**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY**
**ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY**
**INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL STUDIES**
**ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT**

# IMPROVING ADULT EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING SKILLS THROUGH STRATEGIES-BASED INSTRUCTION

**Gülten GENÇOĞLU**

**MASTER OF ARTS**

**ADANA/2011**

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**Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Hasan BEDİR**

**MASTER OF ARTS**

**ADANA/2011**

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# ÖZET

## STRATEJİ-TEMELLİ EĞİTİM VASITASIYLA YETİŞKİN DİL ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNİN GELİŞTİRİLMESİ

**Gülten GENÇOĞLU**

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**Temmuz 2011, 110 sayfa**

Dil öğrenicilerinin, günlük hayatta hedef dille ne kadar karşı karşıya kaldıklarıyla orantılı olarak belirlenen yabancı dil ve ikinci dil arasındaki farklılık İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanında dikkatleri üzerine çekmektedir. Yabancı dil, öğrenildiği toplumda direk iletişim aracı olarak kullanılma özelliğine sahip değildir. Türkiye'de hazırlık sınıfı eğitimi almakta olan üniversite öğrencilerinin çoğunluğu, sınıfta öğrendikleri dilbilgisi kurallarını, sınıf ortamı dışında kullanamamaktadırlar; bu yüzden, bu öğrenciler ikinci dil öğrenicilerinden ziyade yabancı dil öğrenicileri olarak adlandırılabilirler. Kritik dönemden sonra, ana dilin yanında başka yabancı dillerin öğrenim sürecinin tam bir başarı ile sonuçlanabilmesi mümkün değildir. Diğer becerilerle kıyaslandığında daha fazla gayretli çalışmayı gerektiren, motivasyon seviyesi, sınıfta kullanılan materyaller, öğrencinin yeterlilik seviyesi, öğrencilerin öğrenim gördükleri ortamdaki atmosfer, İngilizce pratik yapma adına sahip oldukları fırsatlar, ve kullanılan stratejiler gibi faktörlerin etkisi altında kalan konuşma becerisi bu çalışmanın esas ilgi alanını oluşturmaktadır.

İyi seçilmiş stratejilerin, İngilizce konuşurken karşılaşılabilecek güçlüklerin giderilmesinde destekleyici etkilerinin farkında olan yetişkin dil öğrenicileri, duygularını, düşüncelerini sözlü olarak ifade edeceklerinde, kendilerini daha rahat ve güvende hissederler. Bu çalışmanın amacı, yetişkin dil öğrencilerinin strateji kullanımı bilincini artırarak konuşma becerilerini geliştirmektir. Bu amacın gerçekleştirilmesi safhasında üniversite hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerine strateji eğitimi verilecektir.

Çalışma, yaşları 18 ile 21 arasında değişen 72 üniversite hazırlık sınıfı öğrencisi üzerinde uygulanmıştır. Bu çalışma denek ve kontrol olmak üzere iki grup ile yürütülmüştür. Kontrol grubuna eğitimin verilmez iken çalışmanın devam ettiği dört ay

boyunca denek grubundaki öğrencilere strateji eğitimi verilmiştir. Data, konuşma stratejileri anketi, konuşma testi, yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşme, araştırmacı günlüğü ve öğrencilerden strateji eğitiminin verildiği her dersin son beş dakikasında toplanılan içerisinde strateji eğitimiyle alakalı kısa değerlendirmelerinin bulunduğu kâğıtlar aracılığı ile toplanmıştır. Eğitim öncesi ve sonrası konuşma stratejileri anketleri ile eğitim öncesi ve sonrası konuşma testleri paired sample t-test ve independent sample t-test kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Niteliksel ve niceliksel verilerden ortaya çıkan bulgular strateji temelli eğitim vasıtasıyla denek grubundaki öğrencilerin konuşma becerilerinin ve strateji-temelli eğitimin konuşma becerileri üzerindeki olumlu etkisi hakkındaki farkındalıklarının arttığını göstermiştir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Dil öğrenme stratejileri, Konuşma stratejileri, Strateji eğitimi, Farkındalık yaratma.

# ABSTRACT

## IMPROVING ADULT EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING SKILLS THROUGH STRATEGIES-BASED INSTRUCTION

**Gülten GENÇOĞLU**

**Master of Arts, English Language Teaching**
**Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Hasan BEDİR**
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The distinction between foreign and second language has been the center of attention in English Language Teaching field, which is explained with the quantity of exposed target language input in everyday life of language learners. A Foreign Language does not have immediate communicative functions in the society where it is learned. University prep-class students in Turkey do not possess the opportunity to practice the linguistic rules of English they learn in classroom environment, thus they can be named as Foreign Language Learners. Following the critical period, acquiring other languages aside from the mother tongue with complete success by the medium of unconscious process is improbable. The major concern of this study, improving speaking skill, is influenced by lots of factors such as motivation level, methods and materials used in the classroom, level of proficiency, and atmosphere of the setting where the learners are taught, the amount of chances for practicing the target language. The strategies applied specifically for improving speaking skill occupies a crucial place in this study.

Adult learners who are aware of the supportive effect of well-chosen strategies to overcome the difficulties they come across with in due course of speaking English feel more secure and relaxed when the time for expressing thoughts, emotions, needs through verbal communication comes. The aim of this study is to improve the speaking skills of Adult EFL Learners through heightening their awareness of strategy usage.

This study was conducted on 72 university prep-class students whose age rank differs between 18-21 years. Two groups, experimental and control groups were examined in this study. The experimental group students were exposed to strategy training relevant to speaking skill for four months, the duration of this particular study,

while the control group did not receive any treatment. Five different instruments were utilized to collect the data: speaking strategies questionnaire, speaking test, semi-structured interview, researcher's diary, and minute papers gathered from the experimental group participants in the last five minutes of each lesson following the strategy training and including their thoughts, feelings about the strategies being taught. Pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaires and pre-post-speaking tests were analyzed by independent sample t-test and paired sample t-test. Findings obtained from the qualitative and quantitative data showed that the speaking skills of the experimental group and their awareness on the positive impact of strategy usage on the improvement of speaking skill raised.

**Keywords:** Language learning Strategies (LLSs), Speaking strategies, Strategies-based Instruction, awareness-raising

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## ABBREVIATIONS

**LLSs:** Language Learning Strategies

**L2:** Second Language

**CSs:** Communication Strategies

**SBI:** Strategies-based instruction

**ZPD:** Zone of Proximal Development

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# CHAPTER I

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. Introduction

Even though English is not the first language regarding the number of native language speakers, it has turned out to be the lingua franca of the World. The economic and cultural impact of the United States has paved the way toward the prevailed use of English in various areas of the globe. It has become the medium of technology, and commerce etc. that have channeled lots of people in Turkey like the others in other parts of the World toward engaging into attempts to learn English.

Out of the four basic skills speaking is at the heart of second language learning (Egan, 1999). One of the most prevailing comments confronted among English Language Learners is that they can understand what they read and write despite the probability of making mistakes in writing and understanding the texts incorrectly; however, they complain about not being capable of transferring their feelings, ideas through oral language. As Brown (2000) states successful language acquisition is a display of capability of successful oral communication in the target language with other speakers. The statement brings forth the significance of developing speaking skills indicating competent language acquirers. Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning comprising producing and receiving information (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997). The knowledge of a language is specifically measured by the level of proficiency in oral production. There is an inclination towards keeping developed speaking skills equal to the knowledge of the target language. Brown takes the attention to the question “Do you speak English?” which has an underlying meaning of “Can you carry on a conversation reasonably competently?” (Brown, 2000, p. 267).

Applied Linguistics has shifted the research area from teaching to learning and learning to learn during the years following the 1960s (Cohen & Weaver, 2005). The change in favor of learning and learner placed a substantial importance on learner-centered approach rather than teacher-centered approach. This tendency paved the way to learners and a large amount of research was administered to detect the traits of good language learners which can be exemplified with *The Good Language Learner* (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern & Toedesco, 1978). In the research the authors listed the

common characteristics of good language learners. Rubin (1975) states that good language learners are competent at making accurate guesses; possess strong attempts to make use of the chances for communication. Stern (1975) published an article on good language learners driving profit from strategies. Rubin and Thompson (1982) expand the features shared by good language learners via mentioning *finding their own way, being creative, making their own opportunities for practice.*

The characteristics of good language learners have become an interest focus for the researchers which might be explained with the desire to be capable of transforming poor language learners into more proficient learners by the medium of good language learner features. Under the impact of the searches carried out to figure out these traits, the strategies utilized by the good language learners during language learning and language use have turned out to be the core point of investigation (Bedir, 2010; Brown, 1991; Cohen, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Weinstein & Mayer, 1983; Wenden, 1991; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Selinker (1972) in his paper *Interlanguage* used the term 'strategies of second language communication' by which he made a reference to the strategies supporting students whilst showing efforts to overcome the problems they encounter in their journey of language learning. The strategies accompany the learners as promoters in their language learning process through converging them into conscious learners about looking for a way out when facing difficulties.

Oxford (1990, p. 1) defines language learning strategies (LLSs) as "the steps taken by the students to enhance their own learning" and states that for the first time learning strategies are becoming widely recognized from a general perspective in the field of education. As maintained by Dörnyei (2005) the concept of language learning strategy has received a significant focus in the field of L2. In the 1980s so as to categorize and define LLSs researchers have put forth lots of definitions and taxonomies for LLSs such as O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990). Out of these taxonomies and classifications, the one produced by Oxford (1990) has created a tremendous impact in the realm of SLA. Oxford divided LLSs into two parts: direct and indirect strategies. Under the title of direct strategies she put memory, cognitive and compensation strategies and placed social, affective, and metacognitive strategies under the heading of indirect strategies. Interrelationships between direct and indirect strategies are presented as a fundamental factor for a better application of LLSs. The taxonomy of O' Malley and Chamot (1990) is similar to the one brought forth by

Oxford. They categorize learning strategies into three main classes: cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies.

In the 1990s, there was a growing tendency toward the implementation of LLSs in the classroom. The concern was whether the LLSs could enhance students' learning in the target language by experimenting with new strategies or already existing ones. Cohen, Weaver and Li (1996) conducted research at the University of Minnesota with intermediate level French and Norwegian learners to determine the impact of LLSs on the improvement of speaking proficiency of the learners.

Learning strategies became one of the most promising topics worth carrying out research on the broader field of educational psychology in the 1980s (Dörnyei, 2005). The researchers have especially been interested in what makes difference between good and poor language learners. They have conducted further studies to find out the variations in speed of learning, ability to use the target language, and in achieving examination grades, areas which generally lead to the classification of students as being either 'good' or 'poor' (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern & Toedesco, 1978; Rubin, 1975; Rubin & Thompson, 1982; Stern, 1975). Finding out the features of good language learners and particularly the strategies used in order to be more successful language learners might get over the obstacles hindering poor language learners from tasting the indispensible satisfaction of success. Good language learners are aware of the procedure they go through during learning. They continue improving their skills even after the completion of the class hours at school and since they take for granted the strategies which can facilitate the process by means of overcoming the obstacles every learner can face in formal and informal settings, they deserve to be named as "good language learners".

Integrating LLSs into the regular flow of the courses by teachers could create the atmosphere for learning how to use LLSs for transforming poor language learners into good and successful language learners, which can be correlated with becoming self-regulated learners. Learning LLSs and learning to use learning strategies is a determiner of the emergence of more autonomous learners in the language learning World. Developing speaking skill can be realized through the application of compensation, social, affective, memory, metacognitive and cognitive strategies so as not to come across with communication breakdown. Therefore, integration of explicit teaching of LLSs into language learners' regular courses could help learners raise their consciousness on LLSs and increase their speaking proficiency level. This study

corresponds with Vygotsky's Social Cognitive Theory which suggests that students can obtain mature thinking via observing how teachers and other experts approach the learning tasks and by practicing expert processes with coaching from the teachers.

## 1.2. Statement of the Problem

A famous phrase uttered by Peter Strevens (cited in Oxford, 1990, p. 193) 'It takes better teachers to focus on the learner' emphasizes the significance of considering language learners at the center of language classes. The needs, demands of the students should act as a determining factor in the design of the courses. Due to the essential status of English in technology, commerce etc., students and parents have started to concentrate upon learning English. Egan (1999, p. 277) utters "Speaking is arguably the most important skill for business and government personnel in the field…." Students in Turkey will have had approximately eight years of English course till the time for university education comes. The majority of university prep-class students cannot speak English despite the fact they are eager to be able to express their ideas, feelings, thoughts more competently through oral production.

Fluency is one of the significant features of speaking. One of the most noticeable dimensions along which second language learners differs is fluency, which is the temporal aspects oral production influencing the degree of fluidity in speech (Derwing, Munro, Thomson & Rossiter, 2009). Hartmann and Stork (1976) suggest that "a person is said to be a fluent speaker of a language when he can use its structures accurately whilst concentrating on content rather than form using the units and patterns at normal conversational speed when they are needed." According to Brumfit (1984) fluency is "to be regarded as natural language use." Derwing, Munro and Thomson (2007) stress the importance of comprehensibility by emphasizing the influence of fluency and automaticity of production at the same time for successful communication.

Interacting in L2 outside the territory of classrooms is a prerequisite to attain developed fluency, in other words the quantity of exposed input in L2 is an influential factor while trying to gain fluency. However, the majority of Turkish university prep-class students do not have enough chance to practice what they learn during the courses after the completion of class hours with native speakers or EFL/ESL learners. In addition, the personality dimension occupies a considerable part in the speaking proficiency level of the students as noted by Dörnyei (2005) in his book '*The*

*Psychology of the Language Learner'*. Dörnyei states "Extraversion is a drive for learners to be more fluent in L2 and L1 and introverts can benefit less from speaking activities requiring participation in communicative tasks and situations" (pp. 26-27).

Students find themselves under the suppression of anxiety when they start to talk in English. The fear of not being able to get the appreciation of their peers, teachers results in not having enough self-motivation and losing self esteem. Such kind of handicaps can be treated through the usage of affective strategies which are the powerful fighters against the psychological barrier students, especially adults, are prone to experience.

Second Language Learners consciously or unconsciously use LLSs. It is perceived that using LLSs makes language learning process much more easier, profitable (Chamot, 1993; Cohen, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990b; Rubin, 1975; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). An indispensible amount of research has pointed the positive effect of strategy training and use on the improvement of speaking skill (Cohen & Olshtain, 1993; Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1996; Dadour & Rubins, 1996; Nunan, 1996; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Sufficient training on effectiveness of LLSs has not been provided to adult EFL learners and quite expectedly, the students are not aware of the facilitating effect lying behind the application of correct strategies. Cohen, Weaver and Li (1996) state "There have been relatively few studies investigating the benefits of providing second language learners with formal training in the applications of strategies for ***speaking***" (p. 6). Furthermore, the students may be utilizing the compensation, affective or cognitive strategies, yet they do not have the consciousness about what they are doing which is defined as operation (Huang, 2006).

### 1.3. Background to the Study

The door for the inclination toward thoroughly investigation of LLSs opened in the 1960s famous for the increasing focus on learner and learning to learn. Cohen & Weaver (2005) states:

> Educators drew from cognitive theory, based on the information processing model with two kinds of knowledge: declarative knowledge, which dealt with the facts; and procedural knowledge, which focused on the procedures for using declarative knowledge. The cognitive theory approach was a departure from the behaviorist stimulus-response approach to learning which had spawned the audio-lingual method of having learners practice

> patterns over and over until they learned them. The tendency was now directed toward a more reasoned, controlled learning of rules and accepting that some rules were learned or "acquired" automatically. (p. 5)

The 1970s were observed with the dominance of attempts made to figure out the characteristics of good language learners and the strategies they use in their demanding language learning process. It was thought that successful language learners possess some outstanding traits when compared with the poor language learners. As a result, understanding the strategies made use of by the good language learners would make the language learning process more proficient for the low-achieving language learners.

The 1980s were marked by the efforts shown for the classification of the LLSs. The categorizations made by Oxford (1990) and by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) created classification schemes containing cognitive, metacognitive, affective, social compensation, memory strategies.

