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**THE IMPACT OF STRATEGY
INSTRUCTION ON LEARNERS' USE OF
SPEAKING STRATEGIES**

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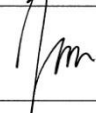
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SERTAÇ KESKİN tarafından hazırlanan **THE IMPACT OF STRATEGY INSTRUCTION ON LEARNERS' USE OF SPEAKING STRATEGIES** (Konuşma Stratejisi Geliştirmede Strateji Eğitiminin Etkisi) Konulu **YÜKSEK LİSANS** Tezinin Sınavı, Trakya Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim Yönetmeliği'nin 12.-13. maddeleri uyarınca **04.02.2013 pazartesi** günü saat **09.30'da** yapılmış olup, tezin***kabul edilmesine**..... **OYBİRLİĞİ** /~~OYÇOKLUĞU~~ ile karar verilmiştir.

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Başlık: Konuşma Stratejisi Geliştirmede Strateji Eğitiminin Etkisi

Yazar: Sertaç KESKİN

ÖZET

Bu tezin amacı strateji destekli eğitimin öğrencilerin öğrenme ve konuşma stratejilerini geliştirme üzerindeki etkisini ortaya çıkarmaktır. Deneysel araştırma modeli ile tasarlanmış bu çalışma strateji destekli eğitimin Trakya Üniversitesi Uygulamalı Bilimler Yüksekokulu Turizm İşletmeciliği ve Otelcilik bölümünde okuyan ikinci sınıf öğrencilerinin konuşma becerilerini geliştirme üzerindeki olası etkilerini araştırır. 62 öğrenci bu çalışmaya katılmıştır. Öğrenciler deney ve kontrol grubu olmak üzere ikiye ayrılmışlardır. Bu çalışma 2011/2012 akademik yılı bahar döneminde yürütülmüştür. Çalışma 14 haftadan oluşan dört saatlik İngilizce derslerinde ve iki saatlik konuşma aktivitelerini içeren ekstra bir İngilizce konuşma kulübünde yürütülmüştür. Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri (Oxford, 1990), strateji eğitiminden önce ve sonra strateji eğitiminin öğrencilerin dil öğrenme stratejileri kullanımı üzerindeki olası etkisini ortaya çıkarmak için uygulanmıştır. Konuşma sınavları öğrencilerin konuşma stratejileri kullanımında ne kadar ilerleme kaydettiklerini ve konuşma becerilerini geliştirip geliştirmediklerini ortaya çıkarmak için ön-son test şeklinde uygulanmışlardır. Elde edilen veriler SPSS 15.0 yoluyla istatistiki açıdan analiz edilmişlerdir. Sonuçlara göre, strateji destekli eğitimin deney grubu öğrencilerinin bellek, bilişsel, telafi ve sosyal stratejileri kullanımını geliştirmede olumlu bir etkisi olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Öte yandan, ön ve son test sonuçları temel alındığında, kontrol grubu öğrencileri arasında anlamlı bir değişiklik tespit edilmemiştir. Bunlara ek olarak, deney grubu öğrencileri konuşma stratejilerini kullanma miktarını ve kalitesini arttırdıkları gözlenmiştir. Ayrıca, deney grubu öğrencileri son konuşma testinde ön konuşma testine göre daha başarılı oldukları ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Benzer bir şekilde, son konuşma testinde deney grubu öğrencileri kontrol grubu öğrencilerine göre daha başarılı oldukları belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Öğrenme Stratejileri, İletişim Stratejileri, Strateji Destekli Eğitim

Title: The Impact of Strategy Instruction on Learners' Use of Speaking Strategies

Author: Sertaç KESKİN

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to find out the impact of strategy-based instruction on students' learning and communication strategies. This thesis, in which an experimental study was designed, explores the probable effects of the strategy-based instruction on promoting the achievement of students' speaking skills in the second grade students who study Tourism at the School of Applied Sciences at Trakya University. The participants of the study consisted of 62 students. The students were divided into two groups as experimental and control groups. The study was conducted in the spring term of the academic year of 2011-2012. The study was carried out four hours in regular classes and two hours for extra speaking activities each week for 14-week education period. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990) was administrated before and after the strategy implementation in order to reflect potential impact of strategy training on the students' learning strategy use. Pre and post oral tests were also conducted to reveal how much they progressed in using communication strategies as well as improving their speaking skills. The results were statistically analyzed through SPSS 15.0. According to the results, it was seen that the strategy-based instruction had a positive impact on promoting the experimental group students' memory, cognitive, compensation and social strategy use. On the contrary, no significant difference was found among the control group students based on the pre and post test results. In addition, the experimental group students increased the quantity and the quality of using communication strategies. Moreover, the experimental students were found to be more successful in the second oral test. Similarly, the experimental students were found to be more successful than the control group students in the second oral test.

Key Words: Learning Strategies, Communication Strategies, Strategy-based Instruction

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
TURKISH ABSTRACT	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
THE LIST OF TABLES	vii
THE LIST OF FIGURES	x
THE LIST OF APPENDICES	xi
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background to the study	1
1.1.1. Personality Traits	2
1.1.2. Learning Styles	3
1.1.3. Learning Strategies	3
1.2. The purpose of the study	5
1.3. The significance of study	6
1.4. Assumptions	7
1.5. Limitations of The Study	7
1.6. Definitions of Terms	8
1.7. Abbreviations	9
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	10
2.1. Learning a Language	10
2.2. Language Learning strategies	12
2.3. Classification of Language Learning Strategies	13
2.3.1. Rubin's (1987) Taxonomy	14
2.3.2. O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) Taxonomy	15
2.3.3. Oxford's (1990b) Taxonomy	16
2.3.4. Stern's (1992) Taxonomy	19
2.4. The Importance of Language Learning Strategies for Students	22
2.5. What strategies are preferable for communication?	24

2.6. Defining Communication Strategies	27
2.6.1. Problematicity	28
2.6.2. Consciousness	28
2.7. Taxonomies of Communication Strategies	29
2.7.1. Tarone's taxonomy (1977)	29
2.7.2. Bialystok's taxonomy (1983)	30
2.7.3. Poullisse's taxonomy (1993)	30
2.7.4. Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy (1995)	31
2.8. Strategy Use and Strategy Instruction	33
2.9. Studies on Communication Strategy Instruction	35
2.10. Factors Influencing the Choice of Learning Strategies	37
2.11. Assessing Learners' Use of Strategies	38
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	42
3.1. Research Design	42
3.2. Participants	43
3.3. The Statement of Problem	44
3.4. Research Questions	45
3.5. Instruments	45
3.6. Implementation Process	47
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION	58
4.1. The control group students' pre/post test results	58
4.2. The experimental group students' pre/post test results	59
4.2.1. Memory strategies use before and after the treatment	61
4.2.2. Cognitive strategies use before and after the treatment	64
4.2.3. Compensation strategies use before and after the treatment	68
4.2.4. Metacognitive strategies use before and after the treatment	71
4.2.5. Affective strategies use before and after the treatment	74
4.2.6. Social strategies use before and after the treatment	76
4.3. Strategy use differences regarding different variables	78
4.4. Strategy use rate of experimental group students	87
4.5. Comparison of the strategy use by the experimental and control group students	88

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION	89
5.1. The Students' Strategy Use Before and After the Strategy-based Instruction	89
5.1.1. Memory Strategies	90
5.1.2. Cognitive Strategies	91
5.1.3. Compensation Strategies	93
5.1.4. Metacognitive Strategies	95
5.1.5. Affective Strategies	97
5.1.6. Social Strategies	99
5.2. The Investigation of Other Potential Variables	103
5.3. The Impact of SBI on Students' Strategy Use	105
5.4. The Impact of SBI on the Students' Speaking Skills	110
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS	113
6.1. Conclusion	113
6.2. Suggestions	116
6.3. Limitations	117
REFERENCES	118
APPENDICES	132

THE LIST OF TABLES

Table 1:	Oxford's (1990b:17) Taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies	16
Table 2:	LLS taxonomies of Rubin (1997), O'Malley et al. (1990), Oxford (1990) and Stern (1992)	21
Table 3:	2011/2012 Spring Term – English IV – Course Content	48
Table 4:	Speaking Club – Course Programme	51
Table 5:	A sample Speaking Club activity layout – 12 th week.....	56
Table 6:	The t-test results of control group students' pre-test and post-test scores	58
Table 7:	The t-test results of experimental group students' pre-test and post-test scores	59
Table 8:	Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Memory Strategies	61
Table 9:	Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Memory Strategies	63
Table 10:	Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Cognitive Strategies	65
Table 11:	Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Cognitive Strategies	66
Table 12:	Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Compensation Strategies	69
Table 13:	Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Compensation Strategies	70

Table 14:	Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Metacognitive Strategies	71
Table 15:	Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Metacognitive Strategies	73
Table 16:	Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Affective Strategies	74
Table 17:	Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Affective Strategies	75
Table 18:	Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Social Strategies	77
Table 19:	Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Social Strategies	78
Table 20:	The Mann Whitney U test results of the students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding their gender	79
Table 21:	The t-test results of the students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding their age	80
Table 22:	The Kruskal Wallis test results of students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding their families' level of education	80

Table 23:	The Kruskal Wallis test results of students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding the high school that the participants graduated	82
Table 24:	The Mann Whitney U test results of students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding their state of having preparatory class or not	84
Table 25:	The Kruskal Wallis test results of students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding their state of achievement in English courses	85
Table 26:	The strategy use rate of experimental group students on pre and post speaking tests	87
Table 27:	The difference between the experimental group and control group regarding the strategy use rate on post speaking test	88
Table 28:	Speaking Pre-test and Post-test Results of Experimental Group Students	156
Table 29:	Speaking Post-test Results of Experimental and Control Group Students	157

THE LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1:	Gender Proportions	43
Figure 2:	Educational Backgrounds	43

THE LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1:	Tarone's Taxonomy (1977)	132
Appendix 2:	Bialystok's Taxonomy (1983)	133
Appendix 3:	Poulisse's Taxonomy (1993)	134
Appendix 4:	Dornyei and Scott's Taxonomy (1995a, 1995b) - Strategic Language Devices	136
Appendix 5:	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)	141
Appendix 6:	Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri	146
Appendix 7:	Strategy Check List	150
Appendix 8:	Speaking English Community – The Students' Self-reflection Reports (logs)	154
Appendix 9:	A sample Student Log	155
Appendix 10:	Table 28: Speaking Pre-test and Post-test Results of Experimental Group Students	157
Appendix 11:	Table 29: Speaking Post-test Results of Experimental and Control Group Students	158

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

The global revisions on the life of societies; revisions on the politics, economics, international relations and education etc., have changed the overall aim of language teaching significantly. In the new society, global communication has been structured as the main concern of the people. This new expectation from individuals – to express themselves orally and effectively - has led people to question the role of learning and teaching of a foreign language. Learning the alphabet and improving isolated skills such as reading and writing may not be enough for the globalised societies. People are now expected to get in contact with other nationalities not only in a written way but also by using oral skills. Now, it was time to consider the role of techniques and methodologies in language education. The new approaches and tendencies towards learning and teaching a foreign language have shifted the role of instructors dramatically. It has been a highly accepted notion that learners have been placed in a more centralized role in the learning process. This shifted role has fostered the new studies to adapt the learning processes to the new conditions.

Some researchers, from the early 1970s, have been seeking the best and the most suitable teaching methods, techniques, and instructional materials that will improve the quality of language teaching. According to Anderson (2005), it was typically assumed that if the teacher follows the steps outlined by a methodology, the

effective in-class language learning can be provided. Anderson (2005) adds that “methodologies often assume that everyone learns the same way” (p:758). However, individual learners approach a language differently and it would be good idea to go deeper the learner psychology and mentality. Because of numerous individual differences such as gender, age, social status, motivation, attitude, aptitude, culture, etc. one single method may work for one but not the other (Oxford, 1993; Nunan, 1991). Therefore, none of the methods and techniques has proved that they can work all the time, in all classes, with all students. Grenfell and Harris (1999) state that “Methodology alone can never be a solution to language learning; rather it is an aid and suggestion” (p. 10).

This conclusion forced some people in the field to focus more on the individuals and their differences that affect the language learning. Thanks to the new approach, the number of studies carried out regarding learner characteristics has increased dramatically. Researchers have mainly concerned with that successful learners might be using special techniques differing from those of less successful learners. It was one of the main questions that are required to be fulfilled; what makes a good language learner? The studies in the mid-1970s have indicated that proficient language learners tend to share same behaviour for learning a language (Rubin; 1975, Wong-Fillmore; 1979). However, there may be many characteristics that can influence the success of language learning. Sewell (2003) classifies these characteristics into three parts; personality traits, learning styles and learning strategies.

1.1.1. Personality Traits

There may be various kinds of personality traits ranging from being willing to take risks, having high self esteem and being inquisitive (Rubin; 1975, Ellis and Sinclair; 1989 in Willis 2001:158).

Motivation and a positive attitude have also been correlated with language acquisition (Gardner, 1985). However, it is still unclear that there has been a significant correlation between attitude, motivation, and successful language

learning. Gardner (1979 in Larson-Freeman and Long 1991:175) suggests that attitude affects motivation and subsequent acquisition. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggest that motivation research has failed to adequately separate motivation and attitude (P:501). Lightbown and Spada point out that "If the speaker's only reason for learning the second language is external pressure, internal motivation may be minimal and general attitudes toward learning may be negative" (1999:56).

Another personality trait that can influence the success of learners is being extrovert or introvert. Unlike the common view claiming that extroverts learn quicker than introvert, Brown (2000) claims that 'It is reasonable to suggest that extroversion may facilitate the learning of spoken English, but that introverts have more patience and thus may excel in areas of pronunciation, reading, and writing' (155-6).

1.1.2. Learning Styles

Learning styles can be defined as simply various ways of learning. Though most people learn through a combination of the different learning styles, everyone has probably a preferred style that works the best for them. Felder & Henriques (1995) define learning styles as "the ways in which an individual acquires, retains and retrieves information collectively termed as learning style" (p:21). It is important to understand one's own learning style so that she can cater to her own distinct learning needs; it is also very important to understand the learning styles of others when teaching or working with them. Identifying the learning style of oneself and others can help the learners and teachers capitalize on strengths and improve weaknesses.

1.1.3. Learning Strategies

Learners follow some specific tactics to accomplish the targets. This observation has led the researchers to focus on those strategies. The investigation on the learning strategies has become one of the most popular aspects that the researchers in the field focalised. Together with learning strategies, learning styles are among the main factors that help determine how –and how well –our students

learn a second or foreign language (Oxford, 2003). Learning styles are the general approaches –for example, global or analytic, auditory or visual –that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject (Oxford, 2003). Learning strategies are described as the indicators of the process of information conducted by the learners. In this sense, learning strategies can be conceived as tactics employed by learners (Ögeyik, 2009, p: 9).

In various fields of education, various strategies are used by learners. Within second language or foreign language education, learning strategies are defined as attempts and thoughts/behaviours used by learners to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in target language and to comprehend, learn or retain new information (Tarone, 1983; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

Language learning strategies are good indicators of how learners approach tasks or problems encountered during the process of language learning (Hismanoglu, 2000). That is to say, learning strategies give clear clues to the teachers who would like to follow the tactic used by the learners. Many students' ability to learn has been increased through the deliberate teaching of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. To increase L2 proficiency, some researchers and teachers have provided instruction that helped students learn how to use more relevant and more powerful learning strategies (Oxford, 2003). Cohen et al. (1996) explain the ultimate aim of the strategy instruction;

The goal of this kind of instruction is to help foreign language students become more aware of the ways in which they learn most effectively, ways in which they can enhance their own comprehension and production of the target language, and ways in which they can continue to learn on their own and communicate in the target language after they leave the language classroom. In other words, strategies-based instruction aims to assist learners in becoming more responsible for their efforts in learning and using the target language. It also aims to assist them in becoming more

effective learners by allowing them to individualize the language learning experience (pg. 6).

Strategy instruction supplies students with the same tools and techniques that efficient learners use to understand and learn new material or skills. With continued guidance and opportunities for practice, students learn to integrate new information with what they already know, in a way that makes it easier for them to recall the information or skill at a later time, even in a different situation or setting. Learners become more aware of optional or alternative ways to approach a learning task and they know there's more than one right way to do things. They acknowledge their mistakes and try to rectify them as well.

Despite being in the centre of the researches, learning strategies were not the only aspect that is to be investigated. Some other variables such as gender, motivation, national origin, learning background, learning styles, attitudes etc. have been taken into consideration as well. In many studies in the field, those elements have been included as potential variables that are thought to be important.

1.2. The Purpose of the Study

This thesis study aims to find out ESP learners' strategies that they use in language learning process and investigate the impacts of Strategy-based instruction on learners' strategy use and improving their communication skills. To be able to attain the overall aim, the preceding research questions will be studied;

RQ 1: What learning strategies do learners use before and after strategy-instruction process?

RQ 2: Does strategy-instruction for learning strategies have a significant effect upon raising learners' awareness of learning strategies?

RQ 3: Does strategy-instruction for speaking strategies have a significant effect upon increasing the strategy use on speaking performances?

RQ 4: Does the strategy-instruction have a significant effect upon improving learners' speaking skills?

1.3. The Significance of the Study

Speaking is one of the most challenging skills in language learning process. Regarding daily life, most of the people have to speak more than they have to write or read. If the goal of a language course is truly to enable the learners to communicate in English, then speaking skills should be placed as main concerns and practiced in the language classroom. If learners do not learn how to speak or do not get any opportunity to speak in the language classroom they may soon get demotivated and lose interest in learning. To be able to improve oral skills, learners should be aware of various kinds of learning strategies that will foster their oral development.

Learning strategies are essential part of achieving the goals of a language course as it is indispensable to encourage learners to seek for their own learning styles and strategies. Research on language learners indicates that most successful learners have tendency to use learning strategies and choose them according to the task, material, self-objective, needs, motivation and stage of learning (Oxford, 1990b). That's why it is crucial to explore learners' strategies and investigate the impact of strategy training on increasing strategy use and improving the students' oral skills. In the light of these propositions, this study is important in terms of many aspects. Firstly, the strategy training for speaking courses at Trakya University School of Applied Sciences will bring innovation and help to improve learners' speaking skills. Additionally, having more autonomous, conscious, independent learners will increase the quality level of English outcomes in this school. Moreover,

the study will provide evidence to encourage instructors to benefit from strategy-based instruction in language learning process.

1.4. Assumptions

In the study it is assumed that;

- While the English classes supported with extra speaking classes are being held, a significant increase is going to be observed on the students' learning and communication strategies use.
- The findings of this study are going to provide significant contributions for the syllabus of English lessons at the School of Applied Sciences.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

1. It is restricted to the pre-intermediate level students learning English for Specific Purposes at the School of Applied Sciences at Trakya University.
2. The research for this thesis study is going to be conducted only on the 2nd grade students of Tourism and Hotel Management department at the school of Applied Sciences at Trakya University.
3. The implementation of this study is restricted to spring term of academic year 2011-2012.
4. The number of subjects for this study is restricted to 62 students at The School of Applied Sciences as Trakya University.

1.6. Definitions of Terms

Language Learning Strategies

“Learning Strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford, 1990b, p. 8).

Communication Strategies

“Communicative strategies as the systematic techniques employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty (Faerch & Kasper, 1983:16).

Strategy-based Instruction

‘This approach is based on the belief that learning will be facilitated by making students aware of the range of strategies from which they can choose during language learning and use. The most efficient way to heighten learner awareness is to provide strategy training—explicit instruction in how to apply language learning strategies—as part of the foreign language curriculum. This digest discusses the goals of strategy training, highlights approaches to such training, and lists steps for designing strategy training programs’ (Cohen, 2003, p: 1).

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The SILL was devised by Rebecca Oxford (1990b) as an instrument for assessing the frequency of use of language learning strategies by students.

1.7. Abbreviations

CALLA:	Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
CLS:	Cognitive Learning Strategies
CS:	Communication Strategies
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ESP:	English for Specific Purposes
LLS:	Language Learning Strategies
MLS:	Metacognitive Learning Strategies
SBI:	Strategy-based Instruction
SILL:	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
SPSS:	Statistical Product and Service Solutions

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Learning a language

Learning has evolved ever since the appearance of the applied sciences. The various definitions that have been discussed by many scholars reflect the evolving nature of “Learning”. In 19th century, learning was described as the acquisition of knowledge by study. With the rise of behaviourist approaches to learning, it was the experience which caused a permanent change in behaviour. In the second half of the 20th century, behaviourism was largely eclipsed as a result of the cognitive revolution. Cognitive theory focuses on the inner mental activities – opening the “black box” – of the human mind and it is valuable and necessary for understanding how people learn. Knowledge can be seen as schema or symbolic mental constructions and learning can be defined as change in a learner’s schemata.

Current cognitive approaches to learning stress that learning is an active, constructive, cumulative, and self-directed process which is dependent on the mental activities of the learner (Shuell 1986; Sternberg 1996). Since learning is goal-orientated, the learner must somehow organise his or her resources and activities in order to achieve the goal of learning. Learners selectively encode information, sifting out relevant from irrelevant information in the input, in order to select information for further processing (Deci and Ryan 1985). Therefore, the term ‘learning a language’ means to comprehend a skill through practicing, integrating with previous sub-skills and restructuring the process.

In view of the cognitive approach to learning, the notion of effective language learning requires the active involvement of the learner in the process. The processes involved in second language knowledge were categorized by Ellis (1985) into learning, production and communication strategies. Communication strategies are used to overwhelm the difficulties and reach the intended goal (Faerch & Kasper, 1983). When the learners feel themselves more competent, especially while attempting to communicate, they generally become more self-directed and self-confident.

It could be accepted that the ultimate goal of language learning process is to create more autonomous or independent learners. Hence, independent language learning aims to give learners more control over what, how and when they learn languages. Learners decide on their aims, make plans of what to learn, develop their own methods of learning (learning strategies), assess their own learning, and plan what to learn next. It directs learners to make informed choices and to take responsibility for deciding what they need to do in order to learn and to behave autonomously. Here, the term ‘learner autonomy’ needs to be defined. According to Holec (1981), autonomy is “the ability to take charge of one’s learning...” while Little (1991) sees it as the learner’s psychological relation to the content and process of learning, his or her capacity for critical reflection, detachment, decision making, and independent action. In other words, learner autonomy can be defined as learners’ capacity to learn about their own learning habits and using them in decision making when giving direction to their own learning processes. Researchers like Ellis and Sinclair (1989) and Nunan (1997) realize that working with individual differences can be dealt with effectively if learners are taught to be self-dependent and this can be done through ‘learning-how-to-learn’ strategies, under the umbrella term ‘Language Learning Strategies’.

