

**ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT**

**THE EFFECT OF STRATEGIES-BASED INSTRUCTION ON SPEAKING
SKILLS OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS**

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MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF STRATEGIES-BASED INSTRUCTION ON SPEAKING SKILLS OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Burçay Burcu ATİK

Master of Arts, English Language Teaching

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Hasan BEDİR

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Effective strategies used to overcome encountered difficulties in second language learners' (SLLs) speaking skills are of crucial importance. Hence, SLLs might utilize the strategies on how to cope with such communication difficulties. This study aims to find out the impact of strategy training in the use of strategies for speaking in English as a second language (ESL) in the context of 9th grade ESL learners attending an Anatolian High school and to investigate the second language learners' awareness of the speaking strategies and their frequent choice of strategies. In addition, the perspectives of the participants in the use of strategy training for speaking skill is examined in this study.

After addressing the issues of terminology and definitions, the theoretical underpinnings of the Language Learning Strategy concept are concentrated on. After clarifying these issues, through related literature it focuses on speaking strategies (Communication strategies) and strategy training for developing speaking skill. This research uses Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (1962, 1978) to explore the effects of strategy training in the use of speaking strategies on learners' oral production.

The study examines two groups of ESL learners during two semester period. The Experimental group members received strategy training in the use of strategies for speaking, whereas the Control group members did not receive any treatment.

The results were measured using four different instruments: Pre-Post-speaking strategy questionnaires, Pre- Post-speaking tests, Language learning diary, and structured interview. The data obtained from the Pre-and Post- speaking strategy questionnaires and Pre-Post- speaking tests were analysed by using descriptive and inferential statistics. The Pre-and Post-speaking strategy questionnaires were analysed through chi-square statistics. The Pre- and Post-speaking tests were analysed through Wilcoxon Signed Rank test and Mann-Whitney U-test. The results of the data showed significant differences in strategy use of the Experimental group. Research findings from both the quantitative and qualitative data shed light on the efficacy of training learners in the use of speaking strategies and raising their awareness through strategy training.

Keywords: Language Learning Strategies, speaking strategies, strategies-based instruction for speaking, learners' awareness of speaking strategies.

ÖZET

STRATEJİ DESTEKLİ EĞİTİMİN LİSE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KONUŞMA BECERİLERİ ÜZERİNE ETKİSİ

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İkinci dil öğrencilerinin konuşma becerilerinde karşılaştıkları zorlukların üstesinden gelmekte kullanılan etkili stratejiler büyük önem taşımaktadırlar. Bundan dolayı ikinci yabancı dil öğrencileri bu tür sözel iletişim güçlükleri ile nasıl başa çıkacakları konusunda bu stratejilerden faydalanabilirler. Bu çalışma Anadolu Lisesi 9. sınıf İngilizce'yi 2. yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin ortamında İngilizce'nin ikinci bir yabancı dil olarak konuşulması için strateji eğitiminin stratejilerin kullanımı üzerindeki etkisini ortaya çıkarmayı ve ikinci yabancı dil öğrencilerinin sıklıkla seçtikleri stratejileri araştırmayı amaçlar. Ayrıca katılımcıların konuşma becerisi için uygulanan strateji eğitiminin kullanımı üzerine sahip oldukları bakış açıları da bu çalışmada incelenmiştir.

Terminoloji ve tanım konularına değinildikten sonra, Dil öğrenme stratejisi kuramının teorik yapı taşları üzerinde duruldu. Bu alandaki literatürden yola çıkarak bu konular açıklandıktan sonra konuşma stratejileri (iletişim stratejileri) ve konuşma becerisini geliştirmek için strateji eğitimi uygulanması üzerinde duruldu. Bu araştırma öğrencilerin sözel üretimlerini artırmak için konuşma stratejilerinin kullanımında strateji kullanımı üzerine strateji eğitimi aldılar, diğer taraftan Kontrol grubu üyeleri hiçbir eğitim almadılar.

Sonuçlar 4 farklı araç kullanılarak ölçüldü; Eğitim öncesi ve sonrası verilen konuşma stratejisi anketi, önce ve sonra uygulanan konuşma testleri, Dil öğrenme günlüğü, Yapılandırılmış görüşme. Eğitim öncesi ve sonrası uygulanan konuşma stratejisi anketi ve konuşma testleri betimsel ve sayısal istatistik kullanılarak analiz edildi.

Eğitim öncesi ve sonrası konuşma stratejileri anketleri chi-square istatistik yöntemi kullanılarak analiz edildi. Önce ve sonra uygulanan konuşma testleri Wilcoxon Signed Rank test ve Mann – Whitney U – test kullanılarak analiz edildi. Veri sonuçları denek grubunun strateji kullanımında istatistiksel olarak önemli farklar olduğunu gösterdi. Niceliksel ve niteliksel verilerden ortaya çıkan araştırma bulguları strateji eğitimi alan öğrencilerinin konuşma stratejileri kullanımındaki etkinliğinin arttığı ve strateji eğitiminin onların farkındalıklarını artırdığını gösterdi.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dil öğrenme stratejileri, konuşma stratejileri, konuşma becerisi için strateji eğitimi, öğrencilerin konuşma stratejileri farkındalıkları.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In the field of second language acquisition research, curiosity in discovering and revealing information about successful activities or practices has had a long history. In the last two decades, research in that area has shown a great interest in identifying what differs successful from less successful language learners. The questions of interest were about how successful language learners approach learning tasks differently from less successful learners and this has led the researchers seek to identify the characteristics of good language learners.

Researchers have concerned with that successful learners might be using special techniques differing from those of less successful learners. Carroll (1967) investigated the learning biographies of proficient learners learning more than one language and a particularly influential study on the distinctive characteristics and learning strategies of successful learners; *The Good Language Learner (The GLL*; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Toedesco, 1978) was conducted in the mid-1970s. Also early studies on good language learners such as, Rubin (1975), and Wong-Fillmore (1979) revealed that proficient language learners tend to share some behaviours (i.e., strategies) for learning. With the priority of recent studies, a large number of empirical research on their strategies has provided a framework for second language researchers who have sought to identify the strategies used by the good language learners thus novice language learners benefit from the strategies employed by the expert learners through strategy training.

One focus of research within this expert systems framework has been that of how to introduce the strategies of good language learners to students in foreign or second language classrooms such as Ellis & Sinclair, (Nakatani, 2005) and Oxford (1990). Recently empirical studies on how to teach strategies have been conducted around the world (Cohen, 1998; Dadour & Robbins; Thompson & Rubin, 1996).

In view of past experiences with observation, the accepted result of the research in Language Learning Strategy (LLS) area is that learning strategies not only produce positive effects on learning, but also eliminate the fossilized negative behavioural

syndrome in learners. Moreover, learners also learn to be autonomous in their search for knowledge and to take responsibility of their own learning.

As Wenden (1985) mentions an old proverb stating that; “Give a man a fish and he eats for a day. Teach him how to fish and he eats for a life time.” When it is thought in terms of language teaching and learning process, this proverb can mean to provide students with the answer may solve only the immediate problem at that time. On the other hand, to teach the strategies to arrive the answers for themselves may result in empowering them to manage their own learning and become a real good learner for a life time. Hence, LLS can be named as conscious thoughts and behaviours that are used by learners to utilize the learning task and to personalize language-learning process.

Second language learning strategies encompass both second language learning and second language use strategies. Both of them include the steps or actions used by learners either to improve the learning of a second language, the use of it, or both. (Cohen, 1996). Particularly, language use strategies constitutes communication strategies and performance strategies. Language learning strategies have an explicit goal of assisting learners in improving their knowledge in a target language, however, language use strategies primarily focus on employing the language that learners have in their current interlanguage (Cohen, 1996). Communication strategies or language use strategies are the paths to communication that a speaker successes to compensate for the gap between what he / she wishes to communicate and her available linguistic resources.

Oxford (1990) mentions six categories of learning strategies (such as memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social) and all these can influence learners’ speaking skill development as they do in the other three skills that are writing, reading, and listening. Therefore, it appears that learning strategies and communication strategies contribute to each other and speaking strategies directly fall within the communication strategies. Therefore, both language teachers and learners should take into account knowing how to use speaking strategies to advance learners’ speaking ability and simultaneously help those learners to actively engage in communication.

Researchers (O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Küpper, 1989, as cited in Chamot, 1993) have studied the LLS that were taught to English as a foreign language learners in numerous different tasks, including vocabulary, listening, and speaking tasks. The results of the studies reveal that LLS are primarily of benefit for the speaking task (Chamot, 1993). It is an opportunity of learners to achieve the goal of

communicative competence in second language through the use of LLS. In fact the literature is replete with strategy training studies aiming to facilitate the learning outcome.

It is important at the present stage to touch on the main focus of this study. The study begins by exploring the general notion of LLSs then narrowing down this term to skill-specific strategies as strategies for developing speaking skill and the concept of strategy training in oral communication strategies based on Vygotsky's (1962, 1978) Social Cognitive Theory.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

It is obviously accepted that "learning begins with the learner" (Nyikos & Oxford, 1987). This basic reality also reminds us that like the proverbial horse led to water but which must do drinking itself, with the best teachers, methods and techniques, still students are the heart of that process who can actually do the learning. This growing awareness shows itself in the field of LLS research.

It is inevitable that complete mastery in first language acquisition is an obligation, however, in second language acquisition, some degree of failure or incomplete achievement is acceptable particularly as second language users are likely to frequently have problems in their speaking skill. On the face of this problem, the efficient strategies-based instruction for speaking should in principle be an integral part of the strategic behaviour.

Speaking as a productive language skill is considered to be a creative and complex process among the other skills for learners. In many countries where English is taught mainly as an academic subject, this skill is often neglected which could provide the primary foundation for practical communication. Speaking English fluently and accurately and communicating orally in target language is always a grand task for foreign language learners since effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions. (Shumin, 1997) Hence, lack of speaking competence and strong motivation prohibits the opportunities for foreign language learners to interact with others in target language. Without the target language speaking competence, students have a propensity to talk to each other in their native language and murmur when encountering questions (Lim, 2003).

In addition, because of minimal exposure to the target language and contact with native speakers, EFL learners in general are relatively poor at spoken English, especially regarding fluency, control of idiomatic expressions, and understanding of cultural pragmatics (Shumin, 1997).

The effective way of handling these problems of foreign language learners related to speaking skill is explicit strategies instruction in speaking as in any language skill (Bedell & Oxford, 1996; Chamot, Barnhart, El-Dinary, & Robbins, 1999; Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Vann & Abraham, 1990). But it is often attempted to develop learners' speaking skills by simply assigning them general topics to discuss or ask them to talk about certain topics. On the other hand, the factors inhibiting or helping the production of spoken language have been ignored. In order to provide effective guidance in developing competent speakers of English, it is necessary to examine the characteristics and functions of spoken language, components underlying speaking proficiency, the factors affecting learners' development of speaking abilities, and specific skills or strategies used in communication.

Another important focus of this research is to explore the impact of strategy training issue on students' efforts in speaking English as a target language. It is fairly obvious in the case of strategy training issue that researchers and teachers have intensified on both training students about how to use strategies and delving into the outcome of such training.

In relevant research literature, it is observed that the strategic component of speaking competence assist, learners in learning a language in his/her individual learning style and characteristics, pushes learners to autonomy and helps learners to adapt themselves socially-psychosocially to the learning environment and use language in real life situations. However, in Turkey, where English is instructed as a foreign language, our learners' language learning motivation is in most cases instrumental. Hence, they need to gain language competence alongside with language learning competence to achieve autonomous language learning and language development skills. Therefore, the importance of language learning strategy training in learner education should not be ignored.

Even though LLSs and language use has been taking a growing attention in second language teaching/learning, limited attention in the research literature has been given to the specific area of speaking namely strategies for developing speaking skill. There have been relatively few studies exploring the benefits of providing second

language learners with formal training in the applications of strategies for speaking. Therefore, there is a need to conduct research in that area to investigate the effects of strategies-based instruction on developing learners' speaking skills.

One of the major concerns of the present study is to investigate the range of possible strategies with an emphasis on the skill of speaking. Because of that, not only did we use communication (i.e. language use) strategies but also focused on a broad range of learning strategies contributing to students' efforts at speaking a foreign language. It was with this intention in mind that the current study was designed. The ultimate objective of this research is to investigate the benefits of providing second language learners with formal training in the applications of strategies for speaking

1.2. Background to the Study

Research into LLS began in the 1960s. Particularly, the development in cognitive psychology influenced much of the research done on LLS (Shmais, 2000). From the research to date, it is obvious that all language learners use some kind of LLSs but the frequency and variety of use change depending on a number of variables (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). Research on language learners indicates that most successful learners have a tendency to use learning strategies and choose them according to the task, material, self-objective, needs, motivation and stage of learning (Oxford, 1990). Early research on LLSs has suggested a link between strategy use particularly in second language and the proficiency or achievement. Recently, in many quantitative studies, the significant relationship between these two have been found (e.g., Bedell & Oxford, 1996; Chamot, Barnhart, El-Dinary, & Robbins, 1999; Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Vann & Abraham, 1990). Results from these studies shed light on the idea that successful learners use a large repertoire of learning strategies and also use them more effectively.

An intensive exploration of this area of language use strategies was being made by some scholars. One of them was made by Chen (1990) who conducted an Experimental research to identify communication strategies used by advanced English as a foreign language (EFL) learners from different levels. The result of the study was that the frequency, the type and the effectiveness of communication strategy use varied in relation to proficiency levels. Chamot. and Kupper' s (1989) study showed the same

results as successful learners used learning strategies more often and appropriately compared to less successful learners. Bailey (1990) found that stronger students benefit most from the strategy training (p. 223). To sum up research suggest that more proficient language learners use more learning strategies but appropriately whereas less successful learners have fewer strategies in their repertoires and use them inappropriately for the task at hand (Green & Oxford, 1995; Wharton, 2000; Vann & Abraham, 1990; Peacock, 2001; Bremner, 1999; Tammy, 2001).

Cohen (1998) pointed out that “With some exceptions, strategies themselves are not inherently good or bad, but have the potential to be used effectively”(p.8) Language learning strategy users attempt to search for the ways to practice the second language and maintain a conversation, (O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, & Russo, 1985; Rubin, 1987) to search for verification and clarification, (O’Malley et al., 1985; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1987) and to be transformed from passive receptacles to active participants in the learning process (Wenden, 1985).

It is important at the present stage to emphasize the role of the strategy training on speaking a foreign language. Cohen (1996) presents that; 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 strategy training pushes the learner towards gaining more responsibility in learning and using the target language.

1.3. The Purpose of the Study

This particular study aims at investigating the impact of strategies-based instruction for developing 9th grade EFL learners’ speaking skills attending an Anatolian High School. The ultimate purpose of the study is to examine the contribution that formal strategies-based instruction might offer learners in 9th grade of an Anatolian High school level, with a particular focus on speaking. This area had received such limited attention in the research literature, despite the fact that it is in many cases the most critical language skill of all. The participants’ awareness of the speaking strategies and

the participants' frequent choice of strategies are other variables to be investigated in this study.

In the light of the relevant research, it's worth to investigate the effect of the strategies-based instruction which aims to develop EFL learners' speaking performances and their awareness of the strategies and their perspectives about the benefit of the particular strategy-training course. This study has eight specific purposes:

- 1) Reviewing the relevant research in the area of strategy training focusing on learners' speaking ability to communicate in target language.
- 2) Determining the present situation of the students' speaking strategies through the use of conducting a need analysis search at the beginning and at the end of the study.
- 3) Orienting the Experimental group participants towards reflecting on their progress in communicating target language by keeping a speaking strategy diary.
- 4) Providing the Experimental group learners with a set of speaking strategies with the application of the strategies in a set of different speaking tasks.
- 5) Making Experimental group learners aware of the speaking strategies.
- 6) Developing learners' speaking abilities to communicate in English as a target language.
- 7) Understanding the students' views about strategy use in performing speaking tasks.
- 8) Presenting the effect of strategy training on students' speaking performances.

1.4. Research Questions of the Study

We generated four research questions to investigate:

- 1) Does explicit strategy training in strategies for speaking skill have an effect on learners' awareness of the speaking strategies in six strategy groups?
- 2) Which speaking strategies do learners in the Experimental group use before and after the strategy-training process?
- 3) What are the learners' perspectives for strategy use in performing speaking tasks?,

4) Does explicit strategy-based instruction in English language learning have an effect on students' speaking performances?

1.5. Assumptions and Limitations

The personality factors and sex differences' role in strategy training are not within the scope of this study. The participants were intact groups therefore they were not randomly chosen. This is a potential weakness of the study.

Another limitation of the study was its emphasis on the frequently use of a strategy rather than on successful use. The problem is that repeated use of a strategy may be a sign that the learners maintain using a given strategy unsuccessfully. Controversially, it may mean that the learners has found the strategy useful. The study didn't have a direct measure of how successfully the learners used the strategies but an indirect measure was the relation between the frequent use of a strategy and an increase in speaking task performance. What caused this connection between them was that the speaking strategy checklist was constructed with the determined speaking task in mind.

1.6. Operational Definitions

LLS: Language Learning strategies.

Speaking strategies: The techniques used by a speaker to cope with difficulties encountered whilst communicating in the foreign language. Communication strategies, language use strategies.

Oxford's model of Language learning strategies: The six strategy groups such as memory, cognitive, compensation, as direct strategies and metacognitive, affective, and social strategies as indirect strategies.

Dörnyei & Scott's taxonomy: The communication strategies taxonomies used at the present study in strategy training program.

Speaking strategy questionnaire: The questionnaire including the strategy items related to speaking skill.

Speaking test: A speaking task for learners to perform in order to measure the speaking proficiency levels of the learners.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Language Learning and Language Learning Strategies

Learning is a cognitive process, since it is assumed that it includes internal representations organizing and guiding performance (McLaughlin, 1987). Within this framework, second language learning is thought to be the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. Hence, the term ‘to learn a second language ‘means to learn a skill through practising, integrating the aspects of the task into fluent performance which results in the automatization of component sub-skills and restructuring processes. In restructuring process, “new structures are devised for interpreting new information and imposing a new organization on that already stored” (Rumelhart & Norman, 1978). In that way, learning involves a constant modification of organizational structures. If learning requires a constant modification of organizational structures, then it is these strategies of learning that govern the process of restructuring (McLaughlin, 1987).

The processes involved in using second language knowledge were categorized by Ellis (1985b) into learning, production, and communication strategies. Particularly, communication strategies that the present study focus on result from initial failure to implement a production plan. They are used when speakers have difficulty in realizing the original communicative goal in a planned way and therefore, they may attempt to use communication strategies to reach their intended goal. (McLaughlin, 1987).

Several cognitive and social-cognitive models of learning support the need for learning strategies and provide insights into why strategies use is instrumental to learning. Furthermore, such learning theories emphasize the way for learning strategies instruction, suggesting ways of teaching strategies. Specifically, these learning theories support explicit instruction that emphasizes metacognitive awareness of one’s learning. They emphasize the importance of both connections to students’ existing strategies and construction of individual understanding of strategies.

There are also two theoretical assumptions behind contemporary ideas on language learning strategies research. LLS research views learners as being able to

consciously influence their own learning and the learning of language becomes a cognitive process. (McLaughlin, 1978). But this view is opposed to Krashen's Monitor and acquisition / Learning Hypotheses (Krashen, 1977) claiming that language can not be consciously learned. Instead of this, it is only acquired through natural communication and hence, this view proposes that conscious learning strategies are not useful in the language learning process.