Following the classification procedure of the strategies, experimenting with these strategies in the classroom with the tasks started to be implemented in the 1990s. An example of such experimentations took place in 1996 by Cohen, Weaver and Li at University of Minnesota on the impact of strategies-based instruction on speaking a foreign language. Strategies-based instruction requires focusing on the learner; in other words it can be defined as a learner centered approach to learning, which might be a means of creating autonomy of learners. Strategies-based instruction integrates the regular language courses of the learners with the strategy training and use (Oxford, 2001). Reaching a consensus on the definition of strategies based instruction has not been succeeded (Cohen, 1998; Dörnyei, 2005; Oxford, 1990b; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Besides the incompatibility on the definition of strategies-based instruction, a generally approved categorization of LLSs has not been achieved either.

### 1.4. Purpose of the Study

This study aims to develop speaking skills of university prep-class students through the implementation of strategies-based instruction in the classroom. Although speaking out of the other three skills - reading, writing, listening - is considered as an essential skill that is required by today's world, sufficient research has not been conducted on developing oral production of language learners so far. Taking this

insufficiency for granted, this current study aims at providing adult EFL learners with explicit strategy training for the benefit of improving speaking skills.

Strategies-based instruction may act as a facilitator when language learners perform rigorous efforts to go further in speaking. This study is carried out so as to realize six purposes:

**1)** Going through the relevant research on the strategies-based instruction and the interrelationship between strategies-based instruction and developing speaking skills.
**2)** Gathering information about the goals of the students in terms of developing their skills in English by the questionnaire given to the students at the beginning of the study.
**3)** Providing students of experimental group with training on strategies-based instruction to develop their speaking skill.
**4)** Raising the awareness of the students about the usefulness of speaking strategies when they try to overcome the shortcomings they could come across with during the conversations in target language.
**5)** Understanding the perceptions of the experimental group students about the effect of speaking strategies on the improvement of their production through speech.
**6)** Comparing the success of the experimental group students in speaking with that of the control group students who will not be exposed to strategy training.

### 1.5. Research Questions

The researcher aims to find out the answers of the questions below, which will shed light on the probable positive impact of strategies based instruction on the improvement of the speaking skills of the learners.

**1.** Do Turkish adult students bring any different problems from those in the related literature in English language speaking classes?
**2.** Are they aware of speaking strategies?
**3.** Do they use speaking strategies?

4. What type of strategies do they use before training?
5. Will there be any meaningful difference between the training group and the control group after training?
6. What type of speaking strategies do they use after training?

### 1.6. Assumptions and Limitations

Developing speaking skill cannot be restricted to the training sustained for four months, a term of an academic year. A considerable amount of time is needed to fulfill the capacity of carrying a conversation without any or decreased amount of shortcomings. However, the training constituting the basic skeleton of this study was conducted only for four months. A more longitudinal study would enlarge the insights about the influence of the strategy training on the development of the speaking skills of the adult EFL learners.

Gender was not a determining factor in the current study. Some research has supported the notion that speaking skill could be improved better among females.

Measuring the application of the strategies by the participants specifically during oral production out of the language classroom was not possible both alongside the administration and after completion of the data collection.

### 1.7. Operational Definitions

**Language Learning Strategies:** Specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in a second or foreign language learning (Oxford, 1999).

**Speaking strategies:** Specific techniques, steps taken by the students to improve themselves in speaking skills.

**Speaking strategy questionnaire:** A questionnaire including the strategies for developing speaking skills.

**Speaking Test:** An exam done to depict the speaking proficiency level of the students.

# CHAPTER 2

# REVIEW OF LITERATURE

## 2.1. Second/Foreign Language Learning

Second Language Learning refers to the efforts of the individuals trying to learn another language subsequent to their mother tongue (Saville-Troike, 2006). As Gass and Selinker (2008) state second language acquisition (SLA) is "the study of how second languages are learned". They continue by defining the field as "the study of how learners create a new language system with only limited exposure to the second language" (p.1). ESL/EFL learners' not attaining the same level of proficiency is a study field for SLA. Even though people are able to obtain an average level of success in their first language, it is not observable among second language learners. "In exploring SLA, many researchers advocated a processing approach that evaluates L2 learning as a process through which linguistic skills become automatic" (Jordan, 2004, p. 209).

Saville-Troike (2006) draws the attention to the diversity in learning and learners by focusing on the parallelism between the proficiency level of learner in the target language and the immersion in a setting where the learner needs the target language in order to meet his/her basic needs. What is learned, how a language is learned and why it is learned exert impact on the success of learners. A person's knowledge of a language, including first, second, third and so on, keeps developing when it is used (Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2005). The proficiency of the language learners in language skills is not stable and fixed to a level, it rather goes on improving in correlation with the increase in the exposure to the target language or it may go backwards resulting from the underuse of the target language.

A distinction is made between foreign and second language learning, which is not still clear-cut. Learning a second language and foreign language is differentiated from each other considering the place the target language is learned and what social and communicative functions the language serves during the continuation of the daily life. Second language is learned and used in a society where the majority of the inhabitants speak it natively; for example, a Turkish learner going to the USA to learn English. Foreign language does not provide the same immediate social and communicative functions like the one served by second language and a foreign language learner has

little or does not have opportunity for interaction by the target language with the native speakers. The differences between foreign and second language learning might be influential on the choice and implementation of the LLSs. Oxford emphasizes the fact that some learning strategies work better in second language contexts than in foreign language setting, or the opposite occasion may be witnessed (1990, p. 6). Nevertheless, as she states the majority of the LLSs can be applied to both of them.

What is taken into consideration with great enthusiasm in second language learning is that why some language learners perform better in their language learning journey than the others. Some non-language factors such as, age motivation, aptitude and socio-psychological influences and the well-known phenomenon of fossilization, receiving attention in SLA field since the middle part of the 20th century, are the points accumulating the focus for understanding the learner differences (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 395). Saville-Troike (2006) underlines the differences with the following words:

> The focus on learner differences in SLA has been most concerned with the question of *why* some learners are more successful than others. It arises in part from the **humanistic** framework within psychology, which has a long history in that discipline, but has significantly influenced second language teaching and SLA research only since the 1970s (in William and Burden 1997). This framework calls for consideration of emotional involvement in learning, such as affective factors of attitude, motivation, and anxiety level. This focus also considers biological differences associated with age and sex, as well as some differences associated with aspects of processing. (p. 27)

Two major learning theories advocating the use of language learning strategies are cognitive and social-cognitive models of learning. Cognitive models concentrate on mental processes of the learners and social-cognitive models of learning deal with the interaction between the individuals and the society where the interaction takes place between the learners and the others.

### 2.1.1. Cognitive Models of Learning

Cognitive models view language learning as an active, dynamic process in which learners select from incoming information, encode it into long-term memory, and retrieve it when needed (Chamot, Barnhart, El-Dinary & Robbins, 1999). Cognitive code learning was not so much a method as it was an approach that emphasized a

conscious awareness of rules and their applications to second language learning (Brown, 2000). According to cognitive models of learning two types of knowledge stores are available in long-term memory: the first one is declarative knowledge consisting of information we know about and procedural knowledge is the knowledge of how to perform skills and processes. Anderson (1976) states that declarative knowledge involves acquisition of isolated rules and facts; processing is slow and under attentional control. Development to the procedural stage involves processing of longer-associated units and automatization that frees the attentional resources for higher-level skills. Proceduralization requires practice (Saville-Troike, 2006).

Three cognitive learning models shedding light on how learning strategies work are information processing, schema theory and constructivism. Chamot et al. (1999, p. 157) note that these three models are the supporters of language learning strategies and the goal of guiding learners toward self-regulated learners.

#### 2.1.1.1. Information Processing

Information processing theory investigates the thinking processes connected with learning and remembering. Approaches based on Information processing are concerned with the mental processes involved in language learning and use. These include the perception and the input of new information; formation, organization, regulation of mental representations; and retrieval and output strategies (Saville-Troike, 2006, p. 73). These processes involve directing information from a person's immediate consciousness into that person's long-term memory. This theory stresses that learning requires processing new information through organizing it, elaborating it and associating it with the existing knowledge. McLaughlin (1987) states the assumptions deriving from Information processing approach:

**1)** Second language learning is the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill. In this respect language learning is like the acquisition of other complex skills.
**2)** Complex skills can be reduced to sets of simpler component skills, which are hierarchically organized. Lower-order component skills are prerequisite to learning of higher-order skills.
**3)** Learning of a skill initially demands learners' attention, and thus involves **controlled processing.**

**4)** Controlled processing requires considerable mental "space," or attentional effort.

**5)** Humans are limited-capacity processors. They can attend to a limited number of controlled processing demands at one time.

**6)** Learners go from controlled to **automatic processing** with practice. Automatic processing requires less mental "space" and attentional effort.

**7)** Learning essentially involves development from controlled to automatic processing of component skills, freeing learners' controlled processing capacity for new information and higher-order skills.

**8)** Along with development from controlled to automatic processing, learning also essentially involves **restructuring** or reorganization of mental representations.

**9)** Reorganizing mental representations as part of learning makes structures more coordinated, integrated, and efficient, including a faster response time when they are activated.

1**0)** In SLA, restructuring of internal L2 representations, along with larger stores in memory, accounts for increasing levels of L2 proficiency.

### 2.1.1.2. Schema Theory

Schema theory suggests that learning happens as we attempt to organize and understand life experiences in accordance with our pre-existing knowledge (Barlett, 1932; Anderson, 1984). The pre-existing knowledge is stored in organized structures called as schemata. Schemata might be scripts for specific situations. For instance, most of us know what will happen when we go to a restaurant. Having a schema or a parallel knowledge gives a chance in order to make predictions, visualize events, draw inferences, monitor comprehension, and create summaries. Learning strategies are essential to comprehend new knowledge under the light of existing knowledge. Chamot et al. (1999, p. 158) draw the attention to the transferability of first language schemata to the second language which is of great importance for the success of second language learners. Students' prior knowledge is perceived as crucial to comprehend the new knowledge (Cummins, 1996).

#### 2.1.1.3. Constructivism

The foundation of Bruner's constructivist theory is based on the study of cognition. Constructivism goes beyond schema theory by indicating a more interactive relationship between new knowledge and existing knowledge. According to constructivism learners actively construct meaning when they come across with new information (Spiro, 1980). Learners utilize their background knowledge as a prior step for the comprehension of new knowledge; then they use cognitive strategies as means to construct meaning from the new knowledge and their background knowledge.

### 2.1.2. Social-Cognitive Models of Learning

Social-cognitive theories emphasize that teaching and learning are social activities and hence, interaction with the teachers, peers influence the cognitive and affective developments of the learners (Kim & Baylor, 2006). Since foreign/second language learning does not take place in an isolated area, and there exists interaction either in formal or informal setting, the learner himself/herself and his/her perceptions, thoughts cannot be determined as the sole factors affecting learning. The title, social-cognitive models of learning, signals the content embedded in that model, social-cognitive models not only put emphasis on the individual learners both also on the social nature of learning and other factors, and how strategies can be taught. As Saville-Troike (2006) states interaction facilitates language learning and it is a causative force in language learning. Furthermore, learning is thought as possessing social process that is grounded in socio-cultural setting in social-cognitive models of learning. According to social-cognitive theory, learning occurs when simple innate mental activities are transformed to more complex mental functions.

#### 2.1.2.1. Bandura's Social-Cognitive Theory

Bandura's social-cognitive theory (1986) bases learning on complex, mutual interactions among behavior, environment, and personal factors. Social-cognitive theory emphasizes the role of personal motivation, the feeling of self-efficacy achieved subsequent to success at a relatively demanding task. The self-efficacy that the learner feels can help him/her persist till the attainment of success regardless of the handicaps

they encounter in the course of dealing with the tasks. Chamot et al. (1999) suggest that making use of convenient strategies can be effective in the development of self-efficacy among learners by creating success experiences and in addition, they could be referred to for the future achievement. The consciousness raised about *what strategy suits where* leads to the emergence of self-regulated learning.

#### 2.1.2.2. Self-Regulated Learning

According to self-regulated learning theories, cognitive, metacognitive, motivational strategies unite to realize effective learning (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1994; Zimmerman, 1990). Zimmerman (1989) argued that "students can be described as self-regulated to the degree that they are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in their own learning process" (p.4). Self-regulated learning covers the strategic and motivated efforts of the learners to be successful. Research shows that LLSs are the key factors to fulfill the goal directed toward the emergence of learner autonomy (Brown, 1994; Oxford, 1996; Skehan, 1998; Wenden, 1991; Yang, 1998). Self-regulated learners direct their attention to the implementation of the several cognitive strategies, such as predicting, visualizing, and summarizing. Furthermore, they have the notion of appropriate usage of the strategies; in other words, they can evaluate the appropriateness and efficiency of a strategy and maintain the preference of the specific strategies for the specific situations or replace the inappropriate strategies with more applicable ones.

As well as referring to cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies compose a substantial part of the strategies self-regulated learners utilize involving planning, monitoring, evaluating so as to simplify the learning process. Metacognition refers to knowledge, awareness, and regulation of one's thinking; growing literature indicates that the use of metacognitive processes is not merely a question of competence, but is a question of motivation (Zimmerman, 2009). It can be described as "a critical analysis of thought", "knowledge and cognition about cognitive phenomena" (Flavell, 1979). Self-regulated learners use metacognitive strategies, such as planning, monitoring, and evaluating. Chamot et al. (1999) add that self-regulated learners are motivated, the motivation they have stems from the preciseness about the accomplishment that could follow the implementation of the strategies they have learned.

### 2.1.2.3. Vygotsky's Social-Cognitive Theory

Vygotsky's social learning theory (1962, 1978) suggests that students can obtain mature thinking via observing how teachers and other experts approach the learning tasks and by practicing expert processes with coaching from the teachers. Intellectual development is achieved when learners engage in activities during the implementation of which they interact with others (Vygotsky, 1978). An alternative view of the role of interaction is based on social-cognitive theory (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978). Interaction not only facilitates language learning but is a causative force in acquisition. Saville-Troike (2006, p. 111) states that in social-cognitive theory, all of learning is seen as essentially social process that is based on socio-cultural settings. Learners can operate in their Zone of Proximal Development when teachers and more proficient others provide the support necessary to complete the task. Eventually, teachers start to provide less support and students begin to internalize the kinds of thoughts that they have observed and practiced (Chamot et al., 1999, p. 160).

### 2.1.2.4. The Zone of Proximal Development

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is an area of potential development where the learner can attain that potential only with assistance (Saville-Troike, 2006). According to the Social-Cognitive Theory, mental functions that are beyond individual's current level must be performed with the support of the peers, teachers and people around them before having the ability to perform the tasks on their owns. The Zone of Proximal *Development*, defined by Vygotsky (1978, p. 86) as: "the distance between the actual developmental 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 more capable peers." This explanation underlines the substantial effect of interpersonal activity in language learning, the rigorous impact of interaction with more proficient others to achieve the potential where learners have internalized the procedure used in due course of interpersonal activity and could find themselves accomplished to survive by themselves. Several social-cognitive models of learning stress the implementation of the learning strategies and suggest the ways by which these strategies could be taught. These learning theories advocate the explicit instruction of the language learning strategies that draws the attention to the metacognitive awareness of one's learning. They place importance on keeping in mind

the existing strategies of the students and improving individual understanding of strategies.

## 2.2. Language Learning Strategies

The term “strategy” is the key in order for a better understanding of language learning strategies. “Strategy” comes from an Ancient Greek term ***strategia*** which means generalship or the art of war (Oxford, 1990). Schmeck (1988) maintains that strategy was originally a military term, mentioning the plan for a large-scale operation, and in nonmilitary usage, it refers to the implementation of the tactics in order to accomplish something. Thus, a learning strategy is a “sequence of procedures for accomplishing learning” (p. 5). Strategy also involves the optimal management of the troops, ships or aircraft in a planned campaign. “Language learning strategies are the conscious thoughts or behaviors used by students to facilitate language learning tasks and to personalize the language learning process” (Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1996).

In addition, Oxford (1990) defines language learning strategies as: “learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations” (p. 8). Learning strategies are also defined as “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques - such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task - used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 63). An alternative definition of LLSs was offered by O’ Malley and Chamot (1990) with the following words: “LLSs are special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain information” (p. 1). According to a comprehensive definition by Oxford (1999b, p. 518), the construct refers to specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval or use of the new language.

Dörnyei (2005, p. 166) states that since its introduction into L2 field has been favored by the researchers and language teachers. Their facilitative function in the language learning journey and their leading movement towards the self-regulation among the learners might be among the explanations for the enthusiasm shown for language learning strategies. The researchers studying on LLSs may be identified primarily as an inquiry to detect the qualities of good language learners (Naiman et al.,

1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Wong-Fillmore, 1979). The results figured out that the success gained in language learning could not be just based on language aptitude and motivation; the active participation of the language learners in the process by the medium of the application of learning techniques was a determining factor in learners' turning into good language learners.