2.2. Language learning strategies

During the last few decades, a continuing but significant move has taken place, resulting in less emphasis on teachers and teaching and greater stress on learners and learning. In parallel to this new shift of interest, the notions how learners process new information and what kinds of strategies they employ to understand, learn or remember the information have been the primary concern of the researchers dealing with the area of foreign language learning. The concept of "learning strategies" is partly based on cognitive learning theory, in which learning is seen as an active, mental, learner-constructed process. Oxford (1990b) defines learning strategies as "the specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferrable to new situations" (p.8). More specifically, Rigney (1978) defines learning strategies as "cognitive strategy" which is "used to signify operations and procedures that the student may use to acquire, retain, and retrieve different kinds of knowledge and performance" (p.165). Tarone (1983) defines LS as the attempts to develop "linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language - to incorporate these into one's interlanguage competence" (p.67). Weinstein and Mayer (1986) define learning strategies (LS) broadly as behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning which are intended to influence the learner's encoding process. Faecher and Kasper (1983) stress that a learning strategy is "an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language" (p.67). Chamot (1987) defines learning strategies as the behaviours and thoughts that learners engage in during learning that intended to influence the learners encoding process. Later Mayer (1988) more specifically defines LS as behaviours of a learner that are intended to influence how the learner processes information. Schmeck (1988) states that "strategy is the implementation of a set of procedures (tactics) for accomplishing something" and "learning strategy is a sequence of procedures for accomplishing learning" (p.5). Bialystok (1978) defines language learning strategies as "optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a

second language” (p.71). Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986) offer another definition of language learning strategies as “always purposeful and goal-oriented, but perhaps not always carried out at a conscious or deliberate level. Oxford and Crookall (1989) defines language learning strategies as “steps taken by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information” (p.404). MacIntyre (1994) argues that the term strategy implied active planning in pursuit of some goal, which was not something that would automatically occur. He emphasizes the learners’ deliberate action of language learning strategies. Cohen (1998) defines that “Language learning and language use strategies can be defined as those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information” (p: 4). Mariani (2002) defines language learning strategies as "any actions which you have to take to solve a problem in learning to help you make the most of your learning process, to speed up and optimize your cognitive, affective, and social behaviour" (p. 2). Chamot (2004) describes learning strategies as thoughts and actions that individuals use to accomplish a learning goal (p. 14).

2.3. Classification of language learning strategies

There have been various classifications of LLS in the field such as Rubin’s Taxonomy (1987), O’Malley and Chamot’s (1990), Oxford’s (1990), Stern's (1992). However, most of these attempts to classify LLS reflect more or less the same categorization without any significant changes. In this section, those four LLS classifications are discussed.

2.3.1. *Rubin's (1987) Taxonomy*

Rubin (1987), who is considered as the pioneer in the field of LLS, lays out a distinction between strategies directly or indirectly contributing to learning. Rubin (1987) explains three types of strategies used by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning. The first category, *Learning Strategies*, consists of two main types cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies. They are thought to be strategies directly contributing to the language system constructed by the learner. Cognitive learning strategies (CLS) refer to the steps or processes used in learning or problem-solving tasks that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Rubin (1987) identified six main CLS directly contributing to language learning: clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization, and monitoring. Metacognitive learning strategies (MLS) are used to supervise, control or self-direct language learning. They include a variety of processes as planning, prioritising, setting goals, and self-management. The second category consists of *Communication Strategies*, which are less directly related to language learning because they focus on the process of participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended. These strategies are used by speakers when they are confronted with misunderstanding by a co-speaker. *Social Strategies* comprise the last category, which are manipulated when the learners are engaged in tasks that afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practice their knowledge. Even though these strategies provide exposure to the target language, they contribute indirectly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language (Rubin and Wenden, 1987, p. 23-27). In other words, they provide opportunities to be exposed to the target language but the main indirect contribute of these strategies is on the obtaining, storing, retrieving and using of language.

2.3.2. *O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) Taxonomy*

O'Malley *et al* (1985, p. 582-584) divide language-learning strategies into three main subcategories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and socioaffective strategies. It is possible to argue that *metacognitive strategy* refers to the strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning process, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. Strategies such as self-monitoring, self-evaluation, advance organizers, self-management, and selective attention can be placed among the main metacognitive strategies.

Cognitive strategies involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. The most important cognitive strategies can be listed as; repetition, elaboration, contextualization, auditory representation, transfer, etc.

Socioaffective strategies mostly involve interaction with another person. They can be applied to various tasks such as questioning for clarification, cooperation with others to solve a problem, rephrasing, and self-talk are some examples of socioaffective strategies.

In brief, those three subcategories reveal that learners direct themselves to operate directly on incoming information and manipulate it in ways that enhance learning. In addition, they apply executive skills such as planning, monitoring or evaluating the success of learning activity and they involve interaction with another person.

2.3.3. *Oxford's (1990b) Taxonomy*

Oxford (1990b) sees the aim of language learning strategies as being oriented towards the development of communicative competence (p.9). Oxford divides language learning strategies into two main classes, direct and indirect (Figure 1), which are further subdivided into 6 groups. In Oxford's system, metacognitive strategies help learners to regulate their learning. Affective strategies are concerned with the learner's emotional requirements such as confidence, while social strategies lead to increased interaction with the target language. Cognitive strategies are the mental strategies learners use to make sense of their learning, memory strategies are those used for storage of information, and compensation strategies help learners to overcome knowledge gaps to continue the communication.

Table 1: Oxford's (1990b:17) Taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies:

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DIRECT STRATEGIES <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ I. Memory <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A. Creating mental linkages <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grouping • Associating/elaborating • Contextualizing words ▪ B. Applying images and sounds <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Imagery • Semantic Mapping • Using keywords • Representing sounds in Memory ▪ C. Reviewing well <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Structured reviewing ▪ D. Employing action <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physical response or sensation • Mechanical techniques ○ II. Cognitive <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A. Practicing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Repeating • Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems • Recognizing and using formula • Recombining • Practicing naturalistically

- B. Receiving and sending messages
 - Getting the idea quickly
 - Using resources for receiving and sending messages
 - C. Analyzing and reasoning
 - Reasoning deductively
 - Analyzing expressions
 - Analyzing contrastively (across languages)
 - Translating
 - Transferring
 - D. Creating structure for input and output
 - Taking notes
 - Summarizing
 - Highlighting
- III. Compensation strategies
 - A. Guessing intelligently
 - Using linguistic and other clues
 - B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing
 - Switching to mother tongue
 - Getting help
 - Using mime and gesture
 - Avoidance
 - Topic Selection
 - Approximating
 - Coining words
 - Circumlocution
- **INDIRECT STRATEGIES**
 - I. Metacognitive Strategies
 - A. Centering your learning
 - Overviewing and linking
 - Paying attention
 - Just listening
 - B. Arranging and planning your learning
 - Finding out about language learning
 - Organizing
 - Setting goals
 - Identifying the purposes
 - Planning for a task
 - Seeking practice opportunities
 - C. Evaluating your learning
 - Self-monitoring
 - Self-evaluating
 - II. Affective Strategies
 - A. Lowering your anxiety
 - Relaxation/meditation
 - Music
 - Laughter
 - B. Encouraging yourself

- Making positive statements,
- Wise risk-taking
- Rewarding yourself
- C. Taking your emotional temperature
 - Listening to your body
 - Emotion checklist
 - Diary
 - Sharing feelings
- III. Social Strategies
 - A. Asking questions
 - Clarification/verification
 - Correction
 - B. Cooperating with others
 - Peer support
 - Interaction with native speakers
 - C. Empathizing with others
 - Developing cultural understanding
 - Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

Six major groups of foreign or second language (L2) learning strategies have been identified by Oxford (1990b). Ehrman *et al* (2003) define these six major strategies,

1. Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material indirect ways, e.g., through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, and synthesizing.
2. Metacognitive strategies (e.g., identifying one's own preferences and needs, planning, monitoring mistakes, and evaluating task success) are used to manage the learning process overall.
3. Memory-related strategies (e.g., acronyms, sound similarities, images, key words) help learners link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding.
4. Compensatory strategies (e.g., guessing from the context; circumlocution; and gestures and pause words) help make up for missing knowledge.
5. Affective strategies, such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself, and using deep

breathing or positive self-talk, help learners manage their emotions and motivation level.

6. Social strategies (e.g., asking questions, asking for clarification, asking for help, talking with a native-speaking conversation partner, and exploring cultural and social norms) enable the learner to learn via interaction with others and understand the target culture (p. 316-317).

Oxford's taxonomy can be considered as one of the broadest taxonomy that covers different strategies. On the other hand, it may not be so reasonable to locate that taxonomy in a different perspective as it shares many similarities with O'Malley's taxonomy. For example, the cognitive strategies category in O'Malley's classification seems to cover both the cognitive and memory Strategies in Oxford's taxonomy. In addition, Oxford deals with socioaffective strategies as two separate categories while O'Malley puts them in one category. However, a significant difference in Oxford's classification is the addition of the compensation strategies, which have not been included in any of the major taxonomies earlier.

2.3.4. Stern's (1992) Taxonomy

According to Stern (1992:262-266), there are five main language learning strategies. These are as follows:

- Management and Planning Strategies
- Cognitive Strategies
- Communicative & Experiential Strategies
- Interpersonal Strategies
- Affective Strategies

Management and Planning Strategies: These strategies are related with the learner's intention to direct his own learning. A learner can take charge of the development of his own program when she/he is helped by a teacher whose role is that of an adviser and resource person. That is to say learner must:

- decide what commitment to make to language learning
- set himself reasonable goals
- decide on an appropriate methodology, select appropriate resources, and monitor progress,
- evaluate his achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectations (Stern 1992:263).

Cognitive Strategies: They are steps or operations used in learning or problem solving that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. In the following, some of the cognitive strategies are exhibited:

- Clarification / Verification
- Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
- Deductive Reasoning
- Practice
- Memorization
- Monitoring

Communicative - Experiential Strategies: Communication strategies, such as circumlocution, gesturing, paraphrase, or asking for repetition and explanation are techniques used by learners so as to keep a conversation going. The purpose of using these techniques is to avoid interrupting the flow of communication (Stern 1992:265). *Interpersonal Strategies:* They should monitor their own development and evaluate their own performance. Learners should contact with native speakers and cooperate with them. Learners must become acquainted with the target culture (Stern 1992: 265-266).

Affective Strategies: It is evident that good language learners employ distinct affective strategies. Language learning can be frustrating. In some cases, the feeling

of strangeness can be evoked by the foreign language. In some other cases, L2 learners may have negative feelings about native speakers of L2. Good language learners are more or less conscious of these emotional problems. Good language learners try to create associations of positive affect towards the foreign language and its speakers as well as towards the learning activities involved. Learning training can help students to face up to the emotional difficulties and to overcome them by drawing attention to the potential frustrations or pointing them out as they arise (Stern 1992:266).

The taxonomies presented here reflected some similar parts as well as different ones. The Figure 2 shows the common and different aspects of the taxonomies presented above.

Table 2: LLS taxonomies of Rubin (1987), O'Malley & Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990b) and Stern (1992)

Rubin (1987)	O'Malley et al. (1990)	Oxford (1990)	Stern (1992)
Learning Strategies	Cognitive strategies	Cognitive strategies	Cognitive strategies
- Cognitive S.	Metacognitive Strategies	Metacognitive Strategies	Management & planning Strategies
- Metacognitive S.			
Social Strategies	Social-affective strategies	Social strategies	Interpersonal strategies
Communicative Strategies		Affective strategies	Affective strategies
		Memory strategies	
		Compensation strategies	

The initial glance at the taxonomies would claim that Oxford's taxonomy goes into deeper details when compared to others. However, it should be noted that these categories of strategies are connected and support each other. Some strategies were classified into the same category. To illustrate, Rubin (1987) locates the cognitive and metacognitive strategies into a specific category; learning strategies.

Like Rubin, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classify the social and affective strategies together under the socio-affective category. Besides the similarities, some overlaps can be observed in these taxonomies. For example, clarification is classified as cognitive strategy in Rubin and Stern's taxonomies while it is categorized as social strategy in Oxford's. Therefore, these categories are not so clear-cut (Cohen, 1998:12). According to Cohen & Macaro (2007), "if there is one article which can be seen to have announced the birth of language learner strategy research, then it was 'What the good language learner can teach us' by Joan Rubin in 1975" (p:11). Since then, various theorists have contributed to the definition of language learning strategies (Grenfell & Macaro, 2007).

Despite the uncertainty among the scholars on the 'clear-cut' taxonomy, these taxonomies have been used to determine the language learning strategies by researchers. They, even, constitute a reference layout to further specific strategies e.g Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy for vocabulary learning strategies, and Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy for communication strategies.

2.4. The importance of language learning strategies for students

With the critics on structuralism and behaviourism in the 1960s, the new demand or a new approach to language teaching became obvious. Applied linguists and philosophers addressed new fundamental dimension of language: the functional and communicative potential of language. According to Berns,

"Language is interaction; it is interpersonal activity and has a clear relationship with society. In this light, language study has to look at the use (function) of language in context, both its linguistic context (what is uttered before and after a given piece of discourse) and its social, or situational, context (who is speaking, what their social roles are, why they have come together to speak)" (1984, p. 5).

Linguists emphasised the importance of showing the systems of meaning underlying the communicative use of language rather than the mastery of grammar and vocabulary. According to Halliday (1975), we use language to get things, to control behaviour, to create interaction with others, to express personal feelings, to learn, to create a world of imagination and to communicate information. The new ‘communicative approach’ was structured on these objectives.

Accordingly, not only the demand on language teaching but also the way the students go about learning a language has changed. How to go for learning the target language and what methods do they need to employ can be noted as the subject of language learning strategies. Most students can learn how to use strategies more effectively; when they do so, they become more self reliant and better able to learn independently. They begin to take more responsibility for their own learning, and their motivation increases because they have increased confidence in their learning ability and specific techniques for successful language learning.

Within the recent trends in foreign/second language teaching the ‘communicative approach’ is seen as the suitable way for learners to develop their communicative competence. The language learning strategies (LLS) can help them achieve this competence. Research and theory in second language learning strongly suggest that good language learners use a variety of strategies to assist them in gaining command over new language skills. Oxford (1990b) states that language learning strategies are “especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence” (p.1). The use of appropriate language learning strategies often results in improved proficiency or overall achievement in specific skill area (Thompson and Rubin, 1996; Oxford et al., 1993). Bygate (1987) states that the use of these strategies can bridge the gap between knowledge of the rules and the students' ability to express their own meaning. That is to say that these strategies help learners to involve in using the target language with reasonable fluency and reasonable ability to express opinions and convey meanings. In this respect, it is

reasonable to claim that training learners on using these strategies could help them a lot in their language learning.

It will probably eliminate the level of hesitancy and fear of being involved in an interaction where they do not have sufficient language knowledge for it. Bygate (1987) adds that being trained to use learning strategies helps the learner to succeed in independent interaction. Regarding this view, using such strategies in learning represents a transitional process where control of learning is shifted from teacher to learners, leaving the learner with responsibility for his own thinking and learning. In addition, Wenden & Rubin (1987) mention that learning strategies help learners to utilize the experience they bring to their language class. In consequence, learners generate appreciation of their ability and become critically reflective of the conceptual context of their learning. Training learners to use communicative strategies raises their confidence and encourages them to participate in different communicative interactions even when they don't have enough language for it (e.g. when they don't have the answer for a question). These are only some of the short term benefits of using learning and communicative strategies. In fact, the successful use of these strategies can promote long-term language development.

There have been so many studies carried out to reflect the long term benefits of communicative and learning strategies training. For instance, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) looked at learning strategies used both by ESL and EFL students and they found that training students to use these strategies helped them become more aware of the whole process of learning a second language.

2.5. What strategies are preferable for communication?

The various taxonomies of LLS reflect that some of the strategies can be frequently used in conversations. Learners may have various lacks or deficiencies in learning process. These deficiencies mostly become clear while they try to involve in

oral practices. Therefore, they always need to compensate the potential lacks. They may ask for help, use mime and gestures or even switch to the mother tongue. The compensation strategies can be mostly preferred by learners. Besides compensation strategies, social strategies can be favourable among learners. Communicating with others may require cooperating with others. So, learners may ask for clarification or verification and they may need to empathise with others to develop cultural understanding and awareness of various thoughts and feelings. For most people, the main goal of learning a foreign language is to be able to communicate. As a result of this, the need for communication tactics (strategies) became clear.

It is through communication that people send and receive messages effectively and negotiate meaning (Rubin & Thompson, 1994: 30). Currently, being able to communicate effectively and being able to convey messages orally have become much more preferable than writing. For managing better communication, strategies need to be selected and used efficiently.

The notion Communication Strategies was first expressed at the beginning of 1970s. Selinker (1972) coined the term CS in his seminal paper on “interlanguage”, discussing “strategies of second language communication” (p. 229) as one of the five central processes involved in L2 learning (cited Dörnyei & Scott 1997:175). It was the result of the recognition that the mismatch between L2 speakers’ linguistic resources and communicative intentions leads to a number of systematic language phenomena whose main function is to handle difficulties or breakdowns in communication (Dörnyei & Scott 1997:174). Most of the L2 speakers (except those at a very advanced, “near-native” level) tend to spend a great deal of time and effort struggling to make up for their L2 deficiencies (Gass & Varonis, 1991). Therefore, the use of strategic language has been on the concern of researches as to reveal strategic language devices. Tarone and her associates (Tarone, 1977; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1976) published two studies on Communication Strategies that offers the first definition of Communication Strategy. Besides the pioneer definition, Tarone (1977) has provided taxonomy of CSs which has been still seen as the most influential one in the field.

According to Dörnyei & Scott, the real journey of Communication Strategies started in the early 1980s when Canale and Swain (1980; Canale, 1983) included the term in their influential model of communicative competence. Canale and Swain (1980) proposed an outline that reflects the contents and boundaries of three areas of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. Canale (1983), then, divided the sociolinguistic competence into two separate components: sociolinguistic and discourse competence. He defines communicative competence as “the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication” (Canale, 1983: 5). To be more precise, their four areas of communicative competence could be defined as;

1. *Grammatical competence* – the comprehension of phonological and grammatical rules to be able to convey and interpret the meaning of utterances
2. *Sociolinguistic competence* – the ability to comprehend how the utterances are generated and understood in different sociolinguistic contexts
3. *Discourse competence* – the mastery of rules concerning cohesion and coherence of various kinds of discourse in L2 (e.g., use of appropriate pronouns, synonyms, conjunctions, substitution, repetition, marking of congruity and continuity, topic-comment sequence, etc.) (cited in Kamiya, 2006)
4. *Strategic competence* – the ability to use verbal and non-verbal communication strategies in L2 in order to compensate the lacks in the grammatical and sociolinguistic competence

In brief, Canale and Swain (1980) intended to discover the kinds of knowledge and skills that an L2 learner needs to be taught and to develop the theoretical basis for a communicative approach in the second language teaching.

Faerch & Kasper explain communicative strategies as the systematic techniques employed by a speaker to express her/his meaning when faced with some difficulty. The difficulty here refers to the speaker's inadequate command of the

language used in the interaction (1983:16). Regarding the previously mentioned definitions, it is available to say that communicative strategies refer to language learning behaviours that contribute directly or indirectly to learning. Learners have the tendency to use them to compensate for their lack of sufficient language knowledge and to get themselves out of troubles when interacting in the target language.

In the second half of the 1980s, Nijmegen University became the dominant centre of CS studies where a group of researchers carried out many comprehensive studies that have reshaped the definitions and taxonomies of CSs (Bongaerts & Poulish 1989; Bongaerts, Kellerman & Bentlage, 1987; Kellerman, 1991; Kellerman, Ammerlaan, Bongaerts & Poulish, 1990; Poulish, 1987; Poulish & Schils, 1989; Poulish, Bongaerts & Kellerman, 1987).

The literature reveals that individuals need some communication strategies to communicate effectively. To be able to do this, they need to develop a communicative competence. However, this competence consists of different components such as grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences. Learners firstly need to acquire the phonological and grammatical rules to convey and interpret the meaning of utterances. Then, they may need to be aware of the variety of social contexts where one utterance may reveal different meanings and these utterances should be coherent and cohesive in that context. Lastly, they may have some deficiencies to be compensated. As seen in the literature, the need for using communication strategies generally arises from the lacks that learners potentially have or the need for conveying messages effectively.

2.6. Defining communication strategies

A review of the CS literature reveals that two defining criteria are consistently mentioned; *problematicity* and *consciousness*.

2.6.1. *Problematicity*

The original insight into CSs was based on a mismatch between communicative intention and linguistic resources (Váradi, 1992, p. 437). That is to say, CSs are the systematic problem solving devices that are used to overwhelm the communication problems related to language deficiencies. Bialystok (1990) argues that problematicity has become a primary defining criterion for CSs, referring to “the idea that strategies are used only when a speaker perceives that there is a problem which may interrupt communication” (p. 3).

2.6.2. *Consciousness*

All the previously mentioned definitions support the claim that CSs are employed when L2 learners encounter a problem in communication. Consciousness is the second term that is the underlying nature of “strategy” as it is a conscious technique to overcome a problem. However, there have been several complexities to explain consciousness in the CS context. It is reasonable to separate them into different sub-categories as Schmidt (1994) offers; intentionality, attention, awareness and control. Bialystok (1990) also separated intentionality from consciousness. In the light of the previous results, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) argue three aspects of CSs;

- *Consciousness as awareness of the problem.* Only those instances of problem-related language use which are related to language processing problems that the speaker consciously recognizes as such should be termed CSs in order to distinguish mistakes and CSs that may have a similar erroneous form.
- *Consciousness as intentionality.* The speaker’s intentional use of the CS separates CSs from certain verbal behaviours that are systematically related to problems of which the speaker is aware but that are not done intentionally.
- *Consciousness as awareness of strategic language use.* The speaker realizes that he/she is using a less-than-perfect, stopgap

device or is doing a problem-related detour on the way to mutual understanding (p:185)

2.7. Taxonomies of communication strategies

Conceptual differences vary greatly among the CS researchers. The same situation can be observed when they try to list the strategies and related taxonomies. In this section, some of the taxonomies will be discussed.