Griffiths (2003) states that apart from Monitor and acquisition / learning hypotheses, language learning strategy theory operates clearly alongside most other language learning and teaching theories and with different methods and approaches. To illustrate, learning from errors developed from interlanguage theory involves cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Also compensation and social strategies can be related to communicative competence theory and the communicative language teaching approach. Another example is that affective strategies are used in suggestopedia.

Since the notion of LLSs is related to the learning itself, they should be placed on the learning theories. Two major domains of current learning theory and research provide a rationale for learning strategies instruction (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, & Robbins, 1999). These are;

- a) Cognitive learning models focusing on learners' mental processes.
- b) Social cognitive models investigating the roles of interaction between individuals and group processes in learning

2.1.1. Cognitive Models of Learning

The concept of learning strategies is based in part on cognitive learning theory which views learning as an active, mental, learner-constructed, dynamic process in which learners select from incoming information, encode it into long term memory and retrieve it when needed (Chamot et al., 1999). Cognitive learning theory highlights the important function of procedural knowledge that is a type of knowledge related to knowing how to do things.

Cognitive theory proposes that linguistic information is stored in two ways as declarative knowledge that is related to what we know and as procedural knowledge that is what we know about how to do something. Both of them have specific contributions to language learning. Procedural knowledge plays the role of linking the

new knowledge to the previous knowledge in the memory. Therefore, procedural knowledge serves as an information processor which aids learning to learn.

It is reasonable to hypothesize that learning can not realise without procedural knowledge. Joyce and Weil (1972 as cited in Slew) describe procedural knowledge as “the way in which people handle stimuli from the environment, organize data, sense problems, generate concepts and solutions to problems and employ verbal and non-verbal symbols”. Three cognitive learning models shed light on how learning strategies work;

- * Information processing
- * Schema theory
- * Constructivism

These models emphasize both the importance of learning strategies and the goal of helping students become independent learners.

Information processing theory focuses on the thinking processes associated with learning and remembering. These processes include directing information from a person’s immediate awareness into that person’s long term memory. The theory highlights that learning requires processing new information by organizing it, elaborating on it and connecting it with existing knowledge. This is precisely the purpose of cognitive strategies such as summarizing, inferencing, and predicting. Another crucial component in information processing is metacognition, the “executive control” over thinking processes. Explicit instruction to strategies, including when and why they are useful, support this metacognitive executive control (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Schema theory presents that learning occurs as a result of trying to organize and understanding life experiences according to our prior knowledge. This prior knowledge is stored in organized structures called schemata that are the “concept maps” of a central concept and its associated ideas in our minds. Having a schema or relevant pre-existing knowledge, allows us to make predictions, visualize events, draw inferences, monitor comprehension, and create summaries. Learning strategies such as these are critical to understanding new information in the light of existing knowledge.

Constructivism goes a step beyond schema theory by suggesting a more interactive relationship between new information and existing knowledge. This theory suggests that learners actively construct meaning as they encounter new information through the use of their background knowledge of the world as an initial frame for

relating to new information. (Bransford, Barclay, & Franks, 1972; Spiro, 1980, as cited in Chamot et al.). They then use cognitive strategies as tools to help building meaning from the new information and from their background knowledge. The role of metacognitive strategies is also critical in helping the learner update interpretations as the information unfolds.

2.1.2. Social-Cognitive Models of Learning

Social cognitive models focus both on the individual learner and on the social nature of learning and other factors. Such models offer explanations not only for why strategies work, but also for how strategies can be taught.

Bandura's (1986) Social –Cognitive Theory focus on the role of personal motivation. If a learner experiences success at a valued task, he or she develops a self-efficacy. Through the use of appropriate strategies, the learner can enhance self-efficacy by creating success experiences and students are given tools for future successes. Particularly social- affective strategies consist of these features.

Self-regulated learning theory involves cognitive, metacognitive and motivational strategies interacting to create effective learning (Chamot et al., 1999). Self regulated learners have the control over the use of several cognitive strategies such as predicting, visualizing and summarizing. They also have metacognitive understanding of when and where to use their strategies as well as how to adapt them to new situations. They use metacognitive strategies such as planning, monitoring and evaluating.

Vygotsky's Social-Cognitive Theory (Sociocultural theoretical relevance) (1962, 1978) Sociocultural approaches to learning and development were first organized and applied by Vygotsky in Russia in the 1920s and 1930s. The basic concept was that learning can develop effectively when learners use their minds and available tools while engaged in activities. Language is, of course, one of the major tools, but other things like gesture can be included as well. According to Wertsch (1985), the sociocultural perspective encompasses social interaction as contingent upon language and gesture which are appropriated by the individual to form the instrumental tools for thinking and problem solving.

Vygotsky's (1962, 1978) Social-Cognitive Theory suggests that students develop mature thinking by observing how teachers approach learning tasks and by practicing expert processes with coaching from the teacher. Learners can operate in their Zone of Proximal Development when teachers more proficient provide the support needed for completing the task. Eventually teachers provide less support gradually and students begin to internalise the kinds of thought processes such as strategies. Vygotsky's (1962, 1978) theory supports the critical roles of modelling how to use strategies and of scaffolding guidance as students become more independent learners.

This learning theory emphasizes the explicit strategy instruction for the metacognitive awareness of the learners. This research takes Vygotsky's Social-Cognitive Theory (1962, 1978) as a basis for the strategy training for learners in speaking strategies

There are four essential points related to sociocultural theory: mediation, thinking and speaking, zone of proximal development (ZPD), and interaction.

Mediation: Lantolf (2000) addresses that "the most fundamental concept of sociocultural theory is that the human mind is mediated" (p.1). Mediation takes place as long as human beings have an opportunity to consider what they are doing or what they have just learned. This permits us to connect and extend our knowledge and skills for further learning which may affect our beliefs, views of the world, identity, and cultural and social awareness.

Thinking and Speaking : Vygotsky (1962, 1978) viewed the initial function of speech as a mediator (Minick, 1997). In the process of speaking, they check whether their words or sentences are appropriate in each situation or not, whether their speaking is what they want to tell or not, how much they understand what they want to tell or what they have just listened to or learned, what their interlocutor's reaction (e.g., facial expression, verbal response) is, and so on.

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) : In addition, Vygotsky emphasized the essential role of zone of proximal development (ZPD) in learning. He defined it as the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with peers (Vygotsky, 1978, p.86). According to the concept of ZPD, learners can move into their next level with their peers' or teachers' assistance while using language as the primary tool during this activity.

Interaction: In the ZPD, we notice that it is indispensable for learners to interact with others because the ZPD needs at least more than two people to actively develop. Vygotsky claimed that speech is the most widely used and important means employed by humans to organize social interaction, to regulate others, and to regulate oneself (Wertsch, 1981, p.24). With effective interaction, especially through speaking with their peers or teachers, learners naturally develop and extend their linguistic knowledge.

2.2. Definition of Language Learning Strategies

In the field of research on identifying strategies, the term *strategy* has generally been used interchangeably with *tactics* until recently when Schmeck (1988) made a distinction between the two in the field of education.. The basic term *strategy* originates from the ancient Greek term “*strategia*” which means generalship or the art of war and specifically involves the optimal management. On the other hand the word “*tactics*” are tools to achieve the success of strategies.(Oxford,1990). The difference between these two terms is the dimension of ‘specificity – generality’. Schmeck (1988) argued that “the term ‘*tactics*’ refers to the specific activities of learners and the word ‘*strategies*’ refers to their more general plan or approach” .

Strategy is a cluster of higher level learning tactics and the learning tactics are determined by the learner’s strategy. In the field of foreign language or second language learning strategies literature, terms such as; strategy, technique (Stern 1975), tactic (Seliger 1984), and move (Sarig 1987) are used. However the second or foreign LLS strategy research mostly uses the two terms ‘strategy- tactics’ to refer to both the general approaches and to specific actions or techniques (Cohen 1998: 10-11). Thus, the strategy concept has become so powerful in education field that it has gained a new meaning and dimension which has been transformed into ‘learning strategies’ (Oxford, 1990).

The concept LLS shed light into different definitions from different researchers’ point of views. There has been considerable debate as to appropriate definition of LLS, yet no strong consensus has been reached. The debate concerns how language learning strategies should be defined specifically (Cohen, 1998; Dörnyei, 2003; Ellis, 1994), and terminology changes within the field of second language acquisition, ranging from “*learner strategies*” (Wenden & Rubin, 1987), “*learning strategies*” (O’Malley &

Chamot, 1990), or “language learning strategies” (Oxford, 1990), to the most recently definition that is “self-regulatory learning” (Dörnyei, 2003). Researchers in that area have demonstrated a variety of definitions for language learning strategies (Huang, 2004). (see Table 2.1)

Table 2.1. Definitions of Language-Learning Strategies (LLS).

<i>Researcher(s)</i>	<i>Definition of LLS</i>
Bialystok (1978)	<i>“optimal means for exploring available information to improve competence in a second language “ (p.71).</i>
Rigney (1978)	<i>“operation or steps used by a learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage or retrieval of information” (p. 105).</i>
Stern (1983)	<i>“... strategy is ... for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving techniques as Particular forms of observable learning behaviour” (Ellis, 1994, p. 531).</i>
Tarone (1983)	<i>“an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language – to incorporate these into one’s interlanguage competence” (p. 67).</i>
Seliger (1984)	<i>Strategies – “basic abstract categories of processing by which information perceived in the outside world is organized and categorized into cognitive structures as part of a conceptual network” (p. 4). Tactics – “ variable and idiosyncratic learning activities, which learners use to organize a learning situation, respond to the learning environment, or cope with input and output demands” (Ellis, 1994, p. 532).</i>
Weinstein& Mayer	<i>“behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning” (1986) which are “intended to influence the learner’s encoding process” (p. 315).</i>
Mayer (1988)	<i>“behaviours of a learner that are intended to influence how the learner processes information” (p.11).</i>
Chamot (1987)	<i>“techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information” (p.71).</i>

Table 2.1. Continued

Rubin (1987)	<i>“strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affects learning directly” (p. 22).</i>
Wenden & Rubin	<i>“... any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to (1987) facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information” (p. 19).</i>
Oxford (1989)	<i>“behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable” (p. 235).</i>
Carrell, et al. (1989)	<i>“the kinds of cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective strategies that learners employ” (p. 3).</i>
O’Malley & Chamot	<i>“the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them (1990) comprehend, learn, or retain new information” (p. 1)</i>
Oxford (1990)	<i>“specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (p. 8).</i>
Oxford (1992/1993)	<i>“specific actions, behaviours, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalisation, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. Strategies are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability” (p. 18).</i>
Richards & Platt (1992)	<i>“intentional behaviour or thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information” (p. 209).</i>
Stern (1992)	<i>“broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques” (p. 261).</i> <i>Green & Oxford (1995) “specific actions or techniques that (learners) use, often intentionally, to improve their progress in developing L2 skills” (p. 262).</i>

Table 2.1. Continued

Weaver &Cohen (1997)	<i>“specific behaviours, steps and actions taken to enhance one’s own learning, through the storage, retention, and use of new information about the target language. They are conscious thoughts and behaviours used by the learners with the explicit goals of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language. They facilitate language learning tasks, represent goal-directed behaviour, and personalize the language learning process” (p.vi).</i>
Cohen (2002)	<i>“learners’ conscious and semi-conscious thoughts and behaviours, having the explicit goal of improving the learner’s knowledge and understanding of the second language (i.e., language learning strategies), as well as strategies for using the language that has been learned or for getting around gaps in language proficiency (i.e., language use strategies)” (p.51)</i>

In fact, the terms that have been employed in that area to describe strategies such as; ‘technique, operation, tools, behaviour or action’ and the terms to indicate their purposes ‘to regulate learning, to make learning easier and more effective, to acquire knowledge, to facilitate learning’ vary, nevertheless they share common features..

2.2.1. Why Language Learning Strategies?

The cognitive point of view accepts the learner as “an active participant in the learning process, using various mental strategies in order to sort out the system of the language to be learned” (Williams and Burden, 1997, p.13). Gage and Berliner (1992) indicates that the reason for the effectiveness of strategies is likely that they require the learner to be “more active cognitively” than a learner engaging less strategically in the task (p.302). The role of the learner is seen as an integral part of the process. Because in that stage, learners shift from being passive receptacles of knowledge to thinking participants controlling their learning and taking their own responsibility towards being autonomous learners. Especially in second language learning, learner centeredness has a special value. The term ‘learner autonomy’ is a result of learner-centred education.

As Johnson & Johnson (1998) stated that;

Learner autonomy is one of a number of closely related concepts within the general paradigm of learner-centred education. It underpins the individualization of instruction, the development of patterns of self directed learning and of methodology of self-access, as well as implying some degree of learner training (pp.306-7).

At the same token, regarding self-directed learning, Cohen (1996) states that “The importance of the strategies for language learning is because of the fact that they are the tools for self-directed involvement that has of crucial importance to develop learners’ speaking skills and communicative competence

2.2.2. Classification of the Language Learning Strategies

Just as different researchers have defined LLS differently, LLS have been also classified into several different ways. Researchers have not been agreed on the second language learning strategy classification. Exactly how many strategies are available to learners to help them in second language learning and how these strategies should be classified have been open to debate. Each existing classification system involves an implicit theory about the nature of second language learning strategies.

Rubin (1981) demonstrated a classification scheme comprising both strategies that directly affect learning (i.e., clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing / inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning and practice) and strategies affecting learning indirectly (i.e., creating practice opportunities [social strategies] and communication strategies) (Wenden & Rubin, 1987).

Based on the research conducted during the 1980s, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) proposed a scheme including cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies. Researchers declared that the most important and favoured strategies were the metacognitive strategies. Researchers have generally considered this framework but the specific strategies under each of these three categories have varied, especially as metacognitive and cognitive strategies.. Thus the definitions and classifications of the LLS have still been open to debate.

The existing classification systems have areas in common, but Oxford and Ehrman (1995) indicated that “the proliferation of strategy systems has caused problems for those researchers who believe it is important to compare results across studies”.

Oxford’s (1990) model, however, outlines a comprehensive, multi levelled and theoretically well conceived taxonomy of LLS. Thus, in this study, Oxford’s (1990) classification system will be taken as a basis for measuring and classifying language learners’ speaking strategies and Dörnyei & Scott’s (1997, pp.189-193) classification of communication strategies as well.

The reason behind the employment of Oxford’s (1990) classification system is that it is more comprehensive and detailed. In addition, it is more systematic in linking individual strategies, as well as strategy groups, with each of the four language skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing).

The figure suggested by Oxford (1990) presents a general overview of the system of LLS. Strategies are divided into two major classes: direct and indirect which in turn are subdivided into a total of six groups (memory, cognitive, and compensation under the direct class; metacognitive affective and social under the indirect class). It indicates that direct strategies and indirect strategies support each other, and that each strategy group is capable of connecting with and assisting every other strategy group.

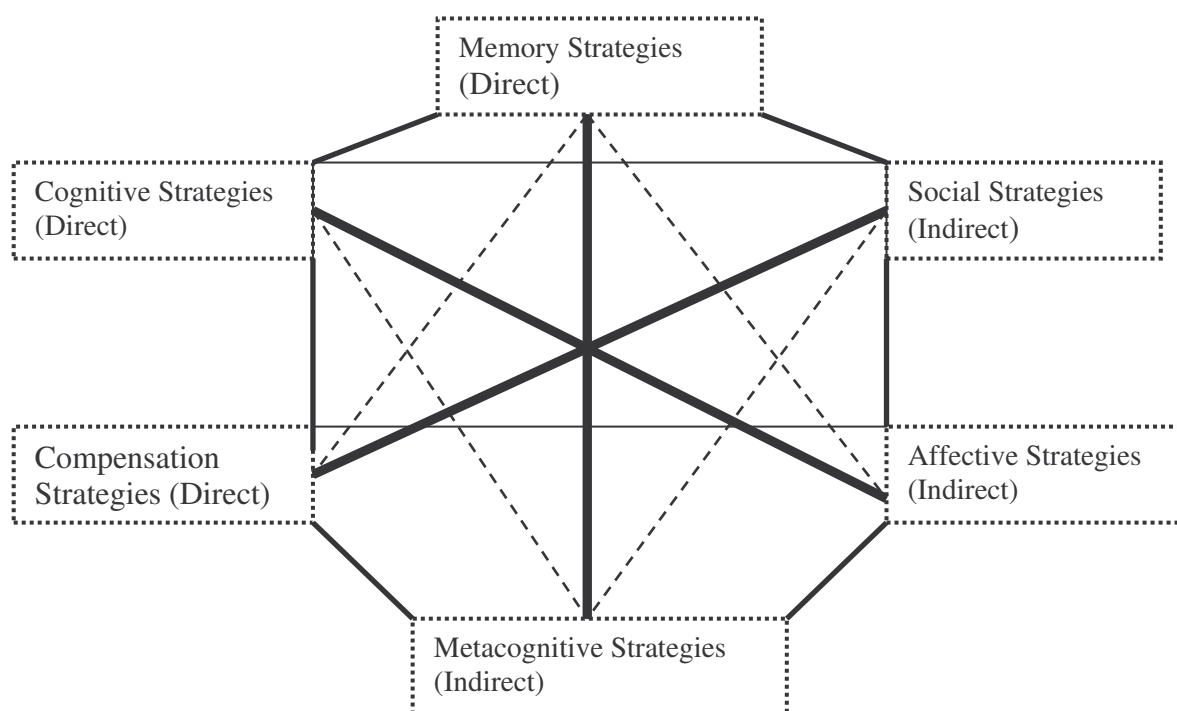


Figure 2.1. Interrelations between direct and indirect strategies among the six strategy groups.

The relation between direct and indirect strategies can be explained with an analogy of measure. The direct strategies dealing with the new language, is like the *Performer* in a stage play, working with the language itself. The direct class is composed of *memory strategies* for remembering and retrieving new information, *cognitive strategies* for understanding and producing the language and *compensation strategies* for using the language despite knowledge gaps. The Performer works closely with the director for the best possible outcome. Indirect strategies are the director of the general management of learning. *Metacognitive strategies* for coordinating the learning process, *affective strategies* for regulating emotions, and *social strategies* for learning with others. The director serves a host of functions, like focusing, organizing, guiding, checking, correcting, coaching, encouraging and cheering the performer. The functions of both the director and the performer become part of the learner as he or she accepts increased responsibility for learning (Oxford, 1990).

As it is emphasized above this study also used Dörnyei & Scott's (1995a, 1995b) taxonomy of Communication Strategies (CS) as a basis for measuring and classifying language learners' speaking strategies since their taxonomy is considered to be a summary of all the taxonomies available in CS research. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) conceive CS to be "the key units in a general description of problem-management in L2 communication (p.179).

As speaking strategies are in most cases discussed under the broader domain of communication strategies, it is better to have a look at those issues in order to have a clear understanding of communication strategies.

2.2.3. Communication Strategies

As Dörnyei & Scott(1997) indicated, the reason behind the raise of second language communication strategies was the awareness of the mismatch between L2 speakers' linguistic knowledge and communicative intentions.