A learning strategy cannot be categorized as either good or bad. What makes a strategy positive for a given person? A strategy is useful if the following conditions are present: (1) the strategy relates well to the L2 task at hand; (2) the student employs the strategy effectively and links it with other relevant strategies for doing the task; and (3) the strategy coordinates with the student's general learning style preferences to one degree or another (Oxford, 2003).

### 2.2.1. Features of Language Learning Strategies

In Table 1 Oxford (1990) illustrates some of the features of language learning strategies.

Table 1
*Features of Language Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990)*

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

All appropriate language learning strategies are oriented toward the broad goal of communicative competence. Learning strategies help learners take part in the authentic

communication and such strategies function both in general and specific ways to back up the development of communicative competence (Oxford, 1990).

### 2.2.2. Why Language Learning Strategies?

Interest in LLSs has been expanding since the researchers started to discuss their influence in the improvement of language learning (Fewell, 2010). As Oxford puts forward they provide greater self-direction for the learners (1990). Self-direction is very essential for the learners and language learning process, because it is not attainable for the learners to consult their teachers and teachers' guidance all the time. Accomplishing the capability to continue the efforts to improve themselves in language learning journey consists of a substantial part of the success when they are alone; in other words, the movement toward self-regulation could be observable with the use of the LLSs. Randi and Corno (2000) highlighted the qualities of self-regulated learners as "learners who seek to accomplish goals strategically, and manage to overcome obstacles using a battery of resources" (p. 651).

Language learning strategies help learners turn into self-regulated learners, which is a prerequisite in order to make learners take more responsibility and as a consequence, create a prolific atmosphere for the occurrence of more fruitful learning. This situation challenges the traditionally accepted roles of the teachers including acting as a controller, manager, director, and replaces those roles by a facilitator, a guide. Teachers go on their profession as a fulfiller of instruction given on identifying learner strategies and training learners on the learning strategies.

The interest shown for studies conducted on LLSs can also be enlightened via its orientation around problems. Language learning strategies are tools; they are implemented to solve a problem, to accomplish goals. LLSs are conscious actions taken by the students to facilitate the language learning process. These learning strategies are indispensably significant contributors to learning; thus, they have been popularized in SLA field in the last thirty years (Oxford, 1990, p. 10-13).

### 2.2.3. Factors affecting the choice of the strategies

Studies have revealed that there might be many factors affecting the choice of the appropriate strategies such as degree of awareness, stage of learning, task requirements, teacher expectations, age, sex, nationality, general learning style,

personality traits, motivation level, and purpose for learning the language (Chamot, 1993; Cohen, 1996; Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 2003). The most intensively used ones are categorized into two topics as gender and cultural/ethnic background. (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 171).

Oxford (1996b) argues that since language learning is situated in the cultural context, cultural beliefs and perceptions are enormously important for the strategies learners adapt. More advanced learners use better strategies. Task requirements determine strategy preference, for instance the strategies utilized while writing a composition and the ones used for chatting at a café differ from each other. Older learners may use different strategies when compared with the younger learners. Cohen and Weaver (2005) highlight essential issues on the relation between the LLSs use and the age factor:

> The age of the learner may be an important variable in classifying strategies, as teachers who have taught wide age ranges can verify. In most cases, it is not an issue of whether the strategy itself is used only by older or younger learners, but rather one of how the strategy is described, since younger learners may not be familiar with terms used to describe such strategies. With older learners it may be possible to talk about metacognitive strategies used in planning, monitoring, and evaluating language tasks; whereas with young learners, it may be better to talk about strategies for thinking about what to do, looking at how it's going, and for checking up on how it went. (p. 37)

Recent studies underline females' making use of wider or diversified range of strategies when the strategies referred to by the males are taken into account. The learners with higher level of motivation use broader and appropriate range of strategies especially when less motivated learners are taken for granted (Oxford, 1990).

### 2.2.4. Classification of Language Learning Strategies

The classifications of learning strategies proposed by Oxford (1990) and by O'Malley & Chamot have long been appreciated by the researchers and scholars. Figure 1 illustrates a general overview of the system of language learning strategies by Oxford (1990).

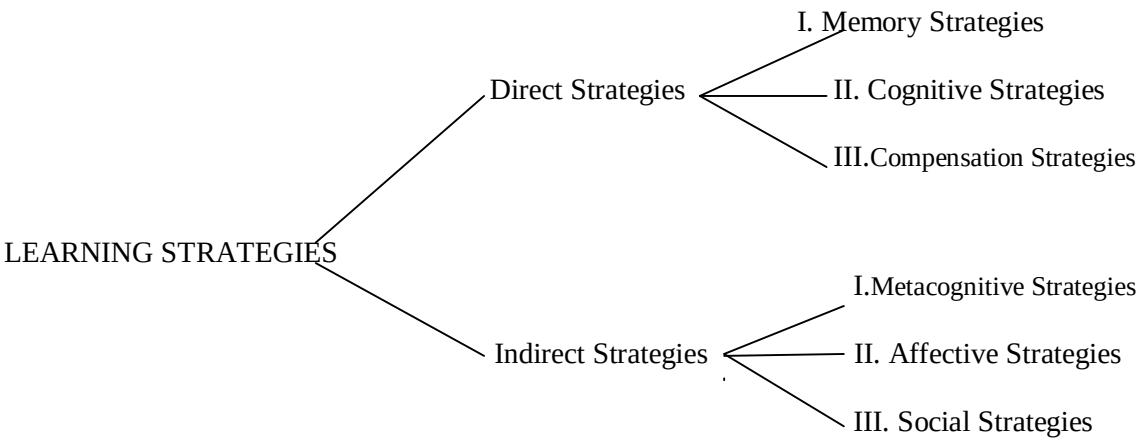
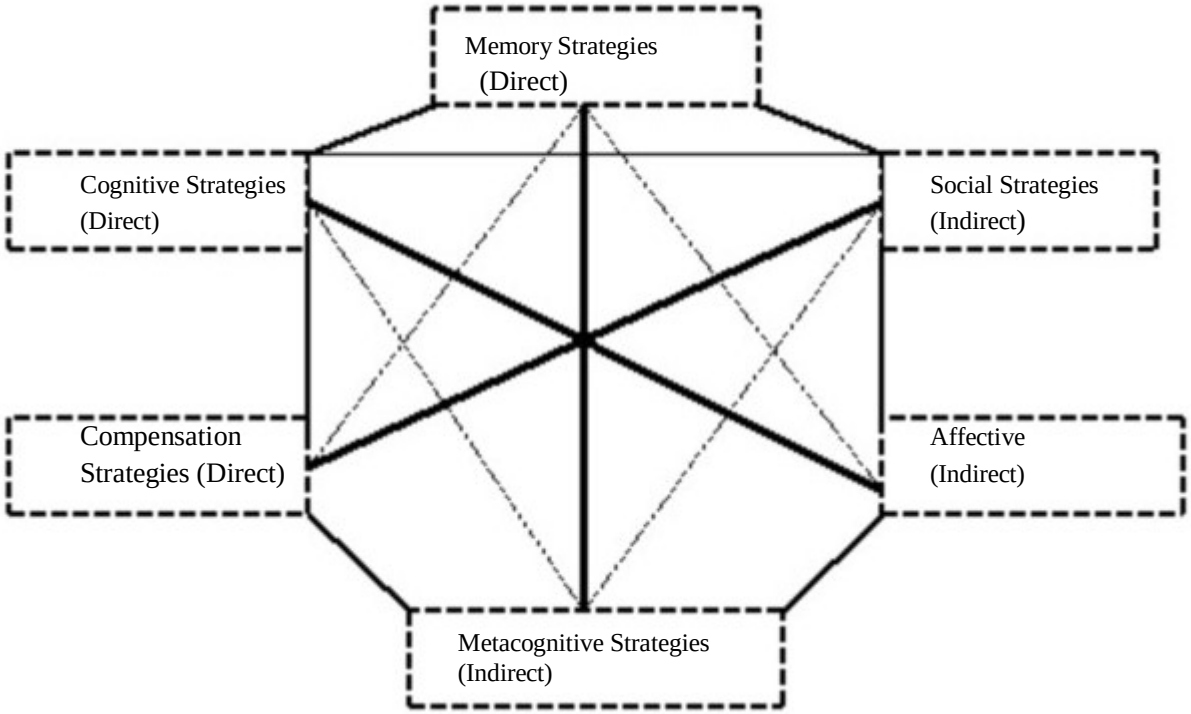



*Figure 1*. Language learning strategies system (Oxford, 1990)

She divides language learning strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect strategies. These two major classes are subdivided into six groups. Memory, cognitive and compensation strategies come together under direct strategies; social, affective and metacognitive strategies take their places under indirect strategies. Figure 2 indicates the reciprocal relationship between direct and indirect strategies.




F*igure 2.* The mutual relationship between direct and indirect strategies (Oxford, 1990)

Oxford (1990) explains the mutual support provided by direct and indirect strategies to the learners as follows:

> The first major class, direct strategies for dealing with the new language, is like the Performer in a stage play, working with the language itself in a variety of specific tasks and situations. 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 second major class-indirect for general management of learning-can be likened to the Director of the play. This class is made up of metacognitive strategies for coordinating the learning process, affective strategies for regulating emotions and social strategies for learning with others….. The director is an internal guide and support to 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. (pp. 14-16)

#### 2.2.4.1. Memory Strategies

Memory strategies, which are sometimes called mnemonics, have been applied for a long time. Memory strategies are comprised of four sets: creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, and employing actions (Oxford, 1990). Memory strategies are more effective when the learner simultaneously uses metacognitive strategies, like paying attention, and affective strategies, like reducing anxiety through deep breathing. Memory strategies enable learners to store verbal material and then retrieve it when needed for communication. Grouping, associating/elaborating, using imagery, using key words, structured reviewing, representing sounds in memory are among the strategies of the strategy group, memory strategies.

#### 2.2.4.2. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are significant in learning a foreign language. Regardless of the variety observed in cognitive strategies, unification is achieved by a common feature: manipulation and transformation of the target language by the learner. They are known as the most commonly preferred strategies by the language learners. Repeating, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, getting the idea quickly, reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, translating, transferring, taking notes, summarizing are the strategies to be presented under the strategy group, cognitive strategies.

### 2.2.4.3. Compensation Strategies

Compensation strategies give chance to language learners so as to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite the deficiency in the target language knowledge. Compensation strategies are addressed in order to compensate for the insufficient knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. Two strategy sets for compensation strategies are available in the literature: guessing intelligently in listening and reading, and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. Using linguistic clues, using other clues, switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime and gesture, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, using a circumlocution or synonym are the strategies encompassed under the strategy group, compensation strategies.

### 2.2.4.4. Metacognitive Strategies

Oxford (1990) defines metacognitive as beyond, beside, or with the cognitive. Hence, metacognitive strategies are actions going further the cognitive strategies, and providing learner to take control of their own learning. Oxford extends the importance of the metacognitive strategies with the following words:

> Metacognitive strategies are essential for successful language learning. Language learners are overwhelmed by too much 'newness'_ unfamiliar vocabulary, confusing rules, different writing systems, seemingly inexplicable social customs, and (in enlightened language classes) nontraditional instructional approaches. With all this novelty, many learners lose their focus, which can only be regained by the conscious use of metacognitive strategies such as paying attention and overviewing/linking with already familiar material. (p. 136)

Metacognitive strategies are comprised of three strategy sets: centering your learning, arranging and planning your learning, evaluating your learning. Overviewing and linking with already known material, paying attention, finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language

task, planning for a language task, self-monitoring, self-evaluating are the strategies of the strategy group, metacognitive strategies.

#### 2.2.4.5. Affective strategies

Affective factors unquestionably play tremendously essential roles at times of oral production. The majority of the good language learners are those capable of struggling with the immense impact of the affective factors. Taking the purpose of this study into account, affective strategies can undergo a facilitating role adult EFL learners utilize to free themselves of the generally negative effect of the emotions or other factors subsuming the term *affective*.

There exist three strategy sets under the strategy group affective: lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself, taking your emotional temperature. Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation, using music, using laughter, taking risk wisely, rewarding yourself, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary, discussing your feelings with somebody else are strategies belonging to this strategy group.

#### 2.2.4.6. Social Strategies

Language cannot be constrained to the individuals, since it is a kind of social behavior. As Oxford (1990, p. 144) states language is communication and communication occurs between and among people. Therefore, it involves other people and practicing with native speakers, more proficient peers, and teachers supports the improvement of the speaking skills of the adult language learners, which occupies the core point of this study. Three sets appear in social strategies: asking questions, cooperating with others, empathizing with others. Asking for clarification, asking for correction, cooperating with peers, developing cultural understanding, becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings, cooperating with proficient users of the new language are the strategies accumulated under the social strategies.

According to Dörnyei (2005) the classification of LLSs offered by O'Malley & Chamot (1990) is quite similar to the one proposed by Oxford (1990). The common classification is that both focus on three main classes, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. Dörnyei (2005, p. 169) claims

that with some changes executed on the strategy systems of Oxford (1990) and O'Malley & Chamot (1990), a new typology of the strategy categorization would be as:
Cognitive Strategies
Metacognitive Strategies
Social Strategies
Affective Strategies

### 2.2.5. Language Learning and Language Use Strategies

Cohen (1998) emphasizes the difference between language learning and language use strategies. Language learning strategies increase target language knowledge and understanding, yet defines second language (L2) use strategies as conscious techniques employed after L2 learning has occurred, when the material is accessible for communicative use. As explained by Cohen (1998) language learning strategies are the strategies employed in due course of the attainment of the target language knowledge, while language use strategies are prevailingly executed during experimenting with the attained knowledge. According to Cohen (1998) L2 use strategies involve four types:

1. Strategies for retrieving information about the L2 already stored in the memory.
2. Strategies for rehearsing L2 structures.
3. Strategies to help the learner avoid looking stupid or unprepared.
4. Strategies for communicating in the L2 despite knowledge gaps.

The scope of this study is to enable the students to gain and use appropriate communication strategies. They learn English language in non-native speaker environments requiring the strategy training. Thus, communication strategies are considered much more important than the other ones in this study.

## 2.3. Communication Strategies

Selinker (1972) in his paper used the term "strategies of second language communication" to refer to the ways that the learners go though when their linguistic knowledge is insufficient to cope with the difficulties they encounter in the course of communication. In addition, Savignon (1972) emphasized the importance of coping

strategies in communicative language teaching and testing. Turkish adult learners confronting shortcomings in due course of oral production necessarily address to communication strategies (CSs) so as to cope with these shortcomings.

Rababah (2002) states that the study of the communication strategies has been among the concerns of the researchers since 1980s. Canale and Swain (1980) included strategic competence as one of the sub-competencies, ***strategic competence***, in their model of communicative competence. Faerch and Kasper (1983) defined communication strategies via placing them in their model of speech production in which their function can be defined through the relationship between 'processes' and 'plans'. Ellis (1985) placed communication strategies in a hierarchy of L2 knowledge. He divided that knowledge into declarative (knowing that) and procedural (knowing how) knowledge.

Writers name communication strategies by uttering various phrases. Varadi (1983) calls them as ***communicational strategies***, Corder (1983) refers to them as ***communicative strategies***, whereas Harding (1983) prefers the term ***compensation strategies***, and Poulisse (1990) uses ***compensatory strategies***. Whatever term for communication strategies is preferred by native or non-native speakers, they have been applied to prevent communication breakdown. Wagner and Firth (1997) maintain that "CS is a prominent element in speech production and therefore an important element in natural discourse". Dörnyei and Scott evaluate CSs as "to be the key units in a general-description of problem-management in L2 communication" (1997, p. 179).

Rababah claims that the diversity emerges from the criteria for communication strategies by means of using the words 'problematicity' and 'consciousness' (2002). As could be detected from the definitions of communication strategies proposed by Brown (1994), Poulisse (1990), Stern (1983), Tarone (1977, 1981) they are employed when the learners come across with difficulties during the course of communication due to the lack of knowledge in the target language or some affective filter. Brown (1987), Faerch & Kasper (1983a) place the stress on the conscious usage of the communication strategies for coping with the problems the learners are inclined to experience.