2.7.1. Tarone's taxonomy (1977)

The earliest typology that assembles together the communication strategies was that of Tarone's (1977). Tarone's taxonomy (see Appendix 1) includes five major categories as follows: avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime. In avoidance strategies the learner decides not to say anything in order to avoid communication problems. *Topic avoidance* is one of the possibilities where the problem is avoided. *Message abandonment* is another option where the learner starts to explain an object but gives up because it is too difficult. *Approximation*, *word coinage* and *circumlocution* are the sub-topics of Paraphrase. Conscious transfer involves *literal translation*, translating word for word from the native language, or *language switch*, the use of a term in native language. In *appeal for assistance*, the learner asks for repetition or correction, whilst *mime* is the use of non-verbal strategies.

2.7.2. *Bialystok's taxonomy (1983)*

Bialystok (1983) conceptualized two main classes of CSs (see Appendix 2), “analysis-based” and “control-based” strategies. *Analysis-based strategy* involves attempts “to convey the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features” (p. 133). The speaker modifies the content of the message by using her/his knowledge about the concept to give information about it. A *control-based strategy* is “the manipulation of form of expression through attention to different sources of information” (Flyman, 1997 p:58). Unlike the analysis-based strategy, the speaker directs himself to different sources of reference outside the L2.

2.7.3. *Poulisse's taxonomy (1993)*

Poulisse's new, modified taxonomy (see Appendix 3) of compensatory strategies consists of 3 major strategy types: (a) substitution strategies— omitting or changing one or more features of a lexical chunk in search of a new lexical item (the L1/L2 specification being treated as one of the features); (e.g., traditional approximation or code switching); (b) substitution-plus strategies—substitution strategies accompanied by the “out-of-the-ordinary application of L1 or L2 morphological and/or phonological encoding procedures” (Poulisse, 1993, p. 180; e.g., foreignizing); and (c) reconceptualization strategies—a change in the preverbal (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997 p:201). The taxonomy results from an empirical communication strategy research project, the so-called “Nijmegen Project”.

2.7.4. *Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy (1995)*

Dörnyei & Scott (1995a) discuss two opposite directions in communication. One is compensating and the other is avoiding. Avoidance strategies can be further broken down into several subtypes, such as phonological avoidance, syntactic or lexical avoidance and topic avoidance (Brown, 2000: 128). It is arguable that these strategies are not a beneficial way for foreign language students; however, they could be an effective way to learn a language. Among these strategies, topic avoidance might be the most frequently used one that students have ever preferred. When asked a specific question, the student who does not know the answer will just keep silent about it and lead to the occurrence of topic avoidance (Ya-ni 2007).

Compensatory strategies, conversely, involve “compensation for missing knowledge”. Dörnyei (1995) reveals eleven types of compensatory strategies which include circumlocution, word coinage, prefabricated patterns, appealing for help and stalling or time-gaining strategies, etc. Some of them happen in a high frequency, while others may seldom occur.

Following these two dimensions, Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) extended the view to 3 basic categories; direct, indirect and interactional strategies.

Direct strategies provide an alternative, manageable, and self-contained means of getting the (sometimes modified) meaning across, like circumlocution compensating for the lack of a word. Most traditionally identified CSs fall under this category. Indirect strategies, on the other hand, are not strictly problem-solving devices. They do not provide alternative meaning structures, but rather facilitate the conveyance of meaning indirectly by creating the conditions for achieving mutual understanding: preventing breakdowns and keeping the communication channel open (e.g., using fillers or feigning understanding) or indicating less-than perfect forms that require

extra effort to understand (using strategy markers or hedges)
 Interactional strategies involve a third approach, whereby the participants carry out trouble-shooting exchanges cooperatively (e.g., appeal for and grant help, or request for and provide clarification), and therefore mutual understanding is a function of the successful execution of both pair parts of the exchange. (Dörnyei & Scott p: 198-199).

Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) argue the ways for problem solving and conveying the messages effectively. Some of these ways affect directly some other indirectly. Individuals may need to compensate a language deficiency by using alternative forms e.g. alternative words or phrases to compensate the intended word or phrase. They may also need to facilitate the conveyance of meaning by preventing the breakdowns e.g. using gap fillers. They sometimes work together to solve a problem e.g. asking for verification.

Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) provide four types of communication problems that are related to 3 main categories (direct, indirect, and interactional); resource deficit, processing time pressure, own-performance problems, other performance problems. They also included detailed figure of taxonomies and the list of strategies (see Appendix 4).

Considering the above taxonomies, firstly Tarone (1980) defines communication strategies as mutual attempts of two speakers to agree on the meaning of a concept. Bialystok (1983) centres the strategies on the source of information. The sources of information could be L1 and L2. Poulishse's taxonomy (1993) mostly depends on the compensation methods. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) classify communication strategies according to the manner of problem management, that is, how communication strategies contribute to resolving conflicts and achieving mutual understanding. In this study, Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy will be used as the source of communication strategies.

2.8. Strategy use and strategy instruction

As it is stated above language learning strategies' ultimate objective is to help learners on the way of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language. It is reasonable to claim that they are consciously used by learners when they feel themselves on the spot resulting from their language deficiency. Language use strategies have two different components; performance and communication strategies (Cohen, Weaver & Li; 1996). Cohen and his associates explain performance strategies as;

Performance strategies include strategies for rehearsing target language structures, such as through form-focused practice. They also include strategies for simply coping in the language classroom, such as by participating in classroom tasks to look good in front of other students or the teacher. In such instances, there is no intention on the part of the student to learn or communicate any particular aspect of the target language (p: 2).

Communication strategies, conversely, deal with conveying and getting messages effectively despite having language deficiencies. Strategy-Based Instruction is based on all classroom activities integrated with appropriate strategies. It refers to

“explicit classroom instruction directed at learners regarding their language learning and use strategies, and provided alongside instruction in the foreign language itself. The goal of strategy-based instruction is to help second language students become more aware of the ways in which they learn most effectively, ways in which they can enhance their own comprehension and production of the target language, and ways in which they can continue learning after leaving the classroom” (Cohen; 1996, p.13).

Students always need to employ many different strategies in different circumstances. Therefore, they are firstly informed about the existing strategies that suit the students' preferences, then, provide opportunities for practice. In other words, they need to be trained. This process is called strategy-based instruction. Cohen (2003) explains;

“this approach is based on the belief that learning will be facilitated by making students aware of the range of strategies from which they can choose during language learning and use. The most efficient way to heighten learner awareness is to provide strategy training—explicit instruction in how to apply language learning strategies—as part of the foreign language curriculum. This digest discusses the goals of strategy training, highlights approaches to such training, and lists steps for designing strategy training programs” (p: 1).

According to Cohen (1998) strategy-based instruction has five different sequences;

1) Preparation

At this stage, it is important to investigate the existing knowledge and ability to use strategies of the learners. It is not a reasonable idea to consider the students that they do not employ any strategies while learning. It is likely that they have already personalised some strategies. However, they might not use them efficiently.

2) Awareness-Raising

At this stage, the aim is to inform learners about the strategies that they may have never heard or may have known but had never employed.

3) Training

At this stage, students are trained how, when, and why certain strategies (whether alone, in sequence, or in clusters) can be used to facilitate language learning

and use activities. Teacher's role here is very important. She or he describes, models, and exemplifies the useful strategies. Teachers also need to involve the students in the activities to identify their learning by leading small-group or whole-class discussions.

4) Practice

At this stage, students are stimulated to practice the strategies. The number of the activities that enable students to try themselves on using strategies should be increased. These activities should allow students to plan the strategies that they will use for a particular activity, to pay attention to the use of particular strategies and to think over the strategies after the activity has ended.

5) Personalisation of strategies

At this stage, learners personalize what they have acquired, check out to see how they are using the strategies, and then search for ways that they can transfer the use of these strategies to other contexts.

One of the ultimate goals of language learning can be to have more self-directed and self-confident learners. When the learners can achieve to be autonomous, they will probably be the most likely ones to be successful. Therefore, strategy training plays a crucial role on contributing students to be more self-directed. Being self-directed authorize the students to select their own learning materials, plan their learning process, and decide how and when to employ the necessary strategy. However, learning strategy choices may vary.

2.9. Studies on Communication Strategy Instruction

Teachability of strategies has always been a concern of researchers in this field. Many studies have been conducted to identify the potential impact of strategy training (Oxford & Crookall, 1989). On the other hand, studies on speaking strategy

training are relatively few. The studies have reflected that the more L2/FL learners are exposed to the target language orally, the more they use speaking strategies quantitatively and qualitatively (Tarone, 1983; Raupach, 1983; Bialystok, 1983). O'Malley *et al* (1985) conducted a study on intermediate-level adolescent ESL students. The sample group consisted of one-third Hispanic, one-third Asian, and one-third other ethnicities. The hypotheses were, firstly; the first treatment group that received an instruction of metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective strategies would perform better than the second treatment group that did not have any metacognitive strategies, secondly; the second group would perform better than untrained control. The two experimental groups significantly performed better than the control group in speaking tasks. However, the results for listening were not significantly different between groups. According to Aliweh (1990), Egyptian EFL university students improved their spoken performance and strategy use after they had been trained to use communication strategies. Dörnyei (1995) instructed three compensatory communication strategies (topic avoidance and replacement, circumlocution, and using fillers and hesitation devices) to Hungarian EFL high school students and found that students' strategy use improved qualitatively and quantitatively, but this was not the case for their speaking competence. Dadour and Robbins (1996) trained Egyptian EFL university students to use strategies to improve their speaking skills and found improvement in their experimental group students' speaking skills and strategy use. In Salamone and Marsal' (1997) study, it was revealed that providing university French learners with training on circumlocution improved the quality of their descriptions over time but did not affect their speaking performance. Cohen *et al.* (1998) investigated the effectiveness of explicit strategy instruction on EFL speaking ability. Although he found a positive impact for speaking strategy instruction, he concluded that students' language proficiency level played an important role in benefiting from such instruction. Rossiter (2002) conducted a study to investigate the impact of affective strategies on improving L2 speakers' performance. It was found that teaching affective strategies (relaxation, positive self-talk, using humour and self-rewards) did not affect L2 speakers' performance or self-efficacy. Rossiter (2002) also added that communication strategy instruction had direct effect on the range of communication strategies used

by ESL intermediate adult students but not their performance variables (communication success, speech rate, and the frequency of message abandonment). In a recent study, Nakatani (2005) found that metacognitive strategy training improved female EFL learners' spoken performance.

The studies above can mean that there is no clear-cut indication of positive impact of strategy training on improving students' speaking skills and strategy use. Although some researchers (Cohen *et al.*, 1998) concluded that speaking performance and strategy use might be influenced by students' speaking proficiency level, it seems still to be promising to investigate the potential impact of strategy training on improving students' speaking skills and strategy use.

2.10. Factors influencing the choice of learning strategies

Many previous studies have reflected that there have been many factors affecting the choice of learning strategies. Those factors might include degree of awareness, age, sex, nationality, learning style, personality traits, motivation, learning context, and language proficiency (Zare & Nooreen, 2011; Khamkhien, 2010; Rahimi, et al. 2008; Chamot, 2004; Griffiths, 2003; Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2007; Green and Oxford, 1995; Ehrman and Oxford, 1990).

According to the recent studies, significant gender differences between males and female language learners have been observed. Females have demonstrated to use more and wider range of strategies than males (Zare, 2010; Lee, 2003; Green and Oxford, 1995; Ehrman and Oxford, 1990). Additionally, the relationship between learning strategies and learners' proficiency has been studied. Researchers have concluded that proficient language learners use a greater variety and often a greater number of learning strategies (Rahimi et al., 2008; Griffiths, 2003; Lee, 2003; Anderson, 2005; Bruen, 2001; Green and Oxford, 1995; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Ehrman and Oxford 1990). Another variable to be examined is motivation.

Findings have demonstrated that learners with high motivation use a significantly greater range of learning strategies than less motivated students (Oxford, 1990; McIntyre and Noels, 1996; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989).

Besides other variables influencing choice of strategies, learning styles may cover the broadest area. In many studies, it is stated that there is a significant link between learning styles that learners have and use strategies they employ to accomplish the learning tasks (Cohen and Oxford, 2001). Gallin's study (1999) showed that ESL readers who were better at inferring the gist were also more intuitive in terms of their style preference. Chi (2001) reflected the strongest relationship between style and strategies. Learners who are more auditory and tactile in style preference also reported using more social strategies. It has been argued that learning styles and learning strategies of an individual learner can work cooperatively with a given instructional methodology (Oxford, 2003). If a harmony exists between these factors, the learner will perform well, feel confident, and experience low anxiety (Oxford, 2003).

The results of research in the area of language learning strategies reflect that the use of learning strategies has connection with several variables and it is clear that they provide incredible understanding of strategy use among learners. Such results may be included in curriculum development by the developers and they may be supported by the instructors in the process of learning and teaching.

2.11. Assessing learners' use of strategies

There are many existing tools for investigating and uncovering the strategies used by L2 learners. Self-report surveys, observations, interviews, learner journals, dialogue journals, think-aloud techniques, and other measures have been used. Every one of these tools has advantages and disadvantages, as analyzed by Oxford (1990) and Cohen and Scott (1996). The most widely used survey, the Strategy Inventory

for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990), has been translated into more than 20 languages and used in dozens of published studies around the world. In this thesis, the SILL will be used as one of the data gathering instrument.

The literature, so far here, reflects the birth and the development of learning strategies in a broad context. In the mid 1970s, the knowledge of second language acquisitions increased remarkable as researchers realized that there is no single method or no single research finding that would guarantee the universal success of teaching a second language (Brown, 2000). With the researches on individual variation, researchers such as Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) attempted to define the ‘good’ language learner. They aimed to reflect students’ personal characteristics, styles and strategies.

The various definitions of the term learning strategy range from more specific ones to the quietly broad ones. In order to give a specific definition of the term strategy as an example, Brown’s (2000) definition can be presented; “strategies are those specific attacks that we make on a given problem” (p:132). Contrary to this definition, Chamot (2005) defines strategies broadly as “procedures that facilitate a learning task” (p:112). The variety on the definition of the term could be seen on the categorization of the term as well. The researchers (Rubin, 1987; O’Malley et al., 1990; Oxford, 1990; Stern, 1992) tried to reflect the taxonomies of learning strategies. Typically, strategies were divided into three main categories as cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective strategies (see Figure 2). Alongside with the other strategies such as social and affective strategies, socio-affective strategies represent the communication strategies, too. According to Brown (2000), there are two types of strategies; learning strategies and communication strategies. Brown (2000) relates learning strategies with input and communicative strategies with output. We process, store and retrieve the input to take in messages from others. That means we use learning strategies. At the same time, we express ourselves and deliver messages to others. In other words, we convey meaning by using our communication competence.

It is sometimes difficult to distinguish between how and under what circumstances we comprehend and produce since they occur almost simultaneously (Tarone, 1983). However, it can be claimed that we employ some specific strategies to comprehend and to produce. Communication strategies appeared soon after the early research on learning strategies in 1970s. They are mostly used when the speakers face a linguistic deficit while trying to convey a message. The underlying need for communication strategies can be claimed as the problems encountered by the speakers. Additionally, speakers employ these strategies consciously. To support the idea, Faerch and Kasper (1983) defines communication strategies as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (p.36). In other words, using communication strategies can be defined as attacks to solve a problem.

As seen above, the potential problems are mostly resulted from the linguistic lacks. These lacks are probably inevitable facts in both second and foreign language learning. That means learners may closely be affected the disadvantages of having linguistic deficiencies in both production and comprehension processes. In order to compensate these lacks, they mostly need to employ some specific strategies. It could be easier to compensate the deficiencies existed in isolated skills such as reading and writing. However, in listening and speaking skills that can be classified as interpersonal language skills, learners may need to employ some compensatory strategies as well as avoidance strategies.

The research on communication strategies reflects that there are various taxonomies of communication strategies outlined by the researchers (Tarone, 1977; Bialystok, 1983; Poulisse, 1993; Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b). These taxonomies include some similarities. The two common points on these taxonomies can be first avoidance strategies and then compensative strategies. The speakers sometimes avoid from a lexical item or a whole topic entirely. They may change the topic or pretend as if they did not understand or simply not respond at all (Brown, 2000). To compensate the deficiencies, e.g. the lack of a lexical item, speakers sometimes describe the target object, use an alternative term, or even create a non-

existing word. The reason to employ such kind of strategies can be to communicatively stay alive. The metaphoric use of staying alive means that speakers try to maintain the conversation. In order to maintain the conversation, speakers need to improve their oral production skills as well as benefitting from communication strategies.

In order to benefit from the communicative strategies, learners firstly need to be aware of their existing strategies as well as the non-existing ones. If the awareness is a key factor to use these strategies, learners may need to be taught through the communication strategies. The classroom teaching of the learning and communication strategies is known as strategies-based instruction (Cohen, 1998). The desired goal of strategy instruction is to create autonomous learners (Wenden, 1985). The learner autonomy provides learners to understand their own thinking and learning processes (Chamot, 2005). With the contribution of strategy-based instruction, learners may facilitate their own learning processes and become more self-directed to overcome the potential problems. According to Brown (2000), “an effective implementation of SBI in language classrooms involves several steps and considerations: (1) identifying learners’ styles and potential strategies; (2) incorporating SBI in communicative language courses and classrooms; (3) providing extra-class assistance for learners” (p: 142). In this study which examines the impact of strategy instruction on learners’ efficient use of speaking strategies, these steps are considered as the basic implementation process of the SBI.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This part of the study focuses on the research method including the design of the study, the data sources, instrumentation, procedures involved and the data analysis methods.

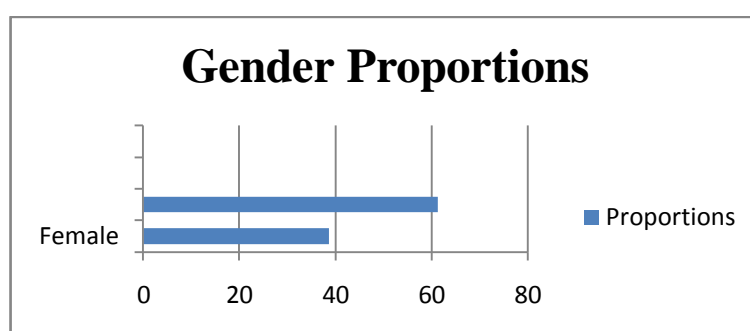
3.1. Research Design

In this study, experimental research was designed. This study aims to examine the overall language learning strategies and communication strategies of young adult Turkish learners of EFL and it constitutes both qualitative and quantitative designs. The quantitative data were collected through a questionnaire for reflecting participants' language learning strategies. The qualitative data were collected through the method of negotiation, verbal report protocols (oral exams) and weekly logs that includes open-ended questions. Oral exams were tape recorded and analysed by two instructors other than the researcher.

3.2. Participants

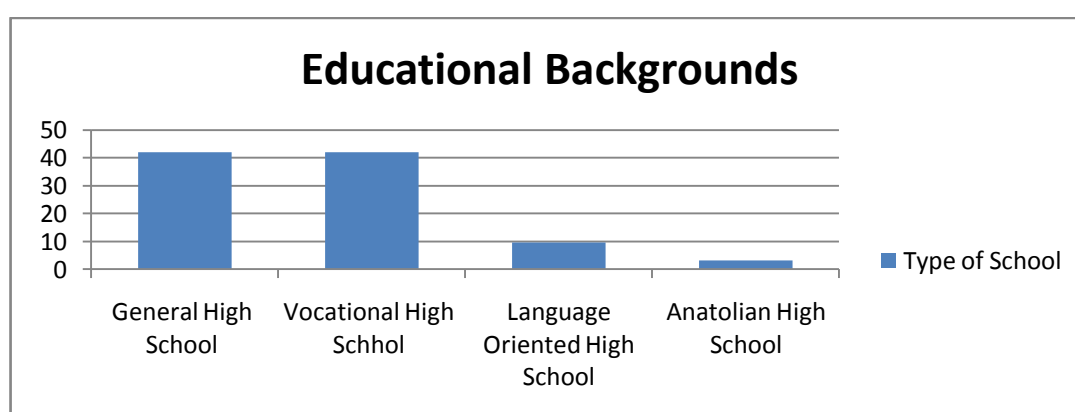
The participants in this study were 62 adult Turkish students at Trakya University at the School of Applied Sciences in Edirne. Their ages ranged between 19 and 25.

Figure 1: Gender Proportions



The proportion of male and female students in the classes was different. The number of the male students (61,3 %) was much more than the number of the female students (38,7 %).

Figure 2: Educational Backgrounds



The students had different educational backgrounds. Most of them were general high school (41,9 %) and vocational high school graduates (41,9 %). The others were the graduates of foreign language oriented schools (9,7 %) and Anatolian high schools (3,2 %).

The participants were divided into two groups; experimental and control groups. The members of experimental group were volunteer participants of a special speaking club, English Speaking Community. This club was formed by the volunteer students and the researcher. In this community, communicative strategies were instructed in detail to the participants. The control group students were selected randomly from those who didn't attend the English classes regularly. Accordingly, these students were not the participators of English Speaking Community. As it can be understood, experimental group students were regular participators of English classes as well as English Speaking Community. Different from the experimental group students, control group students were not regular students. This study was applied at the beginning of spring education term in 2011/2012 academic year. It lasted for 14 weeks. All of the participants were attending the same academic department and they shared the same goals towards learning English. At the beginning of the process, the students declared that they did not receive any formal or informal instruction in the area of language learning strategies. For this reason, it was easy to notice their pure motivation towards engaging a new experience.

3.3. The Statement of Problem

In many different learning circumstances, it was frequently observed that learners firstly should be aware of their existing personal traits, preferences towards language learning, and related strategies that would have a direct impact on their success in the learning process. Therefore, underlying reason of this study is derived from the insufficient amount of awareness observed among the students. In addition, students frequently expressed that they felt themselves competent on structural mechanisms of a language such as grammar. On the contrary, they added that they didn't feel themselves competent on functional and communicative mechanisms of language such as speaking and listening. In other words, they directly or indirectly pointed out that they need to be trained through some strategies that will contribute

and prosper their communicative competence. Briefly, the problem statement of this study is “The students attending Tourism Department are not competent enough to use the functional and communicative mechanisms of English while speaking and they are not aware of using suitable communicative strategies”.

3.4. Research Questions

In the light of the problems stated above, the following research questions will be investigated.