Several definitions of communication strategies have been proposed since the notion of 'communication strategy' was first introduced by Selinker (1972) including 'strategies of second language communication' (p.229) which is one component of the five central processes involved in second language learning. But he did not deal with communication strategies in detail. Savignan (1972) also mentioned the importance of

coping strategies in communication, language teaching and testing. Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976-1977) defined ‘communication strategy’ in their strategies and presented a taxonomy (Tarone, 1977). One of the definitions most often referred to is the one provided by Tarone (1980) that communication strategies are considered to be an interactional phenomenon: “a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared”. However Tarone’s (1980) definition has been criticised as it does not consist of the situations where there is no or delayed feedback, as in lectures.

Faerch and Kasper (1983a) defined communication strategies as a part of their model of speech production. According to Faerch and Kasper’ model, when non-native speakers of a target language encounter a problem at the time of communication, because of the lack of linguistic knowledge at either the planning or the execution phase of speech production, they produce a plan to overcome the problem. In their model of speech, communication strategies can be placed “within the planning phase... within the area of planning process and the resulting plan” (1983a, p.30)

The relationship between learning strategies and communication strategies causes some different opinions among the researchers. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), communication strategies (for example, changing the topic, using gestures or asking for help) are used to achieve communicative goals whereas learning strategies are meant for learning. Learning strategies are seen as attempts language learners make to improve their communicative competence whereas communication strategies refer to language use. On the other hand, Oxford (1990) argues that communication strategies result in speaker's staying in the conversation and thus provide the opportunity for further learning as well as further communication.

Communication strategies are referred by using different terms such as *communicational strategies* (Varadi, 1983), *communicative strategies* (Corder, 1983), *compensation strategies* (Harding, 1983), *compensatory strategies* (Poulisse, 1990).

Dörnyei and Scott (1997) assume communication strategies to be “ the key units in a general description of problem-management in L2 communication (1997, p.179)”. Due to the limited resources of L2 learners, they handle communication strategies more frequently than native speakers.

There have not been a rigorous definition of communication strategies of second language learners. The following definitions have been proposed by different researchers.

Table 2.2. Definitions of Communication Strategies (CSs) (Rababah, 2002).

Tarone (1977)	Conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought (p.195).
Corder (1981, 1983)	they are systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty (pp. 103-16)
Faerch & Kasper (1983a)	Communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal (p. 36).
Wagner (1983)	Communication strategies predetermine the verbal planning, they serve the function of adjusting the plan to the situation, i.e. each individual utterance is to be seen as strategic. What is specific for IL users is that plans of action cannot be directly converted into verbal plans, because of gaps in the speaker's (and hearer's) linguistic repertoire. The primary function of function of communication strategies in the speech of IL users is to compensate for this deficit (p. 167).
Stern (1983)	Communication strategies, i.e., techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second language (p. 1983).
Bialystok (1983)	all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication. Should learning result from the exercise, the strategy has also functioned as a learning strategy, but there is no inherent feature of the strategy itself which can determine which of these roles it will serve (pp. 102-103).
Poulisse (1990)	compensatory strategies are strategies which a language user employs in order to achieve his intended meaning on becoming aware of problems arising during the planning phase of an utterance due to his own linguistic shortcomings (p. 88).
Paribakht (1985)	communication strategies (CS) have generally been defined as means that speakers use to solve their communicative problems; (p. 132).
Towel (1987)	the means used by a speaker to overcome a difficulty encountered whilst attempting to communicate in the foreign language (p.97).
Brown (1987)	the conscious employment by verbal or non-verbal mechanisms for communicating an idea when precise linguistic forms are for some reasons not available to the learner at that point in communication (p. 180).

In communication strategy research the two common defining criteria called; *problem-orientedness* and *consciousness* attract attention. All the definitions support the claim that communication strategies are used when second language learners encounter a problem in communication.

Several computing taxonomies of communication strategies exist due to the fact that there isn't a universally accepted definition of communication strategies. These taxonomies consist of a variety of language devices ranging from paraphrase to filled pauses, from code switching to interactional meaning-negotiation mechanism such as clarification requests (Dörnyei & Scott).

2.2.3.1. The Conceptualization of Communication Strategies From Different Perspectives

In traditional view communication strategies were seen as verbal and nonverbal first aid devices used in order to compensate for deficiencies in the speakers' second language proficiency (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Tarone's (1977) and Faerch and Kasper's (1983b) views related to communication strategies reflect this traditional view.

Tarone (1977) emphasized that conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought (p. 195).

Communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal. (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b, p. 36). In this notion of communication strategies, their role is to handle and overcome the language production problems occurring at the planning stage. However the problems occurring at the time of communication were not dealt with.

Later, Tarone (1980 as cited in Dörnyei) broadened the definition of communication strategies presenting a well-known conceptualisation. Communication strategies "relate to a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared (p.420)".

This view can be accepted as an interactional perspective consisting of various repair mechanism 'to clarify intended meaning rather than simply correct linguistic form (Tarone, 1980, p.424).

On the other hand, Dörnyei (2003) approached communication strategies from an extended aspect offering that the reason behind the L2 speakers' communication problems is inadequate processing time, in other words, stalling strategies that is related to lexicalised pause-fillers and hesitation gambits in order to gain time to think and keep the communication channel open. That is also a kind of problem-solving strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) enlarged the area of communication strategies to cover every attempt to cope with any communication problem during the time of communication. This perspective consists of all the different types of communication problem-management mechanism discussed in the L2 literature.

The broadest extension of the notion of 'communication strategy' is offered by Canale (1983). He (1983) stated "communication-students cover any intent to enhance the effectiveness of communication".

2.2.3.2. Communication Strategies From the Perspective of Psychological Approaches

The common idea of the conceptualisations mentioned above is that they define communication strategies in a primarily linguistic approach. On the other hand other researchers, especially Bialystok (1990) and the Nijmegen Group (i.e., Bongaerts, Kellerman and Poulishse) approached communication strategies differently. They pointed out that communication strategies are inherently mental procedures; hence the cognitive process underlying strategic language should be examined (Dörnyei & Scott, 2003). They argue that if the researchers don't focus on the cognitive psychological and psycholinguistic dimension of communication strategy use, invalid taxonomies of communication strategies can occur.

Kellerman (1991) concludes that,

the systematic study of compensatory strategies has not been properly served by the construction of taxonomies of strategy types which are identified on the basis of variable and conflicting criteria which confound grammatical form, incidental and inherent properties of referents and encoding medium with putative cognitive process.

This inconsistency has led to a proliferation of strategy types with little regard for such desirable requirements as psychological plausibility, parsimony and finiteness. (p.158)

After Bialystok's (1983) and Nijmegen group's (1980) approach, Poulishse (1993) offered a model of speech production dealing with conceptualisation of communication strategies.

In sum, researchers have a common agreement on Bialystok's (1990) statement that 'communication strategies are an undeniable event of language use, their existence is a reliably documented aspect of communication and their role in second language communication seems particularly salient' (p.116).

2.2.3.3. Taxonomies of Communication Strategies

The list of strategies and their taxonomies in various research studies on communication strategies differ significantly. Although the terminology describing the strategic behaviour varies a great deal, the corresponding parts of the existing strategies include many similarities across the taxonomies. The following are the communication strategies taxonomies of the different researchers:

Tarone's Taxonomy; Tarone (1977) envisaged communication strategies which were of three types: *paraphrase*, *conscious transfer*, *avoidance*. The major strategies of Tarone's (1977) taxonomy show some similarities with the *compensatory strategies* of Faerch and Kasper (1983) as :approximation, coinage, literal translation, paraphrase, avoidance strategies, appeal for help.

Tarone (1977) describes *paraphrase* as "the rewording of the message in an alternate, acceptable target language construction, in situations where the appropriate form or construction is not known or not yet stable". In her taxonomy, *paraphrase* has three substrategies as *approximation*, *word coinage* and *circumlocution*. *Paraphrase* is used to refer to description, exemplification and circumlocution in Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) taxonomy.

Bialystok's Taxonomy; A new taxonomy based on the type of information used by the learners was suggested by Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) and Bialystok (1983) (see Table 2.3). In their study, communication strategies were classified into three main categories as "L1-based strategies, L2-based strategies, and non-linguistic strategies

which focused on the source of information in order to solve the communication problem. The taxonomy identifies three types of L1-based strategies: switching, foreignising, and literal translation. Language switch is the “insertion of a word or a phrase in a language other than the target language, usually the learners’ native language”. On the other hand, Foreignising is the creation of non-existent target language items “by applying L2 morphology or phonology to L1 lexical items” (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980, p. 10).

Faerch & Kasper’s Taxonomy; Faerch & Kasper (1983a) proposed that there are two phases in speech production as the *planning phase* and the *execution phase*. Communication strategies are placed into the planning phase. When the speakers encounter any problem during the conversation, they adopt either the avoidance behaviour or the achievement behaviour.

Corder’s Taxonomy; In Corder’s (1983) taxonomy, communication strategies are based on *means* and *ends* that are in balance in a native speaker, but not in a second language learner. If the speakers face a problem in the course of communication, two options may help. Either they adjust their message (ends) in terms of their linguistic resources (means) by employing message *adjustment strategies* or *risk avoidance strategies* that could be *topic avoidance*, *message abandonment* or *semantic avoidance*. However they can also increase their linguistic resources by *resource expansion strategies*.

The Nijmegen Group taxonomy; The Nijmegen Group taxonomy (1980) proposed by Kellerman, Bongaerts, and Poulishse criticised the early taxonomies since they concentrated on the linguistic form resulting from a strategy, rather than on the process leading to the use of such strategies. They suggested that communication strategies are mental procedures therefore research should not focus only on the surface structures. The process-oriented classification of the Nijmegen group (1980) included two types of strategy as conceptual and linguistic strategies.

Dörnyei & Scott’s Taxonomy; This taxonomy is considered to be a summary of all the taxonomies in CS research. However they added new strategies such as use of *similar sounding words*, *use of all-purpose words*, *mumbling* as subtypes of direct strategies.

Dörnyei (1995) offered stalling or time-gaining strategies which are employed to help speaker gain time to keep the communication channel open if they face a problem.

Table 2.3. Various Taxonomies of Communication Strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

Tarone (1977) AVOIDANCE Topic avoidance Message abandonment PARAPHRASE Approximation Word coinage Circumlocution CONSCIOUS TRANSFER Literal translation Language switch APPEAL FOR ASSISTANCE MIME	Faerch & Kasper (1983b) FORMAL REDUCTION Phonological Morphological Syntactic Lexical FUNCTIONAL REDUCTION Actional reduction Modal reduction Reduction of propositional content Topic avoidance Message abandonment Meaning replacement ACHIEVEMENT STRATEGIES <i>Compensatory strategies</i> Code switching Interlingual transfer Inter-/intralingual transfer IL based strategies Generalization Paraphrase Word coinage Restructuring Cooperative strategies Non-linguistic strategies <i>Retrieval strategies</i>	Bialystok (1983) L1 -BASED STRATEGIES Language Switch Foreignizing Transliteration L2-BASED STRATEGIES Semantic contiguity Description Word coinage NON-LINGUISTIC STRATEGIES	Corder (1983) MESSAGE ADJUSTMENT STRATEGIES Topic avoidance Message abandonment Semantic avoidance Message reduction RESOURCE EXPANSION STRATEGIES Switching Inventing Paraphrasing/circumlocution Paralinguistic devices (gestures) Appeal
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Table 2.3. Continued

Bialystok (1990)	Nijmegen Group	Poulisse (1993)	Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)
ANALYSIS-BASED STRATEGIES	CONCEPTUAL STRATEGIES Analytic Holistic	SUBSTITUTION STRATEGIES SUBSTITUTION PLUS STRATEGIES	I) DIRECT STRATEGIES <u>Resource deficit-related strategies</u> Message abandonment. Message reduction Message replacement Circumlocution Approximation Use of all-purpose words Word-coinage Restructuring Literal translation Foreignizing Code switching Use of similar sounding words Mumbling Omission Retrieval Mime <u>Own-performance problem-related strategies</u> Self-rephrasing Self-repair <u>Other-performance problem-related strategies</u> Other-repair
CONTROL-BASED STRATEGIES	LINGUISTIC/CODE STRATEGIES Morphological creativity Transfer	RECONCEPTUALIZATION STRATEGIES	II) INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES <u>Resource deficit-related strategies</u> Appeals for help <u>Own-performance problem-related strategies</u> Comprehension check Own-accuracy check <u>Other-performance problem-related strategies</u> Asking for repetition Asking for clarification Asking for confirmation Guessing Expressing nonunderstanding Interpretive summary Responses III) INDIRECT STRATEGIES <u>Processing time pressure-related strategies</u> Use of fillers Repetitions <u>Own-performance problem-related strategies</u> Verbal strategy markers <u>Other-performance problem-related strategies</u> Feigning understanding

Selinker (1972) suggested the term “Strategies of Second Language Communication” in order to name the ways in which foreign or second language learners cope with the difficulties they encounter during the course of their speaking performances in target language when their linguistic resources are inadequate. As one of the four language skills, speaking appears to be more complicated for learners. Speaking English fluently and accurately and communicating orally in target language have been accepted as a threatening act for EFL learners since effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions (Shumin, 1997).

In the light of communication strategies, speaking competence and its components should be clarified in the framework of strategy training in the use of strategies for speaking in a foreign language.

2.3. Strategy Training and Speaking Competence

2.3.1. Speaking Competence and its Underlying Components

Language educators have long used the concepts of four basic language skills as Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. These four basic skills are associated with each other by two parameters; the mode of communication : oral or written and the direction of communication: receiving or producing the message (Lingual links library). The relationship among these four skills is demonstrated in the following chart.

	Oral	Written
<i>Receptive</i>	Listening	Reading
<i>Productive</i>	Speaking	Writing

Figure 2.2. The relationship between the four language skills.

Speaking is a productive skill under the oral mode. To begin from characteristics and functions of spoken language would shed light on this issue more clearly. There are three kinds of speaking situations (Lingual links library); 1)interactive speaking

situation which involves face-to-face conversations or telephone conversations including opportunity asking for clarification, repetition, 2) partially interactive speaking situations in which the audience does not interrupt the speech still the speaker may see the audience and judge their expressions from their body language, and 3) non-interactive situations that involve no interaction such as a speech for a radio broadcast (Lingual links library).

Brown & Yule (1983a, pp. 1-3; 1983b, pp.11-16) state that language has two functions that are; transferring information transactional function and establishing or maintaining social relationships in other words interactional function. Interactional spoken language involves shifts of topics and short turns. The accuracy and clarity of information are not the focus. However in transactional spoken language, longer turns and clear topic are of crucial importance in order to transfer the information accurately. Hence it can be assumed that interactional language is listener oriented, and transactional language is message oriented.

The components underlying speaking effectiveness are firstly proposed by Chomsky (1965) as the concept of grammatical or linguistic competence and cognitive aspects are emphasized. However, Hymes (1971) declared the term “communicative competence”. He found Chomsky’s (1965) “rule-governed creativity” insufficient for the social and functional rules of language.

According to Hymes (1972) “if linguistic theory is to be integrated with a theory of communication and culture, two judgements of “grammaticality” and “acceptability” derived from Chomsky’s theory must be replaced by four factors: possibility, feasibility, appropriateness and performance.”.

Hymes (1972) also assumes that L2 learners need to know not only the linguistic knowledge but also the culturally acceptable ways of interacting with others in different situations and relationships.

Built on his theory Canale and Swain (1980) suggested a more complicated framework with four different components which are ; *grammatical competence*, *sociolinguistic competence*, *discourse competence*, and *strategic competence* reflecting the use of the linguistic system and the functional aspects of communication respectively.

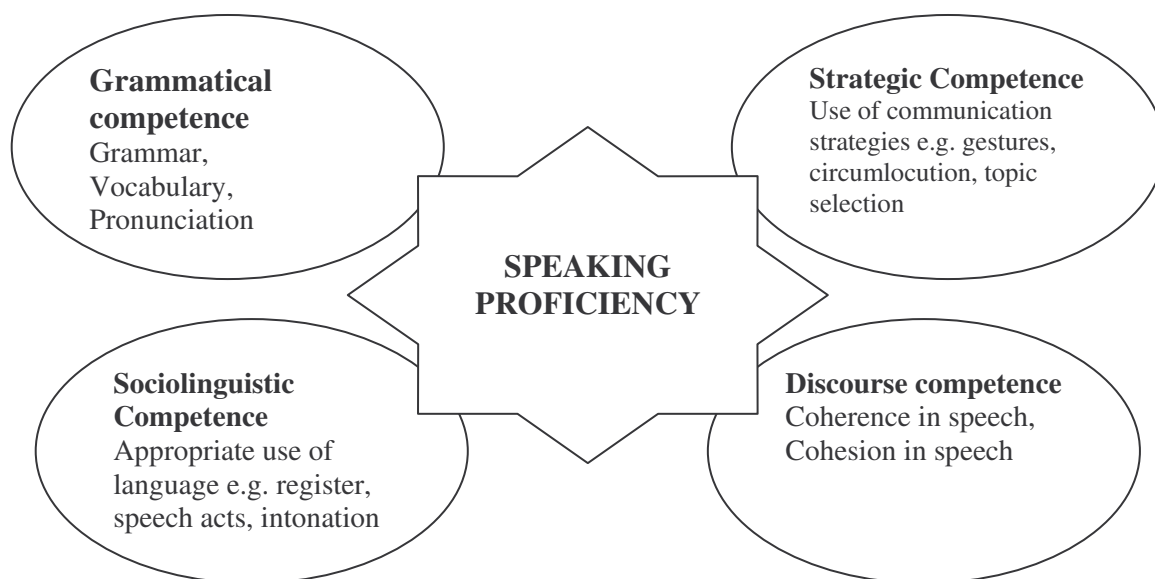


Figure 2.3. The components underlying speaking proficiency.

2.3.1.1. Grammatical Competence

Grammatical competence enables learners to use and understand grammatical structures accurately and unhesitatingly hence it facilitates the speakers' fluency. Canale (1993) states that "such competence focuses directly on the knowledge and skill required to understand and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances. With regards to speaking, the term mechanics refers to basic sounds of letters and syllables, pronunciation of words, intonation, and stress" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p.141) to achieve conveying the meaning, EFL learners must possess the knowledge of words and sentences; namely, they must understand how words are segmented into various sounds, and how sentences are stressed in particular ways (Shumin, 1997).

2.3.1.2. Sociolinguistic Competence

Having the knowledge of language is insufficient alone to prepare learners for influential and appropriate use of the target language. Effective speakers have also mastered sociolinguistic competence. Learners must have the control over the social and cultural expectations of the users of the target language, in other words, sociolinguistic

competence enables them to use such speech acts as apologies and compliments through the use of routines or phrases associated with these speech acts.

Knowledge of the sociolinguistic side of language provides learners with what comments are appropriate, how to ask questions during interaction and also the nonverbal language.

2.3.1.3. Discourse Competence

In addition to grammatical and sociolinguistic competence, EFL learners must master discourse competence that is concerned with intersentential relationships. Discourse competence includes understanding how particular instances of language use are internally constructed. It is a kind of ability to understand and create longer forms

Discourse competence enables learners to manage turn-taking in a conversation, to continue a conversation whether formal or informal, to apply the rules of cohesion and coherence which aid in holding the communication together in a meaningful way. Therefore, effective speakers should acquire a large repertoire of structures and discourse markers to express ideas, show relationships of time, and indicate cause, contrast, and emphasis (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). With these, learners can manage turn-taking in conversation.

2.3.1.4. Strategic Competence

Strategic competence is the ability to solve communication problems despite an inadequate command of the linguistic and sociocultural code (Mariani, 1994). Any person who is not a mother-tongue speaker must necessarily rely on some incomplete and imperfect competence - this corresponds to the present stage in his or her interlanguage system.