There has not been a consensus on the definition of communication strategies accepted by the researchers. There have been many definitions for the communication strategies of second language learners. Table 2 provides the definitions of communication strategies from different writers.

Table 2

*Definitions of Communication Strategies (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). |
| Tarone (1980) | 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). |
| Tarone (1981) | Learners' attempt to bridge the gap between their linguistic competence in the target language and that of the target language interlocutors (p. 288) |
| 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 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). |

### 2.3.1. Taxonomies of Communication Strategies

#### 2.3.1.1. Tarone's Taxonomy

The first taxonomy attributed to communication strategies in the literature belongs to Tarone (1977). In that taxonomy, she presents the strategies under three categories paraphrase, conscious transfer and avoidance. She identifies three types of paraphrase strategies: approximation, word coinage, circumlocution; conscious transfer covers literal translation, language switch and appeal for assistance. The last major component of Tarone's taxonomy is avoidance including topic avoidance and message abandonment. The compensatory strategies offered by Faerch & Kasper (1983) are similar to those by Tarone.

#### 2.3.1.2. Varadi's Taxonomy

Varadi (1983) offered a variety of communication strategies coming together under two basic types: reduction and replacement of an optimal meaning resulting in a massage adjustment. Reduction strategies cover extensional and intentional strategies, and intentional strategies include generalization and approximation. Replacement strategies involve formal and semantic strategies, and formal strategies are distinguished as circumlocution and paraphrase.

#### 2.3.1.3. Bialsytok's Taxonomy

Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) and Bialystok (1983) proposed a new taxonomy depending on the type of information used by the learners. They categorized communication strategies into two main classes: L1-based strategies and L2-based strategies and paralinguistic strategies, based on the source of the information utilized to solve the communication problem. L1-based strategies include language switch, foreignizing and transliteration. L2-based strategies subsume semantic contiguity, circumlocution and word coinage.

#### 2.3.1.4. Faerch and Kasper's Taxonomy

The taxonomy of Faerch and Kasper (1983a) examines communication strategies in two main categories: reduction strategies and achievement strategies. Faerch and Kasper (1983a) suggest that there are two phases in the speech production:

the planning phase and execution phase. A plan is an outcome of the planning phase and its implementation occurs in the execution phase in order to achieve the desired goal. Communication strategies constitute a part of the planning phase.

#### 2.3.1.5. Corder's Taxonomy

Corder's taxonomy (1983) relates communication strategies to the means and ends which are not balanced in a non-native speaker. When learners face problems during interaction, they can either refer to message adjustment strategies (risk-avoidance strategies) or resource expansion strategies (risk-taking strategies).

#### 2.3.1.6. Dörnyei & Scott's Taxonomy

Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy (1995a, 1995b) is considered to be the summary of the taxonomies of communication strategies available. However, they also present the new terms as the use of similar-sounding words, use of all – purpose words, mumbling as part of their main category, direct strategies. This taxanomy covers three main groups of communication strategies: direct, indirect and interactional strategies. Feigning understanding is another supplemented strategy. Dörnyei (1995) extended the definition of communication strategies by means of including strategies stalling or time-gaining strategies (such as pause fillers and hesitation gambits). These strategies are utilized to gain time for the continuation of interaction without breakdowns. Pause fillers and hesitation gambits have been labeled by Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b) as "indirect strategies".

Table 3 presents different communication strategies taxonomies that have taken their places in literature so far.

Table 3

*Various taxonomies of Communication Strategies*

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

Table 3. (Continued)

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

Communication strategies are, unquestionably, indispensible means to employ so as to improve speaking skills of the learners. Thus, providing learners with strategy training might be useful for overcoming impediments they are prone to go through owing to the lack of linguistic knowledge in the target language. For a comprehensive comprehension of the interrelationships between improving speaking competence and strategy training, speaking competence should be dwelt upon.

## 2.4. Speaking Skill

Gaining a new language necessarily involves developing four modalities in varying degrees and combinations: listening, reading, speaking and writing. Among language teachers these modalities are known as the four language skills and the term skill means ability, expertness, proficiency (Oxford, 1990). Speaking, out of the other three skills, needs more effort and time to be accomplished by foreign language learners and it is a productive skill as can be seen from Table 4 below.

Table 4

*Classification of Language Learning Skills*

| **Classification of Language Learning Skills** | | |
|---|---|---|
| | Written Mode | Oral Mode |
| Receptive Skills | Reading | Listening |
| Productive Skills | Writing | Speaking |

Shumin (2002) directs the attention to the fact that to speak a foreign language requires more than knowing the grammatical and semantic rules. This statement proves its validity in Turkish context where the foreign language learners of English do not have opportunities to speak English out of the classroom though they learn the grammatical rules to a certain extent. “Discourse management (Bygate, 1987), turn-taking skills, and a range of similar capacities which underlie the negotiation of meaning in ongoing discourse (Cook, 1989) can only be achieved by actually participating in discourse. If making meaning is a jointly collaborative activity, then we cannot read about these skills, or even acquire them passively, but instead have to take part in discourse and realize how our resources are put to work to build conversations

and negotiate meaning. Extensive speaking practice is therefore unavoidable (Skehan, 1989, p.18)."

Adult EFL learners are poor at speaking skill, especially regarding fluency, understanding of cultural pragmatics, and control of idiomatic expressions due to the minimal exposure to the target language contact with the native speakers (Shumin, 2002). There are some factors underlying the level that could be achieved at speaking proficiency:

### 2.4.1. Factors Affecting Adult EFL Learners' Speaking Skill

#### 2.4.1.1. Age

Acquirers who begin to learn a second language in early childhood with an extensive exposure to the target language achieve higher proficiency when compared to adult learners (Krashen, Long & Scarcella, 1982). Lenneberg (1967) created the term critical period, which is associated with puberty. According to this hypothesis, learners beginning to learn a foreign language after the critical period cannot acquire a native-like level of proficiency. Scovel (1988) states that learners can learn the syntax and the vocabulary of a second language, but attaining a native-like pronunciation is impossible for them.

#### 2.4.1.2. Aural Medium

Getting into conversation with a person brings together the need to possess good listening comprehension. "While listening, learners must comprehend the text by retaining information in memory, integrate it with what follows, and continually adjust their understanding of what they hear in the light of the prior knowledge and of incoming information" (Mendelsohn & Rubin, 1995, p. 35). If a person cannot understand what he/she hears, expecting to respond would not be logical.

#### 2.4.1.3. Sociocultural Factors

Second/foreign language learning should not be segregated from the society where it has been serving as the medium of interaction in every aspect of life. Language is a form of social action because linguistic communication occurs in the context of structured interpersonal exchange, and meaning is thus socially regulated

(Dimitracopoulou, 1990 as cited in Shumin, 2002). In other words, as defined by Carrasquillo, shared values and beliefs form a community where these shared values and beliefs are expressed through the language of that community (1994, p. 55). What, where and how to say something changes profoundly from culture to culture. Besides the verbal communication elements, as Shumin states being aware of the nonverbal communication specific to the society where the target language is the mother tongue, being able to keep conversation going without the occurrence of the breakdown is not easily attainable (2002). Since foreign language learners do not have the opportunities to practice English due to some reasons, speaking skill development is limited to the pre-arranged and not sufficient class-hours.

#### 2.4.1.4. Affective Factors

"The affective side of the learner has probably one of the most important influences on language learning success or failure" (Oxford, 1990, p. 140). Anxiety, attitude, emotions, self-esteem, empathy and motivation are the segments that formulate affective factors as a whole. Brown (1994) claims that second/foreign language learning is susceptible to human anxiety. Anxiety brings to one's mind uneasiness, frustration, doubt about the probable success, and causes low level of self-esteem. Most of the adult EFL learners are prone to falling into the hands of anxiety while speaking, and therefore they put an end to speaking regardless of lots of things they have in mind to utter. For this reason, learner motivation plays a noteworthy role in persisting to continue interaction despite the negativities that might occur during speaking. Figure 3 (MacIntyre, Dörnyei & Noels, 1998) depicts various layers of motivation.

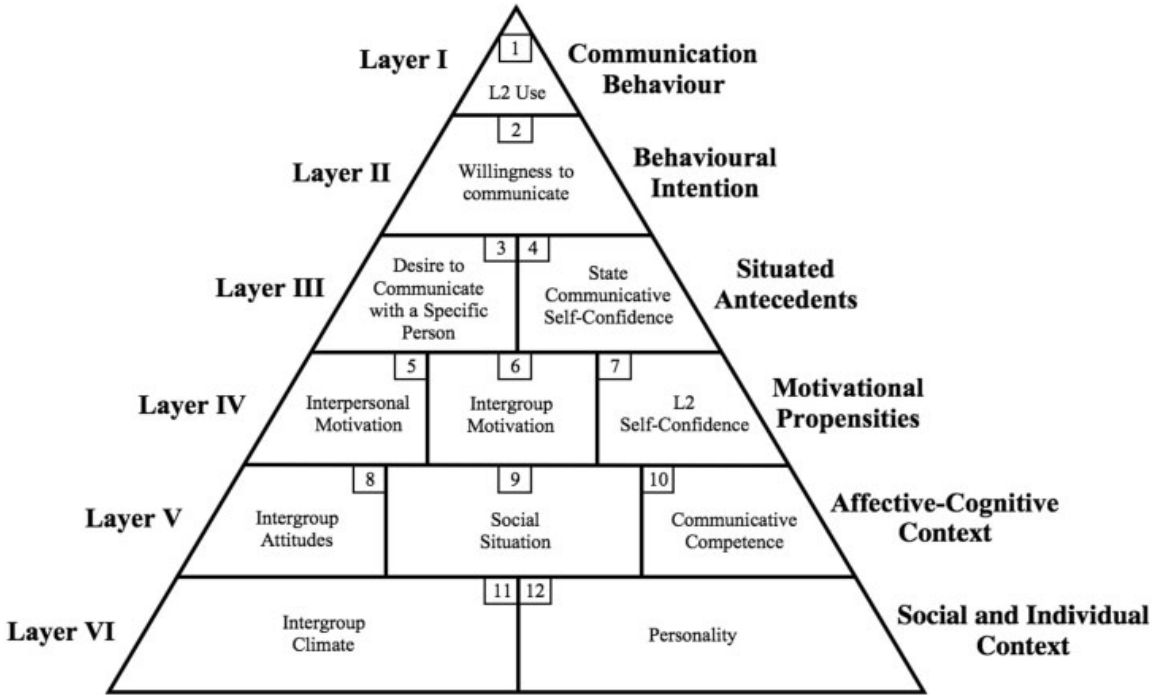



*Figure 3.* Willingness to communicate pyramid MacIntyre et al. (1998, p. 547).

### 2.4.2. Common Problems Adult Learners Bring to the Speaking Classes

Learning to speak a foreign language necessitates more than knowing its grammatical and semantic rules such as paralinguistic elements of speech including pitch, stress, intonation (Shumin, 2002). Many factors interact and exert impact on the speaking performance of the adult EFL learners. Hence, it is troublesome for the adult EFL learners to speak fluently and appropriately in real life situations awaiting them in any part of life, and accordingly, finding out the common problems adult learners encounter in the course of interpersonal exchange stands out as a tremendously significant constituent.

Adult EFL learners do not know the nonverbal communication elements employed in the society where these nonverbal communication elements play significant roles to convey the desired meaning. Another essential problem is affective factors (Brown, 1994; Shumin, 2002; Oxford, 1990). Anxiety, attitudes, self-esteem, empathy and motivation comprise affective factors. High anxiety level, biased attitude towards the target language, low motivation level should be taken into consideration whilst assessing the speaking proficiency of the adult EFL learners. Brown (1994) emphasizes the fact that anxiety brings to one's mind uneasiness, frustration doubt

about the likely success. Deficiencies in vocabulary and linguistic knowledge also cause some problems in terms of the formulation of sentences during oral production. Krashen, Long & Scarcella (1982) draw the attention to the age factor while explaining the differences in the production of spoken language. According to them, the learners with natural exposure to the target language in early childhood achieve higher proficiency than adult learners.

Like any language skill, speaking skill should be explicitly taught to the EFL learners and opportunities to practice English should be created for the learners. To facilitate the procedure of the production of oral language these problems ought to be analyzed in detail to lessen the shortcomings turning up in due course of speaking.

### 2.4.3. Components Underlying Speaking Competence

L2 learners need to know culturally acceptable ways whilst interacting with others in addition to the linguistic knowledge they have (Hymes, 1971). His theory of communicative competence consists of the grammatical, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, and probabilistic language components. Canale & Swain (1980), by getting inspiration from Hymes's theory, proposed four components of communicative competence: grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Figure 4 displays the abilities underlying speaking proficiency proposed by Canale and Swain (1980). This figure shows the integration of linguistic and functional aspects of communication.

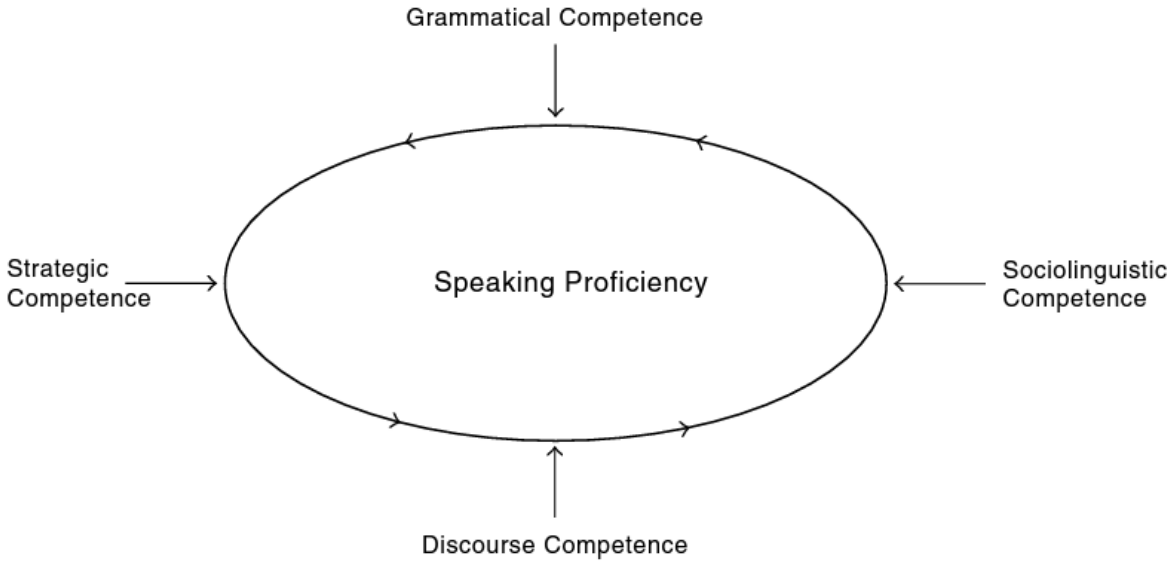



*Figure 4.* Components of speaking proficiency (Canale & Swain, 1980)

#### 2.4.3.1. Grammatical Competence

"Grammatical competence is an umbrella concept that includes increasing expertise in grammar (morphology, syntax), vocabulary, and mechanics (Shumin, 2002). 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). EFL learners must have the knowledge of words and sentences; they must understand how words are segmented into various sounds, and how sentences are stressed in particular ways (Shumin, 2002). Nonetheless, in order to accomplish fluency in speaking, word knowledge, how sentences are formed in accordance with word-order is not sufficient.

#### 2.4.3.2. Discourse Competence

"In addition to the grammatical competence, EFL learners must develop discourse competence, which is concerned with intersentential relationships" (Shumin, 2002). Effective speakers should acquire a large repertoire of structures and discourse makers in order to express ideas, show relationships of time, and indicate cause and, contrast, and emphasis (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). These capabilities can help learners keep the continuation of the conversation via overcoming the hindrances prospective to emerge in due course of oral communication. Canale (1983) referred to cohesion and coherence as factors of discourse competence. Cohesion refers to linguistic features such as pronouns; according to Halliday & Hansan (1976) "refers to text that appropriately fits its situational context. A coherent text is appropriate with respect to such situational features as the channel, the genre, the topic discussed…".