RQ 1: What learning strategies do learners use before and after strategy-instruction process?

RQ 2: Does strategy-instruction for learning strategies have a significant effect upon raising learners' awareness of learning strategies?

RQ 3: Does strategy-instruction for speaking strategies have a significant effect upon increasing the strategy use on speaking performances?

RQ 4: Does the strategy-instruction have a significant effect upon improving learners' speaking skills?

3.5. Instruments

Oxford's (1990b) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was used in this study so as to measure the strategy use (see appendix 5). The SILL was originally designed to assess the frequency of language learning strategies use by the students at the Defence Language Institute in California. The SILL was devised by Rebecca Oxford (1990b) as an instrument for assessing the frequency of language

learning strategies use by students. Two different versions of SILL are available; one for native speakers of English (80 items) and another for learners of English as a second or foreign language (50 items). The answers range from “never or almost never” to “always or almost always”. The survey presents the students’ tendency towards learning strategies as well as their inclination which strategies they use mostly.

SILL is considered to be as one of the most useful learner strategy assessment tool currently available. It is estimated that 40 to 50 major studies, including a dozen dissertations and theses, have been done using the SILL. Within the last 10 to 15 years, the SILL appears to be the only one language learning strategy instrument that has been extensively checked for reliability and validated in multiple ways (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995, p.4). Reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the Inventory is 0.96 based on a 1,200-person sample (Purdue University) and 0.95 based on a 483-person sample (Defense Language Institute, USA). Content validity is 0.95 based on independent raters.

SILL is a Likert scale (1-5 range) instrument that assesses the respondents’ use of variety of different strategies in the process of foreign language learning. The version 7.0 of SILL contains of 50 items, and characterized into six subscales: (a) memory strategies (items 1 to 9), (b) cognitive strategies (items 10 to 23), (c) compensation strategies (items 24 to 29), (d) metacognitive strategies (items 30 to 38), (e) affective strategies (items 39 to 44), (f) social strategies (items 45 to 50). These SILL 50 items are evaluated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5.

The SILL has been translated into many languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Spanish. A Turkish translation of the instrument (see Appendix 6) was used in this study in order to obtain more reliable results. The overall language proficiency of the participants is nearly pre-intermediate, therefore; Turkish translation is much more appropriate for the more reliable results. SILL was translated into Turkish by Bekleyen (2006). Turkish version’s reliability and validity analyses demonstrated that the strategy inventory was equally valid and reliable for use in Turkey as the measuring instrument (Demirel, 2009). The correlation of the scale with a similar

scale measuring the learning strategies was found to be $r:0,70$. The internal consistency coefficient of the scale was found as 0,92 and test retest reliability coefficient as 0,83 (Demirel, 2009).

The other instrument used in this study is “Strategy Check List” (see Appendix 7) adapted from the “*Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions/Definitions, Examples*” developed and compiled by Dörnyei and Scott (1997). The adapted form has 15 different strategic devices that were chosen by the researcher regarding the teachability of the items and the appropriateness to the researcher’s own modelling skills. The “Strategy Check List” aims to record how many different strategic devices a student use and how many times does she or he use them.

3.6. Implementation Process

At the beginning of the first course in the spring semester of 2011 and 2012 academic year, the students were declared that the main objective of the course is to improve their communicative competence. In the course, the communicative approach was adopted as the main teaching method as it was thought that it was the best way to follow in language teaching process in Tourism department. Through the course, it was aimed to improve students’ language skills by integrating related course materials and tasks into the course content. The course content, which was designed regarding the coursebook; ‘English for International Tourism – pre-intermediate’, ranges from situational language activities such as taking a booking, planning a holiday, dealing with a complaint, writing an e-mail, interviewing for a job and so on to the supportive vocabulary and grammar activities (see Table 3). In a specific semester, the courses last for fourteen weeks.

Table 3: 2011/2012 Spring Term – English IV – Course Content

WEEK	OBJECTIVES	LANGUAGE FOCUS	VOCABULARY	PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To be able to identify the difference between simple present and present continuous - To be able to take a booking - To be able to hire a car - To be able to plan a holiday 	Simple Present & Present Continuous - Comparison	Car hire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Take a booking (Listening) - Hire a car (speaking) - Plan a holiday (writing)
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To be able to give directions - To be able to introduce a touristic destination both in written and oral forms. - To be able to describe a building 	Past Simple	Question words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giving directions (speaking) - Give a guided tour (writing – speaking) - Describing a building (speaking)
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To be able to make comparison - To be able to write an e-mail describing a hotel 	Making comparison	Hotel Facilities How to deal with new words	- Writing an e-mail describing a hotel
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To be able to write a CV - To be able to 	Present Perfect	Cruises Cabin Facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Writing a CV - Writing a cover letter

	write a letter of application - To be able to apply for a job			- Applying for a job (speaking)
5	- To be able to check in a guest - To be able to write a letter of apology	Modal Verbs (request and offer)	On safari	- Check in a guest (speaking) - Write a letter of apology
6	- To be able to exchange holiday plans - To be able to describe traditional gifts	Predictions and intention	Health and safety	- Exchange holiday plans (speaking) - Describing traditional gifts (speaking)
7	Midterms			
8	Midterms			
9	- To be able to reply to an e-mail - To be able to recommend places to visit - To be able to write a fax	Modal Verbs (advising)	Conference equipment	- Replying to an e-mail (writing) - Recommending places to visit (speaking) - Write a fax
10	- To be able to exchange information on excursions - To be able to change a booking	Present Tenses as future	Geographical features Excursions	- Exchanging information on excursions (speaking) - Changing a booking

	- To be able to write a fax of confirmation			(listening) - Writing a fax of confirmation
11	- To be able to plan an entertainment programme - To be able to reply to an email enquiry	The passive	Ski equipment Ski resort jobs	- Planning an entertainment programme (writing & speaking) - Replying to an email enquiry
12	- To be able to give health advice - To be able to write a health information leaflet	Relative Pronouns	Ecotourism Medical equipment	- Giving health advice (speaking) - Writing a health information leaflet
13	- To be able to explain a bill	Conditional 1	Currencies	- Explaining a bill (speaking)
14	- To be able to describe climate in town	Revision	The weather forecast	- Describing climate in town (speaking)

Step 1

To be able to achieve the objectives, the students were informed about the idea of creating a social English speaking community. Additionally, 14 weeks of teaching and learning programme including strategies to be taught, tasks and activities was designed (see Table 4). It was also explained that the members of this group will be only the volunteers. In this way, they were left free to think of the idea and make a decision whether to be the member of the club or not. Thirty one students agreed to be the member of the club and they also formed the experimental group of this study.

Table 4: Speaking Club – Course Programme

Week	Objectives	Learning Strategies	Communicative Strategies	Tasks & Activities
1	Introduction Talking about objectives of the course Discussion on the process Students' own reflections			
2	- To be able to learn how to remember a word - To be able to describe an unknown word's properties - To be able to create a new touristic destination and present it - To be able to remember the other students' destinations and talk about them	Memory strategies - Creating mental linkages - Applying images and sounds	Circumlocution (paraphrase)	Creating a new touristic island
3	- To be able to learn	Memory	Approximation	Describing

	how to review - To be able to use alternative lexical items to compensate the unknown ones - To be able to describe pictures (getting help from the strategies of circumlocution and approximation)	Strategies - Reviewing well - Employing action		pictures
4	- To be able to use various practicing techniques such as repeating, recognizing, recombining - To be able to facilitate the fluency by using gap filling words	Cognitive Strategies - Practicing - Receiving and sending messages	Use of all purpose words	Talking about TV programmes
5	- To be able to analyze the expressions - To be able to learn how to take note, summarise and highlight - To be able to create a non-existing word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word.	Cognitive Strategies - Analyzing and reasoning - Creating structure for input and output	Word coinage	Talking about movies
6	- To be able to learn how to guess the	Compensation s strategies	Mime (non-linguistic/	Playing games:

	meaning of an unknown word - To be able to use non-linguistic messages such as gestures, mimics	- Guessing intelligently	paralinguistic strategies)	TABU
7	- To be able to learn how to compensate a language deficiency by applying various techniques such as circumlocution, approximation, language switch - To be able to learn interviewing techniques	Compensation strategies - Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	Code switching (language switch)	Interviewing
8	- To be able to overview student's own learning - To be able to translate literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2. - To be able to learn how to take a reservation	Metacognitive Strategies - Centering your learning	Literal translation (transfer)	Taking a reservation on the phone
9	- To be able to organize his/her own learning - To be able to set the goals and identify the purposes	Metacognitive Strategies - Arranging and planning your learning	Retrieval Self-repair	Playing games: TABU

	- To be able to supervise his/her learning	- Evaluating your learning		
10	- To be able to learn how to lower the anxiety - To be able to use similar sounding words - To be able to learn how to give a presentation	Affective Strategies - Lowering your anxiety - Encouraging yourself	Use of similar sounding words	Giving a presentation; advertising a destination
11	- To be able to control his/her feelings - To be able to learn how to give a presentation	Affective Strategies - Taking your emotional temperature	Mumbling Omission	Giving a presentation (continued)
12	- To be able to learn how to get clarification and verification	Social Strategies - Asking questions - Cooperating with others	Asking for clarification	Talking about 'names'; their meanings and messages
13	- To be able to become aware of others' feelings and thoughts - To be able to learn how to deal with complains	Social Strategies - Empathizing with others	Asking for repetition	Dealing with a complain
14	- To be able to revise the previous	Revision	Foreignizing	Playing games:

	acquisitions - To be able to use a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology			TABU
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Step 2

After forming the “Speaking Club”, the SILL was administrated to both experimental and control groups at the beginning of the spring education term. The next step was to administrate the first speaking test so as to identify the participants overall speaking competency and the use of strategies. Every single performance was video-taped and analyzed by the researcher and another English instructor who is also MA students at Trakya University without knowing which recording was pre-test or post-test. She wasn’t also aware of which group was Experimental and Control in order to obtain reliable and objective results. After the completion of the pre-tests, the following step was the implementation of strategy instruction on the experimental group. The instructional model of strategy training aimed to provide students with a set of strategies presented the following five developmental stages in CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach as; preparing, presenting, practicing, evaluating, and extending).

Step 3

At the strategy training phase, the students were explicitly informed about both learning and communication strategies. Additionally, they were provided to practice communication strategies. As it can be seen in Table 4, language learning strategies and communication strategies were aimed to be matched. To illustrate, the objectives of 12th week share some similarities in terms of LLS and CSs. While socializing, it is important to exchange the roles. Thus, it is helpful to ask for help from the other speakers of a conversation. In other words, students can ask questions and cooperate with others. Similarly, students can ask for clarification to maintain

the conversation. However, it is important here to reflect the ways of teaching these strategies.

Table 5 – A sample Speaking Club activity layout – 12th week

Warm-up
<p>Introduce the topic</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Names: their meaning and messages LLSs : asking questions, cooperating with others CSs: asking for clarification
<p>Let students to think about the topic</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students are asked to think about the following questions; <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do you know the meaning of your name? - Does it send a message? - Who gave your name? - Do you like your name? - How would you name your children? Why?
Let students exchange their ideas
<p>Exemplify the strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asking for clarification; <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Am I right? - Did I understand it correctly? - Is it that....? - Could you say that again please? - I didn't follow that. Could you repeat it? - Where/what/when exactly.....?
<p>Practice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students are asked to be pairs. They start a conversation by asking the questions above. They are also asked to use the strategies. The Researcher monitors and helps them.

Throughout the instruction process, experimental group participants were always video-taped. Besides being video-taped in both pre and post-speaking tests, they were also video-taped nearly all circumstances that requires oral performances. The participants were always led to watch and observe their video-taped performances in order to raise their individual awareness towards their speaking competence and use of strategies. Alongside video-records, the students were also followed by “logs” that consists of four open-ended questions (see Appendix 8). These logs were delivered to the students to leave their opinions on the task, their preparation experiences, acquirements after the task and further comments. Through logs, students were aimed to be observed periodically.

Step 4

Following the training, SILL was administrated to both groups for the second time in order to determine whether there were any changes in the students’ use strategies. In addition to this, both experimental and control groups were applied the speaking post-test in order to see whether there were any statistically significant changes in the speaking strategies used by the learners.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

In this part of the study, the quantitative and qualitative data results will be presented and interpreted.

4.1. The control group students' pre/post test results

The control group students' pre-test and post-test results were compared to reflect the impact of strategy instruction. Obviously, this group were not instructed on strategies and it is not expected to observe any significant difference between the pre and post-test results. Here, the results are presented.

Table 6: The t-test results of control group students' pre-test and post-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies

Measuring	N	Mean	S	Sd	T	p
Pre-test-a	31	2,746	0,661	30	0,745	0,462
Post-test-a	31	2,821	0,587	30		
Pre-test—b	31	2,733	0,631	30	0,542	0,562
Post-test b	31	2,783	0,618	30		
Pre-test—c	31	3,226	0,769	30	0,560	0,617
Post-test-c	31	3,151	0,908	30		
Pre-test—d	31	3,201	0,802	30	1,285	0,208
Post-test-d	31	3,086	0,486	30		

Pre-test—e	31	2,591	0,702	30	1,650	0,109
Post-test-e	31	2,591	0,702	30		
Pre-test-f	31	3,161	0,721	30	1,559	0,129
Post-test-f	31	2,962	0,794	30		

a: memory strategies, b: cognitive strategies, c: compensation strategies, d: metacognitive strategies, e: affective strategies, f: social strategies

The differences among the mean of the t-test results of control group students' pre-test and post-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies are not significant [$t_{(a)}=0,745$; $p>.05$; $t_{(b)}=0,542$; $p>.05$; $t_{(c)}=0,560$; $p>.05$; $t_{(d)}=1,285$; $p>.05$; $t_{(e)}=1,650$; $p>.05$; $t_{(f)}=1,559$; $p>.05$].

4.2. The experimental group students' pre/post test results

The experimental group students' existing strategy uses were investigated through the first application of SILL and the possible impact of strategy-based instruction on the students' strategy use was examined through the second application of SILL. The data gathered through SILL was analyzed by SPSS 15.0. Table 7 reflects the differences between the experimental students' pre and post test results.

Table 7: The t-test results of experimental group students' pre-test and post-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies

Measuring	N	Mean	S	sd	T	P
Pre-test-a	31	2,896	0,696	30	4,181	0,000
Post-test-a	31	3,351	0,607	30		
Pre-test—b	31	2,825	0,686	30	4,261	0,000
Post-test b	31	3,620	0,866	30		
Pre-test—c	31	2,919	0,899	30	5,324	0,000

Post-test-c	31	3,726	0,726	30		
Pre-test—d	31	3,538	0,873	30	1,649	0,110
Post-test-d	31	3,381	0,482	30		
Pre-test—e	31	2,677	0,742	30	0,619	0,540
Post-test-e	31	2,677	0,742	30		
Pre-test-f	31	3,113	0,743	30	5,125	0,000
Post-test-f	31	3,726	0,461	30		

a: memory strategies, b: cognitive strategies, c: compensation strategies, d: metacognitive strategies, e: affective strategies, f: social strategies

There is a significant difference among experimental group students' pre-test and post-test scores on memory strategies (a) (items 1 to 9), cognitive strategies (b) (items 10 to 23), compensation strategies (c) (items 24 to 29), metacognitive strategies (d) (items 30 to 38), affective strategies (e) (items 39 to 44), social strategies (f) (items 45 to 50) [$t_{(a)}=4,181$; $p<.01$; $t_{(b)}=4,261$; $p<.01$; $t_{(c)}=5,324$; $p<.01$; $t_{(f)}=5,125$; $p<.01$]. While the mean of students' pre-test scores on the section (a) memory strategies is $\bar{X}=2,896$, at the end of the strategy instruction, the mean of post-test scores went up to $\bar{X}=3,351$. The mean value of pre-test scores on cognitive strategies was found as $\bar{X}=2,825$. However, the post-test scores increased to $\bar{X}=3,620$. While the mean value of the students' pre-test scores on compensation strategies was $\bar{X}=2,919$, the mean of post test scores went up to $\bar{X}=3,726$. The same differentiation was observed on social strategies. The mean value of pre-test scores was recorded as $\bar{X}=3,113$. Meanwhile, the mean value of post-test scores was found as $\bar{X}=3,726$. These results indicated that the instruction applied on the experimental group had a positive impact on the test scores of the students. On the other hand, the difference between the mean of the pre-test and post-test scores on section (d) and (e) was not found as significant [$t_{(d)}=1,649$; $p>.05$; $t_{(e)}=0,619$; $p>.05$].

4.2.1. Memory strategies use before and after the treatment

To be more precise and to go through the details, Table 8 and 9 reflect the percentage range of the test scores on the experimental group students' memory strategies. Memory strategies, as stated before, can be divided into four sub-groups; creating mental linkages (items 1 and 2), applying images and sounds (items 3,4,5 and 6), reviewing well (items 7 and 8) and employing action (item 8). Those sub-groups are all represented in the inventory. Here the positive and negative responses will be analysed and compared.

Table 8: Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Memory Strategies

	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	1	3,2	2	6,5	7	22,6	14	45,2	7	22,6
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	1	3,2	11	35,5	11	35,5	5	16,1	3	9,7
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.	4	12,9	10	32,3	7	22,6	6	19,4	4	12,9
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	4	12,9	5	16,1	6	19,4	9	29,0	7	22,6
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	9	29,0	9	29,0	6	19,4	4	12,9	3	9,7
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	9	29,0	7	22,6	7	22,6	7	22,6	1	3,2
7. I physically act out new English words.	9	29,0	10	32,3	6	19,4	5	16,1	1	3,2
8. I review English lessons often.	-	-	11	35,5	14	45,2	5	16,1	1	3,2
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	4	12,9	10	32,3	5	16,1	5	16,1	7	22,6

When compared the positive responses to negative responses, percentage ranges reflected that positive responses (67,8%) outnumbered the negative responses (9,7%) on 'item 1' while negative responses (38,7% > 21,8%) did the same on 'item 2'. This reveals that while the students can think of relationships between what they already know and new things they learn in English, they cannot use new English words in a sentence so that they can remember them. Similarly, the negative responses outweighed the positive responses on 'item 3' (45,2% > 32,3%), 'item 5' (58,0% > 22,6 %) and 'item 6' (51,6 % > 25,8%). These results indicate that the students cannot connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help them remember the word. In addition, they do not use rhymes and flashcards to remember new English words. However, the same situation was not observed on 'item 4' on which the positive responses (51,6 %) were much more than the negative responses (29,0 %). This means that the students can remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used. The analysis of percentage range to reflect the difference between 'item 7' and 'item 8' demonstrated that negative responses outnumbered the positive responses. It shows that the students do not physically act out new English words and review English lessons often. The percentage of negative responses was found 61,3 % on 'item 7'. The percentage of positive responses stayed at 19,3 %. The same difference was observed on 'item 8' (35,5% > 19,3%). The last item, regarding the strategy of employing action, reflected that students' responses were mostly negative (45,4% > 38,7%). This means that they cannot remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

Table 9: Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Memory Strategies

	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	-	-	1	3,2	7	22,6	11	35,5	12	38,7
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	-	-	6	19,4	11	35,5	10	32,3	4	12,9
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.	2	6,5	2	6,5	9	29,0	16	51,6	2	6,5
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	2	6,5	2	6,5	8	25,8	12	38,7	7	22,6
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	4	12,9	6	19,4	11	35,5	8	25,8	2	6,5
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	8	25,8	7	22,6	5	16,1	5	16,1	6	19,4
7. I physically act out new English words.	3	9,7	10	32,3	7	22,6	6	19,4	5	16,1
8. I review English lessons often.	-	-	7	22,6	18	58,1	4	12,9	2	6,5
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	-	-	1	3,2	11	35,5	12	38,7	7	22,6

According to the results on Table 9, 74,2 % of (35,5 + 38,7) participants scored positively on the first item. Accordingly, the 45,3 % of them scored positively on the 'item 2'. Those items could be grouped into the strategy of creating mental linkages. The negative responses on the same items were found as; 3,2 % on 'item 1' and 19,4 % on 'item 2'. Regarding those results, the number of positive responses was found more than the negative responses. These results reveal that the students maintain thinking of relationships between what they already know and new things they learn in English. Different from the pre-test results, they use new English words in a sentence so that they can remember them. The percentage of positive scores on 'item 3' were found as 58,1 %, on 'item 4' as 61,3 %, on 'item 5' as 32,3 % and on 'item 6' as 35,5 %. The negative scores on the same items were found

respectively as ‘item 3’ 13,0 %, ‘item 4’ 13,0 %, ‘item 5’ 32,3 % and ‘item 6’ 48,4 %. It was observed that the positive responses outweighed the negative items on items 3 and 4. The number of positive and negative responses were resulted the same on ‘item 5’. Only negative responses outnumbered the positive responses on the ‘item 6’. These percentage rates demonstrated that the students can now connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word. In addition, they can still remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used. However, they preserve the attitude of not using flashcards to remember new English words. The analysis on the items 7 and 8 resulted that the negative responses (42% and 22,6 %) outweighed the positive responses (35,5 % and 19,4 %). Similar to the pre-test results, the students do not tend to physically act out new English words and review English lessons often. The results on the ‘item 9’ reflected that there are more positive responses (61,3%) than negative responses (3,2%). Different from the pre-test results, the students can remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

4.2.2. Cognitive strategies use before and after the treatment

Table 10 and 11 demonstrate the percentage range of the test scores on students’ cognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies are divided into four main sub-groups in SILL (Oxford, 1990); practicing (items 10, 11, 12, 13), receiving and sending messages (items 14, 15, 16, 17), analysing and reasoning (items 18, 19, 20, 21), creating structure for input and output (items 22 and 23). The positive and negative responses will be analysed and compared in this section of the study.

