   books. T F

c. In natural learning environments, younger children learn languages best.   T F

d. The language of children is different from dialect to another.   T   F

3. Rewrite the following sentences in your own words.

a. young children speak idiosyncratically.

_____

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b. language is subject to enormous variation.

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c. Parents –even the most anxious ones- are usually indulgent of such deviations.

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Write a brief summery about children's language at home and school

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ملخص الدراسة

تأثير استخدام استراتيجيات القراءة المعرفية في الفصل الرابع طلاب اللغة
الانجليزية في جامعة بنغازي

قدمت من قبل :

أسماء جابر عبد القادر ألحوتي

إشراف:

أ.د خديجة أبو عروش

هدفت هذه الدراسة إلى التحقق من أثر استخدام إستراتيجيات القراءة المعرفية لدى طلبة الفصل
الرابع.

الدراسة تحتوي على خمسة فصول؛ الفصل الأول هو خلفية للدراسة، نبذة عن استراتيجيات
القراءة المعرفية.

الفصل الثاني يحتوي على مراجعة الأدبيات ذات الصلة، وقد ألقت هذه الأدبيات الضوء على
ماهية القراءة المعرفية، و أهميتها في القراءة، وفي السياق نفسه مراجعة الأدبيات الحالية قد
حددت الإستراتيجيات القراءة المعرفية المختلفة التي يمكن تطبيقها لأجل تحسين استيعاب الطالب
للنص الذي سيدرسه.

الفصل الثالث يتناول جمع البيانات؛ أي الجانب العملي لهذه الدراسة، فقد استخدمت الباحثة
وسيلة للتحقيق "اختبار الطلاب"، حيث تم اختيار مجموعتين من طلبة الفصل الثالث
المتخصصين في اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة بنغازي، المجموعة التجريبية والمجموعة الضابطة.

وتمت الدراسة على ثلاث مراحل:

المرحلة الأولى: وهي مرحلة ما قبل الدراسة، حيث خضعت المجموعتان إلى اختبار تحديد
مستوى وقدرة الطالب على القراءة.

المرحلة الثانية: تم فيها تدريس المجموعتين، كل بطريقة مختلفة، المجموعة التجريبية درست استخدام إستراتيجيات القراءة المعرفية وتأثيرها علي القراءة الإنشائية، أما المجموعة الضابطة، فتم تدريسها باستخدام الطريقة التقليدية القائمة على قراءة النص، والإجابة على بعض الأسئلة الاستيعابية بشأنه.

أما المرحلة الثالثة، فقد خضعت فيها المجموعتان إلى اختبار ما بعد الدراسة، ثم جمعت البيانات لمعرفة مدى فعالية هذه الإستراتيجيات في تطوير مهارات القراءة لطلبة الفصل الرابع المتخصصين في دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية في جامعة بنغازي.

أما عن الفصل الرابع، فأظهر تحليل نتائج الاختبارات التي أجريت لطلاب المجموعتين، وتمخضت عن أنه لا يوجد فرق بين درجات الطلاب في الامتحان القبلي، بينما وجد اختلاف بين درجات طلاب المجموعتين في الامتحان ألبعدي، وذلك بمقارنة درجات الطلبة بوجود اختلافات كبيرة بين المجموعتين (المجموعة الضابطة والمجموعة التجريبية)؛ حيث إن المجموعة التجريبية سجلت درجات أعلى بكثير من المجموعة الضابطة.

وفي الفصل الخامس وهو الخاتمة و التوصيات، وفقا لهذه الدراسة، كان من الواضح أن تعليم الطلاب مادة القراءة باستخدام إستراتيجيات القراءة المعرفية، لدى طلبة الفصل الرابع.

تأثير استخدام استراتيجيات القراءة المعرفية في الفصل الرابع طلاب اللغة الانجليزية في جامعة بنغازي

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جامعة بنغازي

كليةألاداب

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