#### 2.4.3.3. Sociolinguistic Competence,

Having the linguistic knowledge belonging to the target language cannot be equivalent to being competent at carrying effective and appropriate communication. Learners should gain perspective about what is evaluated as socially or culturally acceptable by the users of the target language. As Shumin points out "understanding the sociolinguistic side of language helps learners what comments are appropriate, how to ask questions during interaction, and how to respond nonverbally according to the purpose of the talk" (2002). Brown (1994, p. 238) states that adult second language

learners must acquire “stylistic adaptability” to be able to comprehend and take part in oral production occurring around them.

#### 2.4.3.4. Strategic Competence

Strategic competence, which is defined by Brown (1994) as “the way learners manipulate language in order to meet communicative goals”, may be admitted as the most significant competence for EFL learners. Oxford (1999b, p. 518) provides a comprehensive definition of learning strategies: they are the specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques that students use to improve their own progress in developing skills in a second or foreign language. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. It is the ability to compensate for imperfect knowledge of linguistics, sociolinguistics, and discourse rules (Berns, 1990).

With reference to speaking, strategic competence addresses to gaining the competence for implementing strategies as a means of removing the obstacles that EFL learners are prone to experience during speaking. Notably, when compared to the other three competences, it is the one which can be applied more for converting learners into better speakers of English.

## 2.5. Strategy Training/Strategy-Based Instruction

Strategy-based instruction, according to some researchers, strategy training, is a learner-centered approach referring to formal instruction for learners about language learning and use strategies with everyday classroom language instruction (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002; Oxford, 2001). It is a learner-centered approach to teaching that involves incorporating explicit and implicit instruction of strategies in the course content (Cohen, 2002). Oxford suggests different terms to be used instead of language learning strategies training such as “strategy training”, “learner training”, “learning-to-learn training”, “learner methodology training”, “methodological initiation for learners” (1990). In addition, Presley et al. (1992) state that good strategy instruction is inherently motivating and interesting, which suggests that classrooms in which the instruction of effective cognitive strategies will produce students who will have “more skills” (p. 354).

The explicit instruction on the appropriate and effective usages of LLSs and raising the awareness about the contribution of LLSs on the development of language

learning skills is a significant part of creating more competent EFL learners. According to Dörnyei (2005):

> although the various strategy frameworks differ in their details, they aim to achieve the same overall goals: to raise the learners' awareness about learning strategies and model strategies overtly along with the tasks, to encourage strategy use and give a rationale for it, to offer a wide menu of relevant strategies for learners to choose from, to offer controlled practice in the use of some strategies, and to provide some sort of a post-task analysis which allows students to reflect on their strategy use. (p. 174)

Cohen (1996) explains the goal of strategies-based instruction as helping second language students become more conscious about the ways they learn most effectively and ways that can be followed for better comprehension and production of the target language. Chamot et al. (1999) suggest that strategy instruction starts with the guidance and instruction of the teacher and it is expected to result in the self-control of the learners over the application of the strategies.

The best strategy training cares about the beliefs and feelings of the learners, as strategy training advocates converting the learners into self-directed, self-regulated learners (Oxford, 1990). The instruction given on LLSs can help EFL learners comprehend and subsequently internalize these strategies to become more successful at speaking English by the medium of overcoming the difficulties they encounter. Nevertheless, it necessitates hard and patient struggle to make some changes in the traditional views of EFL learners toward taking on more responsibility in their learning process and going on improving themselves even if they are outside the territory of formal learning settings and without the support and leading role undertaken by their teachers.

Oxford (1990) in Table 5, suggests steps for strategy training model.

Table 5

*Steps in the Strategy Training Model (Oxford, 1990)*

1. Determining the learners' needs and the time available.
2. Select strategies well.
3. Consider integration of strategy training.
4. Consider motivational issues.
5. Prepare materials and activities.
6. Conduct "completely informed training".
7. Evaluate the strategy training.
8. Revise the strategy training.

Cohen states that in a typical style and strategies based instruction, teachers do the following (2003):

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

Strategy training aims to provide learners with the tools to do the following (Cohen, 2003):

- Self-diagnose their strength 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 speaking skills.
- Make decisions about how to approach a speaking task.
- Monitor and self-evaluate their performance.

- Transfer successful strategies to new learning context.

Research has shown that no matter the learners are poor or successful language learners, there is the probability of becoming more proficient learners at language learning (Cohen, 1990, 1998; Dörnyei, 1995, 2005; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, 1996). Cohen in his work in 2000 draws the attention to the goal of strategies-based instruction and according to him, "the goal of strategies-based instruction is to help learners become more responsible for their efforts to learn and use the target language.

As determined by Cohen (2000), "teachers may start with the established course materials and then determine which strategies might be inserted; start with a set of strategies on which they wish to focus and design activities around them; or insert strategies spontaneously into the lessons whenever it seems appropriate". Oxford specifies that two things should be taken into account as the teachers prepare themselves for carrying out strategy training: "your knowledge of language learning strategies and your attitudes about role changes" (1990, p. 201). She adds that the more the teachers know about the LLSs, the better trainers they will be, and teachers should be open-minded for the role changes that teachers and learners undergo following strategies-based instruction (p. 202). It is anticipated that learners may move towards self-regulated learners which means more responsibility taken by the learners in their learning process and this evokes the change in the role of teachers too: acting as facilitators rather than directors.

### 2.5.1. Components of Strategies-Based Instruction

Strategies-based instruction has five components (Cohen & Weaver, 2005):

1. *Strategy preparation*: Students cannot be identified as a blank slate when the issue is LLSs. Although they are not aware of what they do and refer to during the learning process, they may be utilizing a number of strategies to meet their language learning purposes. Therefore in this phase, how many students know about strategies what strategies they implement, and whether they use them or not are under investigation.

2. *Strategy-Awareness Raising:*

   Strategies-based instruction raises the students' awareness about: 1) what the learning process may consist of, 2) their learning style preferences or general approaches to learning, 3) the kinds of strategies that they already use, as well as those suggested by the teacher or classmates, 4) the amount of responsibility that they take on for their learning, or 5) approaches that can be used to evaluate the students' strategy use.

3. *Strategy Instruction:*

   Students are explicitly taught what, how and why certain strategies can facilitate the language learning. Teachers model, give instruction and examples on LLSs.

4. Strategy Practice

   Learning strategies is not adequate. In addition to knowing strategies, experimenting with the strategies being learned is to be implemented, which would be a way to reinforce and internalize the LLSs. The activities arranged to try the strategies out should refer to them explicitly. Learners either:

   a) plan the strategies that they will use for an activity,

   b) have their attention called to the use of particular strategies while they are being used, or

   c) "debrief" their use of strategies (and their relative effectiveness) after the activity has ended.

5. Personalization

   Learners have raised the consciousness about how they use the LLSs and they consider the ways they can use them in other contexts (Cohen & Weaver, 2005). Cohen and Weaver remark that it is the teachers' duty to integrate the strategies into everyday classroom material. Teachers may:

   a. start with the established course materials and then insert strategies,
   b. start with a set of strategies and design activities around them, or
   c. insert strategies spontaneously into the lessons when appropriate.

The instructional model of strategy training aimed to provide students with a set of strategies presented in the following five developmental stages in CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) as; preparing, presenting, practicing, evaluating, and extending (1999).

***Preparation***

Students are prepared for strategies instruction by identifying their prior knowledge about LLSs. The preparation phase is the time to lay the foundation or groundwork for creating a learner-centered classroom which will be ready for strategies instruction. During this phase, learners' prior knowledge about strategies and strategy use can be discovered.

***Presentation***

Teachers demonstrate the new learning strategy and explain how and when to use it. LLSs are explicitly modeled, named and explained.

***Practice***

Students practice the strategies being learnt with the regular class activities. Teachers provide opportunities for the learners to experiment with the strategies having been modeled by their teacher.

***Evaluation***

Students and teacher evaluate their use of the learning strategies and how well the strategies are working for them. This evaluation is done in large part by the students themselves as a way of developing their metacognitive ability, which correspondingly connotates to the increased number of self-regulated learners.

***Expansion***

Students expand the usefulness of the LLSs by applying them to new situations or learning tasks (Chamot et al., 1999). Matching a familiar strategy to a new task completes the cycle of strategies instruction, as students must rely on their background knowledge of both the strategy and the task.

Harris (2003) provided a useful overview of various strategy instruction schemes. Table 6 presents Harris's comparative summary of the stages of four training models, by Chamot et al. (1999), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Grenfell and Harris (1999), and Oxford (1990).

Figure 5 shows that although strategies instruction is commenced as a teacher-directed instruction, the responsibility of the students in the strategies instruction can be recognized by this figure. Chamot et al. (1990) state:

Table 6
*A Comparison of the Stages of Four Strategy Instruction Schemes (from: Harris, 2003)*

| O'Malley and Chamot (1990) | Oxford (1990) | Chamot et al. (1999) | Grenfell and Harris (1999) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Students identify their current learning strategies | Learners do a task without any strategy training | Preparation | Awareness raising. Learners do a task "cold" |
| | They discuss how they did it and the teacher asks them to reflect on how their strategies may have facilitated their learning | | They brainstorm the strategies used. Class shares strategies that work for them |
| Teachers explain additional strategies | Teacher demonstrates other helpful strategies, stressing the potential benefits | Presentation | *Modeling*. Teacher demonstrates new strategies, emphasizes their value and draws up a checklist of strategies for subsequent use. |
| Teachers provide opportunities for practice | Learners are provided with opportunities to practice the new strategies | Practice | *General practice.* Learners are given a range of tasks to deploy new strategies |
| | Learners are shown how the strategies can be transferred to other tasks | Expansion | |
| | Learners are provided with further tasks and asked to make choices about which strategies they will use | | *Action planning.* Learners are guided to select strategies that will help them address their particular difficulties *Further practice and fading out of reminders to use* |
| Teachers assist learners in evaluating their success with the new strategies | Teacher helps learners to understand the success of their strategy use and assess their progress toward more self-directed learning | Evaluation | *Evaluation.* Teacher guides learners to evaluate progress and strategy use and to set themselves new goals. |

> First a foundation is poured (preparing students for strategies), then scaffolding is put in place to support the building in progress (presenting strategies and coaching students as they practice them). As the building is constructed, it begins to support itself, and the scaffolding is gradually removed (less explicit instruction and less coaching as students start using strategies independently and extending them to other areas. (p. 45)

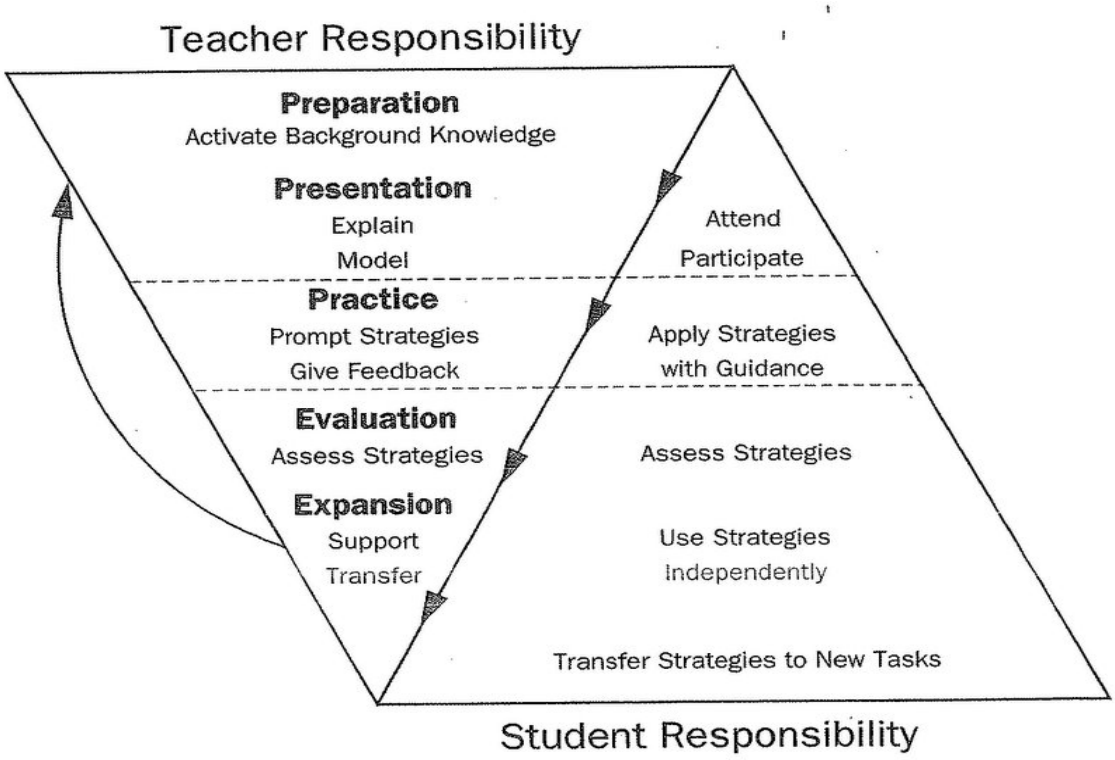



*Figure 5.* Framework for Strategies Instruction (El-Dinary, 1994 cited in Chamot et al., 1998)

### 2.5.2 The Interrelationship Between Strategy Training/Strategies-Based Instruction and Developing Speaking Skill

Strategies-based instruction is a learner-centered approach to teaching which has two major components: "(1) students are explicitly taught how, when, and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning and language use tasks, and (2) strategies are integrated into everyday class materials, and may be explicitly or implicitly embedded into the language tasks" (Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1996, p. 6).

The aim intended in SBI is to assist language learners in becoming more aware of how they learn in a most effective way, how they can improve themselves in the

comprehension and production of the second language (Cohen, 1996). 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. (p. 13)

As Cohen, Weaver & Li (1996) state “There have been relatively few studies on the effect of strategies-based instruction and the improvement in the speaking skills” (p. 6). They put emphasis on the fact that speaking skill is the most critical language skill of all.

Speaking skill cannot be constantly linked to the support and coaching from teachers. Students are prone to speak in informal settings due to numerous reasons, and during communication, they are to use the knowledge they have learned in English courses. Thus, strategy training conducted for improving speaking skills could turn out to be effective in improved speaking skills (Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1996; Dörnyei, 1995). Chamot (2005) emphasizes that the most challenging learning modality for learning strategies is oral communication, because the conscious use of strategy could interrupt oral fluency.

# CHAPTER 3

# METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

## 3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides information about the nature of research and the design of the study in terms of methodological perspective. It provides data about the participants, behavioral objectives of the study, and the instruments. Moreover, the procedure gone through during the administration of the study, and the method used for data analysis are included in this section.

## 3.2. Research Design

This particular study was conducted both as descriptive and experimental research design so as to depict the impact of strategies-based instruction on the improvement of speaking proficiency of adult EFL learners.

## 3.3. Participants

Seventy-two university prep-class students starting their academic career at Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam University were the participants of this study. The participants were between 18 and 21 years of age. They previously studied English for 12 years from primary schools to the beginning of prep-class education at Sütçü İmam University. Two groups were conveniently selected from already existing four classes as the experimental and control groups, because according to the proficiency and placement examinations given at the beginning of academic year 2010/2011, the proficiency level of the learners in these two groups were determined as equal to each other. Experimental group consisted of 37 students and 35 students were in control group, and on the whole 38 students were female, and 34 were male.

Pertaining to the results of the proficiency and placement exams the students were labeled as Level C and Level B. Level C and level B were the labels used as an indication of proficiency levels of the learners, and level B students were accepted as being more successful than the ones in level C in accordance with the proficiency and placement exam results. In the placement and proficiency exams, there was not a part

dedicated to assess the speaking proficiency, the exams were prepared with multiple-choice questions.

Strategies-based instruction was provided in the experimental group by the researcher. She was also the teacher of the control group to avoid any kind of variance resulting from different teachers.

### 3.4. Instrumentation

For this research, five types of instruments were utilized to collect the data.

1. *Speaking strategies Questionnaire*

Questionnaire including speaking strategies were reviewed and adapted from Oxford's (1990) *"Strategy Inventory for language learning (SILL)",* and *"Inventory of Strategic Language Devices with Descriptions / Definitions, Examples"* based on Dörnyei and Scott' s taxonomy. (1995a, 1995b). Speaking strategy questionnaire was implemented both at the beginning and end of the study, and both in experimental and control groups (See Apendix 1).

2. *Pre -and Post-Speaking Tests*

In order to determine speaking proficiency of the participants speaking tests that were prepared in accordance with the speaking activities available in students' course book were utilized. Pre-speaking test was done in order to find out whether the speaking proficiency level of the participants in control and experimental group was equal to each other. Nevertheless, the speaking test implemented at the end of the study was not the same with the one administered at the beginning of the research, as a result of the improvement in the speaking proficiency of the participants that occurred in four months, the duration of the study.