Table 10: Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Cognitive Strategies

Items	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
10 - I say or write new English words several times.	1	3,2	5	16,1	12	38,7	8	25,8	5	16,1
11 - I try to talk like native English speakers.	5	16,1	8	25,8	4	12,9	9	29,0	5	16,1
12 - I practice the sounds of English.	9	29,0	8	25,8	3	9,7	4	12,9	7	22,6
13 - I use the English words I know in different ways.	4	12,9	10	32,3	10	32,3	6	19,4	1	3,2
14 - I start conversations in English.	10	32,3	6	19,4	8	25,8	6	19,4	1	3,2
15 - I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	5	16,1	2	6,5	9	29,0	7	22,6	8	25,8
16 - I read for pleasure in English.	2	6,5	3	9,7	12	38,7	7	22,6	7	22,6
17 - I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	5	16,1	5	16,1	13	41,9	5	16,1	3	9,7
18 - I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	3	9,7	5	16,1	11	35,5	3	9,7	9	29,0
19 - I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	7	22,6	7	22,6	8	25,8	4	12,9	5	16,1
20 - I try to find patterns in English.	5	16,1	9	29,0	9	29,0	7	22,6	1	3,2
21 - I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	13	41,9	6	19,4	10	32,3	1	3,2	1	3,2
22 - I try not to translate word-for-word.	4	12,9	6	19,4	8	25,8	9	29,0	4	12,9
23 - I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	7	54,8	8	25,8	4	12,9	2	6,5	-	-

The majority of students responded the items 10 (31,9 % >19,3%) and 11 (31,9% > 45,1%) positively. These results reflect that the students say or write new English words several times and try to talk like native English speakers. However, the responses on the items 12 and 13 reflected opposite results; the number of negative responses on the ‘item 12’ (54,8% > 35,5%) and ‘item 13’ (45,2% > 22,6%) was found higher than the positive responses. That is to say, the students practice the sounds of English and use the English words they know in different ways. The

negative results on the items 14 (51,7% > 22,6%) and 17 (32,2% > 25,8%) outnumbered the positive results. According to these results, the students do not start conversations in English and write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English. On the other hand, the positive responses outnumbered the negative ones on the items 15 (48,4% > 22,6%) and 16 (45,2% > 16,2%). This means that the students watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies and read for pleasure in English.

Following these results, the negative responses outweighed the positive responses on the items 19 (45,2% > 29,0%), 20 (45,1% > 25,8%), 21 (61,3% > 6,4%). Only the item 18 became different having more positive results than the negative results (38,7% > 25,8%). Regarding these statistics, the students can skim an English passage then go back and read carefully. However, they do not look for words in their own languages that are similar to new words in English, try to find patterns in English and find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that they understand. The same analysis on the last two items showed that while the positive responses were much more than the negative responses on 'item 22' (41,9% > 32,7%), the negative scores outnumbered the positive ones on the 'item 23' (80,6% > 6,5%). In other words, the students do not translate word-for-word, but, they do not make summaries of information that they hear or read in English.

Table 11: Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Cognitive Strategies

Items	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
10 - I say or write new English words several times.	2	6,5	4	12,9	10	32,3	10	32,3	5	16,1
11 - I try to talk like native English speakers.	-	-	5	16,1	7	22,6	10	32,3	9	29,0
12 - I practice the sounds of English.	2	6,5	7	22,6	7	22,6	7	22,6	8	25,8
13 - I use the English words I know in different ways.	1	3,2	6	19,4	14	45,2	6	19,4	4	12,9

14 - I start conversations in English.	2	6,5	6	19,4	11	35,5	6	19,4	6	19,4
15 - I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	-	-	-	-	5	16,1	11	35,5	15	48,4
16 - I read for pleasure in English.	-	-	1	3,2	7	22,6	13	41,9	10	32,3
17 - I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	2	6,5	8	25,8	8	25,8	4	12,9	9	29,0
18 - I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	1	3,2	2	6,5	8	25,8	12	38,7	8	25,8
19 - I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	2	6,5	3	9,7	17	54,8	4	12,9	5	16,1
20 - I try to find patterns in English.	-	-	6	19,4	10	32,3	7	22,6	8	25,8
21 - I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	3	9,7	7	22,6	7	22,6	4	12,9	10	32,3
22 - I try not to translate word-for-word.	1	3,2	2	6,5	8	25,8	15	48,4	5	16,1
23 - I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	4	12,9	12	38,7	6	19,4	3	9,7	6	19,4

The analysis of post-test scores on cognitive strategies reflected that on the first four items 10 (48,4% > 19,4%), 11 (61,3% > 16,1%), 12 (48,4% > 29,1%) and 13 (32,3% > 22,6%) the positive responses surpassed the negative responses distinctively. According to these results, the students maintain using the strategy of saying or writing new English words several times and trying to talk like native English speakers. Different from the pre-test results, they can practice the sounds of English and start conversations in English. The same difference could be observed on the items 14, 15, 16 and 17. The positive responses resulted on the 'item 14' as 38,8%, negative responses as 25,9%. The percentage of positive responses were recorded as 83,9 % while there was no negative response. On the 'item 16', positive responses were found as 74,2%, negative responses as 3,2%. A small difference can be observed on the 'item 17' on which the positive responses were slightly more than negative responses (41,9% > 32,3%). Different from the 'item 17', a significant difference could be presented on the 'item 18' as positive responses 64,5%, negative responses 9,7%. These results indicate that the students keep watching English language TV shows spoken in English, going to movies or reading for pleasure in English. They also maintain using the strategy of skimming an English passage and then going back and read carefully. In addition, they can now start conversations in

English and write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English. It was observed that the positive responses dominate the following items except '23'. On the 'item 19', positive responses was found as 29,0 %, negative ones as 16,2 %. Similarly, positive responses outnumbered negative ones on the 'item 20' (48,4 % < 19,4 %), on the 'item 21' (45,2 % < 32,3 %) and on the 'item 22' (64,5 % < 9,7 %). Conversely, the negative responses outnumbered the positive ones on the 'item 23' (51,6 % < 29,1 %). Different from the pre-test results, the students can look for words in their own language that are similar to new words in English, try to find patterns in English, and find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts. They keep trying not to translate word-for-word. In addition, they still do not make summaries of information that they hear or read in English.

4.2.3. Compensation strategies use before and after the treatment

In this part of the study, the students' compensation strategies use before and after the strategy instruction will be presented. Table 12 and Table 13 show the percentage range of the test scores on students' compensation strategies. According to Oxford (1990), there are two specific groups in compensation strategies. One is "guessing intelligently" and the other is "overcoming limitations in speaking and writing". As shown before on the Figure 1, these two groups are well subdivided into smaller groups such as using linguistic clues, getting help, coining words. In the inventory, the representative items of the two main groups can be seen. The items 24 and 25 represent the strategy of guessing intelligently while the items 26, 27, 28 and 29 represent the strategy of overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.

Table 12: Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Compensation Strategies

	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	3	9,7	9	29,0	7	22,6	9	29,0	3	9,7
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	4	12,9	7	22,6	6	19,4	7	22,6	7	22,6
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	10	32,3	8	25,8	7	22,6	3	9,7	3	9,7
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	5	16,1	8	25,8	11	35,5	4	12,9	3	9,7
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	7	22,6	5	16,1	12	38,7	6	19,4	1	3,2
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	3	9,7	4	12,9	8	25,8	5	16,1	11	35,5

The range of percentage results reflected that there is no difference between the negative and positive responses on the 'item 24' (38,7% = 38,7%). However, a difference was observed on the 'item 25'. The negative responses were found as 35,5%, positive responses as 45,2%. This means that they can use gestures when they can't think of a word during a conversation. The next three items resulted with a clear superiority in the number of negative responses to the positive ones. Negative responses were found more than positive responses on the 'item 26' (58,1% > 19,4%). The same difference in favour of negative responses was observed on the 'item 27' (41,9% > 22,6%). The negative responses outnumbered the positive responses on the 'item 28' as well (38,7% > 22,6%). Only on the 'item 29', the difference was observed in favour of positive responses (51,6% > 22,6%). According to these results, they cannot make up new words if they do not know the right ones in English, read English without looking up every new word and try to guess what the other person will say next. However, they can use a word or phrase that means the same thing if they can't think of an English word.

Table 13: Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Compensation Strategies

	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	-	-	-	-	7	22,6	13	41,9	11	35,5
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	1	3,2	4	12,9	8	25,8	9	29,0	9	29,0
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	-	-	8	25,8	9	29,0	5	16,1	9	29,0
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	-	-	6	19,4	5	16,1	12	38,7	8	25,8
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	2	6,5	3	9,7	13	41,9	8	25,8	5	16,1
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	-	-	2	6,5	6	19,4	13	41,9	10	32,3

According to the results on Table 13, on all of the items, the positive responses surpassed the negative responses significantly. On the 'item 24', there was no negative response but positive ones were found as 77,4%. On the 'item 25', the negative responses were recorded as 16,1%, the positive ones as 58,0%. Regarding the 'item 26', while the 25,8% of students scored the items negatively, the 45,1% of them scored positively. The same clear difference was observed on the 'item 27'. The negative responses were 19,4%, the positive ones were 64,5%. Similarly, the positive responses outnumbered the negative ones on the 'item 28' (41,9% > 16,2%). Another significant difference was on the 'item 29'. The positive responses were found as 74,2%, negative ones as 6,5%. These results indicate that the students maintain using gestures when they can't think of a word during a conversation and using a word or phrase that means the same thing if they can't think of an English word. Different from the pre-test results, they can now make guesses to understand unfamiliar English words, make up new words if they do not know the right ones,

read without looking up every new word and try to guess what the other person will say next.

4.2.4. Metacognitive strategies use before and after the treatment

The students' existing metacognitive strategies before the strategy training and the possible changes after the treatment will be presented and compared here. Table 14 and Table 15 show the percentage range of the pre and post-test scores on students' metacognitive strategies. The two main sub-groups, centering your learning and arranging and planning your learning, are all represented in the inventory. To be more precise, the items 30, 31 and 32 represent the strategy of "centering your learning", the rest are for the strategy of "arranging and planning your learning".

Table 14: Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Metacognitive Strategies

	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	3	9,7	4	12,9	11	35,5	7	22,6	6	19,4
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	2	6,5	2	6,5	7	22,6	13	41,9	7	22,6
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	2	6,5	-	-	2	6,5	10	32,3	17	54,8
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	2	6,5	-	-	7	22,6	9	29,0	13	41,9
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	6	19,4	6	19,4	12	38,7	4	12,9	3	9,7
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.	6	19,4	7	22,6	8	25,8	4	12,9	10	32,3
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	4	12,9	3	9,7	11	35,5	8	25,8	5	16,1
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1	3,2	7	22,6	6	19,4	6	19,4	11	35,5

38. I think about my progress in learning English.	1	3,2	4	12,9	9	29,0	10	32,3	7	22,6
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According to the Table 14, the range of percentage results obtained from the pre-test scores reflected that majority of the students had metacognitive strategies. For the first metacognitive strategy, the first three items demonstrated that positive responses outweighed the negative responses. The ranges were found on the 'item 30' as 42,0% positive, 22,6% negative. The same difference in favour of positive responses was observed on the 'item 31' (64,5% > 13,0%). Positive responses outnumbered the negative responses on the 'item 32' as well (87,1% > 6,5%). These results mean that the students try to find as many ways as they can to use their English, notice their English mistakes and use that information to help them do better and pay attention when someone is speaking English.

Regarding the second metacognitive strategy, arranging and planning your learning, it was found that positive responses were more than negative ones. The 'item 33' reflected that 70,9% of the students scored positively. The negative responses stayed at 6,5%. On the other hand, the same distinctive difference were not observed on the 'item 34' because the negative responses were more than positive ones (38,8% > 22,6%). In other words, majority of the students try to find out how to be a better learner of English. However, they do not plan their schedule so they will have enough time to study English. A slight difference in favour of positive responses was recorded on the 'item 35' (45,2% > 42%). Similarly, the positive responses were more than on the 'item 36' (41,9% > 22,6%). On the last two items, a significant difference was observed in favour of positive responses. 54,9% of the students responded 'item 37' positively while 25,8% of them gave negative responses. The positive responses were found as 54,9%, the negatives as 16,1% on the last item. As a result of these findings, it was observed that the students look for people they can talk to in English and opportunities to read as much as possible in English. Furthermore, they have clear goals for improving their English skills and they think about their progress in learning English.

Table 15: Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Metacognitive Strategies

	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	-	-	3	9,7	9	29,0	6	19,4	13	41,9
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	-	-	1	3,2	8	25,8	12	38,7	10	32,3
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	-	-	-	-	3	9,7	9	29,0	19	61,3
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	-	-	1	3,2	8	25,8	11	35,5	11	35,5
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	1	3,2	5	16,1	13	41,9	6	19,4	6	19,4
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.	-	-	2	6,5	4	12,9	11	35,5	14	45,2
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	-	-	6	19,4	5	16,1	12	38,7	8	25,8
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1	3,2	3	9,7	7	22,6	11	35,5	9	29,0
38. I think about my progress in learning English.	-	-	2	6,5	8	25,8	12	38,7	9	29,0

When compared to pre-test scores, post-test scores reflected that the number of positive responses increased significantly. Table 15 demonstrated that negative responses couldn't outnumber the positive responses on any items listed above. For the first item, the positive responses outweighed the negative ones (61,3% > 9,7%). The situation was the same for the 'item 31'; 71,0% of the responses were positive, 3,2% of them were negative. Surprisingly, there were no negative score on the 'item 32'. The positive responses were found as 90,3%.

Regarding the second part of the metacognitive strategies, it started with a significant difference to the detriment of negative responses on the 'item 33' (71,0% > 3,2%). 'Item 34' reflected that positive responses outnumbered the negative responses as well (38,8% > 19,3%). Similarly, on the items 35 (80,7% > 6,5%), 36 (64,5% > 19,4%), 37 (64,5% > 12,9%) and 38 (67,7% > 6,5%), positive responses

outnumbered the negative ones significantly. In the light of these findings, the students not only preserved using metacognitive strategies but also they increased the frequency of using them.

4.2.5. Affective strategies use before and after the treatment

In this part of the study, the students' affective strategies use before and after the strategy instruction will be presented. Table 16 and Table 17 reflect the percentage range of the pre and post-test scores on students' affective strategies. Affective strategies are divided into three groups as lowering your anxiety (item 39), encouraging yourself (item 40 and 41) and taking your emotional temperature (item 42, 43 and 44). Those three sub-groups are all represented on this part of SILL.

Table 16: Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Affective Strategies

Items	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	4	12,9	6	19,4	6	19,4	7	22,6	8	25,8
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	4	12,9	5	16,1	8	25,8	8	25,8	6	19,4
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	15	48,4	3	9,7	7	22,6	3	9,7	3	9,7
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	1	3,2	5	16,1	6	19,4	10	32,3	9	29,0
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	26	83,9	3	9,7	1	3,2	-	-	1	3,2
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	15	48,4	4	12,9	4	12,9	2	6,5	6	19,4

Table 16 demonstrated that the percentage of positive results were more than the negative results on the 'item 39' (48,4% > 32,3 %). This means that the students try to relax whenever they feel afraid of using English. The results on the items 40 and 41 reflected that while the positive responses outnumbered the negative responses on 'item 40' (45,2% > 29,0 %), negative responses outnumbered the positive ones on 'item 41' (58,1 % > 19,4%). Regarding these results, while the students encourage themselves to speak English even when they are afraid of making a mistake, they do not give themselves a reward or treat when they do well in English. The percentage results of the 'item 42' reflected that positive responses were high in number (61,3% > 19,3%). Different from the 'item 42', the negative responses were found to be high in number on the 'item 43' (93,6 % > 3,2 %). This significant difference in favour of negative responses was also observed on the 'item 44' (61,3% > 25,9%). According to these results, the students can notice if they are tense or nervous when they are studying or using English. However, they do not write down their feelings in a language learning diary or talk to someone else about how they feel when they are learning English.

Table 17: Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Affective Strategies

Items	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	-	-	3	9,7	7	22,6	14	45,2	7	22,6
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	1	3,2	1	3,2	3	9,7	13	41,9	13	41,9
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	5	16,1	3	9,7	12	38,7	4	12,9	7	22,6
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	-	-	1	3,2	9	29,0	6	19,4	15	48,4
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	16	51,6	4	12,9	6	19,4	2	6,5	3	9,7
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	11	35,5	4	12,9	6	19,4	6	19,4	4	12,9

Table 17 which reflects the post-test results of affective strategies demonstrated that positive responses outnumbered the negative ones on the first beginning four items. The positive responses were found as 67,8% while negative ones were found as 9,7% on the 'item 39'. Regarding the strategy of encouraging yourself, the next two items were found to be positive in number, too. The positive responses on the 'item 40' were found as 83,8 % and negative ones were found as 6,4 %. Similar to the 'item 40', 'item 41' reflected the same difference; positive superiority (35,5% > 25,9 %). These results reveal that the students keep trying to relax whenever they feel afraid of using English and encouraging themselves to speak English even when they are afraid of making a mistake. Moreover, they now give themselves a reward or treat when they do well in English.

While the positive responses were found high in number on the 'item 42' (67,8% > 3,2%), the negative responses outnumbered the positive ones on the 'item 43' (64,5% > 16,2%) and on the 'item 44' (48,4 % > 32,3 %). These results mean that the students maintain noticing if they are tense or nervous when they are studying or using English. However, they still do not tend to write down their feelings in a language learning diary and talk to someone else about how they feel when they are learning English.

4.2.6. Social strategies use before and after the treatment

Here the experimental students' social strategies use before and after the strategy training will be presented and compared. Table 18 and 19 demonstrate the percentage results of experimental group students on social strategies. Here, there are six items representing all sub-strategies clearly. To illustrate, the first two items represent the strategy of asking questions. The next three items (47, 48 and 49) represent the strategy of cooperating with others and the last item stands for the strategy of empathising with others.

Table 18: Pre-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Social Strategies

	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	1	3,2	1	3,2	4	12,9	12	38,7	13	41,9
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	3	9,7	5	16,1	5	16,1	9	29,0	9	29,0
47. I practice English with other students.	18	58,1	8	25,8	4	12,9	-	-	1	3,2
48. I ask for help from English speakers.	3	9,7	6	19,4	5	16,1	9	29,0	8	25,8
49. I ask questions in English.	5	16,1	11	35,5	6	19,4	4	12,9	5	16,1
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	5	16,1	5	16,1	5	16,1	11	35,5	5	16,1

Table 18 reflected that positive responses were found to be high in number on four of the items. The remaining two items reflected the opposite direction. The positive responses were outnumbered the negative ones on the ‘item 45’ (80,6 % > 6,4%) and ‘item 46’ (58,0 % > 25,8%). In other words, the students can ask the other person to slow down or say it again if they do not understand something in English and to correct them when they talk. However, regarding the strategy of cooperating others, the negative responses outnumbered the positive ones significantly on the ‘item 47’ (83,9 % > 3,2%) and on the ‘item 49’ (51,6% > 29,0%). Different from these results, the positive responses were found to be high in number again on the ‘item 48’ (54,8 % > 29,1%). These results reflect that the students cannot practice English with other students and ask questions in English. However, they can ask for help from English speakers. The results of the last item showed that positive responses outweighed the negative ones (51,6% > 32,2%). That is to say, the students try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Table19: Post-test percentage (%) results of Experimental Group Students on Social Strategies

	Never or almost never true of me		Usually not true of me		Somewhat true of me		Usually true of me		Always or almost always true of me	
Items	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	-	-	-	-	5	16,1	10	32,3	16	51,6
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	-	-	1	3,2	6	19,4	7	22,6	17	54,8
47. I practice English with other students.	8	25,8	9	29,0	6	19,4	2	6,5	6	19,4
48. I ask for help from English speakers.	1	3,2	-	-	4	12,9	14	45,2	12	38,7
49. I ask questions in English.	1	3,2	3	9,7	10	32,3	6	19,4	11	35,5
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	6	19,4	4	12,9	7	22,6	7	22,6	7	22,6

The post-test results of Social strategies did not differ from the pre-test results significantly as the positive responses kept the dominance. The positive responses were found to be high on the ‘item 45’ ($83,9\% > 0,00$) and on the ‘item 46’ ($77,4\% > 3,2$). The only negative dominance was found on the ‘item 47’ ($54,8\% > 25,9\%$). The positive responses outnumbered the negative ones again on the items 48 ($83,9\% > 3,2\%$), item 49 ($54,9\% > 12,9\%$) and item 50 ($45,2\% > 32,3\%$). These results demonstrate that the students keep using the strategies that previously observed on the pre-test. Additionally, the students can now ask questions in English. However, they still do not practice English with other students.

4.3. Strategy use differences regarding different variables

The previous studies in this field have reflected the researchers have focused on many different variables that can affect the choice of learning strategies. As stated

before, these variables range from age, gender, nationality to learning context, motivation and language proficiency (Zare & Nooreen, 2011; Khamkhien, 2010; Rahimi, et al. 2008; Chamot, 2004; Griffiths, 2003; Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2007; Green and Oxford, 1995; Ehrman and Oxford, 1990). Therefore, it is important to investigate the possible impact of such kind of variable on the students' strategies use. In this part of the study, the following variables will be presented respectively; gender, age, education level of the students' families, type of high school, experience of preparatory class and proficiency level.

Table 20: The Mann Whitney U test results of the students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding their gender

Gender	N	Mean Rank	Rank Sum	U	p
Female-a	17	35,15	597,50	320,500	0,327
Male-a	45	30,12	1355,50		
Female-b	17	33,44	568,50	349,500	0,602
Male-b	45	30,77	1384,50		
Female-c	17	31,44	534,50	381,500	0,327
Male -c	45	31,52	1418,50		
Female -d	17	40,56	689,50	228,500	0,015
Male -d	45	28,08	1263,50		
Female -e	17	31,53	536,00	382,000	0,994
Male -e	45	31,49	1417,00		
Female -f	17	32,18	547,00	371,000	0,855
Male -f	45	31,24	1406,00		

Any possible impact of gender was investigated through the Man Whitney U test. The results are shown on Table 20. Regarding the gender, the results of Mann Whitney U test reflect that students' pre-test and post-test scores only become different in section (d) metacognitive strategies ($U=228,500$, $p<,05$).

Table 21: The t-test results of the students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding their age

Measuring	N	Mean	S	sd	t	p
19 and 20 (a)	31	2,867	0,663	60	0,538	0,592
21 and over (a)	31	2,774	0,699	60		
19 and 20 (b)	31	2,728	0,698	60	0,606	0,547
21 and over(b)	31	2,830	0,617	60		
19 and 20 (c)	31	3,027	0,842	60	0,423	0,674
21 and over (c)	31	3,118	0,858	60		
19 and 20 (d)	31	3,373	0,832	60	0,033	0,974
21 and over (d)	31	3,366	0,879	60		
19 and 20 (e)	31	2,602	0,648	60	0,352	0,726
21 and over (e)	31	2,667	0,790	60		
19 and 20 (f)	31	3,070	0,683	60	0,726	0,471
21 and over (f)	31	3,204	0,773	60		

The age factor was determined as another variable that would have an impact on students' strategy use. Here, the t-test results are presented.