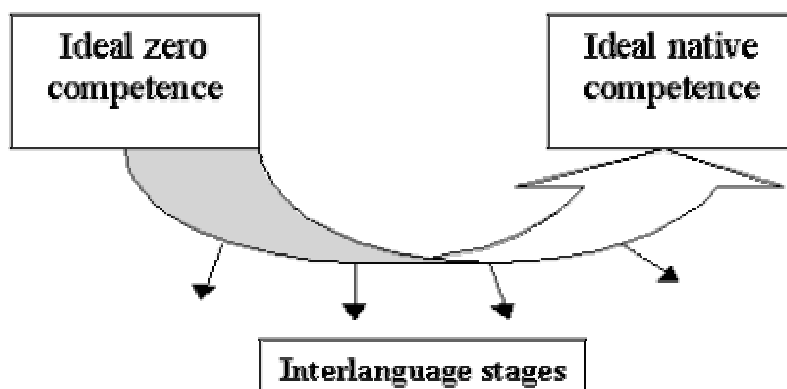


Figure 2.4. Interlanguage stages (Mariani, 1994).

Students could be placed between the two extremes of an ideal zero competence and ideal native speaker competence. Learners experience times that they cannot find the words to say something and have to adjust their message, or to ask their interlocutor to help them, or to use synonyms or general words to make themselves understood (Mariani, 1994). Although they have inadequate knowledge of the grammar of the language, they can use turn-taking and conversation management strategies and are able to use small talk to begin a conversation and initiate and respond to talk on a topic (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). At the same time learners use compensatory strategies like gestures, circumlocution, topic selection to support them when they have a gap in their knowledge. Savignon (1984) indicates that;

....the need for coping or survival strategies. What do you do when you cannot think of a word? What are the ways of keeping the channels of communication open while you pause to collect your thoughts? How do you let your interlocutor know you did not understand a particular word? Or that he or she was speaking too fast? How do you, in turn, adapt when your message is misunderstood? (p. 40).

Perhaps strategic competence is the most important component among other components underlying speaking effectiveness, since it is the ability to compensate for imperfect knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse rules (Berns, 1990). With reference to speaking, strategic competence covers the ability to know when and how to take the floor, how to keep a conversation going, how to terminate the conversation, and how to clear up communication breakdown as well as comprehension problems (Shumin, 1994).

The four components of speaking proficiency, which have to do respectively with the form, the use and the content of language, are not four separate entities but the four dimensions of one entity.

2.3.1.5. The Other Factors Affecting Speaking Ability

There are also some other factors affecting EFL learners' speaking abilities (Shumin, 1997) such as; age, aural medium that is to say speaking feeds on listening, which precedes it, and sociocultural factors which means speaking a language, one must know how the language is used in a social context and the last but the most important one is affective factors. Speaking a foreign language especially in front of others is often anxiety provoking. There may be times of EFL learners when they become tongue-tied hence the discouragement and feeling of failure causes problems like 'losing face'. Schumin proposes that the fear of making mistakes and losing face can explain the inability to speak English without hesitation (1997).

Another factor affecting EFL learners' development of speaking abilities is the learners' opportunity to interact with more proficient peers and native speakers by participating learners in the widest possible range of situations with a variety of speakers who can provide help to learners in order to develop their second language speaking proficiency.

The other but maybe the most influential factor affecting EFL learners' development of speaking abilities *is strategy training* for speaking which is the main concern of the present study.

2.3.2. Strategic Competence as a Component of Communicative Competence

The communicative competence concept arose at the time of Hymes' (1972) reaction to Chomsky's (1965) definition of linguistic competence. This reaction caused an examination of this term by some researchers (Cohen, 1998; Brown, 1994; Oxford, 1990). Canale and Swain (1998) used the strategic component term in relation to speaking competence as having solely a compensatory function.

The competence is divided into subgroups; as grammatical competence; sociolinguistic competence; discourse competence and strategic competence. Among these competences of communicative (speaking) competence, *strategic competence* was introduced as use of verbal and non-verbal tools to compensate for communication breaks because of inadequate communication or language use variables.

On the other hand, the term used by Bachman (1990) is different from communicative competence that is ‘communicative language ability’. It is likely that this difference stems from the fact that communicative competence term doesn’t differentiate into two parts, i.e., knowledge about the language and ability to use the language. Strategic competence in Bachman’s (1990) description covers core skills that provide learners with using language skills more effectively and perform the given task (Bachman, 1990). The definition of Bachman and the initial definition of strategic competence differs from each other in terms of the fact that Bachman’s strategic competence term means effective and flexible use of learning and speaking strategies.

Bachman and Palmer(1996) soon developed the model of strategic competence concept by adding a metacognitive component. They revealed that strategic competence includes metacognitive strategies that determine the different kind of language use to perform a task, planning and evaluation strategies; cognitive strategies to choose appropriate structures and a compensational component.

The broadest expression of strategic competence was suggested by Oxford (1990) in her words that ‘all appropriate language learning strategies are oriented towards broad goal of communicative competence’ as they ‘stimulate the growth of communicative competence in general (p. 8).

Wout de Jong (1996) based his understanding on Williams (1993b) by stating that strategic competence ;

refers to the ability to process language data efficiently and appropriately under the constraints that characterize natural interaction, enables us to link up our linguistic and pragmatic competence to the context and situation and discourse knowledge,.... is based on our specific mental make up, our cultural identity (p.77).

According to the researcher because of the learners’ insufficient knowledge in target language, they need to use compensation strategies having crucial importance in strategic competence.

Strategic competence has its place in the centre of communicative competence since the speaker employs his/her communicative competence in practice (Williams, 1996). However the existence of the mismatch between L2 speaker's linguistic knowledge and communicative intentions caused the crucial need of the communication strategies to arise in the field of assisting L2 learners in their efforts in speaking English as a target language (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

2.3.3. Strategy Training in Learners' use of the Strategies for Speaking Skill

In its origin, strategy-based instruction in other words strategy training is a learner-centred approach referring to formal classroom instruction for learners about their language learning and use strategies. Strategies-based instruction is a form of language teaching explicitly combining strategy training activities with everyday classroom language instruction.(Oxford, 2001; Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002).

The aim of this approach is to assist second language learner in becoming more aware of how they learn in a most effective way, the ways of facilitating their own comprehension and target language production (Cohen, 1996). In addition to this, they become aware of the ways in which they can continue learning after leaving the classroom. It is a kind of step in making learner autonomous learner. If we need to organize the information above; strategy based instruction has two major components (Cohen, 1996).

1- Students are explicitly taught how, when and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning and language use tasks.

2- Strategies are interconnected into everyday classroom materials and language tasks.

The first step of the strategy training is that the teacher models, presents examples of useful strategies and leads small group/whole class discussions about strategies. Students are given the opportunity to understand both what they can learn in the classroom and also how they can learn the language they are studying (Cohen, 1996). Learners can also see the various kinds of strategies, how to organize and how to use strategies in a systematic and an effective way. In addition, strategy training enables learners when and how to transfer learnt strategies to new language contexts.

The second step is integrating strategies into language tasks (Cohen, 1996). This process helps learners become self-regulated learners struggling new learning tasks with confidence, and being able to choose the strategies to complete the particular task. The key word “how” to learn instead of “what” to learn has vital importance in this process.

The common sequence of the training procedures is formed by analysing the previous studies. This sequence is as follows; “*preparing, presenting, practicing, and evaluating and expansion* (Oxford, 1990)”. In the *preparation stage*, the instructor’s aim is to identify the needs and then choose appropriate strategies, to create a learner-centred classroom, to clarify the classroom expectations to the learners from the beginning, to get the students involved in setting language goals and to identify learners’ existing strategies.

In *presentation stage* it is very important to present the selected strategies explicitly and also the instructor should model and name the strategy. After that the importance of the strategy and when to use the strategy should be explained clearly. Asking students to describe the use of the strategy is another phase of the presentation stage. When it comes to *practice stage* to provide sufficient opportunities are of crucial importance. Strategies practice is integrated into regular class work in other words learners should practice strategies through working on authentic meaningful tasks which are part of the regular class. The tasks for practice should be challenging that is to say tasks which are a slight stretch are those within Vygotsky’s (1962, 1978) zone of Proximal Development. *Evaluation stage* includes examining through both teacher and learner evaluation for possible arrangements in strategy training procedure. *Expansion stage* is for transferring the application of a strategy from a familiar context to unfamiliar one (Oxford, 1990).

However the studies done in that area presented that many students may use language-learning strategies but inefficiently. In that point, conscious strategy-based instruction shows its necessity in the use of language learning strategy.

Research in strategy-instruction reveals that strategies-based instruction may facilitate language learning (Faucette, 2001). Faucette (2001) points out that proponents of L2 instruction, such as Oxford, claim that teachers should directly teach learning strategies, including compensation strategies (that is overcoming limitations in speaking and writing) and provide training on how to transfer such strategies to other learning situations. It is a way of making students being aware of the ways in which they can use such strategies in order to communicate effectively.

To overcome communication difficulties that originate from lack of developed speaking skills, effective strategies are of crucial importance to second language learners (Oxford, 1990). However there have been relatively few studies exploring the benefits of providing L2 learners with formal training in the use of strategies for speaking. It is acceptable that an L2 learner's linguistic repertoire is insufficient and control of language is not perfect. However explicit strategies – based instruction for learners' use may solve that problem (Cohen, 1996).

Since learner strategy training is a kind of instructional intervention assisting the learner in the way of becoming better language learners, giving such help with instructions provides the learner with the awareness of oneself, of the process (Oxford, 1995). Especially learner strategy training indicates instructing learners for the language learning and language use strategies. The type of training that is just mentioned is named as “strategy training or strategy instruction”. Cohen clearly states the strategy training or strategy instruction as follows;

The strategy training movement is predicated on the assumption that if learners are conscious about and become responsible for the selection, use and evaluation of their learning strategies, they will become more successful language learners by taking more responsibility for their own language learning and enhancing their use of the target language out of class. In other words, the ultimate goal of strategy training is to empower students by allowing them to take control of the language learning process (1996).

As Cohen (1996) mentioned, the key term is ‘taking control of his/her own language learning. However, there is a block in front of the learners that is the “insufficient awareness” of how various strategies may help them learn and use a foreign language. Beside the continuing and meaningful practice, purposeful and systematic approach to learning namely strategy-based instruction can assist the learner in arriving his/her goal. Consequently, the role of the teacher changed as a learner trainer.

Furthermore, learners' communicative skills can be developed by the help of developing strategies for speaking in other words oral communication (e.g., Cohen, Weaver, & Li, 1998; Dörnyei, 1995). Therefore, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that raising learners' awareness of strategies which they use to solve potential communication problems could develop their oral proficiency. Until recently research on the effectiveness of the metacognitive strategies are very little in number to

demonstrate a framework of a method of metacognitive strategy training which would help learners use speaking strategies in appropriate and effective manner. Studies in strategy training mostly focused on cognitive strategy training for vocabulary learning. On the other hand the studies on how strategies are used for oral production of learners and how strategy use contributes to their development of oral proficiency have been limited in small numbers.

2.3.3.1. Strategic Competence and Strategy Training for Developing Speaking Skill

Strategic competence has rarely been given explicitly, and systematic treatment in the course books, and one may wonder whether it is really worth adding an extra dimension to an EFL syllabus. Speaking strategies issue can be regarded as a useful approach for EFL learners to accelerate their speaking competence and vigorously interact with native speakers and instructors in the EFL classroom.

The process of defining the strategic competence beginning with Canale and Swain (1980), and Canale (1983) highlighted the definition of strategic competence as it comprises both the compensatory strategies for communication and the enhancement characteristics of speaking strategies (see Components Underlying Speaking).

Bachman and Palmer (1996) defined strategic competence as “asset of metacognitive components, or strategies, which can be thought of as higher order executive processes that provide a cognitive management function in language use” (p. 70) Their model of strategic competence includes three components as goal setting, assessment, and planning (Nakatani, 2005). The model emphasizes the learners’ conscious effort to set task goals, assessment of the necessities of the task and planning and arranging the manner of using their topic and language knowledge. The main concern of the model is the requirement of the foreign language learning awareness of metacognitive strategy use.

Metacognitive strategy training has been assumed as influential (Cohen, 1998; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wenden, 1999). The metacognitive model of strategic learning arranges learning strategies in an organized way that they become manageable and helpful to students and teachers by outlining the processes that effective learners use to work through any challenging learning tasks (Chamot et al., 1999). The

metacognitive model proposed by O'Malley & Chamot (1994) will be dealt with in chapter 3.

The question “how effective it is to teach these techniques explicitly which are, by definition, largely unconscious” has been investigated in the area of metacognitive strategy training. It is not surprising that learners who are taught the principles of strategy use have some difficulty in applying this knowledge to real-life tasks. On the other hand, Schmidt (1990) laid stress on the role of learners’ consciousness as one of the crucial factors of second language acquisition . Students are not always aware of the power of conscious use of strategies for facilitating language use as easier, more effective and even more fun (Nyikos, 1987). In addition to the importance of the consciousness in strategy training, Oxford (1990) also indicates that “ strategy training helps guide learners to become more conscious of strategy use and more adapt at employing appropriate strategies. Strategy training is most effective when students learn why and when specific strategies are important, how to use these strategies and how to transfer them to new situations (p., 12)”.

In metacognitive strategy instruction students learn more than just a set of gimmicks for getting through target language ; they develop academic techniques which assist them to manage the oral production (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, pp. 63-64).

The other aspect of the metacognitive strategy training is related to the instructor who manages and organizes this training. Oxford (1990) says that traditionally, teachers are viewed as authority figures, identified with roles like parent, instructor, judge, leader, evaluator and even doctor who must cure the ignorance of students. However there is a shift on new roles of teachers as facilitator, helper, guider, consultant, diagnostician and co-communicator and identifier students in training of the learning strategies to conduct strategy training and assisting them in the way of becoming independent (p., 10). Disappointingly, few teachers focus on strategy training and are aware of the specific strategies (Beckmen...). Beckmen explained the reason that how students learn takes a back seat to what is learned since teachers assume students will get it on their own, the idea of focusing on the learner is still in its infancy, ‘educator overload’ is a factor, so teachers experiencing the pressures of responsibility of student progress, feel they don’t have time to learn one more thing.

2.3.3.2. Research on Strategy Training for Speaking

In the research literature there have been few related studies which have attempted to confirm how strategies for oral production are used as learners deal with real tasks. O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner- Manzares, Russo, and Kupper (1985) conducted a research on the question of whether metacognitive, cognitive, and social / affective strategies could be taught successfully in an English as a second language classroom context. In this study, listening, speaking and vocabulary training are integrated with tasks, and this strategy training study revealed a significant effect on performance in a speaking task, whereas no effect was found on performance in listening and vocabulary tasks. Thus, it is assumed that strategy training proposes that the learning strategies can be taught through a strategy training program, but the degree of instruction success is not always predictable. The study also revealed the benefit of metacognitive strategy training aiming to raise learners' strategy awareness to assist them produce meaningful messages in speaking tasks.

Dörnyei (1995) also examined the strategy training for communication searching whether the training of a specific strategy enhanced the quality and quantity of learners' strategy use. He focused on three types of communication strategy such as, topic avoidance and replacement, circumlocution and using fillers and hesitation to maintain the conversation . The improvement in quality and quantity of strategy use and in their overall speech performance has been observed. As a result, it can be suggested that strategy training might be effective for developing conversation skills, although Dörnyei's (1995) study did not indicate how to integrate metacognitive strategy training directly into a strategy-based program to develop learners' strategic competence.

An initial study to introduce metacognitive strategies for speaking training was conducted by Cohen et al. (1998). The researcher suggested that incorporating speaking strategies with appropriate strategy training could improve learners' 'awareness of strategy use and develop their oral production skills'. Many other researchers have proposed that the use of communication strategies could enhance learners' interpersonal communication skills which are related to the learners' speaking ability (Bejarano, Levine, Olshtain, & Steiner, 1997).

Cohen (2003) points out that learning will be facilitated when the learners are made aware of the range of strategies that they can choose during language learning and

use and the most influential way to alert learner awareness is to provide strategy training- explicit instruction in how to apply language learning strategies- as part of the foreign language curriculum. Cohen (2003) summarizes the goals of strategy training as follows;

Strategy training assists learners to:

- Self-diagnose their strengths and weaknesses in language learning.
- Become aware of what helps them to learn the target language most efficiently.
- Develop a broad range of problem-solving skills.
- Experiment with familiar and unfamiliar learning strategies.
- Make decisions about how to approach a language task.
- Monitor and self evaluate their performance.
- Transfer successful strategies to new learning contexts (p., 2).

In addition to this, Beckman also presents some outcomes through the application of the strategy training such as, students trust their minds, they know there is more than one right way to do things, also they recognize their mistakes and try to rectify them by evaluating their products, besides self-esteem increases.

Consequently, in the light of these studies it is worthwhile to investigate the question of whether EFL learners' attempts to cope with oral production problems could be shaped into important components of strategy based instruction for speaking performance.

2.3.3.3. Strategy Training Frameworks and Instructional Models for Foreign Language Strategy Training

There is not any study conducted to indicate a best method of strategy training however three different instructional frameworks of different researchers have been identified (Cohen, 2003). The first one is Pearson and Dole's (1987) framework that involves explicit modelling and explaining the usefulness of a specific strategy, functional practice with the strategy and an opportunity to transfer the strategy to new learning contexts (as cited in Cohen, 2003). The second framework has been proposed by Oxford et al. (1990) beginning with explicit strategy awareness, talking about the advantages of strategy use, practice with strategies and self evaluation and monitoring

and the last step is to suggest or demonstrate the transferability of the strategies to new tasks. The third framework proposed by Chamot and O'Malley (1994) which comprises four stages of problem-solving process as planning, monitoring, problem solving, and evaluation.

In the field of research on strategy training, variable instructional models for foreign language strategy training have been developed (Cohen, 2003).

Awareness training in other words consciousness raising or familiarization training involves lectures and discussions that are isolated from regular classroom interaction.

Peer tutoring is a system described as “a direct language exchange” program pairing students coming from different native language backgrounds for mutual tutoring sessions (Holec, 1988 as cited in Cohen, 2003). Students meet regularly and change roles of learner and teacher and practices two languages separately and share each others' language learning strategies.

General study skills courses aim to assist students in improving their study habits. Some academic skills such as using flashcards, overcoming anxiety can be developed.

Strategy workshops also attempt to heighten learner's awareness of strategies through the application of consciousness raising and strategy assessment activities. Particularly they provide help in developing specific language skills.

Strategies in language textbooks may be helpful but if the strategies are not explained, modelled by the instructor, learners may not be aware of the language learning strategy training process at all.

Videotaped mini-courses especially the one that developed by Rubin providing instructional guide in order to raise learners' awareness of learning strategies and to demonstrate students how to transfer strategies to new tasks and gain the Control of their own progress.

Cohen (2003) emphasizes that it is vital to choose an instructional model that introduces the strategies to the students and raises awareness, teaches them to identify, practice, evaluate, and transfer strategies to new learning situations hence it enhances learner autonomy to enable learners to go on learning after they leave the language classroom in other words to push them to become lifelong independent learners.

2.3.3.4. Components of Strategies-Based Instruction

Strategy-based instruction includes some components as follows (Oxford, 1990).