3. *Minute-Papers*

The students of the experimental group receiving the treatment were demanded to write minute papers during the last five minutes of each lesson, which were substantially precious mediums of collecting data about the attitudes of the participants towards the speaking strategies they were instructed about and experimented with

during the implementation of speaking activities, and what they considered about the usefulness of those speaking strategies, and the explicit instruction given by the researcher (See Appendix 3).

4. Diary

A diary was kept by the researcher in which she reported on the performance of the students in the experimental group during strategy training and students' implementation of the strategies in the speaking activities existing in the course book. Speaking strategies were modeled and instructed to the learners, the students and their reactions were observed during the lessons. Keeping a diary enabled the researcher to track strategies use over time and thus, helped her understand how the strategies were referred to by the participants in the speaking activities available in their course book. Besides, the diary kept by the researcher till the end of the administration of the strategy training involved the procedures undergone by the experimental group students for the completion of the speaking tasks. Moreover, it was a medium of recording the crucial memories taking place during the administration of strategies-based instruction and students' experimenting with the speaking strategies (See Appendix 5).

5. *Semi*-structured *interview*

Semi-structured interviews were conducted before and after the treatment with the experimental group learners about LLSs. The basic questions of the interviews were what they feel about the instructions, the effect of strategy training on the improvement of speaking skill, the problems causing their low speaking proficiency. As Oxford (1990) states "semi-structured interviews are very useful for gathering information on your students' strategy usage".

### 3.4.1. Speaking Strategy Questionnaire

It was adopted from *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)* (Oxford, 1990) and "*Inventory of Strategic Language Deviceswith Descriptions / Definitions, Examples"* based on Dörnyei &Scott's taxonomy. (1995a, 1995b) by the researcher and her advisor. Speaking strategy questionnaire consisting of 44 questions was designed as a likert scale questionnaire including always, usually, sometimes, and never options.

The participants were expected to indicate their preferences by choosing the one most appropriate for them. They were provided with the necessary explanation about the strategies in the questionnaire whenever they experienced difficulty in comprehending the meaning of the given strategies. Table 7 represents the numbers of the strategies and the main strategy categories they belong to: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social, and affective strategies.

The underlying reason for including the pre-speaking strategy questionnaire within the framework of this particular study was to collect data about the students' awareness of the impact of the speaking strategies. Post-speaking strategy questionnaire, on the other hand, was utilized in order for determining the difference that occurred with regard to the strategy usage subsequent to the strategy training. .

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 purpose of the study was overtly explained to the students. The students were told that their responses would contribute to the investigation of the impact of strategy instruction on the improvement of speaking skills of the adult EFL learners and accordingly it was emphasized that their sincere answers to the items in the questionnaire were tremendously of very high concern. It was considered that collecting data reflecting the real ideas of the participants was not an easily gained circumstance, and the awareness of the participants was heightened on the importance of the results that would be reached subsequent to analysis of the data.

Table 7

*Strategy numbers and strategy categories they belong to.*

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

### 3.4.2 Pre- and Post-Speaking Tests

Pre- and post-speaking tests were crucial mediums of attaining information about the speaking levels of the participants. Pre-speaking test was administered in this study to shed light on the speaking proficiency differences or equality between the experimental and control groups. It was anticipated that the students in experimental and control groups were not different from each other in terms of speaking proficiency, since both groups were Level C. After the application of the speaking strategy training for the experimental and leaving the control group untrained on the speaking strategies, post-speaking test was administered both in experimental and control groups. Post-speaking test was expected to display the higher success of the experimental group students at speaking thanks to the treatment they received to go upwards in speaking skill. During the implementation of these tests, video recordings were utilized, as it is known observing the gestures, which has been placed in the speaking strategy questionnaire as one of the items, is a significant factor in speaking and giving scores while assessing speaking performance. Pre- and post-speaking tests were designed in accordance with the speaking activities in the participants' course book.

### 3.4.3. Pre and Post Semi-Structured Interview

The data gathered by the administration of the questionnaires cannot provide detailed information about the strategy knowledge and strategy usage of the students. Hence, an interview may support the information received from the questionnaires. Oxford (1990) states "semi-structured interviews are very useful for gathering

information on your students' strategies" (p. 197). Some broad questions were prepared by the researcher in advance of the interview and during the interview in accordance with the answers of the learners other questions were posed to the participants. This interview was had before and after the strategy training. These interviews were conducted only with the experimental group students to go into the detail of what, how and when these strategies were addressed to.

### 3.4.4. Minute Papers

The participants in the experimental group of this current study were demanded to write a minute paper following the strategy training at the end of each course. They would write down the speaking strategies they were trained on during their regular courses. Moreover, the experimental group students would express their feelings about the strategies they were instructed about to overcome the difficulties they might face when speaking at the speaking activities available in their regular course book and also when trying to keep the continuation of a conversation in their social and/or professional lives.

### 3.4.5. Researcher's Diary

The researcher kept a dairy in which she constantly took notes under the light of her observation of the experimental group students in due course of strategy training. The reactions and feelings of the participants acted as clues for the process the trained students went through. In other words, the researcher wrote down her observation of the participants being instructed on the strategy use for the development in speaking skill and their experimenting with the speaking strategies.

## 3.5. Data Collection

The data collection procedure was commenced at the beginning of the academic year 2010-2011. Prior to the implementation of strategy training in the experimental group, *"questionnaire for determining language learning goals and adjectives"* and (See Appendix 4) *"background questionnaire"* (See Apeendix6) were delivered to the both experimental and control group students (Oxford, 1990).The objective underlying the distribution of these questionnaires to the participants were collecting information

about the participants and determining their short-term and long-term goals; aside from setting long and short-term goals, they enabled identifying the most important skill or skills according to them and the desired proficiency in these skills.

After the implementation of the questionnaire that made it possible to determine the goals of the participants, the speaking strategy questionnaire was administered in both groups, experimental and control groups. Speaking strategy questionnaire was a four point likert scale (always, usually, sometimes, and never). Whether or not the participants were aware of or were utilizing these speaking strategies was elicited from the data obtained via this questionnaire. Pre semi-structured interview was carried out among the experimental group students to clarify better the question whether they were aware of the facilitative effect of the speaking strategies.

A speaking test was done for both experimental and control group students to evaluate the speaking proficiency of the participants. The speaking test was prepared in correlation with the speaking activities in the participants' regular course book. Before the launch of the study, the speaking proficiency of the participants in the experimental and control groups were expected to be same; nonetheless, the participants in the experimental group were contemplated to perform better in the speaking activities in due course of strategy training and at the speaking test that would be done at the end of the strategy training continuing for four months. Pre- and post-speaking tests were video recorded and assessed by the researcher and her partner who works as an English Lecturer at the same university and was informed about the content of the study being carried out.

During the treatment, the researcher explicitly taught the speaking strategies and infused them into the speaking activities existing in the students' course book so that providing chances for the students to experiment with the speaking strategies would be possible. The participants of the experimental group wrote minute papers at the end of strategy trainings in the last five minutes of each lesson in which their thoughts and feelings covering the usefulness of the speaking strategies were presented. Beside the minute papers written by the participants, the researcher kept a diary functioning as a tool for recording the approach of the trained group toward the strategy instruction and their experimentation with the taught strategies. Following the treatment implemented only on the experimental group lasting four months, the participants of this study both experimental and control group students, were given the questionnaire again that was used at the beginning of the study which aimed at revealing the probable increase

among experimental group students in the usage of the speaking strategies in the course of oral communication.

A speaking test was administered at the end of the training to compare the speaking proficiency of control and experimental group students. Additionally, post semi-structured interview was conducted with the experimental group participants in order to illuminate the effect of strategy training on the improvement of their speaking skill. During the treatment the researcher made use of the speaking activities in the regular course book of the participants and provided explicit instruction on speaking strategies through modeling them and creating chances for the participants to experiment with the strategies.

Qualitative and quantitative data collection methods were utilized to obtain more validity in this study. Five data collection tools were used during the data collection process: speaking strategy questionnaire, speaking test, minute paper, researcher's diary, semi-structured interview.

### 3.5.1. Procedure

This study aimed at improving speaking proficiency of adult EFL learners through strategies-based instruction relevant to speaking. In due course of strategy training, the CALLA (The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) instructional design was made use of. CALLA has five phases: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, expansion (Chamot, et al., 1999). A CALLA curriculum has three components:

- High-priority curriculum content
- Academic language development with a focus on literacy
- Explicit learning strategies instruction

The beginning of the academic year 2010/2011 was also the start of this study. This study lasted a term, four months. The purpose lying behind carrying out this study was improving adult EFL learners' speaking skills through strategies-based instruction. The participants had 28-hour-English course every week. Skill-based teaching is not implemented in the preparatory program at the university where this study was carried out. Skills are taught to the students in an integrated way. According to the speaking

activities available in each unit the speaking strategies that could facilitate the procedure for the experimental group participants during speaking were utilized. The strategies were modeled, explicitly taught and named in the class by the researcher and this step was followed with the practice of the strategies by the participants. Opportunities were created for the students to experiment with these strategies.

### 3.5.2. Stages of Strategy Training

The strategy instruction was organized in accordance with the phases of CALLA in this particular study. "CALLA model provides explicit instruction in learning strategies that will assist students in meeting national curriculum standards, learning both language and content, and becoming independent learners who can evaluate their own learning" (Chamot et al., 1999). The CALLA instructional design has five phases: preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, expansion.

#### 3.5.2.1. Preparation

The preparation phase is the time to lay the foundation or groundwork for creating a learner-centered classroom that is ready for strategy instruction. Setting this stage successfully is an essential part of concluding strategy instruction with success (Chamot et al., 1999). A significant step toward creating a learner-centered classroom depends heavily on having learners set their short and long term goals. In preparation phase teachers concentrate on finding out the prior knowledge of the learners about the content topic, their level of language proficiency, their current awareness about the LLSs.

At the preparation stage achieving a learning-centered classroom was primarily aimed at, which occupied the initial step to prepare the participants for strategy training. In order to gain the above mentioned end, the questionnaire for determining short and long term goals, speaking strategy questionnaire and semi-structured interview was employed.

The questionnaire for determining short and long term goals enabled the researcher to find out the goals of the learners. This questionnaire indicated that the majority of the participants placed emphasis on the development of their speaking skills and it was a medium of collecting information about the reasons lying behind their efforts to learn English. As stated by Cohen, Weaver and Li (1996) strategy instruction

can enable the development of the learner's speaking skills; hence the demand of the participants for high speaking proficiency was a sign of the convenience of strategy training orientated to the improvement of the speaking skill.

Pre-speaking strategy questionnaire was administered so as to figure out the awareness of the participants on the speaking strategies. Heightened awareness of the learners on the influence of speaking strategies is a requisite for the occurrence of learner-centered classroom environment.

Pre semi-structured interview made it possible to gather information about the background of the participants regarding the participants' existing knowledge on the impact of speaking strategies, their approach towards behaving strategically so as to attain better oral production. Moreover, pre-speaking test displayed the speaking proficiency of the participants and revealed the extent of the strategy application by the participants.

#### 3.5.2.2. Presentation

In the presentation phase, LLSs were explicitly modeled, explained and named. According to the content of the speaking activities in the participants' regular course book, the speaking strategies were chosen and they were taught to the participants explicitly. The speaking strategies appropriate for successful implementation of the speaking activities existing in their course book were modeled by the researchers. The researcher demonstrated how to use the selected strategies in front of the class through giving examples. Afterwards, the chosen strategies were named by the researcher. What was aimed here was raising the awareness of the experimental group students about the reasons for using particular strategies in particular situations. For instance, using gestures during oral production when a word cannot be recalled was taught to the students, since this is a strategy which can be addressed to as a precious means at times of having difficulties in remembering the proper words.

#### 3.5.2.3. Practice

The experimental group students practiced the strategies that were explicitly named and modeled by the researcher. The participants were directed to utilize the chosen strategies in the speaking tasks which could be handled much better with the reference to the determined strategies.

Being exposed to just modeling of the strategies cannot work as well as practicing them, thus speaking tasks were implemented by the participants through experimenting with the speaking strategies that were named, modeled by the researcher. As Chamot et al. (1999) point out independent learning occurs only via practicing the strategies.

### 3.5.2.4. Evaluation

In this phase, participants in the experimental group evaluated the new learning strategies they dealt with and learned during the course. Evaluation is largely done by the students, yet from time to time it was accompanied with the evaluation of the researcher. The participants wrote minute papers at the end of the strategy training embedded in their regular program. They mentioned the new strategies they learnt, and what they thought about the effectiveness of the learnt strategies. As well as minute papers, the diary kept by the researcher provided her observation of the participants in the classes during strategy training, their reactions, their feelings and contribution to the speaking tasks by utilizing newly learned speaking strategies.

On the way toward turning into self-regulated learners, students' own evaluation of the speaking strategies is undoubtedly substantially essential, however, it may not be accepted as sufficient and needs to be advocated by the guidance and evaluation of the teacher. In addition to the minute papers, semi-structured interview carried out with experimental group participants was a medium of expanding the knowledge on the perceptions of the participants about the strategies they were instructed on in due course of the training.

### 3.2.5.5. Expansion

Chamot et al. (1999) stress that a critical constituent of effective learning strategies use is the capability for applying a strategy from a familiar context to an unfamiliar context. Students should be able to decide what strategy they need to use when they come across with a problem. The researcher followed the usage of the speaking strategies by the participants during the speaking tasks in the second term of 2010/2011 academic year. They were motivated and supported to continue making use of the speaking strategies to perform better in the speaking tasks.

The experimental group students like the control group students received a-28-hour-English-course every week, 14 hours were under the responsibility of the researcher, and the rest was fulfilled by the partner of the researcher. Since the university prep class students do not have plenty of opportunities for practicing English, the strategies they learned could be applied at the speaking tasks they would have in the researcher's partner class hours. It was a chance for the participants to keep implementing the speaking strategies for the tasks available in their regular course book. They could also make use of the speaking strategies they were instructed during their regular courses whilst having verbal communication in English with other speakers.

### 3.6. Data Analysis

The data obtained through pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaires and pre-, post-speaking tests which were administered both in experimental and control groups were analyzed by SPSS statistics.

The post-speaking test was video recorded to gather more information about the differences between control and experimental group students as regards to the usage of speaking strategies in order to facilitate speaking regardless of the deficiencies in the linguistic knowledge or affective filters. The minute papers collected at the end of each lesson following the application of the strategy training were examined by the researcher to gather more detailed information about the speaking strategies the students of the experimental group referred to during speaking activities and what they thought about the effectiveness of the strategies they experimented with.

Semi-structured interview was a means of having the chance for going over the responses of the experimental group participants that were received during the interview. The information elicited from the semi-structured interview was an essential medium of qualitative data collection procedure. The answers of the experimental group participants were revised after the interview, and their relevant responses to the topic of this study were selected to be placed in suitable parts.

# CHAPTER 4

# DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

## 4.1. Introduction

This chapter aims at analyzing the data collected through: 1) Pre- and post-questionnaires including speaking strategies, and given to both experimental and control groups. 2) Pre- and post-speaking tests administered to both groups in order to examine the anticipated results of the strategy training to improve the speaking proficiency of the adult EFL learners. 3) Minute papers written by the experimental group participants subsequent to the strategy training at the end of each lesson. 4) The diary kept by the researcher providing further information about the applications of the strategies by the participants and their reactions to the training lasted for four months. 5) Semi-structured interview had with the experimental group participants before the start of the study, and following the end of the time span dedicated to the application of strategy training.

The data obtained by the medium of pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaire and pre- and post-speaking tests were analyzed by SPSS (A statistical Package for Social Sciences) for Windows 17.0. Paired sample t-test and independent sample t-test of this statistical program were made use of.

## 4.2. Speaking Strategies Questionnaire Results

Speaking strategies questionnaire consisting of 44 strategies specifically effective on speaking skill were utilized to develop the speaking skills of the participants. The questionnaire was referred to in this study as a precious means of depicting the effect of strategy training on the improvement of speaking skills of the group which received the treatment. It was administered both in experimental and control group students in order to shed light on the speaking proficiency differences occurring in these groups.