The students' test scores on the sections a, b, c, d, e, f reflected that there is no significant difference among the participants regarding the age [$t_{(a)} = 0,538$; $p > .05$; $t_{(b)} = 0,606$; $p > .05$; $t_{(c)} = 0,423$; $p > .05$; $t_{(d)} = 0,033$; $p > .05$; $t_{(e)} = 0,352$; $p > .05$; $t_{(f)} = 0,726$; $p > .05$].

Table 22: The Kruskal Wallis test results of students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding their families' level of education

Degree	N	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	p	Significance
Elementary School (a)	14	31,43	4	5,592	0,282	

Secondary School	6	29,33				
High School	25	26,48				
Associate Degree	7	38,86				
Bachelor's Degree	10	40,30				
Elementary School (b)	14	23,96	4	6,485	,166	
Secondary School	6	24,58				
High School	25	33,24				
Associate Degree	7	32,43				
Bachelor's Degree	10	41,20				
Elementary School (c)	14	29,75	4	4,803	,308	
Secondary School	6	23,17				
High School	25	30,28				
Associate Degree	7	43,50				
Bachelor's Degree	10	33,60				
Elementary School (d)	14	27,11	4	2,513	,642	
Secondary School	6	27,50				
High School	25	33,54				
Associate Degree	7	28,71				
Bachelor's Degree	10	36,90				
Elementary School (e)	14	31,36	4	1,916	,751	
Secondary School	6	27,92				
High School	25	29,26				
Associate Degree	7	34,21				
Bachelor's Degree	10	37,55				
Elementary School (f)	14	28,14	4	7,305	,121	
Secondary School	6	32,50				
High School	25	26,60				
Associate Degree	7	40,14				
Bachelor's Degree	10	41,80				

The parents could be thought as key determiner of the students' learning experiences. They may easily shape their children's perception of different kind of educational materials, techniques and strategies as well. If it is acceptable to consider the education as the determiner on the perception of parents on these items, it may well be accepted as a potential factor that will influence students' preferences and perceptions. Here the test results of the Kruskal Wallis, which tests the impact of families' level of education on students' responses, are presented.

The students' test scores on the sections a, b, c, d, e, f concluded that there was no significant difference among the participants regarding their families' level of education [$\chi^2_{a(3)} = 5,592$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2_{b(3)} = 6,485$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2_{c(3)} = 4,803$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2_{d(3)} = 2,513$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2_{e(3)} = 1,916$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2_{f(3)} = 7,305$, $p > .05$].

Table 23: The Kruskal Wallis test results of students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding the high school that the participants graduated

High School	N	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	p	Significance
General High School-a	26	33,37	4	6,311	,177	
Foreign Language Oriented HS	4	49,88				
Vocational HS	21	29,19				
Anatolian HS	10	24,85				
The Others	1	24,50				
General High School -b	26	31,92	4	12,211	,016	Foreign Language OHS - General High School, Vocational HS, Anatolian HS
Foreign Language Oriented HS	4	58,13				

Vocational HS	21	29,55				
Anatolian HS	10	26,70				
The Others	1	3,00				
General High School -c	26	34,56	4	8,956	,062	
Foreign Language Oriented HS	4	50,25				
Vocational HS	21	25,52				
Anatolian HS	10	30,80				
The Others	1	9,50				
General High School -d	26	34,10	4	5,460	,243	
Foreign Language Oriented HS	4	44,50				
Vocational HS	21	29,86				
Anatolian HS	10	25,15				
The Others	1	10,00				
General High School -e	26	35,54	4	5,347	,254	
Foreign Language Oriented HS	4	39,13				
Vocational HS	21	29,40				
Anatolian HS	10	24,60				
The Others	1	9,00				
General High School -f	26	35,79	4	3,667	,450	
Foreign Language Oriented HS	4	36,63				
Vocational HS	21	27,45				
Anatolian HS	10	26,55				
The Others	1	34,00				

Another potential factor could be the type of high school that the participants graduated from. The level and the method of English teaching vary greatly in high schools in Turkey. Thus, it was considered as a variable that is to be test.

Regarding the school that the participants have graduated, a significant difference was not observed among the students' test scores on the sections a,c,d,e,f. [$\chi^2_{a(3)} = 6,311$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2_{c(3)} = 8,956$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2_{d(3)} = 5,460$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2_{e(3)} = 5,347$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2_{f(3)} = 3,667$, $p > .05$]. However, a significant difference among the participants' test scores was observed on section (b). [$\chi^2_{b(3)} = 12,211$, $p < .05$]. To be able to identify in which school groups a significant difference exist, Mann Whitney U test which is one of the non-parametric methods was operated. Accordingly, the test scores of the students graduated from Foreign Language OHS, General High School, Vocational HS, Anatolian HS on cognitive strategies resulted that there was significant difference in favour of foreign language oriented high school [$U=4,000$, $p < .01$; $U=2,500$, $p < .01$; $U=3,000$, $p < .05$].

Table 24: The Mann Whitney U test results of students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding their state of having preparatory class or not

The State	N	Mean Rank	Rank Sum	U	p
Yes-a	20	30,58	611,50	401,500	,780
No-a	42	31,94	1341,50		
Yes-b	20	32,13	642,50	407,500	,850
No-b	42	31,20	1310,50		
Yes-c	20	30,00	600,00	390,000	,650
No-c	42	32,21	1353,00		
Yes-d	20	30,88	617,50	407,500	,851
No-d	42	31,80	1335,50		
Yes-e	20	29,43	588,50	378,500	,531
No-e	42	32,49	1364,50		
Yes-f	20	30,80	616,00	406,000	,832
No-f	42	31,83	1337,00		

Preparatory classes for teaching English could be considered important as they provide wide and intense training opportunities. However, this opportunity is

not offered to students in all kind of schools. Since some of the participants of this study were the ones who experienced preparatory class but the others were not, it was thought as a possible determiner on students' given responses.

There was no significant difference among the students test scores regarding their state of having preparatory class or not ($U_{(a)} = 401,500$, $p > ,05$; $U_{(b)} = 407,500$, $p > ,05$; $U_{(c)} = 390,000$, $p > ,05$; $U_{(d)} = 407,500$, $p > ,05$; $U_{(e)} = 378,500$, $p > ,05$; $U_{(f)} = 406,000$, $p > ,05$).

Table 25: The Kruskal Wallis test results of students' pre-test scores on (a) memory strategies, (b) cognitive strategies, (c) compensation strategies, (d) metacognitive strategies, (e) affective strategies, (f) social strategies regarding their state of achievement in English courses

State of Achievement	N	Mean Rank	sd	χ^2	p	Significance
Excellent-a	2	32,50	4	9,518	,049	Very bad-good, average
Good	15	39,43				
Average	30	29,95				
Poor	10	34,05				
Very bad	5	11,50				
Excellent -b	2	46,50	4	13,806	,008	Very bad-excellent, good, average, poor
Good	15	37,90				
Average	30	33,03				
Poor	10	26,80				
Very bad	5	6,50				
Excellent -c	2	29,00	4	1,518	,823	
Good	15	34,87				
Average	30	32,12				

Poor	10	28,10				
Very bad	5	25,50				
Excellent -d	2	48,75	4	10,694	,030	Very bad- good, average, poor
Good	15	39,67				
Average	30	28,80				
Poor	10	32,95				
Very bad	5	13,40				
Excellent -e	2	47,00	4	2,627	,622	
Good	15	29,03				
Average	30	32,75				
Poor	10	31,75				
Very bad	5	24,70				
Excellent -f	2	58,25	4	6,593	,159	
Good	15	33,03				
Average	30	30,63				
Poor	10	32,05				
Very bad	5	20,30				

The students' perception of their achievement level in English can be foreseen as a key factor that will influence their motivation, willingness and self-confidence. If it is a potential element that can shape these emotional possessions, it may have an impact on their learning strategy uses, as well.

Mann Whitney U test was used to identify in which level a significant difference existed. Based on the participants' state of achievement in English courses, a significant difference was observed among the participants test scores on the sections a, b and d [$\chi^2_{a(3)} = 9,518$, $p < .05$; $\chi^2_{b(3)} = 13,806$, $p < .05$; $\chi^2_{d(3)} = 10,694$, $p < .05$]. Accordingly, on memory strategies, the test scores of the participants whose achievement level of English courses are very bad, good and average reflected that there was a significant difference among these groups to the detriment of those

whose levels are very bad [$U=5,000$, $p<.01$; $U=26,000$, $p<.05$]. Furthermore, a significant difference among the groups ‘very bad’, ‘excellent’, ‘good’, ‘average’ and ‘poor’ to the detriment of the group ‘very bad’ was observed on cognitive strategies [$U=0,000$, $p<.05$; $U=4,000$, $p<.01$; $U=9,000$, $p<.01$; $U=4,500$, $p<.05$]. In section “d” (metacognitive strategies), the test scores of the participants whose achievement level of English courses are ‘very bad’, ‘good’, ‘average’ and ‘poor’ reflected that there was a significant difference among them in the detriment of the group ‘very bad’ [$U=12,500$, $p<.05$; $U=31,000$, $p<.05$; $U=8,500$, $p<.05$].

4.4. Strategy use rate of experimental group students

Communication strategies use rate of the experimental group students were checked through the strategy checklist on both pre and post speaking tests. Pre-speaking test was applied before the strategy training. The existing strategies and their use rate were recorded. After the strategy training, the post-speaking test was devised and the communication strategies and their use rates were recorded, as well.

Table 26: The strategy use rate of experimental group students on pre and post speaking tests

Group	S 1	S 2	S 3	S 4	S 5	S 6	S 7	S 8	S 9	S 10	S 11	S 12	S 13	S 14	S 15
Experimental Pre-test	2	3	1	1	0	15	8	0	1	3	0	4	19	5	5
Experimental Post-test	7	16	14	2	6	17	29	0	9	23	11	22	29	9	10

Table 26 reflects the results of experimental students’ strategy use rate on both pre and post-speaking tests. There were fifteen strategies that were checked through during the speaking tests. The original form of the check lists includes all of

the names of the strategies (see Appendix 7). Here on the table, only the number of the strategies was included. For instance, ‘S 1’ stands for “Circumlocution (paraphrase)”, the first strategy on the check list.

According to the table 26, it was observed that the rate of the strategy use increased significantly after the implementation of strategy training. There was no change only on the ‘strategy 8’ that is ‘the use of similar sounding words’.

4.5. Comparison of the strategy use by the experimental and control group students

The same post-speaking test was applied to both experimental and control group students. The communication strategies used by both groups were recorded and their use rate was reflected on table 27.

Table 27: The difference between the experimental group and control group regarding the strategy use rate on post speaking test

Group	S 1	S 2	S 3	S 4	S 5	S 6	S 7	S 8	S 9	S 10	S 11	S 12	S 13	S 14	S 15
Experimental Post-test	7	16	14	2	6	17	29	0	9	23	11	22	29	9	10
Control Post-test	0	1	0	0	6	8	4	0	1	3	3	4	20	2	0

The results on table 27 demonstrated that the rate of strategy use among the experimental group was significantly high in number compared to control group. It was difficult to reflect the difference between the groups regarding the rate of strategy use as it was nearly impossible to determine the mode. To illustrate, how many times a student can use one specific strategy is uncertain. Therefore, the statistical comparison between the groups is impossible.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this part of the study, both qualitative data gathered from SILL and Strategy Check List and quantitative data gathered from logs and classroom observations will be discussed in the light of three main research questions and the studies that have been conducted in the field.

As it is stated before, the main objective of such a study may be to enable students more self-directed through the process of language learning. The first step was to investigate the students' existing overall strategies that were used in this process. In order to reflect these existing strategies, SILL was conducted at the beginning of the study.

5.1. The Students' Strategy Use Before and After the Strategy-based Instruction

Regarding the first research question; "*What learning strategies do learners use before and after the strategy-instruction process?*", the findings on memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies will be discussed in detail. In addition, the potential impact of strategy-instruction for learning strategies upon raising learners' awareness of learning strategies will also be discussed in this section.

5.1.1. Memory Strategies

Before the strategy training, it was observed that a few of the *memory strategies* were used by the students (see Table 8). The prominent strategies here were ‘associating’, which is one of the sub-group of creating mental linkages, and ‘semantic mapping’, which is included in the strategy of applying new images and sounds. 67,8 % of the experimental group students responded positively to the item related with the strategy of associating. So, it is possible to argue that “associating” (item 1) was one of the strategies that they already used before the strategy implementation. In other words, most of them consulted their memory to relate new learning materials with already existing ones by creating a mental linkage. Similarly, 51,6 % of the students declared that they use the strategy of “semantic mapping” (item 4). That means, they can create mental images to remember a word.

The findings (see Table 9) after the strategy implementation reflected that the students added new strategies in their strategy use portfolios. For instance, 45,3 % of the students responded positively to the strategy of ‘placing new words into a context’ (item 2) . The rate for the same strategy was 21,8 %. In the light of this difference, it could be put forward that students started to use new words into sentences to remember them easily. Similarly, the students’ responses became positive on the strategy of ‘representing sounds in memory’ (item 3). This item also covers the strategy of ‘semantic mapping’. 58,1 % of the students gave positive answers to the item related with this strategy. This results shows that when it is needed to remember a word the students direct themselves to create an image of the word or to connect a sound with the word. In addition, 61,3 % of the students responded positively the ‘item 9’ which is related with using the location of a word on the page or board to remember it. So, they reflected that they learnt to use the images and sounds in their memory to remember a word easily. However, the further items representing the strategy of applying new images and sounds did not verify that the students use all images and sounds in their mind effectively. For example, the number of the students responded the ‘item 5’ which is about using rhymes to

remember words negatively and positively was equal (32,3 % = 32,3 %). Another example was observed on the 'item 6'. Most of the students responded negatively the 'item 6' related with the using of flashcards to remember the new words. These results would claim that they benefit from some of the images and sounds in their memories. These results reflect that significant differences between pre and post-tests (see table 7; memory strategies) enables us to claim that the strategy training has a positive impact on raising awareness and increasing strategy use among the experimental group students.

5.1.2. Cognitive Strategies

The findings (see Table 10) on *cognitive strategies* before the strategy implementation reflected that there were positive results as well as negative ones. The items representing the strategy of 'practicing' were both rated positively and negatively. To be more precise, 31,9 % of the students responded positively the strategy of 'repeating' (item 10). The biggest proportion (38,7) on this item was on the response of 'somewhat true of me'. The members of this group can be defined as the ones who are not sure of themselves or the ones who say 'I sometimes do it'. In other words, they are the most likely group to be directed to increase their use rate of that strategy. Similarly, most of the students (45,1 %) gave positive responses to 'item 11' representing the strategy of 'formally practicing with sounds and writing systems'. That is to say, most of them tried to talk like native speaker of the target language. However, the investigation on the post-oral test did not verify this finding. Some of them tried to talk like native speakers, but the majority of the students did not pay attention to the correct pronunciation of the words so much. The observations inside the classroom did not verify this finding as well. There were some members who would like to talk like natives and they reflected great eagerness to achieve this. Some of them did so. But, it is not a good idea to statistically claim that the majority of the students achieved to talk like native speakers. Therefore, the

mismatch between the result of this item and the practical observations falsify the validity of this data. Another positive rate was observed on the items 15 and 16 representing the strategy of 'using resources for receiving and sending messages'. They declared that they watch English TV programmes and read for pleasure to receive the messages. However, the problem was observed on the items representing the strategy of 'sending messages'. For instance, most of the students responded negatively to 'item 14' "I start the conversation in English" and 'item 17' which is about writing in English. So, these results highlighted the importance of activating production skills such as speaking and writing as they expressed that they failed to send messages. Another positive superiority was observed on the 'item 18' which is related with analysing texts. 38,7 % of the students reflected that they first skim a passage and then go back for details. In addition, 41,9 % of the students declared that they did not translate literally. Instead, they directed themselves to use reasoning strategies to guess the whole idea of a context. However, the further items related with the strategy of 'analysing and reasoning' were mostly rated negatively and some of the students expressed that they used these strategies not frequently.

After the completion of the strategy implementation, the findings demonstrated that the positive tendency to use strategies increased significantly (see Table 11). The items that were rated negatively before the strategy implementation now changed in a positive way. For example, 48,4 % of the students expressed that they practice the sounds of English (item 12). Similarly, the positive responses increased from 22,6 % to 32,3 % on the 'item 13' that represent the strategy of using the English words in different ways. It is easily claimed that the students increased the use rate of the 'practicing' strategy after the implementation of strategy training. Another improvement was observed on the strategy of 'receiving and sending messages'. According to the pre-test results, the problem was on the strategy of 'sending messages'. The two items (14 and 17) representing this strategy was mostly rated negatively. On the other hand, the positive tendency kept its dominance after the strategy training. 38,8 % of the students expressed that they are the ones who start conversations. 41,9 % of the students declared that they write notes, messages, letters and reports in English. Moreover, the number of positive responses increased

from 48,4 % to 83,9 % on 'item 15' that is about watching English movies and TV programmes and from 45,2 % to 74,2 % on 'item 16' which represent the strategy of 'receiving messages'. That is to say, the strategy training not only increased the existing positive strategy use rate but also reversed the negative tendency into positive. Another positive increase was observed on the strategy of analysing and reasoning. The number of the students rated positively the 'item 19' that represents the strategy of 'looking for words in the mother tongue that are similar to new English words' remained the same (29,0 %). However, the number of the students rated this item as "somewhat true of me" increased significantly from 25,8 % to 54,8 %. It is clear that it is so favourable item which focuses on matching the similar words in their own language with new words in English. Even so, an improvement seems to be on the way to reach higher levels. The increase on positive responses was also observed on further items on 'analysing' and 'reasoning'. The only unchanged item was 'item 23' that is about 'making summaries'. That means the students preserve their tendency not to summarize the information they hear or read. As a result, the implementation of strategy training ended up with an impact on students' cognitive strategies.

5.1.3. Compensation Strategies

The pre-test scores on the *compensation strategies* showed that the students were not good at guessing to compensate some of the lacks that they had. For example, the number of positive and negative responses on the 'item 24' remained the same. While some of the students chose to guess the meaning of an unknown word, some others didn't. Similarly, a few of the students tried to guess the next expression that the speaker can use. However, positive responses were observed on 'item 25' representing the strategy of using 'gestures' and 'item 29' representing the strategy of using 'circumlocution'.

After the strategy training, as it may be expected, the positive tendency became distinctive on every single strategy. For instance, the equality between the negative and positive responses on 'item 24' resulted with an increase from 38,7 % to 77,4 % on the positive responses after the implementation. Similarly, the rate of using gestures went up to 58,0 %. Another guessing strategy (item 27) used while reading was used by more students after the training. The students also declared that they started to use the strategy of guessing during conversations (item 28). The significant increase was observed on the 'item 26' that is about making up new words if the speaker doesn't know the correct one at that time. Before the training, most of the students rated that item negatively (58,1 %). In contrast to this result, most of the students gave positive responses to the same item after the training (45,1 %), while a few of them (25,8 %) responded negatively. In addition, the positive responses increased from 51,6 % to 74,2 % on the 'item 29' regarding the strategy of circumlocution.

In the light of these results, the strategy training again worked on improving students' compensation strategies. The positive impact on this section plays a crucial role on improving students' communication strategies. Nearly all kind of language learners can be assumed to have many deficiencies needed to be overcome, but it is important to investigate how much they feel their negative effects. Especially, those negative effects can be observed frequently while speaking. So, what is important here is to teach them how to struggle even if they have many problems and even if they feel themselves insufficient. When the students become aware of the possibility of staying alive while speaking despite the deficiencies, they become more self-confident and they easily direct themselves their ultimate goal; communicating effectively.

5.1.4. Metacognitive Strategies

The pre-test results on *metacognitive strategies* demonstrated that most of the students prefer to centre their learning by applying various strategies and to arrange and plan their learning. To be more precise, the detailed discussion of the specific representative items should be presented here. Starting with the first item (30) in metacognitive strategies section, 42,0 % of the students declared that they sought for any possible opportunities to practice their knowledge. It could be accepted as an important advantage to possess such an attitude towards practicing English in the learning process. The next item revealed that 64,5 % of the students tend to pay attention to the mistakes. The reason for this should be firstly to overcome them and then do better. Another significant superiority was observed on 'item 32' in favour of positive responses. 87,1 % of the students demonstrated that it could be an opportunity to listen someone speaking English. That means, they usually delay speech production or they first wait for the right time to speak. Instead, they focus on listening. Another positive result was found on the 'item 33' which is based on the idea of finding out about the language learning. 70,9 % of the students revealed that they try to find out the ways to be better learners. The only negative responses were observed on 'item 34' that is about planning. While 38,8 % of the students declared that they do not plan their schedule to have sufficient time to study English, only 22,6 % of them expressed that they do so. Normally, nearly all language learners allocate time to study. The problem here could be setting goals through learning and identify how much time they need. When they set the goals and identify the need for time, they would probably plan their schedule. Another item (35) regarding the strategy of looking for opportunities reflected that 45,2 % of the students seek for people to talk to them in English. However, the proportion of negative responses was found approximately as big as positive responses. 42,0 % of the students responded the same item negatively. The picture is here a little bit blurred as there were many students to be activated to look for oral practice opportunities as well as the eager ones to involve oral practicing. The strategy training could be foreseen as a

determiner to help those unwilling students to do oral practice as it provides some strategies that will encourage them to do so. Besides providing some useful strategies on speaking activities, it also helps the students to improve their self-confidence as well as increasing their motivation. In other words, it is evitable that the impact of strategy training should be positive on this item.

Different from the 'item 35', the next item revealed that students looked for opportunities to read as much as they can. Clearly, reading materials are rich sources to reflect the structure of a language and the various range of vocabulary. Therefore, having such an attitude could be considered as an advantage for the students. Another optimistic result was found on the 'item 37'. 54,9 % of the students reflected that they have clear goals to improve their English. Having goals helps the learners to manage their learning throughout the process. That's why it was important them to carry clear goals. The last item (38) demonstrated that 54,9 % of the students thought about their progress in learning English. During the process of learning, it is always helpful to review the progress time to time because one can easily understand the weaknesses as well as strengths.