Strategy Preparation; In this stage the aim is related to the assessment of the strategies that are currently used by the learners and also how well they use. Students are not blank in strategy use. They might have developed some strategies. But the problem is that they do not know how to use them systematically.

Strategy awareness raising; in this stage, the learners' awareness will be risen about; what the learning process may consist of their learning style preferences or general approaches to learning the type of strategies that are employed by the learners and also the strategies that are suggested by the classmates or teachers. How much responsibility they take for their learning, the types of approaches that can be used to evaluate the students' strategy use has been emphasized. Awareness- raising activities are always explicit in their treatment of strategies.

Strategy Training; In that stage students are explicitly taught how, when and why certain strategies can be used to utilize language learning and use activities. Describing, modelling, and giving examples of useful strategies are among the roles of the teachers. The teachers prepare small-group or whole-class discussions about strategies to elicit students' existing learning strategies so that they can also inform the learners about the rationale behind strategy use, planning an approach to a specific activity and evaluating the strategy. They encourage the learners to experiment with the strategies.

Strategy practice; In that stage learners experiment with a broad range of strategies. Students' knowledge about a strategy is assumed to be insufficient so that they should try the strategies on lots of various tasks. These tasks called strategy-friendly activities are used to practice the strategies in accordance with the course content. In those activities explicit instructions about the strategies are made to complete the task. First of all students plan the particular strategies for their activity. Then they focus their attention on the strategies at the time of strategy use. Then they evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies.

Personalization of strategies; as the title suggest personalisation of what they have learned about these strategies, evaluation of how they are using the strategies and transfer of these strategies to other contexts have been emphasized.

The teachers should integrate strategies into everyday class materials and are both explicitly and implicitly embedded into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice. Teachers may:

- Start with the established course materials and then determine which strategies might be inserted,
- Start with a set of strategies that they wish to focus on and design activities around them, or insert strategies spontaneously into the lessons whenever it seems appropriate (www.carla.umn.edu).

Discussions of the effectiveness of strategy training have often recommended that it should be integrated into the regular language curriculum (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford, 1990). From previous research studies, it is undoubted that learners overlook the efficiency of oral production strategies during their speaking performance. Chou (2004) emphasizes another aspect of strategy training indicating that applying language learning strategies should be related as a long-term instruction since there is no positive variation between learners' speaking competence and the use of speaking strategies in a short period of the treatment.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

3.1. Introduction

This section indicates information about the nature of the research and how the study was designed in terms of the methodological perspective. It covers the information on subjects, behavioural objectives of the study, and the instruments. Furthermore, the procedure of the implementation phase of the study, the data collection procedure and the method used for data analysis are described.

3.2. Research Design

This study was conducted as both descriptive and experimental research design which aims to present the effect of speaking strategy training on EFL learners speaking ability in terms of their communicative competence.

3.3. Participants

The participants of the study were 62 ninth grade students who were at the time of the study, attending an Anatolian High School located in Mersin. Of the already existing groups, one was randomly assigned as Experimental, and the other was Control group. There were 32 students in the Experimental group and 30 students in the Control group. All students fall into the 15-17 age range. Of the 62 subjects, 39 were female and 23 were male. Before the study began, all the participating students had studied English intensively and had taken courses on basic skills for a duration of 34 weeks (20 hours per week) at the preparatory year. Additionally, all the participants were assigned to a proficiency test consisting of four language skills and particularly speaking skill marks of the participants were examined. The ones who got $\frac{3}{4}$ or above passed the preparatory

class. Therefore, it was assumed that these students' proficiency level verged on each other's .

In the Experimental group, the strategy based instruction for speaking skill was conducted by the researcher herself. The Control group was taught by the researcher as a regular English language course. Both groups were trained by the same teacher in order to prevent the different teacher effect on the performance of the students.

3.4. Instrumentation

In this study four types of instruments were used in order to collect data:

1. Speaking strategy questionnaire: It was designed by the researcher by reviewing and adapting the strategies used in speaking skill which was categorised by Oxford's (1990) "*Strategy Inventory for language learning (SILL)*" and the communication strategies derived from the "*Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions / Definitions, Examples*" based on Dörnyei & Scott's taxonomy. (1995a, 1995b). This *speaking strategy questionnaire* was administered before and after the treatment to both groups (see appendix 1).
2. Pre-and Post-speaking tests: They were administered before and after the treatment to both groups. The speaking task was taken from the students' regular course books.
3. Learning strategy diary: It was administered to only the Experimental group learners, as keeping a learning diary is a kind of learning strategy in strategy training (see appendix 5).
4. Structured interview: It was administered to only the Experimental group learners to present their perspectives for strategy use in performing speaking tasks.

3.4.1. The Speaking Strategy Questionnaire

It was designed by the researcher by reviewing and adapting the strategies used in speaking skill categorised by Oxford (1990) and the communication strategies derived from the '*Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions/ Definitions, Examples* which was based on Dörnyei&Scott's taxonomy (1995a, 1995b).

It was aimed to determine whether or not the students were aware of these strategies related to their speaking skills (See appendix1).

Oxford (1996) presents some advantages and limitations of questionnaires in general. Questionnaires can give general assessments of students' typical strategies across a variety of tasks. They are cost-effective, quick and easy to administer and don't threaten the learners. Hence, students discover their own strategies because of the fact that the instrument can be self-scored and provides immediate feedback, yet questionnaires don't describe strategies in detail. Thus they should be supported by other data collection tools such as interviews and diaries.

The aim of the research was clearly explained to the participants by emphasizing that it was not an exam in order to relax them and collect reliable responses. They were told about that their responses would shed light into speaking skill development. The items, words and unclear points were clarified by the researcher whenever need arose.

A closed question item type was used in the questionnaire. The questionnaire covered 46 items, written in the declarative form which was a structured questionnaire that required the subjects to indicate their preference (i.e. Yes, or No) to a strategy description, such as "I use mime or gestures during my speech to get my message across clearly". All of the sentences were written in the way that "Yes" signals the presence of a speaking strategy, "No" indicates the absence of the strategy. Another remarkable point was that the questionnaire consisted particularly six categories to investigate; Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective, and Social strategies scales, each of which was represented by a number of different items.

As illustrated below, items included in each category were presented in the form of table for a better data analysis procedure in this study (Table3.1.)

Table 3.1. Speaking strategies scales and item numbers.

Strategies	Item Number
Memory strategies	1-2-3-4
Cognitive strategies	5-6-7-8-9-10-11-12-13-14
Compensation strategies	15-16-17-18-19-20-21-22-23
Metacognitive strategies	24-25-26-27-28-29-30-31-32-33-34
Affective strategies	35-36-37-38-39-40
Social strategies	41-42-43-44-45

3.4.2. The Pre- and Post Speaking Tests

The Pre- and Post- speaking tests were the same tests adapted from students' regular course book. The Pre- and Post-speaking tests were administered to find out whether or not there would be any significant difference between the two groups. The Pre - and Post – speaking tests were video recorded in order to obtain a reliable data. By the help of the video recordings, the raters who evaluated the performances through a speaking scale could consider the participants' body language important in speaking performance. The pre- and post speaking tests were measured through a speaking scale produced by Chaney & Burk (1998) as an analytic scoring evaluation for oral productions (see appendix 2).

3.4.3. Structured Interview and Language Learning Diaries

In order to support the results of the speaking strategy questionnaire, the structured interview and LLS diary were used in data collection. Interviews and diaries provide richer information. Among the other instruments students' diaries are seen as a media in developing and evaluating strategy training (see O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Since diary-keeping has a crucial role in metacognitive strategy training, it was limited to only Experimental group learners as a kind of metacognitive strategy. Thus, the aim of the limiting the diary keeping activity only to the Experimental group was to prevent the effect of diary-keeping method as a learning strategy training to the Control group. The Experimental group learners were asked to keep the diaries to write down the newly learned strategies and their feeling and ideas about those strategies.

The Experimental group learners were also interviewed about their perspectives for speaking strategies use. The questions were prepared by the researcher in advance.

3.5. Data Collection

The data collection procedure was started at the beginning of the 2004-2005 education year. Before the training started, the students were given the *questionnaire for*

determining language learning goals and objectives (Oxford, 1990) and the form of *Self-reflections on language learning* (Chamot, 1999) (see appendix 4). The aim of these questionnaires was to help them determine short-term and long-term goals and make them think about the different types of learning activities they found useful when studying a language and thought about how they could communicate through speaking.

After determining their goals and objectives, the students in both groups were given a speaking strategy questionnaire, which included close-ended questions. The aim of this instrument was to find out whether or not they were aware of the strategies used in speaking English as a target language. This questionnaire was given to both groups at the end of the training as a post- speaking strategy questionnaire in order to present whether or not there was any significant difference in students' awareness of the strategies useful for speaking skill. The questions in the questionnaire were adapted from the Oxford's "*SILL*" particularly strategies useful for speaking and "*Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions / Definitions, Examples*" which was based on Dörnyei & Scott's taxonomy (1995a, 1995b).

At the second stage the students in both groups were administered to the speaking test taken from their regular course book in order to determine their level of speaking proficiencies. After the training period, the same speaking test was applied to both groups as a post- speaking test.

During the training period the students in the Experimental group were asked to keep a learning strategy diary. At the end of the training the students in the Experimental group were administered to a structured interview in order to find out their perspectives about strategy use in developing their speaking skill and to support the results of the speaking strategy questionnaire.

The results of the speaking strategy questionnaires and the grades of the students in both groups who took Pre-and Post-speaking tests were observed in order to find out if there was any significant difference.

Using both a quantitative and a qualitative approach to evaluate the course effects based on the rationale that studies combining quantitative and qualitative methods provide information of the actual situation and might offer great validity (Chang, 1999) Four data-collection tools were used, the learning strategy questionnaire on speaking skill strategy use, video recording of pre and post test, structured interview, learning strategy diary.

Data for the study were induced from four sources.

1) *Speaking strategy questionnaire*: The questionnaire was conducted before and after the manipulation (see appendix 1). Through the use of this questionnaire, the researcher aimed to find answers to the following questions:

- a) Does explicit strategy training in strategies for speaking skill have an effect on learners' awareness of the speaking strategies?
- b) Which speaking strategies do learners use after the strategy training process?

2) *Speaking strategy diary to obtain subjective data from students*: In that way, the students' attitudes towards the strategies use in speaking English as a target language were revealed and which strategies they frequently preferred in performing speaking tasks were presented. With the help of this data collection tool the researcher aimed to search answers to the following questions:

- a) What are the learners' perspectives for strategy use in performing speaking tasks?
- b) Which speaking strategies do learners use after the strategy training process?

3) *Structured interview with students to obtain qualitative data*: In this interview, students' perspectives for strategy use in speaking tasks were investigated and presented as the qualitative data of the study. Through the use of this instrument, the researcher aimed to find answers to the following questions:

- a) What are the learners' perspectives for strategy use in performing speaking tasks?
- b) Does explicit strategy training in strategies for speaking skill have an effect on learners' awareness of the speaking strategies?

4) *Pre- and post-speaking tasks*. Pre- and post speaking tasks were given in order to see whether there is a change in the students speaking performances when compared to the students in the Control group. A speaking scale developed by Chaney & Burk (1998) was used in this study. By implementing those pre- and post speaking tests, the researcher aimed to find answer to the following question;

- a) Does explicit strategy-based instruction in English language learning have an effect on students' speaking performances?

3.5.1. Procedure

To improve students' speaking ability, a long-term strategy training model originally developed by Oxford (1990) was infused into the existing course schedule and materials for a period of two semester. The subjects of the Experimental group received speaking strategy training for two hours a week while Control group did not deviate from their standard program. 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 (1999).

The strategy training was not given as an isolated course. It is the main English course content and not a list of strategies related to speaking that organized the curriculum. The speaking strategies were incorporated into existing curriculum and materials.

At the beginning of the first semester, the speaking strategy questionnaire was administered to the students in both Experimental and Control groups in order to obtain descriptive data on students' awareness of speaking strategies. Regarding the students' speaking skill ability, all subjects were administered a pre- speaking test before the treatment. The two English teachers who were also MA (Master of arts) students at Çukurova University assessed the speaking performances of the both groups a learners without knowing which recording was pre-test or post-test. Nor were they aware of which group was Experimental and Control in order to obtain reliable and objective results.

The items of the speaking strategy questionnaire which was adopted from Oxford's (1990) SILL and Dörnyei & Scott's communication strategies taxonomy (1997) were categorized under six subtitles. Of the items, those related to speaking skill were chosen and a new skill specific questionnaire was developed for the purpose of the study.

During the training process subjects both in Experimental and Control groups were videotaped. In both pre- and post-speaking tests and also in every speaking task during the training process video recording was conducted as a kind of learning strategy. The participants were given a chance of watching and evaluating themselves after every speaking task experience.

Through the regular use of video recording in speaking task performances, they got accustomed to video taping which lessened their anxiety in the following speaking tasks; hence they could behave more comfortable in their following speaking tasks. They also reflected on their speaking performances by noting their experiences and feelings into their speaking strategy diaries

The recordings of the speaking task employed during the training were analysed so as to find out whether the treatment group performed the desired strategies in their speaking performances. Students in the Experimental group kept a learning diary including their speaking task performances, since keeping a language learning diary is a part of learning strategy training,

Following the training, speaking strategy questionnaire was given to both groups for the second time in order to determine whether there existed any changes in the students' awareness of speaking strategies. In addition, both groups were given the speaking post-test in order to see whether there was any statistically significant changes in the speaking strategies used by the learners.

In order to achieve the goal of the study, a strategy training syllabus for each lesson was integrated into students' regular English language curriculum. The syllabus of the course consisted of the objectives of which were designed as follows;

After the two semester treatment students in the Experimental group who participated in this study would be aware of the speaking strategies as measured by the speaking strategy questionnaire conducted at the beginning and end of the study developed by Oxford (1990) and by interviewing with them.

After the two-semester treatment, students in Experimental group who participated in this study would improve their speaking ability as measured by pre- and post-speaking tests which were video recorded and assessed according to a speaking scale prepared by Chaney & Burk (1998).

After the two-semester treatment, students in Experimental group would improve the habit of keeping a strategy diary and develop a positive attitude towards strategy use in their speaking performances as measured by speaking strategy diaries of the students in the Experimental group and interviews with them

3.5.2. Stages of the Strategy Training Implementation

Two sets of language learning strategies were introduced to the experimental group students: the six strategy categories developed by Oxford (1990) and the communication strategies derived from the *'Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions / Definitions, Examples which was based on Dörnyei & Scott's taxonomy. (1995a, 1995b)*. The instruction for speaking strategies was planned in terms of the steps which were derived from previous studies on CALLA (Bedir, ...); preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation and expansion.

Preparation Stage: At the preparation stage the classroom context was adjusted to lay foundation for creating a learner-centred classroom which could facilitate training. At this phase, to create a positive setting, the following steps were conducted (Chamot et al, 1999) as; the need analysis of the experimental group students, the student teacher contract, learning reflections paper, setting personal language goals and speaking strategy questionnaire (the questionnaire was applied at the beginning and end of the treatment to both of the groups).

In addition, the learners were required to prepare an individual English learning plan on a two semester basis. In order to help them prepare the plan for developing their speaking skills, *the questionnaire for determining language learning goals and objectives* was applied to the Experimental group students. The students were asked to set a goal related to developing their speaking skill for the two semesters based on their evaluation of their current speaking level, to identify short-term goals to achieve the long term namely the two semesters goal, to schedule speaking activities according to their determined goals and learning environments and to evaluate their speaking processes as well as their attainment of the goals. This process aimed to train the learners to use the metacognitive strategies.

In order to create a learner-centred classroom which is the initial step of strategy training the teacher and students should share the responsibility. Particularly, students need to develop a clear understanding of class expectations from the beginning in order to achieve the learner-centred classroom atmosphere (Chamot et al, 1999). Classroom contracts are appropriately useful to move learner's expectations toward independence. Based on this assumption, the instructor and the learners prepared a student-teacher classroom contract (see appendix 3) including the characteristics of a good teacher in a

column and the characteristics of a good learner in another column. In this process, the learners were asked to think about the characteristics of a good teacher and a good learner and the ideas produced by the learners and teacher alike were written on a piece of poster board. Characteristics of a good student and teacher were displayed on the wall. The students were offered to make an agreement by promising to live up to the characteristics of a good teacher if the learners make a similar promise to be good learners.

Another necessity of the learner-centred classroom is students' awareness of their learning processes. To achieve this aim the self reflection on language learning questionnaire was applied to the experimental group to make them think about the different types of learning activities and think about how they communicate through speaking.

With the aim of identifying students' existing speaking strategies and their awareness of the speaking strategies, the speaking strategy questionnaire based on Oxford's (1990) list of strategies related to speaking skill was conducted to provide systematic information on the speaking strategies students use.

Presentation Stage: In this phase the speaking strategies were explicitly modelled, named, and explained. In the light of the findings obtained through the speaking strategy questionnaire, the instructor decided the appropriate strategies the students mostly needed starting from the simplest speaking strategies and the strategies the students already used that provide evidence for the zone of proximal development. The strategy training plan was developed including the determined strategies to teach for each week with different speaking tasks appropriately chosen for the each speaking strategy. For example, in teaching experimental group participants Oxford's (1990) categories related to speaking skills were provided by the instructor. The instructor started with modelling the determined speaking strategy in a speaking task. She showed the students in the experimental group the principles of using the determined strategy by giving the examples and demonstrating the application of the strategy in front of the class. After modelling phase the strategy was named explicitly and written on the board for the students to know especially for the times when students were asked to evaluate their strategies use and to discuss which strategy was appropriate for a task. It was aimed to raise learners' consciousness about strategies helping to develop learners' metacognitive knowledge. The importance of the demonstrated strategy was emphasized and explained through the examples. The other phase after explaining the

importance of that speaking strategy was to state when to use the strategy with the examples after modelling, naming and describing how and when to use that speaking strategies the students were asked to describe that strategy on their own.

Practice Stage: At this stage, the students were given another speaking task to carry out by using the given speaking strategy. The speaking tasks were chosen and prepared appropriately for the each determined speaking strategy.

Evaluation Stage: After this step the students were asked to write down their techniques that they used during the speaking task; then, they were asked to compare and contrast the techniques and results from the first and the second tasks. Furthermore, the learners were asked to discuss the learned techniques by comparing the strengths and weaknesses of each step. The goals of the instructional steps were both to introduce the learners the strategies and to take their attention to the application experience they went through. Furthermore, through the use of discussion and class sharing the students monitored and evaluated their learning on their own, the learners were also asked to keep a language learning strategy diary to note down and evaluate the new learned speaking strategy which aimed to train the learners in the affective domain. Thus, to record and to reflect on their learning process help learners to monitor their learning, to recognize their strengths and weaknesses in a speaking task, and the points to alter and improve. The learners were asked to focus the content of their learning diaries on speaking strategy use.

Expansion Stage: In the light of the related research (e.g. Oxford et al, 1990), the instructor considered the importance of the fact that learners might need moral support to increase their positive development in the affective domain of English learning, which might prolong the sustainability of strategy use. The instructor, therefore, observed the students' reactions and encouraged learners with oral persuasion and real examples of successful language learners. The instructor prepared a paper including positive statements for learners to repeat themselves before and after their speaking tasks (see appendix 3).

3.6. Data Analysis

The data obtained through the speaking strategy questionnaires which were administered to both groups as Pre- and Post tests were classified according to the six

strategy groups as memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategy groups. The results of the Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaires were analysed using Chi-square statistics in order to see whether there would be any significant differences between the pre- and post-tests of the both groups.