Pre- and post-questionnaire results of the experimental and control groups are given in Tables 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19. They contain the mean and standard deviation and the significance value of each speaking strategy. For the analysis of the data coming from the pre- and post-speaking strategy questionnaires of the same group, paired sample t-test was used. However, so as to compare the speaking strategies

questionnaires of control and experimental group, independent sample t-test was utilized.

Statistically significant difference in the consciousness and usage of each speaking strategy is represented by the 'p' (significance) value. If the statistical value is ≤.005 probability level, it is accepted as statistically significant.

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

Memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies application by the participants before the launch and at the end of the study are given in separate tables below because it was thought that presenting the quantitative data in that way would provide a better analysis and comprehension of the changes existing between pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaires. A first glance at the results shown in Tables from 8. to 13. indicates a meaningful increase in almost all of the strategies used by the students after the treatment in the experimental group.

#### 4.2.1.1. Memory Strategies Results of the Experimental Group

Table 8

*Pre- and Post-Memory Strategies Results of the Experimental Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 1 | The relationship between the existing knowledge and the new things learnt | 2,35 | ,949 | 3,76 | ,683 | ,000 |
| 2 | Using new words in sentences | 1,70 | ,618 | 3,32 | ,818 | ,000 |
| 3 | Connecting the sound and image | 2,32 | ,852 | 2,30 | ,661 | ,881 |
| 4 | Using rhymes | 1,00 | ,000 | 3,19 | ,811 | ,000 |
| 5 | Reviewing lessons often | 2,24 | ,955 | 3,73 | ,652 | ,000 |

The first five items in the questionnaire are memory strategies. Strategy 1 in Table 8 is related to *thinking about the relationships between the previously obtained knowledge and new things the students are learning*. It is displayed in Table 8 that there is a statistically significant difference between the pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaire with ,000 P value. Mean value of the first speaking strategy was 2, 35 in

the pre-speaking strategies questionnaire; however, in the post-speaking strategies questionnaire it is seen as 3, 76.

Minute papers also provided information about experimental group participants' preference to use the first memory strategy. In these minute papers, the common view among the participants was that they connected the new knowledge with the prior knowledge, which is unquestionably essential for better understanding and comprehension in language learning and for the improvement of the speaking skill.

Second memory strategy in the questionnaire is ***using new English words in a sentence so that remembering them is possible.*** A significant difference (.000 p value) is observed in this strategy too. From the mean and standard deviation values of this strategy, it is understandable that the awareness and using of the strategy showed a rise with the help of the training. The participants in the experimental group were in the tendency of producing sentences with the new words or phrases learnt during the lessons, which enabled the development of the speaking proficiency. The comments of the learners in the minute papers, the information gathered through semi-structured interview support the result of the second memory strategy. Almost all of the students pointed out in the minute papers that they made sentences with the words they learnt during the lessons. The researcher stated in her diary "the students made use of the new words while making sentences, which has indispensible importance to remember the words".

A statistically significant different is not available (.881 p value) at the third memory strategy, connecting the sound and image. Oxford (1990, p. 61) stresses the importance of using imagery to recall the new word and expression that have been heard. The students were instructed to utilize this strategy; nevertheless, it was not used frequently by the participants to result in significant difference.

Another memory strategy, ***using rhymes***, showed a significant difference (.000 p value) between pre- and post-questionnaires via training. "Learners can use rhymes, especially in context, to remember new vocabulary they have heard (Oxford, 1990, p. 64)". The observations of the researcher in the diary covered the implementation of using rhymes especially when the time for learning new vocabulary came in the lessons.

***Reviewing lessons often***, the last strategy of memory strategy group is useful for remembering the new material in the target language. According to the results got from the pre- and post-questionnaires, the awareness and application of this memory strategy increased among the participants surrounded with training (.000 P value). Advocating

the result inferred from the questionnaires, the minute papers of the learners included plenty of sentences emphasizing the implementation of this strategy. In the minute paper one of the students noted “I review more often now. For example, I reviewed what I learnt yesterday. I can remember them better.” The observation of the researcher, in other words, the researcher’s diary, indicates students’ utilization of this strategy. Nevertheless, during the pre semi-structured interview the participants did not utter any sentence pointing out that they were reviewing lessons often, without which having success in learning a foreign language is not easily attained. The researcher in her diary noted “Revising what they learn regularly is very essential. At the beginning of the study the participants in the experimental group were not revising their lessons regularly. Therefore, I advised my students to revise the things we learn during the classes. I believe they will gain this responsibility in the future”. Another day she stated in her diary “It was public holiday. I thought that after a nine-day holiday the participants would have forgotten what I taught them. However, surprisingly they had revised what I had taught them and their performance was satisfactory in the speaking activities dealt with after the holiday.”

#### 4.2.1.2. Cognitive Strategies Results of the Experimental Group

Table 9

*Pre- and Post-Cognitive Strategies Results of the Experimental Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 6 | Saying new words several times | 1,51 | ,692 | 3,46 | ,605 | ,000 |
| 7 | Practicing the sounds | 2,14 | ,751 | 3,59 | ,798 | ,000 |
| 8 | Using words in different ways | 1,19 | ,518 | 2,68 | ,747 | ,000 |
| 9 | Starting conversations in English | 2,00 | ,782 | 2,92 | ,682 | ,000 |
| 10 | Trying to talk like a native speaker | 2,51 | 1,017 | 2,54 | ,869 | ,875 |
| 11 | Watching TV programs and films in English | 1,41 | ,725 | 2,08 | ,682 | ,000 |
| 12 | Similar words in the native and target language | 3,35 | ,789 | 3,78 | ,534 | ,003 |
| 13 | Trying to find patterns | 2,49 | ,768 | 3,38 | ,893 | ,000 |
| 14 | Finding the meanings of the words by dividing them | 2,22 | ,787 | 3,30 | ,812 | ,000 |
| 15 | Not translating word-for-word | 2,30 | ,845 | 3,24 | ,683 | ,000 |

Strategies from 6 to 15 in Table 9 are placed under the title of cognitive strategies. The sixth one, ***saying words many times*** possessed a statistically significant difference subsequent to the application of the strategy training with .000 P value. As put forth by Oxford in 1990, learners can improve their pronunciation, the use of vocabulary by repeating the words several times. The mean value rose from 1.51 to 3.46 as given in Table 9. This is also an indication of increased usage of this strategy by the participants. Since listening parts in their regular course book give chance to the students to repeat the new words and the sounds in the pronunciation section, they repeated the words several times.

In strategy 6 a statistically significant difference (.000 P value) is observed too. The participants dealt with the pronunciation parts in their regular course book very carefully, which is given in the researcher's diary. In the majority of the minute papers the students wrote "I practiced the sounds today". The researcher in her diary stated that practicing the sounds helped the participants strengthen their pronunciation, which is quite significant for a better outcome during the oral production.

Strategy 8 presents a significant difference between pre- and post-questionnaires as seen in Table 9. In the minute papers and the diary of the researcher, it was understood that the participants used the words in different ways; for example: ***My mother works as a cook, she cooks delicious meals.*** Producing sentences via oral production and by using words in different ways helped learners practice speaking English, and in the majority of the minute papers the participants indicated that they used words in various ways.

***Starting conversations in English*** was another influential speaking strategy for the realization of the purpose of this study. The researcher in her diary noted that even though the participants were not successful and willing to start conversation in English at the beginning of the study, they implemented this strategy in the following days of the training process. Participants' preference for starting conversations via their mother tongue was encountered during the pre semi-structured interview, however in pursuit of the training on ***starting conversations in English***, post semi-structured interview revealed that almost all the students were trying to start conversations in English, yet the researcher noted in the initial days of the training, in her diary, that the participants avoided asking even simple questions in the target language like ***Could you repeat that again, please?*** The mean value of this strategy in the pre-questionnaire is observed as 2.00, yet the result belonging to the post-questionnaire is 2.92. In the minute papers the majority of the students wrote down that they spoke English in the class "I am speaking English well. Speaking English better is waiting for me anymore. I was speaking English before, but now I am speaking better". During the semi-structured interview a male student said that he spoke more and more in English.

The following strategy, ***trying to talk like a native speaker***, does not show a statistically significant difference as seen in Table 9 .875 P value determines the difference which is not statistically significant. At the beginning of the study a questionnaire for determining language learning goals and objectives was carried out. The analysis of this questionnaire shows that the experimental group participants aimed at improving their speaking proficiency for a new or better job, because it is required for graduation, and for good grades; nevertheless, they did not aim to try to talk like a native speaker. Keeping the continuation of oral communication without the occurrence of the breakdowns was evaluated as sufficient by the participants of this particular study.

The next strategy, *watching TV shows, films in English,* has a significant difference with .000 P value. In the interview conducted at the end of the semester, they stressed the powerful support of watching films, and TV shows in English to improve their speaking proficiency. The majority of the students stated during the post semi-structured interview that they were learning the pronunciation of the words better when they made use of this strategy but in the pre semi-structured interview even though some of the students claimed that they were watching films in English, the rest stated that they preferred to watch films in Turkish.

*Similar words in the target and native language* is one of the strategies displaying statistically significant difference with .003 P value. Minute papers have lots of sentences covering the use of this specific strategy during training. This strategy enabled participants to remember some words easily, because they were very similar to the words in Turkish such as *comfort* in English and *konfor* in Turkish; *stress* in English and *stres* in Turkish. These words were recalled whilst speaking without consuming a lot of time for retrieval. In the researcher's diary there exists noticeable data showing that similar words in the target and native language were commonly dealt with.

*Trying to find patterns* showed significant difference too as can be seen in Table 9. Basic patterns that the participants could use while speaking were prepared and given to them. In addition, the patterns existing in students' regular course book were concentrated on. .000 P value indicates the change in the awareness and usage of this strategy. In the dairy, the researcher emphasized the frequency of these basic patterns in the sentences uttered by the participants.

Table 9 points out the significant difference in strategy 14, *finding the meanings of the words by dividing them* (.000 p value), and in strategy 15, *not translating word-for-word* (.000 P value). In the minute papers the participants of the experimental group stated that they utilized strategy 14 to find the meanings of the words by separating the words; for instance *create, creation, creative*. During the post semi-structured interview they said that they tried to understand the whole they heard and while speaking they made sentences in English, they formulated the sentences to give the meaning rather than placing words in sentences as in their mother tongue.

### 4.2.1.3. Compensation Strategies Results of the Experimental Group

Table 10

*Pre- and Post-Compensation Strategies Results of the Experimental Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 16 | Making guesses | 2,97 | ,897 | 3,11 | ,699 | ,453 |
| 17 | Describing something when a word cannot be remembered | 1,43 | ,899 | 2,76 | ,895 | ,000 |
| 18 | Using gestures | 1,86 | 1,032 | 2,49 | ,768 | ,002 |
| 19 | Coining words | 1,57 | ,899 | 2,00 | ,972 | ,044 |
| 20 | Switching to mother tongue | 1,05 | ,229 | 3,68 | ,669 | ,000 |
| 21 | Guessing the following words | 1,81 | ,739 | 3,05 | ,743 | ,000 |
| 22 | Using synonyms | 1,89 | ,966 | 2,73 | ,838 | ,000 |

In the 16th strategy belonging to compensation strategies group, a statistically significant difference cannot be observed as shown in Table 10 with .453 P value. The participants were not totally prone to making guesses. Although there is a little increase which is clear in the mean values of pre and post questionnaires; it is not sufficient for attaining the significant difference outcome.

Another compensation strategy, *describing something when a word cannot be remembered,* resulted in statistically significant difference (p= .000). During the pre semi-structured interview from the responses of the participants it was understood that when they could not describe something, they preferred to switch to their mother tongue. Following the strategy training during the post semi-structured interview with the experimental group students, one of the students stated that they did not stop speaking when they could not remember a word; instead, they tried to describe the word. In her diary the researcher noted “The students have been showing prominent efforts to be able to continue the conversation despite the handicaps resulting from the lack of vocabulary knowledge.”

*Using gestures* is a very effective means of going on conversation regardless of the obstacles one may come across when speaking. As Oxford (1990, p. 95) states “in this strategy, the learner uses physical motion, such as mime and gesture, in place of an expression during a conversation to indicate the meaning”. After the treatment carried out in the experimental group, a statistically significant difference came into existence (p= .002). In the minute papers, the participants stated that they used this strategy to

overcome the knowledge gaps in the target language. In the pre semi-structured interview, some of the participants said that they made use of the gestures as a means of conveying the desired meaning. In the post semi-structured interview the number of the participants uttering the utilization of the strategy *using gestures* increased. In the researcher's diary it was indicated that the participants of the experimental group were utilizing gestures to express the things they could not convey with the exact and appropriate words

Coining words is a medium of covering lack of vocabulary knowledge and it means making up new words to communicate. The result of the paired sample t-test shows that there occurred a statistically significant difference with .044 P value in this strategy. During the pre semi-structured interview, the participants complained about not possessing a rich vocabulary knowledge, which was, according to them, one of the reasons of not being able to carry out a conversation successfully. Coining words helped the participants express their thoughts by making up new words when they do not know or remember the correct words. In the post semi-structured interview one of the students said "I make up new words. It is really helpful because sometimes I cannot remember the proper words."

The strategy following *coining words* is *switching to mother tongue,* which demonstrated a widespread usage among the experimental group participants as dwelt upon by the researcher in the diary. The mean value of the strategy rose from 1.05 to 3.68, and P value is .000 as depicted in Table 10. If the minute papers are carefully examined, it is overtly observable that the students in the experimental group applied this strategy whenever they found themselves stuck in choosing the appropriate words in the target language. A large amount of the responses got from the participants in the pre semi-structured revealed that they were immediately switching to Turkish at times of difficulty resulting from various factors including not being capable of recalling words, making sentences or affective factors. During the post-speaking test, it was noted that the students started using this strategy consciously with the help of the training.

In the last two compensation strategies, a significant difference occurred as can be seen from Table 10. The participants tried to use synonym words when difficulties were encountered in terms of remembering a word, the observation of such kind of situations is available in the diary of the researcher. She underlined the fact that the participants were trying to use synonyms instead of the words they had difficulty to remember and she continued: 'It is a great pleasure for me to follow the improvements

in the speaking skills of my students. They do not give up and try to substitute the words they want to utter but cannot remember with synonyms'.

#### 4.2.1.4. Metacognitive Strategies Results of the Experimental Group

Table 11

*Pre- and Post-Metacognitive Strategies Results of the Experimental Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 23 | Finding ways to use English | 2,68 | ,818 | 3,38 | ,828 | ,001 |
| 24 | Topic avoidance | 2,51 | ,961 | 3,27 | ,804 | ,000 |
| 25 | Selecting topic | 2,81 | ,776 | 3,51 | ,804 | ,000 |
| 26 | Noticing mistakes to be better | 2,84 | ,764 | 3,46 | ,730 | ,001 |
| 27 | Paying attention when someone is speaking English | 3,19 | ,739 | 3,62 | ,639 | ,008 |
| 28 | Finding out how to better learners of English | 2,65 | 1,086 | 3,35 | ,789 | ,005 |
| 29 | Looking for people to speak English | 1,41 | ,644 | 2,59 | ,762 | ,000 |
| 30 | Clear goals to improve English | 2,89 | 1,048 | 3,54 | ,650 | ,001 |
| 31 | Thinking about progress | 2,49 | ,932 | 3,62 | ,639 | ,000 |

The strategies from the 23rd one to the 31st one in Table 11 are placed under the strategy group metacognitive strategies. These strategies direct learners towards turning into self-regulated learners, and that is a prerequisite for achieving success in the lifelong language learning process.

The first metacognitive strategy is *finding ways to use English* is correlated with the view that *practice makes perfect*. A statistical significant difference can be observed for this strategy (p= .001). In the minute papers the participants stated that they utilized every circumstance they came across with in the class, and a more significant issue was uttered by the students in the post semi-structured interview. The majority of the participants said that they spoke in English in the dormitory with the other students capable of speaking English, which is absolutely very essential to continue attempts to speak English as autonomous learners. Nevertheless, in the pre semi-structured interview the participants said that they tried to avoid the circumstances where they would need to speak English.

The second metacognitive strategy is *topic avoidance*. There is an upward movement as regards to statistically significant difference with .000 P value. The

participants in the pre semi-structured interview declared that they preferred not to talk about things for which they did not know the necessary words, concepts or grammatical structures. During the post semi-structured interview it was deduced from the responses of the participants that they consciously avoided the topics for which they did not have sufficient grammar or vocabulary knowledge.