The post-test results reflected that the strategy training did not make any difference significantly. According to the statistics, there were differences for sure. However, they were not classified or defined as significant. No matter how they were not significant enough, the differences existed and these differences were observed mostly in the direction of positive dominance. On all items, the positive responses increased. It was even observed that there wasn't any negative response on 'item 32' which can be considered important in this study as this item is related with paying attention someone speaking in English. Another important result was found on 'item 35' that considers the importance of oral practicing opportunities. 80,75 of the students declared that they try to find people with whom they can speak English. The strategy training worked on to improve students' self-confidence and to motivate them to make use of oral practicing opportunities. The positive impact of the strategy training can be observed on 'item 34'; the only negatively rated item on pre-test

results. 38,8 % of the students declared that they now plan their schedule to create enough time to study English.

In brief, the strategy training affected positively the students' metacognitive strategy use. The effect is not significant but it would be good idea to take into consideration the slight improvements as well as the big ones.

5.1.5. Affective Strategies

In language learning process, it is highly accepted idea that there are many affective factors that can play an important role on performing tasks. Anxiety is the mostly encountered one. The pre-test results reflected the strategies which students use to deal with such affective filters. Most of the language learners afraid of making mistakes while performing. Before the implementation of the strategy training, students were encouraged firstly not to be afraid of making mistakes. Accordingly, the ultimate goal of the language teaching in this experimental group was defined as staying alive. In order to lower the anxiety level of students while performing especially speaking tasks, they always reminded that if you stay alive, mistakes are meaningless. In the light of this mentality, they were always asked to keep their fighting even if they felt anxious because of the mistakes.

On *affective strategies* part of SILL, the first item (39) is related with trying to relax oneself in time of feeling anxiety. 48,4 % of the students responded that item positively, while 32,3 % of them negatively. So, the majority of the students declared that they carry positive attitudes towards fighting with anxiety. The next item is about self encouragement. 45,2 % of the students revealed that they try to encourage themselves even if they are afraid of making mistakes. However, they did not have positive perception on the strategy of rewarding themselves when they do well. 58,1 % of the students demonstrated that they do not reward themselves even they achieve a task. Another important strategy here is to control yourself whether you are

nervous or tense. 61,3 % of the students responded positively 'item 42' that is based on the strategy of listening to your body. So, those results revealed that before the strategy training majority of the students tried to notice whether they were nervous while studying English or not. Sometimes, it can be helpful to write your feelings or talk about your feelings to someone else. This may lower your anxiety level. However, pre-test results showed that majority of the students do not prefer to make use such strategies.

The post-test results when compared to pre-test results reflected that the strategy training did not make any significant sense. Although the existing strategy use increased significantly on some of the items, the results were not recorded as statistically significant. The most important difference was observed on 'item 41' which was rated negatively on pre-test results. The number of positive responses surpassed the negative responses. No matter how the difference was slight, the positive tendency to reward oneself on occasion of success should be considered as the positive impact of strategy training. The negative tendency on the items of writing about your feelings and talking about them to someone else was recorded. It was also observed on these items (43, 44) that the negative responses increased. When it is questioned why they kept and even increased the tendency of not using these strategies, it would also be good idea to question the researcher's representative role. Those strategies may not have been modelled or trained effectively by the researcher. Another possible explanation could be the low level of anxiety and the development of other strategies to be used to overcome the affective filters. Throughout the strategy training, the students were always observed and sometimes tape-recorded. When the time passed, the gradual decrease was observed on students' anxiety levels. They sometimes declared their development in terms of self-confidence. Further evidences were recorded on the logs that the students expressed themselves every week. The statement of "I feel myself relaxed" was one of the highly rated expressions (see appendix 9).

To conclude, the results showing the impact of strategy training on this part of the scale were not significant. However, some developments were recorded on

some of the strategies and it should be considered as vital to be used in future learning experiences.

5.1.6. Social Strategies

Social strategies can be considered as vital methods that help students a lot throughout the learning process and especially in time of oral practicing. The students reflected their strategy use rates on pre-test results. The tendency of asking questions was highly recorded. Especially, when the students needed to be clarified or sometimes corrected, they consulted directly to the other speakers. However, they did not tend to practice with other students. According to the results of 'item 47', 83,9 % of the students revealed that they didn't practice English with other students. That situation is frequently encountered one in many language classrooms as the students are not willing to practice with their classmates outside the classroom. It is a good idea to practice the knowledge outside the classroom and throughout the strategy training the students were always advised to go further outside the classroom to practice English.

The next item '48' regarding the strategy of cooperating with others reflected that 54,8 % of the students seek for help when they have troubles. Opposite to this result, 51,6 % of the students responded negatively to 'item 49' that is about asking questions in English. This shows us that they need help and they ask for help but they do not tend to ask questions in English. At this point, a complexity can be observed and it is expected that the impact of strategy training should be positive on these items. The last item '50', which is based on learning culture, demonstrated that most of the students were eager to empathise with others, especially with the native speakers of the target language. 51,6 % of the students declared that they try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

When compared to pre-test results, post-test results showed that there was a significant difference. After the implementation, the positive responses increased on nearly all items. Only on 'item 47', negative tendency preserved its dominance significantly. However, the positive statements increased on post-test when compared to the pre-test. It could be claimed that the students insisted on not practicing with other students. The reason for this problem on social strategies could be due to the unwillingness of practicing English outside of the classroom. From many observations and individual conversations, it was understood that there should be someone to direct them, observe them and give feedbacks to them. Based on the self-reflection reports and classroom observations, many of the participants of this study shared their opinions on this idea, but they always criticised themselves as they couldn't create the opportunity to practice as a whole group. No matter what the reason is, the strategy training did not work on developing students' practicing habits with other students.

To conclude, the overall results demonstrated that the strategy instruction made an impact on the students' use strategies. This impact, as expected, tended to evolve in a positive way. That is to say; students' responses changed in a positive manner that provides a clear evidence to support the importance of strategy instruction. The comparison between the experimental group students and control group students verified the same result. It was observed that there was not any significant difference between the pre and post-test results of control group students (see Table 6). That means if there is no manipulation on a group, they can't raise their awareness towards learning strategies and increase the use rate of them.

As it is stated by Cohen (1996), the ultimate goal of the strategy training is firstly to raise the awareness level of strategy use of the students in order to enhance their own comprehension and production capability and enable them to be more independent and effective learners. Accordingly, the results gathered from this study reflected that strategy training increased the level of awareness of the students' strategy use regarding some specific strategies such as memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies and social strategies.

As for memory strategies, the pre and post test results demonstrated that after the strategy instruction, the experimental group students started to use the memory strategies more frequently. The mean values (2,896 to 3,351) reflected the increasing level of memory strategy usage. However, the students' level that they reached did not exceed the limit of medium. According to the Oxford (1990b), those who score between 2.5 and 3.4 are medium strategy users. Thus, the students' position did not change much regarding this criterion. Besides the increasing level of test scores (2,825 to 3,620), the pre and post test results on cognitive strategies (section b) demonstrated that they increased the frequency level of cognitive strategy usage. Before the strategy training, their test scores reflected that cognitive strategies were not frequently used. On the contrary to the pre-test results, post-test results ended up with a clear improvement in the frequency rate of cognitive strategy usage. The students converted their state of using these strategies from "sometimes used" into "usually used". That means; they increased the frequency level of consulting their mental processes. Similarly, the difference between pre and post-test results on the compensation strategies revealed that the mean value of strategy use increased from 2,919 to 3,726. These statistics showed that the students started to use compensation strategies frequently after the strategy implementation. In spite of the significant positive improvement on memory, cognitive and compensation strategies, the same positive tendency was not observed on metacognitive and affective strategies. Surprisingly, the mean value on metacognitive strategy results decreased after the strategy implementation (3,538 to 3,381). This decline does not mean that the state of using metacognitive strategies changed. Before and after the strategy training, the state of metacognitive strategy use was recorded the same; "sometimes used". However, the problem here is the lack of positive impact of the strategy training on metacognitive strategies. Moreover, the existence of slight decline should be taken into account seriously. Another observation reflected that the strategy training did not affect the use rate of affective strategies. Before the strategy training, the mean value of the affective strategies was found as 2,677. The mean value was recorded as the same with pre-test value on post-test results; 2,677. So, the impact of strategy training can be explained as neutral. On the other hand, the difference between the pre and post-test results on social strategies demonstrated that the "sometimes used"

state of using these strategies evolved to “usually used”. It can be concluded that the impact of strategy training was found to be positive in favour of increasing the rate of using social strategies.

So far here, the experimental group students’ strategy use has been discussed. The analysis of control group students’ reflected there is no significant differences between the pre and post test results. That means, they did not reflect any improvement on using the learning strategies. For memory strategies, the mean value of the pre-test was found as 2,74. The post-test result was found as 2,82. The slight difference did not make any sense on the overall state of using memory strategies among the control group students. Similarly, pre (2,73) and post-test (2,78) did not distinguish on cognitive strategies. Interestingly, a slight decrease was observed on compensation strategies. The mean value of pre-test result was recorded as 3.22 and post-test as 3,15. The same decrease was observed on metacognitive strategies too. The pre-test results was found as 3,2 and post-test as 3,08. The situation on affective strategies was found as stable. The mean values of pre and post tests were found as the same; 2,59. Similar to the compensation and metacognitive strategies, a slight difference was observed on social strategies. The pre-test results were recorded as 3,16 and post-test as 2,96. In the light of these results, it could be claimed that the control group students’ state of using learning strategies did not change in time. Even though the statistics revealed that some strategies were used more frequently than the others, their state of using these strategies stayed at ‘sometimes used’ on both tests. The biggest reason of this result can be engaged with the lack of strategy-based instruction. Besides this, the control group students were not regular participants of the English lessons as well. Throughout the classroom observations, it was the control group who mostly missed the classes. When compared to the experimental group students, they might have had less motivation towards learning English as they preferred not to attend the classes regularly. As a result of this, their tendency towards using strategies did not distinguish in time.

5.2. The Investigation of Other Potential Variables

So far here, the main factor that affects the students' use of strategies was considered as the strategy training. For sure, strategy training in this study is the most important manipulator on the students' strategy use. However, there are many further potential variables that could influence the students' strategy use such as age, gender, preparatory class, the education level of students' families, the school that they graduated from, and perception of students' own English achievement level.

Regarding the *gender* factor, the students' strategy use did not distinguish from each other on nearly all strategies except one; metacognitive strategies (see Table 20). On metacognitive strategies part of the SILL, the female participants gave more positive responses compared to the male participants. The studies in this field reflect that female students tend to use various kind of strategies compared to the male students. Unlike this result, a significant difference was not observed in this study. This may have been resulted from the inequality of the numbers of female and male students. Another reason can be the number of the participants of this study. The number sixty two may not be enough to show clear differences between genders. However, the difference between the two groups was found as significant (0,015; $P < .05$) on metacognitive strategies. To be more precise, female members of this study declared that they frequently centre their learning onto their goals and objectives and they go through their objectives by making plans and arrangements. In addition, they try to pay attention to the target tasks and link them with already known materials.

In brief, despite the significant difference on metacognitive strategies, it is difficult to argue the clear differences between the genders. It could be a handicap to have less female students than males. To be able to have more reliable and valid results on the variable of gender, the number of females and males should be similar. However, the number of females is less than the half of the males in this study. Thus,

it is difficult to point out clear reasons for the significant differences between the two groups.

Another variable was the *age* factor. The participants were grouped into two categories regarding their ages; those who are at the age of ‘19 and 20’ and ‘21 and over’. The results on Table 21 reflected that the students’ use strategies did not change according to their ages. Similarly, the potential variable of the *education level of students’ families* demonstrated no significant difference (see Table 22). The next variable, regarding *the school that they graduated from*, reflected that there was only one significant difference in favour of Foreign Language Oriented High School on cognitive strategies.

Having *preparatory class* or not is another variable that was thought to be as a potential determiner of students’ use strategies. Preparatory classes in Turkey provide students intensive amount of input and the opportunity to practice their knowledge. Such kind of experience could have life-long impacts on students’ perceptions on different kind of language learning concepts. Those impacts could be both positive and negative. For the learning strategies, it might be expected that the students who had preparatory class are the most likely ones to have wide range of learning strategies. However, the results shown on Table 24 falsify the above claim. According to the results, there was no significant difference among the students regarding their state of having preparatory class or not. Contrary to the expected result, the lack of significant difference could be correlated with the inequality or difference between the number of the students who had preparatory class and the ones who hadn’t. The number of the students who had preparatory class was 20 while the number of the students who had not preparatory class was recorded as 42.

Different from the variable of preparatory class, the students’ *own perception of their achievement level in English lessons* reflected some significant differences. The students who perceive their own English achievement level as “very poor” responded negatively on the items that focus on memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies. As Cohen *et al.* (1998) stated that the effective use of strategies is related with the proficiency level of the students, the

learning strategy use distinguished regarding the students' proficiency level in this study. It can be claimed that if one perceives her or his own English achievement level as very good, that person is assumed to use strategies efficiently.

To sum up, the results of other potential variables on learning strategies reflected that on some of the learning strategies there are some significant differences regarding the gender, the type of high school that they graduated from and the perception of achievement level in English lessons.

5.3. The Impact of SBI on Students' Strategy Use

Another research question that is needed to be discussed here is *whether the strategy-instruction for speaking strategies has a significant effect upon increasing the strategy use on speaking performances or not*. To be able to verify the potential impact of strategy training, the two pair of variables will be compared. One is the difference between the experimental group students' pre and post-test oral exam results (based on the strategy check list; see Appendix 7) and the other is the difference between the experimental and control group post-test oral exam results (see Appendix 10 and 11).

According to Table 26, a significant increase could be observed on nearly all selected strategic language devices that are thought to be helpful speaking strategies. The first strategy which is circumlocution (paraphrase) was used twice on the pre-oral test. However, the use rate increased up to seven times. In the light of this result, it can be concluded that the experimental group students tried to exemplify, illustrate or describe the properties of the target object or action when they couldn't remember the exact word that they would like to express. For instance, one student aimed to express the word "waiter" in a speaking task, however, he couldn't remember it exactly at the time of speaking and he tried to illustrate the aimed word as "breakfast

personnel”. As in Dörnyei’s (1995) and Salamone and Marsal’s (1997) studies, the quantity of using circumlocution increased in this study.

The strategy of approximation’s use rate was recorded as three times on pre-test while it went up to sixteen times on the post-oral test. That means, the students tried to use an alternative lexical item instead of the target word. For example, some of the students preferred to use the term “work” instead of “study”. The two words share some semantic features but they are not interchangeable.

Another strategy that is used to improve the fluency is the use of all purpose words. These are also be defined as gap fillers. This method involves in extending a general, “empty” lexical item into contexts where specific words are lacking. The examples can be “How can I say?”, “How do you say?”, “What do you call it?” or the overuse of “thing, stuff, make, do etc...”. The results on that strategy revealed that the frequency of using that strategy stayed at only one on the pre-test, whereas, the rate shot up to fourteen times on the post-oral test. These results indicate that the students improved the quantity and quality of using this strategy as stated in Dörnyei’s (1995) study.

The next strategy that is defined as word coinage was not frequently used on both pre and post-tests. This strategy was used once on the pre-test and twice on the post-test. That is to say, the students were not so inclined to create a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word.

The strategy of literal translation which is translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure was not used on the pre-oral test by the experimental group students. However, the frequency rate of this strategy was recorded as six on the post-oral speaking test. This means that before the strategy training, they probably were not aware of such a strategy, but after the strategy training they raised their awareness and as a result, they preformed them. One example can be given from the post-speaking test for the intended term “have an accident”. The student desired to express herself as “I had an accident last summer” but she couldn’t remember exactly it and instead she expressed it as “I passed an

accident last summer”. This expression can be difficult to be understood by other language speakers apart from Turkish, but the one whose mother tongue is Turkish can easily understand the relationship between the term “pass” and “have an accident”. It is clear that they are totally different from each other semantically in English, but they have some similar meanings when they are translated into Turkish. The use of this expression can only work on a conversation with a Turkish partner or a group.

The sixth strategy that is checked through the pre and post-oral tests was “foreignizing”. This strategy is based on using an L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology and morphology. That strategy was found as one of the highly rated one on both pre and post-oral test. The students used that strategy fifteen times on the pre-test and seventeen times on the post-test. There is a slight increase on the post-oral test. The strategy of foreignizing was highly observed on some similar words that are both used in the target language, English, and the mother tongue, Turkish. These words are mostly the ones that have similar pronunciations such as; “lokal – local”, “departman – department” or “kariyer – career”.

Another strategy was code switching which is also known as language switch. Sometimes, speakers can use a word or a phrase in their mother tongues while speaking in the target language. In a wide context, it may not be so important to use a single word or a single phrase, but if the frequency rate increases in a specific context, it can spoil the conversation and decrease the quality level of effective communication. The use rate was recorded as eight on the pre-test. Twenty-nine was the recorded frequency rate of post-oral test. Regarding the above disadvantage, that strategy was used by twenty different students on post-oral test. And, the expected trouble was only observed on only one student as he used this strategy eight times. Was he fluent? Yes surely, he kept on speaking and he tried to express himself. However, he might have sounded a bit weird and might have overused the strategy. The rest nineteen students used that strategy twenty one times. So, it wouldn’t be good idea to claim that this frequency rate can be disadvantage for each specific twenty one conversations.

The next strategy ‘use of similar sounding words’ is the only one which was not used by any of the students both on pre and post-oral tests. That means that none of the students tried to compensate for a lexical item whose form they are unsure. Normally, there are many words that look like very similar to each other but very different from each other semantically. Sometimes, speakers can use a similar sounding word instead of the intended word as they thought it is the correct word for their intention. To illustrate, a speaker could aim to say the word “tap”. Instead, she can say “cab”. When you asked the reason, she would say “I thought it correct and it is very similar to tap”. However, the use of that strategy was not observed in this experimental group. The problems on the process of strategy training can be resulted in the lack of strategy performance. The strategy training can raise awareness and students can practice the strategy but they may have some problems while personalising the strategy. This result revealed that they couldn’t personalise the strategy of using similar sounding words.

Mumbling is another strategy that is used to compensate a word that a student is unsure about the correct the form. The probable aim of this strategy can be to have more fluent speech because the speaker swallow that word or mutter inaudibly. Among hundreds of words, one word can be ignored if it does not play a vital role in the context. The frequency rate of this strategy was recorded as one on the pre-test and nine on the post-oral test. That result reflected that students raised awareness and increased the quality and quantity of the strategy.

Similar to the strategy of mumbling, ‘omission’ is another strategy to compensate a word that the speaker doesn’t know or remember by omitting it. The students in the pre-oral test used this strategy three times. The frequency rate was recorded as twenty three in the post-oral test. The students learned to omit a word or phrase and then go on the topic as if they had already mentioned about that omitted word or phrase. This may not be realised by the listeners, so, the speakers could have a fluent and effective speech. The critic could be on the effectiveness of the speech, if the speaker had omitted an indispensable part of the speech. However, this should be realised by both the speaker and listener, and the speaker should try to illustrate

the term again. In the oral tests, there were no such examples and as a result, there were no problems.

Sometimes speakers attempt to find the intended and correct form of a word or phrase by saying series of incomplete or wrong forms of that word. The next two strategies are called 'retrieval' and 'self-repair'. The results of the pre-oral tests reflected that these strategies were used four times. Different from this result, it was observed that they were used thirty three times in the post-oral test. It is clear that students made an effort to say the intended word or phrase.

The strategy of miming was recorded as the highly rated one. It was used nineteen times in the pre-oral test and twenty nine times in the post-oral test. Speakers use frequently this strategy when they have difficulty to describe a concept verbally. After the strategy training, they increased the frequency rate of using this strategy and that strategy contributed their effective communication a lot.

Sometimes, speakers need to ask for repetition when they couldn't understand or hear something properly or they request explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure. These two strategies, asking for repetition and asking for clarification, help the student to think the topic or get themselves ready to reply. According to the results, the strategy of asking repetition was used five times on the pre-oral test, and nine times in the post-oral test. Similarly, the strategy of asking for clarification was used five times in the pre-oral test and ten times on the post-oral test. An increase again was observed on both strategies. This means that they raised their awareness and tried to personalize them after the strategy training.

In brief, it could be claimed that strategy training raised the students' awareness towards strategies and provided an opportunity to personalize the strategies to benefit from them in the long term. In other words, strategy training helped the students to increase the quality and the quantity of the communication strategies.

In order to verify the positive impact of strategy training, the differences between the experimental group students' strategy use results and control groups'

will be discussed here. Table 27 reflected that the experimental group students' frequency rate of using the speaking strategies is clearly higher than the control group students'. The exceptional case was only observed on the strategy of using similar sounding words. This strategy was not used by experimental group students on both pre and post-oral tests. Similarly, it was observed that none of the control group students used that strategy on the post-oral test.

To sum up, the strategy training had a clear positive impact on the students' perception of strategy use as well as on personalizing the strategies on given tasks.

5.4. The Impact of SBI on the Students' Speaking Skills

It could be difficult to expect a direct impact of strategy training on improving speaking abilities of the students. However, the possible impact of strategy training on improving students' speaking skills was thought as another variable that is to be analyzed. The last research question was indented to look for this potential impact; *"Does the strategy-instruction have a significant effect upon improving learners' speaking skills?"* In order to obtain the necessary data to discuss the potential impact of strategy training on improving speaking abilities, two oral-tests were applied to the students and these tests were analyzed by another instructor so as to prevent the subjectivity of the researcher. For the experimental group students, both pre and post-oral tests were implemented and the achievement results were compared to each other. For the control group students, only post-oral test was implemented and the achievement results of this test was compared to the post-oral test results of experimental group students.

Table 28 (see appendix 10) demonstrates the achievement results of experimental group students on both pre and post-oral tests. The best achievement result was determined as a hundred (100). The mean value was recorded as 61,29 on the pre-oral test and as 74,51 on the post-oral test. The difference between the mean

values was found significant. Similar to the studies of O'Malley *et al.* (1985), Aliweh (1990) and Dadour and Robbins (1996), it could be claimed that strategy training played an important role on improving the speaking skills of the students. However, it may not be the only reason to help the students to improve their speaking skills. The other potential manipulators will be discussed at the end of this section.