On the other hand the speaking tests which were administered to both groups as pre- and post tests were rated according to a speaking scale by the two MA students who are also English teachers. The results of the Pre- and Post-speaking tests of the both groups were analysed through SPSS statistics. The pre-and post-speaking tests of the Experimental and Control group were analysed through Mann Whitney-U test. However the pre-and post-speaking tests of the control group and in the same way, the pre-and post-speaking tests of the Experimental group were analysed through Wilcoxon Signed Rank test.

The data obtained from the interview and language learning strategy diaries of the Experimental group learners were examined in order to present the learners' view about the use of speaking strategies and their preferences in speaking strategy choice.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

This chapter aims at presenting the analysis of the data as follows: 1) The analysis and the discussion of the data obtained by the speaking strategies questionnaires given to the students both in the Experimental and the Control groups. 2) The analysis and the discussion of the data collected through the Pre- and Post-speaking tests administered to the students both in the Experimental and the Control groups. 3) The analysis and discussion of the data obtained from the Language learning diaries kept by the students in the Experimental group. 4) The analysis and discussion of the results of the interviews with students in the Experimental group.

The obtained data were analysed through a statistical programme, SPSS (a Statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 10.0. From this programme, Chi square, Mann-Whitney U-Wilcoxon Matched Pairs Signed Rank Test were used for the data analysis (Frankel, & Wallen, 1990).

4.2. Results of the Speaking Strategy Questionnaire

Research question 1: Does explicit strategy training in strategies for speaking skill have an effect on learners' awareness of the speaking strategies in six strategy groups?

Research question 2: Which speaking strategies do learners use before and after the strategy training process?

Through the Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaires conducted to the both of the groups, the students' awareness of the speaking strategies especially for the Experimental group before and after training were determined.

In order to investigate whether there would be any significant difference in students' strategy usage, and to compare the Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaire results, Chi square test statistic analysis programme was used, since the

obtained data needed an analysis which require related samples analysis. The results are presented in Table 4.1., Table 4.2., Table 4.3.,. These tables present the frequency, percentage, χ^2 , df, and the significance value (p) of the each strategy usage.

The comparison of the strategy awareness and usage in Pre- and Post-questionnaires is presented with the 'p', significance value. The significant value of each speaking strategy use was taken into consideration by showing the statistical changes.

If the statistical value is $\leq .005$ probability level, they were accepted as statistically significant

4.2.1. Pre- and Post- speaking Strategies Questionnaire Results of the Experimental Group

The responds obtained by the speaking strategy questionnaire were analysed and examined under the six strategy groups as *memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies*.

Table 4.1. Pre- and Post- speaking Strategies Questionnaire results of the Experimental Group

STRATEGY GROUP	SPEAKING STRATEGIES	PRE-QUESTIONNAIRE				POST-QUESTIONNAIRE				X ²	df	P value	
		YES		NO		YES		NO					
		Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%				
		Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%				
Memory Strategies	1.Placing new words into a context	11	34,4	21	65,6	23	71,9	9	28,1	9.035	1	.003(s)	
	2.Applying images and sounds	9	28,1	23	71,9	26	81,3	6	18,8	18.223	1	.000(s)	
	3.Representing sounds in memory	28	87,5	4	12,5	30	93,3	2	6,3	*	1	*	
	4.Structured reviewing	25	78,1	7	21,9	12	37,5	20	62,5	1.871	1	.171	
Cognitive Strategies	5.Repeating	16	50	16	50	30	93,8	2	6,3	15.150	1	.000(s)	
	6.Practicing	8	25	24	75	22	68,8	10	31,3	12.298	1	.000(s)	
	7.Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems	22	68,8	10	31,3	19	59,4	13	40,6	.611	1	.434	
	8.Reasoning deductively	7	21,9	25	78,1	14	43,8	18	56,3	3.473	1	.062	
	9.Recognising and using formulas and patterns	12	37,5	20	62,5	8	25	24	75	1.164	1	.281	
	10.Recombining	9	28,1	23	71,9	27	84,4	5	15,6	20.571	1	.000(s)	
	11.Practicing naturalistically	5	15,6	27	84,4	16	50	16	50	8.576	1	.003(s)	
	12.Using resources for receiving and sending messages	11	34,4	21	65,6	11	34,4	21	65,6	.000	1	1	
	13.Transferring	6	18,8	26	81,3	26	81,3	6	18,8	25	1	.000(s)	
	14.Translating	9	28,1	23	71,9	19	59,4	13	40,6	6.34	1	.012(s)	
	Compensation Strategies	15.Switching to the mother tongue	23	71,9	9	28,1	25	78,1	7	21,9	.333	1	.564
		16.Getting help	7	21,9	25	78,1	30	93,8	2	6,3	33.890	1	.000(s)
		17.Overcoming limitations in speaking	17	53,1	15	46,9	32	100	0	0	19.592	1	.000(s)
18.Using mime or gesture		8	25	24	75	32	100	0	0	38.400	1	.000(s)	
19.Avoiding communication partially or totally		5	15,6	27	84,4	29	90,6	3	9,4	36.141	1	.000(s)	
20.Selecting the topic		3	9,4	29	90,6	24	75	8	25	28.25	1	.000(s)	
21.Adjusting or approximating the message		3	9,4	29	90,6	25	78,1	7	21,9	30.730	1	.000(s)	
22.Coining words		14	43,8	18	56,3	15	46,9	17	53,1	.063	1	.802	
23.Using a circumlocution or synonym		3	9,4	29	90,6	19	59,4	13	40,6	17.732	1	.000(s)	

Table 4.1. Continued

Metacognitive Strategies	24.Paying attention	9	28,1	23	71,9	12	37,5	20	62,5	.638	1	.424
	25.Self-monitoring	23	71,9	9	28,1	25	78,1	7	21,9	.333	1	.564
	26.Paying attention	10	31,3	22	68,8	28	87,5	4	12,5	20.988	1	.000(s)
	27.Finding out about lang.learning	0	0	32	100	16	50	16	50	21.333	1	.000(s)
	28.Organizing	7	21,9	25	78,1	23	71,9	9	28,1	16.063	1	.000(s)
	29.Arranging and planning your learning	24	75	8	25	10	31,3	22	68,8	12.298	1	.000(s)
	30.Setting goals and objectives	3	9,4	29	90,6	8	25	24	75	2.744	1	.098
	31.Identifying the purpose of a language task	10	31,3	22	68,8	27	84,4	5	15,6	18.515	1	.000(s)
	32.Planning for a language task	8	25	24	75	21	65,6	11	34,4	10.656	1	.001(s)
	33 Seeking practice opportunities	0	0	32	100	19	59,4	13	40,6	27.022	1	.000(s)
	34.Self-evaluating	3	9,4	29	90,6	13	40,6	19	59,4	8.333	1	.004(s)
Affective Strategies	35.Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing	9	28,1	23	71,9	30	93,8	2	6,3	28.948	1	.000(s)
	36.Using music and laughter	3	9,4	29	90,6	12	37,5	20	62,5	7.053	1	.008(s)
	37.Making positive statements	9	28,1	23	71,9	25	78,1	7	21,9	16.036	1	.000(s)
	38.Rewarding yourself	3	9,4	29	90,6	15	46,9	17	53,1	11.130	1	.001(s)
	39.Writing a language learning diary	3	9,4	29	90,6	21	65,6	11	34,4	21.600	1	.000(s)
	40.Discussing your feelings with someone else	25	78,1	7	21,9	5	15,6	27	84,4	25.098	1	.000(s)
Social Strategies	41.Cooperating with peers	11	34,4	21	65,6	15	46,9	17	53,1	1.036	1	.309
	42.Asking for correction	9	28,1	23	71,9	13	40,6	19	59,4	1.108	1	.292
	43.Cooperating with peers	5	15,6	27	84,4	20	62,5	12	37,5	14.769	1	.000(s)
	44.Cooperating with proficient users of the new language	3	9,4	29	90,6	19	59,4	13	40,6	1.602	1	.206
	45.Developing cultural understanding	4	12,5	28	87,5	13	40,6	19	59,4	17.732	1	.000(s)

* Since the (f) value is observed 5 and less than 5 in 20% and more than 20% of the cells, Chi-square significance test could not be examined.

4.2.1.1. The Memory Strategies

The first, second, third and fourth speaking strategies were the items related to the memory strategies group. As seen in Table 4.1., there was a significant difference between the results of the Pre- and Post-speaking strategies questionnaires. It was observed that among the memory strategies, the learners in the Experimental group mostly preferred 'representing sounds in memory' as a memory strategy in the Pre-questionnaire. The percentage of the third item which was 'representing sounds in memory' was 87,5% and the frequency of this memory strategy was 28 in Pre-questionnaire. In the same way, the most preferred strategy was again 'representing sounds in memory' with the percentage of 93% and with the frequency of 30 in the Post-questionnaire of the Experimental group. On the other hand, as seen in Table 4.1., no change was observed in the third and fourth items between Pre- and Post-questionnaires of the Experimental group. However the second item 'I use rhymes to remember new English words' as a memory strategy in other words 'applying images and sounds' presented a significant difference between the Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaires with the .000 P value. During the interview, some of the students stated that they liked rhymes and it was useful to keep the new word in mind easily. One of the students said "rhyme is funny, I'm also trying to make a rhyme myself".

In their language learning diaries, most of the learners have noted some of the rhymes that were presented by the instructor during the lessons.

The results of the Pre- and Post-questionnaires implied that the awareness of the learners was very low at the beginning of the semester, but there seemed to be an increase in the awareness of the learners at the end of the semester. This change in awareness of the learners in both groups was reflected in the frequency and the percentage of this strategy shown in Table 4.1. and Table 4.3.

In addition, it was observed that in most of the items of the memory strategy group presented a significant difference in the Post-questionnaires of the Experimental and Control groups.

4.2.1.2. The Cognitive Strategies

The percentages of the students' awareness and usage for cognitive strategies in Pre-and Post-speaking strategy questionnaire results of the Experimental group are shown in Table 4.1. As seen the items from 5 to 14 are cognitive strategies, in other words there are ten cognitive strategies in the questionnaire. As shown in Table 4.1. and Table 4.3., eight of the items had no statistically significant difference in Experimental and Control group questionnaire results at the beginning of the semester. But the items 11 and 12 had a significant difference. The responses were nearly the same in both groups before the training. On the other hand, a statistically significant difference was observed in cognitive strategies usage of the learners at the Post-questionnaire results of the Experimental and Control groups as seen in Table 4.1. and Table 4.3..

When the frequency and the percentages of the both groups were examined in Table 4.1. and Table 4.3., it was seen that the usage of the cognitive strategies in the Experimental group was increased at the end of the semester as compared to the use in the Control Group.

At the end of the treatment with the help of strategy training activities, most of the students in the Experimental group seemed to have become aware of cognitive strategies for speaking skill as it is shown in Table 4.1.. In addition, most of the students in the Experimental group in the interview at the end of the semester pointed out that they weren't used to these kinds of methods while studying speaking. Moreover, it was inferred in the interview that the majority of the students were in favour of using a substantial number of these strategies.

In addition, the results may reveal that the frequencies and the percentages of the Pre- and Post-questionnaires show that there is an increase in Experimental Group students' awareness of cognitive strategies for speaking skill. Of the ten cognitive strategies, the most frequently used strategies in the Post-questionnaire results were the items 5 and 10 as it is demonstrated in Table 4.1. As a Cognitive strategy, students prefer 'saying expressions repeatedly to practice them' with the 93.8 percent after the training Table 4.1.

Of the ten items of cognitive strategies, six of them were statistically improved in Post-questionnaires (Table 4.1.). In the interview, some of the students pointed out that "repeating" and "practicing naturalistically" (item 10) were very useful to develop

their speaking skills. One of the learners said that ‘when I see a native speaker for example an American, I try to talk English with him, but I get excited very much, but it is very enjoyable.’

4.2.1.3. The Compensation Strategies

Compensation strategies involve the items beginning from 15 to 23. The Pre-and Post -questionnaire results of the Experimental group indicate that there is a statistically significant change in seven items in Table 4.1. The frequency and the percentage results of the Experimental group in Table 4.1. clearly showed that the usage of the compensation strategies in the Experimental group was increased at the end of the semester.

In the interview with the Experimental group learners they indicated that they frequently used ‘using mime or gesture during a speaking task if they could not find the appropriate word or a phrase’. They also stated that ‘using a circumlocution or synonym’ was very beneficial when they were in the middle of the communication. ‘Coining words’ was another widely used strategy among the Experimental group learners.

One of the learners in the Experimental group stated that “when an English word doesn’t come, when I forget it I make up a similar word, or I use my body, I describe it. It’s a good strategy; I can tell it using my body.”

At the end of the treatment with the help of strategy training activities, most of the students in the Experimental group seemed to be aware of compensation strategies of speaking skill as displayed in Table 4.1. Of the nine compensation strategies, the most frequently used strategy (100%) was ‘using mime or gesture’ as seen in Table 4.1, which created a statistically significant difference between the Pre and Post questionnaires ($p=.0.00$). In addition, Table 4.1. clearly showed that the 15th and 22nd items had no significant difference whereas the other items 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21 included significant results in Table 4.1.

4.2.1.4. The Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategy group covers the items from 24 to 34. Of the eleven strategies in metacognitive strategy group, eight of them represented statistically significant differences in the Experimental group's Pre- and Post-questionnaire results as shown in Table 4.1.

As shown in Table 4.1., there was an increase in students' awareness of the strategies. For example 26th strategy usage increased from 31.3% to 87.5% between before and after training of the Experimental group. The 27th strategy 'finding out about language learning' also showed an increase from 0% to 50%. The 28th, 29th 31st, 32nd, 33rd, 34th strategies also showed an increase between the results of before and after training questionnaires as seen in Table 4.1.

In the interview some of the learners in the Experimental group stated that they found the metacognitive strategies useful and their favourite strategies were 'planning ahead for a speaking task like learning vocabulary for the speech and seeking practice occasions by watching TV, listening the English songs'. An Experimental group learner stated that "if I plan for a speaking presentation, I feel comfortable, therefore, I can learn more vocabulary during planning." Another student says that "I try to watch English channels on TV and I listen to English songs and memorise those songs, I like them very much, I find the lyrics of the songs from internet and I can sing them in front of the class."

During the training, the learners in the Experimental group were assigned to some speaking tasks. The speaking performances of the learners were video recorded. After then the recordings were watched and evaluated by the instructor and the students. They tried to determine their lacks and mistakes in other words 'self-evaluating' phase was conducted as a metacognitive strategy. In the interview, twelve students stated that as a metacognitive strategy self-evaluating was a little boring but helpful. In addition, they did not seem to enjoy taking notes about their mistakes into their speaking strategy diaries though they agreed about the benefit of it.

4.2.1.5. The Affective Strategies

These strategies were those from 35 to 40. All of the strategies in the affective strategies group displayed statistically significant differences between the Pre- and Post-questionnaire results obtained from the Experimental group.

As seen in Table 4.1., there was an increase in Experimental group students' awareness of the strategies. For example in the 35th item, the strategy usage increased from 9 to 30 between Pre- and Post-questionnaires of the Experimental group in Table 1. At the same time the 37th strategy item that was 'making positive statements' also showed an increase from 28.1% to 78.1%.

In the interview with the Experimental group, the majority of the students before the training emphasized that they wouldn't use affective strategies so much. For example, making positive statements for themselves before a speaking task or rewarding themselves sounded very different, interesting and also ridiculous to them. However, they stated that these strategies were unforgivable for themselves not only for their speaking performances but also for other lessons.

In the interview with the Experimental Group learners at the end of the term, one of the learners pointed out that "Initially, it seemed to be comic to reward myself after a speech in English but I feel very good and I try to take that reward, and I also repeat the positive statement that you gave us. I feel comfortable, I like them." It might be assumed that affective strategies have a positive effect on students' self confidence for a speaking task. They mostly complained about their anxiety and fear of being embarrassed in front of the class, therefore, they see affective strategies as an effective tool to overcome their deficiencies in speaking skill.

4.2.1.6. The Social Strategies

The last 6 items of the questionnaire were the components of the social strategies group chosen for speaking skill. The items 43rd and 44th showed significant differences between the Pre- and Post-questionnaires of the Experimental group as presented in Table 4.1. There was no noteworthy difference between the Pre- and Post-questionnaires of the Experimental group in the other three items.

The most frequently used social strategy in the Experimental group was ‘cooperating with proficient users of the new language’. In the interview with the learners in the Experimental group, the lack of the target language use outside the class was the main problem for the learners. They stated that they have difficulty in finding a native or proficient speaker of English outside the class.

4.2.3. The Results and Discussion of the Pre- and Post-Questionnaires Results of the Experimental Group

Table 4.2. The Pre- and Post-Questionnaires results of the Experimental group representing the number of positive responses and the percentages.

STRATEGY GROUPS	PRE-QUESTIONNAIRE		POST-QUESTIONNAIRE		P Value
	Number of Positive Responses	Percentage %	Number of Positive Responses	Percentage %	
Memory Strategies	55	12	91	10	.000(S)
Cognitive Strategies	105	24	192	22	.002(S)
Compensation Strategies	83	19	231	26	.000(S)
Metacognitive Strategies	97	22	193	22	.004(S)
Affective Strategies	52	12	95	11	.000(S)
Social Strategies	48	11	76	9	.001(S)

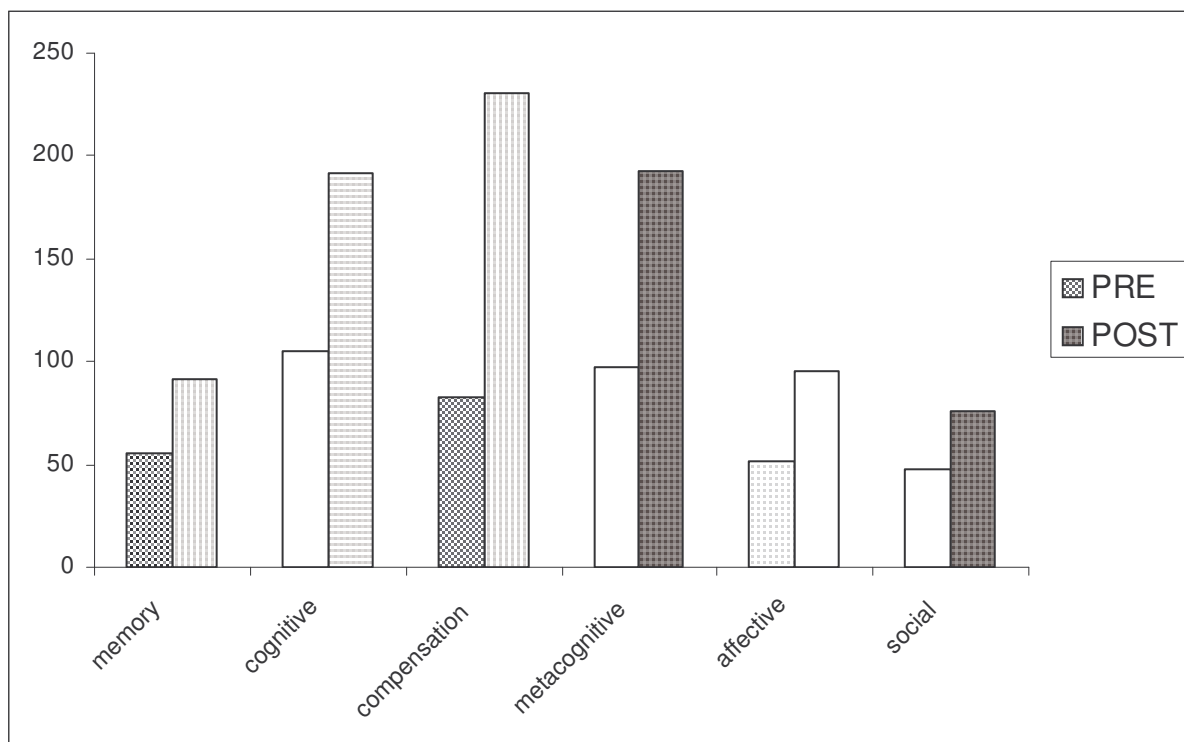


Figure 4.1. The Pre- and Post-Questionnaires of the Experimental group representing the number of positive responses

Of the six strategy groups shown in Table 4.2. memory strategies took the percentage of 12 in the Pre-questionnaire and the number of the positive responses was 55 whereas in Post questionnaire the number of positive responses increased to 91 with the %10 percentage which resulted in a significant difference between the Pre-and Post-speaking strategy questionnaires.