During the study, it was observed that students held a great positive attitude towards speaking fluently and competently in English. Moreover, they were always eager to be informed about the communicative strategies that will promote their expectations of staying alive while speaking English. In many classroom activities, the students were always followed to reflect their personal oral developments. The ones who are extroverts and competent enough in speaking English were found to be developed their existing skills. Similarly, the ones who are a bit less extrovert and less competent in speaking English were found to be progressed a lot. The hesitation to practice observed at the beginning of the term started to decrease. When they felt themselves relaxed, their oral performances improved significantly. On the self reflection reports (logs), they shared their positive attitudes towards speaking English. In addition, they recorded their self-progress. On the first logs, it was observed that majority of the students who are less competent at speaking English felt themselves a bit confused and worried. The reason for this may have been that it was the first time for many of them to have practice opportunity. It could also be worrying for them to see others to speak English better than they do. Some of them recorded that they should at least try to speak. On the next logs, they recorded not only their success at participating in the activities but also the success of speaking English.

On the other hand, there may be further determiners on improving the students' speaking skills. Firstly, they had fourteen weeks of English lessons. Besides the lessons, they attended private speaking activities which were held at speaking club formed by the experimental group students and the researcher. In addition, the members of this group were generally the ones who declared and demonstrated their eagerness towards speaking English throughout the term. So, the

strategy training could be a variable, but, other factors should be taken into consideration.

In order to understand the probable impact of strategy training, the comparison between the control group students' achievement results and experimental students' will be discussed here. According to the Table 29 (see appendix 11), the difference between the two groups was significant. The mean value of the control group students' post-oral test results was recorded as 43,22. On the other hand, the mean value of the experimental students' post-oral test results was recorded as 74,51. This difference verifies the potential impact of strategy training. However, strategy training may not be the only variable that influences their speaking skills as they were not the members of the speaking club. Another fact about the control group students is that they were not regular participants of the regular English classes. Therefore, their low level of achievement may be resulted from not only the lack of strategy training but also their irregular participation to the regular English classes. Their motivation towards English and speaking English should be investigated, as well.

In conclusion, depending on the statistical analysis as well as observations in the classroom and the students' self-reflection reports, it can be asserted that the experimental group students were found out to be more successful than the control group students on the post-oral test. In addition, it was observed that the experimental students were more successful on the post-oral test than pre-oral test. These results could make it possible to argue the positive impact of strategy training on improving the students speaking abilities. However, other factors, as presented above, should be taken into account, too.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

6.1 Conclusion

The study of the good language learner by Rubin (1975) has had a strong influence on the study of learner strategies. Since then, many researchers have tried to identify characteristics of a good language learner. The investigation on good language learners reflected that they employ some personalised tactics to achieve the task and facilitate the learning. Then, these tactics were defined as learning strategies. Learning strategies are defined as the specific mental and communicative procedures that learners employ in order to learn and use language (Chamot, 2005; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). According to Weinstein and Mayer (1986) the ultimate goal of learning strategies is to “affect the learner’s motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge” (p. 315). Over the last years, the growing interest on learning strategies and learning-how-to-learn has led researchers to investigate the ways of incorporating them into the language programmes. According to Lillian and Nunan (2011), “it is believed that learners who have developed skills in learning-how-to-learn will be better able to exploit classroom learning opportunities effectively, and will be more adequately equipped to continue with language learning outside of the classroom” (p. 144). Therefore, the teachability of learning strategies has been discussed. According to the theories and the previous research (Bialystok, 1990; Oxford 1990b; Chamot and O'Malley, 1994), the complex skills of language learning can be learned through formal instruction and repeated practicing. In addition, the previous research results (Oxford 1990b; Cohen and Weaver 1998) indicate that

benefits of strategies training have been generally positive in terms of language learning performances and attitudes improvement among language learners.

In the light of the background information presented above, the main aim of this study was to reflect the potential effect of strategy-based instruction upon the students' strategy use. Experimental research was designed in the study model in order to investigate whether the SBI affects the students' strategy use or not. The study was conducted in the School of Applied Sciences in Trakya University. 62 participants were divided into two groups as experimental and control. All of the participants were the students who studied Tourism. The study was conducted in the spring term in 2011-2012 academic year on experimental group students. The application of the study lasted 14 weeks in 4 hours of regular English classes supported with two hours of extra 'Speaking Club' lessons.

The first aim of the study in order to be able to reach the main aim was to find out what learning strategies the students had before the implementation of SBI. In order to check out their existing learning strategies, SILL, which is devised by Oxford (1990b), was used to collect the data. According to the pre-test results, the experimental group students reflected that they frequently use metacognitive strategies. However, they did not frequently use memory, cognitive, compensation, affective and social strategies. Similarly, the pre-test results of control group students reflected that they did not use any of the strategies frequently.

The implementation period lasted for 14 weeks. Based on the objectives of the 14-weeks programme, the students were instructed through learning strategies and communication strategies. In every single week, they were informed about the learning and communication strategies. Then, the strategies were exemplified and modelled by the researcher. Through activities, the students were led to practice the strategies. After the implementation of SBI, the students' learning strategies were investigated for the second time by using SILL in order to reflect the potential impact of SBI. The results were statistically analyzed by SPSS 15.0. According to the results, the difference between the pre and post-test results of the experimental

students was found out to be significant on memory, cognitive, compensation and social strategy sections of SILL. On the other hand, the difference between the pre and post-test results of metacognitive and affective strategies was not found significant. That is to say, the students increased some of their strategy use after the strategy-based instruction. The investigation on the control group students reflected that there is no significant difference between pre and post-test results. That means their strategy use did not change as they were not instructed through learning strategies.

Some other variables were defined as potential indicators of their strategy use. These indicators such as age, gender, achievement level in English lessons, having preparatory class or not, their families' level of education and the high school that they graduated from were incorporated into the study. Their relationship with the strategy use was statistically checked by SPSS 15.0. According to the results, the significant correlation was found between the memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies with the state of achievement in English classes. The students who evaluate their achievement level of English as 'very bad' reflected that they do not use memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Similarly, the students who graduated from language oriented high schools revealed that they use cognitive strategies. Unlike the previous findings in the field (Bacon, 1992; Maubach and Morgan, 2001; Phakiti, 2003), any significant correlation between the gender – except in metacognitive strategies in favour of female students – and the strategy use was not found. The other variables – having preparatory class or not, their families' level of education and age – were not found as significantly related with strategy use.

The potential impact of SBI on the speaking skills of the students was also analyzed. The pre-oral and post-oral test results were compared to reflect the potential impact of SBI on experimental students. The results revealed that they were found significantly more successful at the post-oral test than the pre-oral test. In order to strengthen this result, the post-oral test result of the experimental and the control group students were compared. The results reflected that there was significant difference between the two groups in favour of the experimental group. In

the light of these results, it can be concluded that SBI plays an important role on students' strategy use as well as improving speaking skills. However, SBI may not be only factor that improves the experimental group students speaking skills. Many other factors should be taken into consideration such as motivation, proficiency level, and achievement perceptions in English and so on.

To conclude, the efforts of raising awareness among students towards strategy use and assisting them to personalise the learning and communication strategies are worth to create self-autonomous students. Being self-autonomous may help students to become 'good language learners'. That means they can organize information about language, seek for opportunities for practice, learn to live with uncertainty by not getting flustered, make errors work for them not against them, use contextual cues to help them in comprehension, learn to make intelligent guesses, learn certain communication strategies to fill in gaps (Rubin and Thompson, 1994). In other words, once the students feel that they can control their learning process by applying various strategies, they can find their own way by taking charge of their learning.

6.2. Suggestions

What is important here is to integrate the learning and communication strategies into the course design. Time to time, students should be exposed to various strategies to support the regular classroom activities and learning tasks. Moreover, such a study can be furthered by investigating students' learning styles and then matching them with learning and communication strategies. In addition, the number of the participants can be increased to obtain more valid and reliable results. The length of strategy-based instruction can be expanded to present all kind of communication strategies as well. The study can also be conducted in different schools that have different objectives to teach English and on the groups at different proficiency levels.

6.3. Limitations

This study had certain limitations. First limitation was its emphasis on the frequently use of a communication strategy. The overuse of a strategy might mean that the learners maintain using a given strategy unsuccessfully. Controversially, it may mean that the learners have found the strategy useful. Another limitation was the observed breakdowns among the experimental group students' attendance to the speaking classes. Besides this, the number of the participants could be more to increase the validity and reliability of the test results. Sixty two students participated in the study from the same proficiency level of English. Therefore, it is not reasonable to generalize the results of this study to different groups. Furthermore, not all kinds of strategies that were classified into the Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a and 1995b) taxonomy were included into the strategy-based instruction. The reason for the limitation on the number of communication strategies was the length of the strategy-based instruction. The length of the strategy-based instruction should be extended to include all communication strategies listed in the taxonomy. The last limitation of the study was the lack of the investigation on the students' learning styles. Reid's (1987) "Perceptual Learning-Style Preference Questionnaire" was used only to raise the students' awareness on their learning style preferences. This questionnaire could be used to investigate the relationship between learning styles and learning strategies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Tarone's Taxonomy (1977)

Avoidance	Topic avoidance:	Not talking about concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structure is not known
	Message abandonment:	Beginning to talk about a concept but being unable to continue due to lack of knowledge in meaning, and stopping in mid-utterance
Paraphrase	Approximation:	Using a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is incorrect, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker
	Word coinage:	Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept
	Circumlocution:	Describing characteristics or elements of an object or action instead of using the appropriate target language (TL) structure
Conscious Transfer	Literal translation:	Translating word for word from the native language
	Language switch:	Using the native language term without bothering to translate
Appeal for assistance	Asking for the correct term or structure	
Mime	Using non-verbal strategies in place of a meaning structure	

Appendix 2

Bialystok's Taxonomy (1983)

1-L1- based strategies	Language switch	Inserting a word or phrase from another language
	Foreignizing	Applying target language modification to the first language (L1) term
	Transliteration	Using some literal translation of a phrase
2.L2-based strategies	Semantic contiguity	Using an L2 word which shares the essential feature of the target word
	Description	Using an L2 phrase to describe the property, function, characteristic, duty, its purpose or an example of it
	Word coinage	Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept
3.Paralinguistic strategies	Gesture	Using facial expressions or head shaking if the partner does not understand
	Mime	Using gestures as well as verbal output to convey meaning

Appendix 3

Poulisse's Taxonomy (1993)

1-Substitution strategies	Original analogical/ Metaphoric comparison	Comparing the target item to another object in analogical way or a metaphorical way
	Conventional analogical/ Metaphoric comparison	Comparing the target item to another object in an analogical or metaphorical way which is conventional either in the L1 or the target language. The comparison is deemed to be metaphorical, rather than literal, as the two components are not from the same immediate semantic domain.
	Literal comparison	Comparing the target item to another object in a non-metaphorical way
	Word transfer	Using an English word that resembles the L2 with L2 word
	Super-ordinate	Giving the name of the word family to which the target item belongs
	Simple word transfer	Using an L2 word without attempting to anglicize it
2-Substitution plus strategies	Morphological creativity	Making up an English word that is similar to the target item
3-Reconceptualization	Componential	Describing the individual features

strategies	analysis	of the target item
	Function	Stating what the target item can be used for
	Activity	Describing something that the target item does
	Place	Saying where the target item can be found
	Emotion	Mentioning emotion which is often inspired by the target item
4-Functional reduction strategies	Word abandonment	Getting half way through a description, and then giving up
	Word avoidance	Not even attempting to describe the item

Appendix 4

Dornyei and Scott's Taxonomy (1995a, 1995b) - Strategic Language Devices

1-Direct Strategies	Message abandonment	Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.
	Message reduction (topic avoidance)	Reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language wise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources.
	Message replacement	Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it.
	Circumlocution (paraphrase)	Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action.
	Approximation	Using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure.
	Use of all purpose words	Extending a general, "empty" lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking.
	Word coinage	Creating a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word.

	Restructuring	Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan.
	Literal translation (transfer)	Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2.
	Foreignizing	Using a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology.
	Code switching (language switch)	Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns.
	Use of similar sounding words	Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item.
	Mumbling	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about.
	Omission	Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said.
	Retrieval	In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item saying a series of incomplete

		or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form.
	Self-repair	Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech.
	Other repair	Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech.
	Self rephrasing	Repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase.
	Over explicitness (waffling)	Using more words to achieve a particular communicative goal than what is considered normal in similar L1 situations.
	Mime (nonlinguistic/ paralinguistic strategies)	Describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration.
2-Indirect Strategies	Use of fillers	Using gambits to fill pauses, to stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty.
	Self repetition	Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said.
	Other repetition	Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time.
	Expressing non-understanding	Making an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand.

	Verbal strategy markers	Using verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code.
3- Interactional or modification device strategies:	Direct appeal for help	Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge.
	Indirect appeal for help	Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally.
	Asking for repetition	Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly.
	Asking for clarification	Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure.
	Asking for confirmation	Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly.
	Guessing	Guessing is similar to a confirmation request but the latter implies a greater degree of certainty regarding the key word, whereas guessing involves real indecision.
	Expressing non-understanding	Expressing that one did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally.
	Interpretive summary	Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that

		the speaker has understood correctly.
	Comprehension check	Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you.
	Own-accuracy check	Checking that what you said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation.
	Response: repeat	Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form (after another-repair).
	Response: repair	Providing other-initiated self-repair.
	Response: rephrase	Rephrasing the trigger.
	Response: expand	Putting the problem word/issue into a larger context
	Response: confirm	Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested.

Appendix 5

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

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Directions

This form of the STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. On the separate worksheet, write the response (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

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

NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE OF ME means that the statement is very rarely true of you.

USUALLY NOT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true less than half the time.

SOMEWHAT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you about half the time.

USUALLY TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true more than half the time.

ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you almost always.

Answer in terms of *how well the statement describes YOU*. Do not answer how you think you *should* be, or what *other* people do. *There are no right or wrong answers to these statements*. Put your answers on the separate Worksheet. Please make no marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. This usually

takes about 20-30 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, let the teacher know immediately.

SILL

Page 2

EXAMPLE

I actively seek out opportunities to talk with native speakers in English.

On this page, put an "X" in the blank underneath the statement that best describes what you actually do in regard to English now. Do not make any marks on the Worksheet yet.

Never or Almost never	Generally not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Generally true of me	Always or Almost Always true of me
1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

If you have answered the question above, you have just completed the example item. Now wait for the teacher to give you the signal to go on to the other items. When you answer the questions, work carefully but quickly. Mark the rest of your answers on the Worksheet, starting with item 1.

SILL

Page 3

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL)

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

(Write answers on Worksheet)

Part A

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.
7. I physically act out new English words.
8. I review English lessons often.
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

Part B

10. I say or write new English words several times.
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.
12. I practice the sounds of English.
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.
14. I start conversations in English.
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
16. I read for pleasure in English.
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
20. I try to find patterns in English.
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

Part C

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
27. I read English without looking up every new word.
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

Part D

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.

- 34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
- 35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
- 36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
- 37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
- 38. I think about my progress in learning English.

Part E

- 39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
- 40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
- 41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
- 42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
- 43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
- 44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.
- 45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
- 46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
- 47. I practice English with other students.
- 48. I ask for help from English speakers.
- 49. I ask questions in English.
- 50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

Appendix 6

DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ

Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri İngilizce'yi Yabancı Dil olarak öğrenenler için hazırlanmıştır. Bu envanterde İngilizce öğrenmeye ilişkin ifadeler okuyacaksınız. Her ifadenin sizin için ne kadar doğru ya da geçerli olduğunu, derecelendirmeye bakarak, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5' ten birini yazınız. Verilen ifadenin, nasıl yapmanız gerektiği ya da başkalarının neler yaptığı değil, sadece sizin yaptıklarınızı ne kadar tasvir ettiğini işaretleyiniz. Maddeler üzerinde çok fazla düşünmeyiniz. Maddeleri yapabildiğiniz kadar hızlı şekilde, çok zaman harcamadan ve dikkatlice işaretleyip bir sonraki maddeye geçiniz. Anketi cevaplandırmak yaklaşık 10-15 dk. alır.

1= Hiçbir zaman doğru değil

2= Nadiren doğru

3= Bazen doğru

4= Sık sık doğru

5= Her zaman doğru

Bölüm A

1. İngilizce'de bildiklerimle yeni öğrendiklerim arasında ilişki kurarım.
2. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri hatırlamak için bir cümlede kullanırım.
3. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri akılda tutmak için kelimenin telaffuzuyla aklıma getirdiği bir resim ya da şekil arasında bağlantı kurarım.
4. Yeni bir kelimeyi o sözcüğün kullanılabileceği bir sahneyi ya da durumu aklımda canlandırarak, hatırlarım.
5. Yeni kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için, onları ses benzerliği olan kelimelerle ilişkilendiririm.
6. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için küçük kartlara yazarım.
7. Yeni kelimeleri vücut dili kullanarak zihnimde canlandırırım.
8. İngilizce derslerinde öğrendiklerimi sık sık tekrar ederim.

9. Yeni kelime ve kelime gruplarını ilk karşılaştığım yerleri (kitap, tahta ya da herhangi bir işaret levhasını) aklıma getirerek, hatırlarım.

Bölüm B

10. Yeni sözcükleri birkaç kez yazarak, ya da söyleyerek, tekrarlarım.
11. Anadili İngilizce olan kişiler gibi konuşmaya çalışırım.
12. Anadilimde bulunmayan İngilizce'deki “**th /θ / hw**” gibi sesleri çıkararak, telaffuz alıştırmaları yaparım.
13. Bildiğim kelimeleri cümlelerde farklı şekillerde kullanırım.
14. İngilizce sohbetleri ben başlatırım.
15. T.V.'de İngilizce programlar ya da İngilizce filmler izlerim.
16. İngilizce okumaktan hoşlanırım.
17. İngilizce mesaj, mektup veya rapor yazarım.
18. İngilizce bir metne ilk başta bir göz atarım, daha sonra metnin tamamını dikkatlice okurum.
19. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimelerin benzerlerini Türkçe'de ararım.
20. İngilizce'de tekrarlanan kalıplar bulmaya çalışırım.
21. İngilizce bir kelimenin, bildiğim kök ve eklerine ayırarak anlamını çıkarırım.
22. Kelimesi kelimesine çeviri **yapmamaya** çalışırım.
23. Dinlediğim ya da okuduğum metnin özetini çıkarırım.

Bölüm C

24. Bilmediğim İngilizce kelimelerin anlamını, tahmin ederek bulmaya çalışırım.
25. İngilizce konuşurken bir sözcük aklıma gelmediğinde, el kol hareketleriyle anlatmaya çalışırım.
26. Uygun ve doğru kelimeyi bilmediğim durumlarda kafamdan yeni sözcükler uydururum
27. Okurken her bilmediğim kelimeye sözlükten bakmadan, okumayı sürdürürüm.
28. Konuşma sırasında karşımdakinin söyleyeceği bir sonraki cümleyi tahmin etmeye çalışırım.

29. Herhangi bir kelimeyi hatırlayamadığımda, aynı anlamı taşıyan başka bir kelime ya da ifade kullanırım.

Bölüm D

30. İngilizce’mi kullanmak için her fırsatı değerlendiririm.
31. Yaptığım yanlışların farkına varır ve bunlardan daha doğru İngilizce kullanmak için faydalanırım.
32. İngilizce konuşan bir kişi duyduğumda dikkatimi ona veririm.
33. “İngilizce’yi daha iyi nasıl öğrenirim?” sorusunun yanıtını araştırırım.
34. İngilizce çalışmaya yeterli zaman ayırmak için zamanımı planlarım.
35. İngilizce konuşabileceğim kişilerle tanışmak için fırsat kollarım.
36. İngilizce okumak için, elimden geldiği kadar fırsat yaratırım.
37. İngilizce’de becerilerimi nasıl geliştireceğim konusunda hedeflerim var
38. İngilizce’mi ne kadar ilerlettiğimi değerlendiririm.

Bölüm E

39. İngilizce’mi kullanırken tedirgin ve kaygılı olduğum anlar rahatlamaya çalışırım.
40. Yanlış yaparım diye kaygılandığımda bile İngilizce konuşmaya gayret ederim.
41. İngilizce’de başarılı olduğum zamanlar kendimi ödüllendiririm.
42. İngilizce çalışırken ya da kullanırken gergin ve kaygılı isem, bunun farkına varırım.
43. Dil öğrenirken yaşadığım duyguları bir yere yazarım.
44. İngilizce çalışırken nasıl ya da neler hissettiğimi başka birine anlatırım.

Bölüm F

45. Herhangi bir şeyi anlamadığımda, karşımdaki kişiden daha yavaş konuşmasını ya da söylediklerini tekrar etmesini isterim.
46. Konuşurken karşımdakinin yanlışlarımı düzeltmesini isterim.
47. Okulda arkadaşlarımla İngilizce konuşurum.
48. İhtiyaç duyduğumda İngilizce konuşan kişilerden yardım isterim.

49. Derste İngilizce sorular sormaya gayret ederim.
50. İngilizce konuşanların kültürü hakkında bilgi edinmeye çalışırım.

Appendix 8

Speaking English Community

Name:

Date:

Topic:

- What did you do before the class?

-
- How did you feel during the lesson?

-
- What have you acquired after the lesson?

-
- Any further comment?

Appendix 9

A sample student log 1

Speaking English Community

Name: **Al**

Date: **20.03.2012**

Topic: **Game, movie song.**

- What did you do before the class?

~~At the~~ We prepared tabuu cards with the other guys- We find the song about our subject.

- How did you feel during the lesson?

I feel good when I was in the lesson.
I am enjoying during the lesson

- What have you acquired after the lesson?

I learned some ~~was~~ new words, I felt good. It was fun. I like this activity.

- Any further comment?

I don't know but I think we need to continue ~~this~~ this activity.

A sample student log 2

Speaking English Community

Name: Yusuf

Date: 06.03.2012

Topic:

- What did you do before the class?

I had looked over the subjects that had been taught last week.

- How did you feel during the lesson?

I was better compared to the first week. I believe that I will get much better soon.

- What have you acquired after the lesson?

I learnt much more information. I understood the lessons much better than the first week.

- Any further comment?

If I study much more, I believe that I will get better in time.

Appendix 10

Table 28: Speaking Pre-test and Post-test Results of Experimental Group Students

Test	N	Mean	sd	Significance
Pre-Test	31	61,29	18,88	0,003
Post-test	31	74,51	14,56	

P <.05

Appendix 11

Table 29: Speaking Post-test Results of Experimental and Control Group Students

Group	N	Mean	sd	Significance
Experimental	31	74,51	14,56	0,00
Control	31	43,22	16,81	

P <.05