When the Pre- and Post-questionnaires results of the Experimental group were examined in Table 4.2., Cognitive strategies were the second frequently used strategies by the learners with the result of 22% after the training. There was also a significant difference ($p=.002$).

Table 4.2 showed that compensation strategies were the most frequently used strategies by the learners with a 26 percent after the strategy training. Additionally the P value (Table 4.2.) (.000) showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the Pre- and Post-questionnaires.

The results related to this strategy group in Table 4.2 indicated that metacognitive strategies were frequently used by the Experimental group learners with the 22 percent after the strategy training whereas they were used with 19 percent before training. The number of the positive responses in other words the number of 'yes'

responses increased from 97 to 193 between Pre- and Post-questionnaire as it is showed in Table 4.2. Furthermore, the P value (Table 4.3-2.) .004 showed a statistically significant change between before and after training questionnaires of the Experimental group

The results related to this strategy group as seen in Table 4.2. indicated that affective strategies were frequently used by the Experimental group learners with the 11 percent after the strategy training. The number of the positive responses increased from 52 to 95 between Pre- and Post-questionnaires in Table 4.2. In addition to this the P value of .000 showed that a statistically significant difference existed between questionnaires before and after training of the Experimental group.

Finally, the social strategies also displayed a significant difference between the Pre- and Post questionnaires.($p=.001$)The number of positive responses increased from 48 to 76 95 between Pre- and Post-questionnaires in Table 4.2.

4.2.2. Pre- and Post- Speaking Strategies Questionnaire Results of the Control Group

The Control group learners' responses to the speaking strategy questionnaire were analysed and examined under the six strategy groups as *memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies*.

Table 4.3. Pre-and Post-speaking Strategies Questionnaire Results of the Control Group.

STRATEGY GROUP	SPEAKING STRATEGIES	PRE-QUESTIONNAIRE				POST-QUESTIONNAIRE				chi	df	P value
		YES		NO		YES		NO				
		Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%			
Memory Strategies	1.Placing new words into a context	23	76,7	7	23,3	9	30	21	70	13.125	1	.000(s)
	2.Applying images and sounds	5	16,7	25	83,3	5	16,7	25	83,3		1	
	3.Representing sounds in memory	18	60	12	40	10	33,3	20	66,7	4.286	1	.038(s)
	4.Structured reviewing	15	50	15	50	30	100	0	0	20.000	1	.000(s)
Cognitive Strategies	5.Repeating	12	40	18	60	7	23,3	23	76,7	1.926	1	.165
	6.Practicing	10	33,3	20	66,7	15	50	15	50	1.714	1	.190
	7.Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems	14	46,7	16	53,3	8	26,7	22	73,3	2.584	1	.108
	8.Reasoning deductively	12	40	18	60	20	66,7	10	33,3	4.286	1	.038(s)
	9.Recognising and using formulas and patterns	8	26,7	22	73,3	6	20	24	80	.373	1	.542
	10.Recombining	15	50	15	50	15	50	15	50	.000	1	1
	11.Practicing naturalistically	13	43,3	17	56,7	9	30	21	70	1.148	1	.284
	12.Using resources for receiving and sending messages	20	66,7	10	33,3	4	13,3	26	86,7	17.778	1	.000(s)
	13.Transferring	12	40	18	60	10	33,3	20	66,7	.287	1	.592
	14.Translating	11	36,7	19	63,3	13	43,3	17	56,7	.278	1	.598
Compensation Strategies	15.Switching to the mother tongue	15	50	15	50	8	26,7	22	73,3	3.455	1	.063
	16.Getting help	12	40	18	60	22	73,3	8	26,7	6.787	1	.009(s)
	17.Overcoming limitations in speaking	15	50	15	50	8	26,7	22	73,3	3.455	1	.063
	18.Using mime or gesture	12	40	18	60	14	46,7	16	53,3	.271	1	.602
	19.Avoiding communication partially or totally	8	26,7	22	73,3	12	40	18	60	1.200	1	.273
	20.Selecting the topic	9	30	21	70	15	50	15	50	2.500	1	.114
	21.Adjusting or approximating the message	11	36,7	19	63,3	7	23,3	23	76,7	1.270	1	.260
	22.Coining words	10	33,3	20	66,7	9	30	21	70	.077	1	.781
	23.Using a circumlocution or synonym	14	46,7	16	53,3	8	26,7	22	73,3	2.584	1	.108

Table 4.3. Continued

STRATEGY GROUP	SPEAKING STRATEGIES	PRE-QUESTIONNAIRE				POST-QUESTIONNAIRE				chi	df	P value
		YES		NO		YES		NO				
		Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%			
Metacognitive Strategies	24.Paying attention	11	36,7	19	63,3	3	10	27	90	5.963	1	.015(s)
	25.Self-monitoring	15	50	15	50	14	46,7	16	53,3	.067	1	.796
	26.Paying attention	18	60	12	40	8	26,7	22	73,3	6.787	1	.009(s)
	27.Finding out about lang.learning	19	63,3	11	36,7	20	66,7	10	33,3	.073	1	.787
	28.Organizing	8	26,7	22	73,3	8	26,7	22	73,3	.000	1	1
	29.Arranging and planning your learning	11	36,7	19	63,3	8	26,7	22	73,3	.693	1	.405
	30.Setting goals and objectives	13	43,3	17	56,7	10	33,3	20	66,7	.635	1	.426
	31.Identifying the purpose of a language task	5	16,7	25	83,3	5	16,7	25	83,3	.000	1	1
	32.Planning for a language task	8	26,7	22	73,3	17	56,7	13	43,3	5.554	1	.018(s)
	33.Seeking practice opportunities	15	50	15	50	9	30	21	70	2.500	1	.114
	34.Self-evaluating	12	40	18	60	9	30	21	70	.659	1	.417
Affective Strategies	35.Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing	4	13,3	24	86,7	3	10	27	90	.162	1	.688
	36.Using music and laughter	6	20	24	80	2	6,7	28	93,3	2.308	1	.129
	37.Making positive statements	2	6,7	28	93,3	8	26,7	22	73,3	4.320	1	.038(s)
	38.Rewarding yourself	5	16,7	25	83,3	8	26,7	22	73,3	.884	1	.347
	39.Writing a language learning diary	2	6,7	28	93,3	1	3,3	29	96,7	.351	1	.554
	40.Discussing your feelings with someone else	6	20	24	80	5	16,7	25	83,3	.111	1	.739
Social Strategies	41.Cooperating with peers	16	53,3	14	46,7	3	10	27	90	13.017	1	.000(s)
	42.Asking for correction	6	20	24	80	25	83,3	5	16,7	24.093	1	.000(s)
	43.Cooperating with peers	17	56,7	13	43,3	10	33,3	20	66,7	3.300	1	.069
	44.Cooperating with proficient users of the new language	6	20	24	80	6	20	24	80	.000	1	1
	45.Developing cultural understanding	17	56,7	13	43,3	5	16,7	25	83,3	5.079		.024(s)

4.2.2.1. The Memory Strategies

As seen in Table 4.3., there was a significant difference between the results of the Pre- and Post-speaking strategies questionnaires in terms of the memory strategies. The 1st, 3rd and the 4th items showed significant differences. It was observed that the Control group learners preferred the strategy ‘placing new words into a context’ with 76 % in the Pre-questionnaire (Table 4.3). In the Post-questionnaire, however a considerable decrease was observed in the use of this same strategy. Of the memory strategies, the 4th strategy item showed a remarkable significance with .000 P value between the Pre and Post-strategy questionnaires (Table 4.3). Also the percentage of the 4th strategy item is 50% in Pre-questionnaire and this value increased to 100% in the Post-questionnaire. On the other hand, as presented in Table 4.3 no change was observed in second strategy item between Pre- and Post- questionnaires of the Control Group.

4.2.2.2. The Cognitive Strategies

The percentages of the learners’ awareness and usage for cognitive strategies in Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaire results of the Control group were presented in Table 4.3. Compared to the Experimental group’ results, although it was not the same, the students in the Control group could also show a statistically significant difference ($p = .019, .000, .045$) in the usage of this strategy group in three items of the ten as it is demonstrated in Table 4.3.

The 5th, 8th and 12th items of the questionnaire showed a change between the Pre- and Post-questionnaires of the Control group learners. The remaining seven strategy items did not show any significance between the Pre- and Post-questionnaires.

The most frequently used strategy of the Control group learners was ‘using resources for receiving and sending messages’ with the value of 66.7 % in Pre-questionnaire, whereas the 8th strategy item ‘recognising and using formulas and patterns’ was the most frequently used strategy with the value of 66.7% in the Post-questionnaire (Table 4.3).

4.2.2.3. The Compensation Strategies

The Pre-and Post -questionnaire results of the Control group indicated that the only existed one Compensation strategy had statistically significant difference ($p=.009$), whereas seven items of the Experimental Group's Pre – and Post questionnaires were statistically significant. The frequency and the percentage results of the Control group in Table 4.3. showed that the usage of the compensation strategies of the Control group could not show any remarkable increase in most of the items at the end of the semester.

Of the nine compensation strategies, the most frequently preferred strategy item is 'getting help' as it was demonstrated in Table 4.3 with %73.3 percentage in the Post-questionnaire result of the Control group.

In spite of the fact that it was not the same as in Experimental group results, the students in the Control group could also show a statistically significant difference in the usage of this strategy group in the 16th 17th and 23rd items of the compensation strategies group though the number of those in the Experimental group is much higher

4.2.2.4. The Metacognitive Strategies

Of the eleven strategies in metacognitive strategy group, eight items represented no statistically significant differences between the Pre- and Post-questionnaire.

As seen in Table 4.3 the 27th strategy 'finding out about language learning' was the most preferred metacognitive strategy item in the Pre-(19) and Post (20)-questionnaires of the Control group. The second frequently used metacognitive strategy was the 33rd strategy item 'seeking practice opportunities' which increased from 15 (frequency in Pre-questionnaire) to 30 (frequency in Post-questionnaire of the Control Group).

Although it was not the same when compared to Experimental group, the students in the Control group could also show a statistically significant difference in the usage of this strategy group but in small number of items such as the 24th 26th 32nd strategy items of the metacognitive strategies group.

4.2.2.5. The Affective Strategies

Only one of the strategy in affective strategies group displayed statistically significant difference between the Pre- and Post-questionnaire results of the Control group as seen in Table 4.3. The 37th item ‘making positive statements’ was the most frequently used affective strategy. On the other hand, the results of the Control Groups’ Pre- and Post questionnaires did not show remarkable significances in most of the affective strategies (Table 4.3).

4.2.2.6. The Social Strategies

The items 41st, 42nd, and 45th displayed significant differences between the Pre- and Post-questionnaires of the Control group as demonstrated in Table 4.3. The strategy frequently used by Control group learners was ‘asking for correction’ the percentage of which increased from 20% (in Pre-questionnaire) to 83.3% (in Post-questionnaire).

On the other hand, the other two items 43rd, and 44th had no significance between the Pre- and Post-questionnaires of the Control group.

4.3. The Pre- and Post-speaking Tests

Research Question 4: Does explicit strategy-based instruction in English language learning have an effect on students’ speaking performances?

In order to find out if there would be any significant difference before and after training, a speaking test was used. This test served as both Pre- and Post-speaking test. The data obtained with Pre- and Post-test was analysed through SPSS statistical programme.

The analysis illustrated in Tables 4.5 and 4.6 was performed by Wilcoxon Signed Rank test and those in Tables 4.4 and 4.7 by Mann-Whitney U-test.

Table 4.4. Control and Experimental Groups' Pre-speaking Tests.

	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
Experimental	32	27.97	895	367	.110
Control	30	35.27	1058		

In order to find out if there would be any significant difference between the results of the Pre-speaking tests of the both groups, the data were compared. Table 4.4 shows the comparison of the Pre-tests results of the both groups.

When the results obtained from the both groups through the Pre-speaking test, no significant difference between the Experimental and Control groups were observed (.110)

Table 4.5 Control Group Pre- and Post-Speaking Tests.

Pre –Post Test	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Negative Ranks	10	11.20	112	-.472	.637
Positive Ranks	12	11.75	141		
Ties	8				

As seen in Table 4.5 no significant difference occurred between the Pre- and Post-speaking test results of the Control group (p .637 level..

Table 4.6. Experimental Group Pre-and Post-Speaking Tests.

Pre –Post Test	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Negative Ranks	3	3.33	10	-4.302	.000
Positive Ranks	24	15.33	368		
Ties	5				

The results which are illustrated in the Table 4.6 display that there is statistically significant change (p.000) level between the Pre- and Post-speaking tests of the Experimental group.

There were important differences between the result obtained in the Post speaking tests of the Control group and the Experimental group as shown in Tables 4.5

and 4.6. However the Pre-speaking test results did not set forth any significant differences when the results were compared.

Table 4.7. Control and Experimental Groups' Post-Speaking Tests.

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
Experimental	32	63.47	21.50	34	100	36.08	1154.5	333.5	.039
Control	30	51.66	15.18	36	96	26.62	798		

After obtaining the results of the Pre and the Post speaking tests, the results were compared with the aim of presenting if there would be any significant difference between the two groups after training. Before strategy training there was no significant difference between the both groups (Table 4.4). However when the Post tests of the both groups were compared, a statistically significant difference was observed. It was assumed that the noteworthy difference among the means, and standard deviation brought about this significant difference (Table 4.7).

As seen in the Table 4.7 above there is a considerable difference between the two groups. The students in the Experimental group increased their mean value from 46.84 to 63.47. Those in the Control group, on the other hand, didn't achieve the same increase. They reached from 50.88 to 51.66.

Although, there seemed to be a significant difference between the two groups, the standard deviation which was 12.60 in the Experimental group Pre-test almost doubled in the Post test. Individual differences affecting the strategy gaining might have played a great role in achieving appropriate speaking strategies, which in turn reflected into the grades, thus, there did not seem to be a homogeneous distribution among the grades of the both groups, Experimental especially.

4.4. The Results of the Speaking Strategy Diaries and Interviews

Research Question 2: Which speaking strategies do learners use before and after the strategy training process?

Research Question 3: What are the learners' perspectives for strategy use in performing speaking tasks?

The focus of the learning strategies diaries and interview analyses presented in this study is on qualitative examples of the strategies providing the evidence of the learners' awareness of speaking strategies use. Results from the Experimental group learners' strategy diaries and student interviews revealed the following conclusions.

First students would try to apply the learned speaking strategies to speaking tasks, to experience the function of the strategies

The learners stated that because of the lack of sufficient knowledge for spontaneous communication, they felt anxiety during a conversation. Also the problem area in their speaking production is that they try to produce utterances accurately, but have difficulty in responding to unpredictable situations. The learners mostly stated that they were unable to respond because they had rarely used English in real life outside the class. Experimental group learners reported using compensation strategies since they were like a rescue team for them in their difficult times during a conversation.

One of the learners in the Experimental group stated "I could not catch what she (the other speaker) said and I was frustrated because I couldn't understand her and I couldn't respond. But after I learnt the 'asking for clarification' strategy, it was easier for me to continue conversation. For example I didn't understand what the speaker said but I used the sentences that we learnt to request her explanation so we continued."

Another learner stated that "when I saw that my friend didn't understand me I repeated or changed my sentence to make my sentence clear and I always checked if I could make myself understood, clear"

In terms of the strategy 'gaining time to think of an appropriate expression' the following data indicated that students in Experimental Group used fillers and filled pauses. Hence this may show that they became aware of how to avoid communication breakdowns by using time-gaining strategies. One of the learners said that "when I needed time to think or forget what I will tell, I said 'well' and 'let me see' instead of not talking.

Another learner stated that 'I have difficulty in using some strategies at that time. For example I couldn't use fillers and I have also problems in making myself understood. I always think to make a sentence so much time.'

It might therefore be difficult to conclude that strategy training affects all students positively because strategy training might not fit some learners' general approaches to learning.

While applying the strategies to the speaking skill, learners tended to use some specific certain strategies. They tended to mostly use compensation and metacognitive strategies and affective strategies.

Another remarkable result was that the students stated to transfer the learned speaking strategies to the learning of other subjects. For example, one of the students noted down into his diary: 'I was Preparing for chemistry examination and I memorized formulas by using memory strategies I grouped them. Grouping strategy helped me so much. It was good.'

Another striking result was that students evaluated themselves in terms of metacognitive strategies. One of the students said in the interview: 'I prepared a plan at the beginning. I made a schedule as you said but I didn't fit. Maybe I'm a bit lazy.'

Another student said 'I didn't apply the plan at the beginning. After then I thought I should do but I thought I'm late. I gave up.'

Through the strategy training, students learned interesting techniques to overcome their affective fears through the meeting with affective strategies. "Before preparing for a presentation I repeated positive statements to myself. At first I thought they are funny useless but I like them now and they are very useful I think"

4.5. Summary of the Findings

One of the findings of this study was related to the results obtained from the Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaire.

The findings of the strategy usage presented in Tables 4.1 and 4.2 proved that the Experimental group students enhanced their strategies in speaking skill, especially in compensation strategies item 17, 16, 19 and in other strategies 3, 5, 10, 26, 31, 35.

These strategies were related to the training and it was aimed that the students in the training group would be aware of the speaking strategies and gain them.

The results obtained from the strategy interviews in the Experimental group also supported the results of the speaking strategy questionnaire in which compensation strategies usage took the priority in the speaking strategy usage. Additionally, compensation strategies were the most favoured strategies by the learners in the Experimental group.

Another remarkable result was that, although affective strategies were the fourth most preferred strategies in speaking strategy questionnaire results in Table 4.2, they were preferred as the second most liked strategies that 27 students found very useful and interesting in their interviews.

In the Experimental group's Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaire results, of the 45 strategy items, 32 of them showed remarkable differences between the Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaire, 13 strategy items didn't show any significant differences between the Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaire.

Speaking strategy usage in the Control group, on the other hand, was not the same as that in the Experimental group. Of the 45 strategy items in the questionnaire, only 15 items were significant whereas the 30 items didn't show any remarkable difference between the Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaire.

Another moderate result was that the Pre- and Post-speaking test results made a gradual increase throughout the two semesters. The processed data illustrated in tables 4.4, 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7 indicated that there were significant differences between Pre- and Post-speaking tests of the two groups. When the pre-speaking test results of both groups were correlated with the help of Mann Whitney U statistical analysis program, no significant difference between the groups was found.

However, although there was no significant difference between the two groups before training, there was a striking difference after training. The post-speaking test results as shown in Table 4.7, clearly indicated this improvement. In addition, comparison of the two groups showed noteworthy differences among the grades that the students had in pre and especially in post-speaking tests.

In addition, it was assumed that the remarkable results between the Experimental and Control groups might have resulted from the fact that the students in the Experimental group gained and used appropriate strategies. Furthermore, the results of Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaire and the interview with the students in the Experimental group indicated that it was vital that strategy training for speaking skills be conducted and students be acquire appropriate speaking strategies in order not only use in speaking but also in other language skills.

One more striking finding of the strategy training obtained from the interviews and the Experimental group learners' strategy diaries was that learners were in favour of the need of acquiring appropriate speaking strategies and how, when and where to use them.

In their interviews and diaries, they strongly emphasized that they wanted to see a model for how, when and where to use that strategy, otherwise, it remained as an abstract thing therefore they wanted to transfer it to a concrete example for themselves.

Hence, the results showed that training the students with all six strategy groups for speaking skill can also be useful for enhancing metacognitive strategies. While noting down their ideas into their strategy diaries and evaluating themselves after watching their speaking performances on video recordings, learners were likely to become aware of what strategies they need in order to come to a conclusion.

CHAPTER 5

This chapter of the study presents the conclusions and implications obtained by the results of the speaking strategy questionnaire, Pre-and Post Tests, learning strategy diary, and structured interview

5.1. Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of strategies-based instruction for developing 9th grade EFL learners' speaking skills attending an Anatolian High School and to get information on the participants' awareness of the speaking strategies and their frequent choice of strategies. In addition, the perspectives of the participants in the use of strategies-based instruction for speaking skill was examined in this study. Thus, the study aimed to find answers to the following research questions:

1. Does explicit strategy training in strategies for speaking skill have an effect on learners' awareness of the speaking strategies in six strategy groups?
2. Which speaking strategies do learners in the Experimental group frequently use after the strategy-training process?
3. What are the learners' perspectives for strategy use in performing speaking tasks?
4. Does explicit strategy-based instruction in English language learning have an effect on students' speaking performances?

The participants of the study were 62 ninth grade students who were at the time of the study attending Bozyazı Anatolian High School. Among 62 subjects, 39 were female and 23 were male. In order to collect appropriate data, the speaking strategy questionnaire, Pre-and Post Tests, learning strategy diary, structured interview were used as data collection tools

First of all, the results support the assumption made by previous research that strategy training in the use of strategies for speaking in a foreign language produces positive results (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Dörnyei, 1995).

Data collected from the interviews and diaries revealed that strategy training for speaking provides the learners with a sense of security in the L2 by allowing them to manoeuvre in times of difficulty. Learners may strive for remaining in the conversation

to achieve their communicative goal instead of giving up their message (Dörnyei, 1995 p.80).

1. Does explicit strategy training in strategies for speaking skill have an effect on learners' awareness of the speaking strategies in six strategy groups?

The questionnaire and the interviews made it clear that the participants in the study were not aware of appropriate strategies for speaking at the beginning of the semester. However, after the training period the results of the Pre- and Post questionnaires and the interviews showed that there have been significant differences in participants' awareness of the strategies for speaking especially in the Experimental group. There have been also significant differences in Control group's results. But through the informal interviews with Control group learners it is understood that the significance was the result of the development in their language learning not because of the use of appropriate strategies for speaking. The data obtained from the Pre- and Post-speaking questionnaires showed speaking strategies are teachable. Strategy training showed improvement in the frequency and variety of Experimental group learners' strategy use for speaking in English as the target language. The analysis of the Pre- and Post-speaking questionnaire results revealed that Experimental group learners are more aware of the speaking strategies as compared to the students in the Control group.

2. Which speaking strategies do learners in the Experimental group frequently use after the strategy-training process?

The increase between the Pre- and Post-speaking questionnaire results of the Experimental group was also a remarkable change. The analysis of the questionnaire, strategy diaries of the learners and the interviews revealed that the students in the Experimental group who received strategy training for speaking skill have a tendency to use compensation strategies frequently. Also metacognitive strategies and affective strategies were the other favoured strategies of the experimental group learners.

3. What are the learners' perspectives for strategy use in performing speaking tasks?

The result may also suggest that the students who are trained strategically are likely to gain their self confidence which is one of the metacognitive strategies more than those who are not trained. The results induced from the interviews with experimental group learners indicated that the use of the strategies assisted the learners in overcoming the difficulties they were confronted with and therefore the learners became more self-confident.

4. Does explicit strategy-based instruction in English language learning have an effect on students' speaking performances?

The findings obtained from the Pre-and Post-speaking tests indicate that the students in the Experimental group significantly improved their speaking test scores as compared to the students in the Control group.

Although it was recognised that training did not always show improvement for all individual students, the questionnaire and the diaries indicated that the students at least became aware of specific strategies that they could use to improve their speaking in a foreign language. It can be concluded that strategy training focused on conscious practice in using speaking strategies is likely to improve Experimental group learners' communication during simulated tasks.

When the research questions of this study were considered according to the results obtained from the data collection tools, those who were trained with strategies-based instruction for developing students' speaking skills are more successful than those who didn't get a similar training. The results of the strategy questionnaires and the Pre-and Post-speaking tests revealed that there are considerable differences between the two groups.

The students in the Experimental group did make a striking enhancement in both strategy use and in the post-speaking tests.

Those in the Control group, controversially maintained using the strategies being unaware of what is used for what. The increase in some of the strategies in questionnaires made a significant difference between pre-and post-questionnaires of the Control group. However, when compared to those in the Experimental group, it is observed that there are great differences between the two groups. It is also observed that the experimental group learners increased their compensation and affective strategies while studying the speaking strategies.

5.2. Implications For ELT

Dörnyei's study was consistent with our study's interest in providing introduction in the use of strategies for speaking in a foreign language. However it was limited to only three communication strategies. On the other hand, our study focused on exploring the full range of possible strategies across six strategy groups with an

emphasis on the skill of speaking. This thesis emphasizes a broad range of learning strategies that would contribute the students' efforts at speaking and communication in a foreign language. It was with this broad intention in mind that the current study was designed.

The results of this study reveal that strategy training can be fostered in speaking tasks. The study was conducted to determine whether strategies based on speaking instruction should have a role in foreign-language classroom. It would seem that the results of this study speak in favour of such a role.

If instructors systematically introduce strategies which can assist students in speaking the target language more effectively, the students may improve their performance in language tasks: Additionally explicitly describing, discussing and reinforcing strategies can have a direct payoff on student outcomes. Moreover, in the way of becoming independent learners, the use of strategies is very useful.

Bedir (1998) in his study conducted on investigating and implementing ELT students' reading strategies using the model CALLA in the treatment syllabus revealed that ELT students were not aware of reading strategies but it was vital that they acquire appropriate reading strategies to take control of their own learning and become better language learner.

The findings of the present study suggest that the participants should consciously use their interlanguage system to control their performance and to maintain interaction. In order to achieve these goals, learners' strategy competence can be developed through raising their awareness of managing and supervising specific strategy use.

The study also implicates that the integration of strategy training directly into the regular course and embedding strategies into daily language course produce positive results. Therefore the teacher can teach both the language content and language use strategies at the same time.

5.3. Suggestion For Further Research

The results of Pre- and Post-speaking strategy questionnaire of both groups and the Pre- and Post-speaking test conducted in our study showed that there were noteworthy differences between the experimental group learners and control group learners recording the strategy usage in speaking a foreign language.

Given that this type of strategy research is still in its initial stage further, in-depth investigations should be pursued to add to the findings of the present study. In particular, the current study was conducted with a small number of participants in a period of time.

The time was two-semester long but the retainment of the learned strategies should be research one year after the training. (Huang) for example, because the research was conducted in real classroom settings within two-semester, there wasn't enough time to measure the retainment of the strategies concerning the longitudinal effects of the strategy training on the students' speaking proficiency. Hence, it was crucial importance to scrutinize whether the experimental groups' advantage lasts for a long time and whether the oral communication strategies that they gained are accessible for their future target language study beyond the classroom.

The sample size in this study as maintained above was normal to conduct the research but the larger sample size may allow to search for the increase of strategy use of both the more and less proficient learners.

Another suggestion for further research would be to study whether the learners transfer their strategy training into performance in subsequent language classes.

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APPENDIX 1**SPEAKING STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE****Name:****Class:**

- 1) I put new words in sentences or other contexts so I can remember them
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 2) I use rhymes to remember new English words
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 3) I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 4) I review new items often.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 5) I say expressions repeatedly to practice them.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 6) I try to talk like native English speakers.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 7) I practice the sounds or letters of the new language.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 8) I recognize and use formulas and patterns of speech.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 9) I try to find patterns in English.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 10) I use the words and phrases I have learned in new phrases or sentences.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 11) I start conversations whenever I meet with native or proficient speakers of English
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 12) I use a dictionary, a grammar book or other resources to help me send and receive messages.
Yes ☐ No ☐

- 13) I try to say what I want to express with some general rules I have learned before even if I don't know the right rule
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 14) I try to say things directly from English without translating from my native language.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 15) I put my native language word in a sentence if I don't know the English word..
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 16) I ask for assistance in the middle of communication to help get my message across by hesitating or explicitly asking for the missing information.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 17) I use mime or gestures during my speech to get my message across clearly.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 18) When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English I use gestures to express.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 19) I avoid some topics that I don't know the words, concepts or grammatical structure in the new language while speaking.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 20) I select the topics that I know I can talk about since I am interested in it and I have the needed vocabulary and structures.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 21) I change or simplify my desired message by omitting information I can't express.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 22) I make up new words if I don't know the right ones in English.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 23) I use a synonym or describe the word I want to communicate if I don't know the word.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 24) I try to find as many ways as I can speak English.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 25) I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
Yes ☐ No ☐

- 26) I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 27) I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 28) I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 29) I look for people I can talk to in English.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 30) I think about my progress in speaking English.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 31) I try to understand the purpose of the language tasks that I do
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 32) I plan ahead for a speaking task like learning the vocabulary for the speech I
have to give.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 33) I seek practice occasions by watching TV, going to parties or social groups.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 34) I identify the errors I make in producing English.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 35) I use relaxation techniques like deep breathing or mediation to help me cope
with the stress of speaking English
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 36) I use humor or listen to classical music before giving a presentation to help me
relax.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 37) I encourage myself to speak English even when I'm afraid of making a mistake.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 38) I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 39) I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
Yes ☐ No ☐
- 40) I talk to someone else about how I feel when I'm speaking English.
Yes ☐ No ☐

41) If I don't understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again or explain it.

Yes ☐ No ☐

42) I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.

Yes ☐ No ☐

43) I practice English by talking with other students.

Yes ☐ No ☐

44) I ask for help from English speakers.

Yes ☐ No ☐

45) I ask questions in English.

Yes ☐ No ☐

APPENDIX 2

SPEAKING TEST SCALE

Overall impression	Score	Grammatical Accuracy	Score	Vocabulary	Score	Pronunciation	Score
<i>Adequacy of response to task; effectiveness of communication, content, expression</i>		<i>control of grammar</i>		<i>control of vocabulary</i>		<i>control of pronunciation</i>	
appropriate response to task / situation; all task demands met message clear consistently demonstrates understanding responds with thorough, thoughtful answers	39	structures used adequate and appropriate for task; highly accurate; very few errors in morphology/syntax errors do not compromise meaning	24	excellent range of vocabulary fluent with few or no breaks or hesitations	24	Error-free intonation and pronunciation	10
appropriate response to task/situation; most task demands met message fairly clear usually demonstrates understanding responds with sufficient detail	35	structures used adequate and appropriate for task; good control of major (basic) structures; some errors in morphology/syntax few patterned errors errors do not appreciably compromise meaning	22	vocabulary range adequate for level and task fairly fluent with minor breaks or hesitations	22	Pronunciation free of major errors; intonation accurate	9
response to task / situation not completely appropriate; some task demands not adequately addressed parts of message unclear demonstrates some miscomprehension gives general narrow response	31	attempts made to use structures that are appropriate for task inconsistency and errors on major (basic) structures; syntactic/morphological errors some errors compromise meaning	19	word choice limited, relies on simple vocabulary performance characterized by hesitations or breaks	19	Pronunciation shows some major errors, intonation acceptable	8

attempt made to communicate; does not fulfill most task demands response to task / situation inappropriate frequently demonstrates miscomprehension of details avoids using the target language, resorts to English or no response	28	attempts made to use structures that are appropriate for task errors on major (basic) structures; syntactic/morphological errors patterned errors errors often compromise meaning	17	word choice inadequate for task or level performance characterized by hesitations or breaks	17	Pronunciation or intonation errors compromise understanding	7
almost none of responses appropriate to task/situation demonstrates global miscomprehension avoids using the target language, resorts to English or no response	24	little evidence of control of structures necessary for the task grammar highly inconsistent; predominated by errors/inaccuracies patterned errors errors severely compromise meaning	15	word choice inadequate for task or level performance characterized by major breaks and hesitations	15	Pronunciation or intonation errors compromise meaning	6
communication breakdown no appropriate responses/questions or no attempt made to communicate	20	grammar control inadequate for task too little production to evaluate errors block meaning	13	word choice inadequate for task or level, too little production to evaluate	13	Pronunciation or intonation errors predominate, block meaning	5

APPENDIX 3

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DETERMINING LANGUAGE LEARNING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

1. *Setting long-term goals* First set some long-term goals for yourself. To do this, answer the following questions:

a. Why are you learning this language? (check one or more)

- ☐ For advancement
☐ For good grades
☐ For a new or better job
☐ For travel
☐ Because the language is required for graduation
☐ To get to know people from the new culture
☐ Because it's fun
☐ Other (list) _____

b. Which skills are the most important to you? Given the purposes you have identified, decide which skills are the most important and how you need to spend your learning time. Indicate below the importance of each skill area (1 = least important, 5 = most important). Then indicate how proficient you want to become in each of these skills (low, medium, high).

Skill	Importance (list 1 to 5)	Desired proficiency (list Low, Med, High)
Listening	_____	_____
Speaking	_____	_____
Reading	_____	_____
Writing	_____	_____

c. On the basis of your purposes for learning the language and of your skills priorities, what are your long-term goals for learning the new language for the next months or years? Sample goals: being able to hold a long social conversation in the new language; reaching a certain overall proficiency level; being able to give instructions in the new language without constantly using a dictionary. Goals should be realistic.

Now go back and write down a date for each goal—a time by which you expect to reach the goal. Setting such a date will enable you to check your progress toward meeting your goals.

2. *Setting your objectives* After you have set long-term goals, set yourself some short-term objectives, too. These are aims for the next few hours, days, or weeks. Sample short-term objectives include memorizing a set of vocabulary words; mastering the past tense of regular verbs; reading a specific text or complete a particular assignment. Some of these objectives might take only a few hours, while others might take several weeks. Again, set a deadline for yourself for achieving these objectives so you can check your progress. (Repeat this process as needed.)

3. Now put this questionnaire in your language learning notebook to remind you of your goals and objectives. Review periodically so that you will remember them and gear your learning toward them. Revise them as needed.

APPENDIX 4

SELF REFLECTIONS ON LANGUAGE LEARNING



Self-Reflections on Language Learning

HOW DO YOU LEARN A LANGUAGE?

1 How do you like to learn a language? What is successful for you?

- | | |
|---|--|
| ☐ Reading with a dictionary | ☐ Reading without a dictionary |
| ☒ Reading a textbook | ☐ Reading authentic materials (stories, ads, and so on) |
| ☒ Making vocabulary lists | ☒ Learning songs |
| ☐ Watching TV | ☒ Speaking with classmates |
| ☒ Listening to the radio | ☒ Speaking with native speakers |
| ☐ Listening to tapes and repeating | ☒ Using a computer |
| ☐ Learning dialogues | ☒ Translating |
| ☒ Studying grammar | ☐ Videotaping yourself |
| ☒ Writing letters | ☐ Studying with friends |
| ☐ Writing stories | ☒ Focusing on pronunciation and intonation |
| ☒ Studying by yourself | |

OTHER WAYS:

2 What do you like best: reading, listening, writing, or speaking? Why?

I like speaking best. Because sometimes I'm speaking English fluently.

3 What do you like least: reading, listening, writing, or speaking? Why?

I don't like writing, because I don't write very well.

4 Imagine your friend is planning to study [target language]. Write a letter giving advice about the best ways to learn. Include at least five specific things your friend should do.

Dear Anna,
You should learn English words and you should like English. You should listen to the English music.

APPENDIX 5

STRATEGY DIARY (NAKATANI, 2005)

Review :what did you learn last week?

Objectives of this lesson

1. Useful expressions and grammar
2. Words and phrases

Metacognitive strategy training

1)Before the task:Preview your performance.

Goal and Procedures:

Required linguistic resources:

Planning how you should react to your partner:

Advance organization: Utilize your knowledge of the context.

2) During the task: Interact with your partner.

a) Attending to the oral communication strategies

Appeal for help:

Confirmation checks:

Clarification requests:

Maintenance:

Asking for repetition:

Comprehension checks:

Using fillers:

Offering assistance:

b) Monitoring:Monitor your comprehension and production.

3) After the task:Self-assessment.

Review your performance and evaluate your oral communication strategy use.

Evaluate your task objectives.

4)Assimilation: Reflect on what you have learned.

APPENDIX 6

STUDENT- TEACHER CLASSROOM CONTRACT

Student-Teacher Classroom Contract

Characteristics of
a good teacher

- answering questions
- sensitive
- authority
- respectful
- friendly
- interesting

Characteristics of
a good learners

- respectful
- active
- do homework
- organized
- listening carefully
- responsible
- pay attention

Burcu Burcu ATIK
teacher



Zeynel Özmen



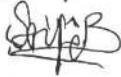
Hamdi Toklu



Hüseyin^{Tolga} Öksüz



Şerife Balta



Esra Bal



Hasan Uysal



Bircan Kara



Murat Gökhan Aslan



Ebru Kurt



Hasan Fatih Okutan



Türkan Kılınc



Ayşe Burcu Erçen



Date: 11. 10. 2006
Monday

APPENDIX 7

POSITIVE STATEMENTS

- I understand a lot more of what is said to me now
- I'm a good speaker.
- I pay attention well
- I enjoy speaking the new language.
- I can express what I want to say without knowing every word.
- I'm speaking faster and better than I was a month ago.
- People understand me better now.
- I had a very successful conversation today.
- I can tell my fluency is increasing day-by-day.
- Speaking helps me discover what's on my mind.
- I don't have to know everything I'm going to tell before I start.
- I'm confident and secure about my progress
- I'm taking risks and doing well.
- It's okay if I make mistakes.
- Everybody makes mistakes; I can learn from mine!



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APPENDIX 8

MY SPEAKING LOG

Name: _____ Date: _____

My SPEAKING Log

NEW STRATEGY	AIM OF THE STRATEGY	DATE
1. _____	_____	_____
2. _____	_____	_____
3. _____	_____	_____
4. _____	_____	_____
5. _____	_____	_____
6. _____	_____	_____
7. _____	_____	_____
8. _____	_____	_____
9. _____	_____	_____
10. _____	_____	_____
11. _____	_____	_____
12. _____	_____	_____
13. _____	_____	_____
14. _____	_____	_____
15. _____	_____	_____

KIDS WHO COMMUNICATE ARE THE ONES WHO SUCCEED!

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CURRICULUM VITAE

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