*Selecting the topic* may be evaluated as having connections with the previous strategy, *topic avoidance*. It showed a significant difference which is obvious from the mean value of the post-questionnaire 3. 51. In the minute papers, the participants stated that they were happy and more successful when they selected the topic to talk about. In the diary of the researcher, this strategy was maintained, specifically as a point full of participants' trials to speak better and better on the appealing topics. This can be explained by the students' readiness to talk with their existing vocabulary, structure knowledge.

The participants also *noticed their mistakes to be better speakers of English*. The students cared about the mistakes they made during speaking, and they took those mistakes into consideration not to repeat the same mistakes and to speak better and better. In the minute papers, and post semi-structured interview they emphasized the fact that they tried not to make the same mistakes while speaking and they seriously dwelt on the corrections made by the researcher.

A statistically significant difference cannot be seen in Table 11 in the strategy *paying attention when someone is speaking English.* Before training they were paying attention to the person who was speaking English, after the treatment they received, they continued to pay attention, and a small change occurred, yet the change was not adequate to result in the outcome of statistically significant difference.

In the strategies 28, 29, 30, 31 a significant difference occurred that is displayed in Table 11. The participants of the experimental group stated that they tried to find out the ways that could be useful to be better learners of English during the interview conducted at the end of the training. Nonetheless, before the start of the study in the pre semi-structured interview the participants' responses indicated that they were not in search of finding as many ways as possible to practice English. In the post semi-structured interview one of the students stated that he spoke English with any person he could; for example, he had spoken in English with an American invited to the classroom. The students also had clear goals to improve their speaking skill. In the researcher's diary, it was indicated that the participants were conscious about the

significance of developing speaking proficiency. This perception was witnessed in the questionnaire that was carried out at the beginning of the study to bring forth the goals of the participants, among which succeeding high proficiency at speaking skill takes its place.

The last metacognitive strategy *thinking about progress* has a significant difference with .000 P value. In the post semi-structured interview, one of the questions was about their improvement since the start of the semester; and the majority of the participants stressed that there was a substantial difference between their speaking proficiency level at the beginning of the term and after being exposed to training. In the researcher's diary it was emphasized that the participants were comparing their level at the beginning of the study and the improvement of their speaking skill with the support of the strategy training they were exposed to. The awareness of the improvement in speaking skill was a motivating factor for sustaining the strategy usage among the students. In the diary it was also stated that through the class discussions on the effect of strategy training the participants commented on the differences taking place in parallel to the training and in the diary the researcher drew the attention to the happiness she had owing to the efforts of the students and the upward movement in the speaking skills of the participants. The minute papers advocated the data collected from the researcher's diary and post semi-structured interview, as the participants noted their happiness resulting from the increase in the speaking proficiency. One of the students stated in his minute paper: 'I am speaking English now and I will speak better anymore.'

### 4.2.1.5. Affective Strategies Results of the Experimental Group

Table 12

*Pre- and Post-Affective Strategies Results of the Experimental Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 32 | Relaxing to speak English | 1,84 | ,898 | 2,95 | ,705 | ,000 |
| 33 | Encouraging themselves to speak English | 2,00 | 1,000 | 2,65 | ,824 | ,009 |
| 34 | Giving reward when s/he does well | 1,30 | ,571 | 3,27 | ,932 | ,000 |
| 35 | Noticing the tension when speaking English | 1,95 | ,848 | 3,57 | ,647 | ,000 |
| 36 | Writing down feelings in minute papers | 1,14 | ,585 | 3,84 | ,602 | ,000 |
| 37 | Talking to someone about their language learning journey | 2,62 | 1,210 | 3,32 | ,709 | ,002 |

Strategies 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37 in Table 12 are brought together under affective strategies group. A statistically significant difference is displayed for the 32$^{nd}$ strategy in the speaking strategies questionnaire with .000 P value. Being capable of controlling excitement whilst oral production serves as an aid to perform well in due course of oral communication. The participants of the experimental group exercised deep breathing techniques to calm down before starting conversations in English. In the minute papers, the majority of the learners stated that they utilized this strategy; as well as minute papers, in the diary of the researcher, data supporting the implementation of this strategy could be found. In the diary she noted that the participants exercised deep breathing techniques and the reactions of the students to deep breathing were considerably positive.

Strategy 33, *encouraging themselves to speak* is one of the affective strategies showing increase subsequent to the treatment the experimental group participants received. Self-confidence and self-encouragement along with the encouragement coming from the tutor or the peers play an essential role for the attainment of urge to speak in English. In the minute papers, one of the students wrote down “I believe in myself, and I will speak better”. This sentence indicates the application of self-encouragement strategy by the students. During the pre semi-structured interview the majority of the participants stated that they were frightened of making mistakes while speaking and they did not think that they would succeed speaking English well.

Nevertheless, the responses received from the experimental group participants in the post semi-structured interview reflected that approximately all of them were self-confident when the need for speaking arises even if there still existed the probability of making mistakes. The change in the behavior of the participants toward speaking was an indication of the positive impact of the strategy training.

*Giving reward when s/he does well* is the following strategy and as can be understood from Table 12 the mean value of this strategy demonstrated an increase when compared to the mean value of the pre questionnaire. One of the students in her minute paper says "I will go shopping today, because I spoke very well in the lesson." As well as self-reward, teacher's reward is of great importance to the students. The researcher in her diary stated that she uttered praising words for the students when they did well during speaking.

The following strategy *noticing the tension when speaking English* displays a statistically significant difference in Table 12 with .000 P value. Searching into the depth of the cause of the problems simplifies the procedure to make up solutions in order to prevent the occurrence of the problems. One of the explanations of not being able to carry out conversation well is not *feeling relaxed and undergoing the impact of tension*. The participants of the experimental group, as can be detected from Table 4.5., were more aware of the negative effect of tension for a good performance in speaking. In the minute papers one of the students wrote down that she was very excited and could not take the excitement under control. The researcher, in her diary, underlined the tension existing among students; this tension caused the emergence of some problems in due course of speaking such as forgetting words, the use of inappropriate structures and words by the students. It is noteworthy to stress that the pre semi-structured interview provided an indispensible amount of comment from the participants shedding light on the tension hindering the successful oral communication.

*Writing down feelings in minute papers* is the last affective strategy in the speaking strategy questionnaire, and as seen in Table 12 a significant difference (p= .000) occurred. Following the strategy training at the end of each lesson, the students wrote minute papers in which they noted the speaking strategies they learnt during the courses and their feelings, the usefulness of the learnt strategies.

### 4.2.1.6. Social Strategies Results of the Experimental Group

Table 13

*Pre- and Post-Social Strategies Results of the Experimental Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 38 | Asking the other person to slow down | 2,16 | 1,118 | 3,43 | ,765 | ,000 |
| 39 | Asking for correction while talking | 1,35 | ,716 | 3,89 | ,393 | ,000 |
| 40 | Practicing English with others | 1,59 | ,762 | 3,24 | ,683 | ,000 |
| 41 | Asking for help | 2,24 | ,925 | 2,81 | ,811 | ,004 |
| 42 | Asking questions in English | 1,22 | ,584 | 2,86 | ,673 | ,000 |
| 43 | Learning the culture of English speakers | 1,08 | ,277 | 1,86 | ,536 | ,000 |
| 44 | Asking for verification | 1,78 | ,976 | 3,68 | ,626 | ,000 |

From the 38$^{th}$ to the last speaking strategy (44$^{th}$ strategy) in Table 13 the strategies take place under the strategy group social strategies. The first social strategy is *talking to someone about their language learning journey.* This strategy shows a statistical significant difference following training (p= .002). In one of the minute papers, one of the students noted that he talked to his mother about the procedure he went through while trying to improve his speaking skill. In the post semi-structured interview the majority of the experimental group participants stated that sharing their ideas with other people and getting advices were supportive for them in their language learning journey. Talking to someone about their language learning journey is a strategy the participants started to utilize after the treatment.

*Asking the other person to slow down* is the second social strategy in the speaking strategies questionnaire. It displayed a significant difference with .000 p value. Minute papers put forth that the common view among the experimental group learners is that using the question "Could you slow down, please?" is a very effective sentence to understand the missed or misunderstood sentences or words. It is also mentioned in the diary that all of the participants in the experimental group utilized this strategy. In the minute papers a student noted: 'when I do not understand something, I ask the other person to say it again'. Post semi-structured interview is a valuable source to enlighten the application of this strategy. The majority of the participants mentioned the strategy *asking the other person to slow down* has a prevailed use and is useful in order to comprehend what the speaker is talking about.

The next social strategy is *asking for correction while talking.* This strategy also demonstrated a statistically significant difference. The participants wanted the researcher to correct them while speaking. In the minute papers, one of the students pointed out “My teacher corrected my mistakes, it was helpful”.

*Asking for help, asking questions in English, asking for verification, learning the culture of English speakers* displayed a significant increase in Table 13 The common view among the experimental group participants was that when they were in need of help to get over the adverse effects of any problem during speaking, asking for help was an easily applicable speaking strategy. In the post semi-structured interview conducted at the end of the strategy training, one of the students said that she always asked for verification. In the diary the researcher stated that the participants tried to ask their questions in English, and focusing on some cultural issues existing in students’ regular course book helped learners speak better.

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

Pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaire results of the control group were analyzed and given under the title of six strategy groups: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies in Tables 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19.

#### 4.2.2.1. Memory Strategies Results of the Control Group

Table 14

*Pre- and Post-Memory Strategies Results of the Control Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 1 | The relationship between the existing knowledge and the new things learnt | 2,31 | ,963 | 2,37 | 1,003 | ,838 |
| 2 | Using new words in sentences | 1,83 | ,747 | 1,83 | ,618 | 1,000 |
| 3 | Connecting the sound and image | 1,49 | ,951 | 1,74 | ,919 | ,312 |
| 4 | Using rhymes | 1,14 | ,430 | 1,20 | ,473 | ,624 |
| 5 | Reviewing lessons often | 2,03 | ,857 | 1,57 | ,739 | ,016 |

Table 14 enables making comments on the differences that might have occurred in the awareness and usage of speaking strategies among control group participants. In terms of memory strategies, as can be seen in Table 14, statistically significant differences cannot be observed in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th strategy items (p= .838, 1.000, .312, .624 respectively). Since the control group participants were not exposed to training provided on LLSs, a statistically significant difference is not observed between the results of the pre and post questionnaires.

The fifth strategy in the speaking strategies questionnaire, *reviewing lessons often,* which is also the last memory strategy, indicates a statistical difference with .016 P value. However, in this strategy a negative difference has occurred, which is demonstrated by the 2.03 mean value in the pre questionnaire and 1.57 mean value in the post questionnaire. This can be explained by the lower motivation level among the control group students towards the end of the term when compared to their motivation level at the beginning of the term and not being exposed to treatment.

### 4.2.2.2. Cognitive Strategies Results of the Control Group

Table 15

*Pre-and Post-Cognitive Strategies Results of the Control Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 6 | Saying new words several times | 1,60 | ,695 | 1,63 | ,843 | ,872 |
| 7 | Practicing the sounds | 2,11 | ,993 | 1,80 | ,797 | ,148 |
| 8 | Using words in different ways | 1,43 | ,778 | 1,37 | ,598 | ,729 |
| 9 | Starting conversations in English | 1,49 | ,818 | 1,09 | ,284 | ,011 |
| 10 | Trying to talk like a native speaker | 1,77 | 1,003 | 1,97 | ,985 | ,421 |
| 11 | Watching Tv programs and films in English | 1,89 | ,932 | 1,77 | ,910 | ,535 |
| 12 | Similar words in the native and target language | 2,37 | ,910 | 2,40 | ,881 | ,895 |
| 13 | Trying to find patterns | 2,11 | ,993 | 1,94 | ,765 | ,431 |
| 14 | Finding the meanings of the words by dividing them | 2,49 | 1,067 | 1,49 | ,818 | ,000 |
| 15 | Not translating word-for-word | 2,40 | 1,063 | 1,69 | ,963 | ,008 |

Strategies from 6 to 15 in Table 15 subsume under the strategy group, cognitive strategies. In the $6^{th}$, $7^{th}$, $8^{th}$ strategies, statistically significant differences could not be attained as given in Table 15. In the following strategy, ***starting conversations in English,*** a negative difference is shown in the Table as the participants in the control group were not willing to communicate in English; furthermore, they did not receive the strategy training facilitating to get over the stressful periods having effects on speaking in English.

In the $10^{th}$, $11^{th}$, $12^{th}$, $13^{th}$ strategies, significant difference is not observed between the results of the pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaire. In the $14^{th}$, and $15^{th}$ strategies, displayed negative difference is also an indication of the influence of not receiving training on LLSs and raising consciousness to utilize these LLSs in their efforts to speak better.

### 4.2.2.3. Compensation Strategies Results of the Control Group

Table 16

*Pre- and Post-Compensation Strategies Results of the Control Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 16 | Making guesses | 2,63 | 1,190 | 2,14 | 1,061 | ,098 |
| 17 | Describing something when a word cannot be remembered | 1,89 | ,900 | 2,23 | 1,140 | ,172 |
| 18 | Using gestures | 2,29 | 1,296 | 1,60 | 1,035 | ,015 |
| 19 | Coining words | 1,94 | 1,110 | 1,23 | ,731 | ,006 |
| 20 | Switching to mother tongue | 1,37 | ,690 | 2,83 | 1,014 | ,000 |
| 21 | Guessing the following words | 1,66 | ,639 | 1,43 | ,698 | ,174 |
| 22 | Using synonyms | 1,91 | ,951 | 1,86 | ,944 | ,818 |

Strategies from 16 to 22 in Table 16 belong to the strategy group, compensation strategies. In the 20$^{th}$ strategy, ***switching to mother tongue***, a statistically significant difference is indicated with .000 P value. Control group participants were usually demanded to speak in English during the classes, and although they were asked the questions in English, their reactions included only the answers in Turkish.

In the 16$^{th}$, 17$^{th}$, 19$^{th}$ strategies a decrease in the mean value in the post-speaking strategies questionnaire is observed in Table 16. In the 18$^{th}$, 21$^{st,}$ and 22$^{nd}$ strategies a significant difference between the pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaire is not seen in Table 16.

### 4.2.2.4. Metacognitive Strategies Results of the Control Group

Table 17

*Pre-and Post- Metacognitive Strategies Results of the Control Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 23 | Finding ways to use English | 2.06 | 1,136 | 1,69 | ,832 | ,167 |
| 24 | Topic avoidance | 2,69 | 1,183 | 3,23 | 1,087 | ,105 |
| 25 | Selecting topic | 2,31 | 1,051 | 2,69 | ,963 | ,141 |
| 26 | Noticing mistakes to be better | 2,51 | 1,095 | 2,37 | ,910 | ,537 |
| 27 | Paying attention when someone is speaking English | 2,37 | 1,060 | 2,83 | 1,098 | ,122 |
| 28 | Finding out how to better learners of English | 2,60 | ,976 | 2,49 | 1,040 | ,673 |
| 29 | Looking for people to speak English | 2,06 | 1,110 | 1,86 | ,944 | ,433 |
| 30 | Clear goals to improve English | 2,80 | ,964 | 3,17 | ,923 | ,102 |
| 31 | Thinking about progress | 2,83 | ,954 | 2,89 | ,832 | ,812 |

The strategies from 23 to 31 in Table 17 take their places under the strategy group metacognitive strategies. The pre and post metacognitive strategies results in Table 17 do not demonstrate statistically significant differences, which is overt with the P values. The control group participants were not trained about LLSs to facilitate the language learning process, and especially to improve their speaking skills. The participants were not willing to turn into self-regulated learners. Therefore, students' answers did not result in the coming up of the significant difference between the pre- and post- questionnaire results. For instance, *finding ways to use English,* does not possess a significant difference; however, this strategy is an indispensible means of surviving when the teachers do not backup them.

### 4.2.2.5. Affective Strategies Results of the Control Group

Table 18

*Pre- and Post-Affective Strategies Results in the Control Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 32 | Relaxing to speak English | 2,71 | 1,126 | 2,09 | ,981 | ,032 |
| 33 | Encouraging themselves to speak English | 2,31 | ,993 | 2,11 | ,900 | ,456 |
| 34 | Giving reward when s/he does well | 2,14 | 1,004 | 1,43 | ,850 | ,004 |
| 35 | Noticing the tension when speaking English | 2,17 | ,785 | 2,37 | ,973 | ,344 |
| 36 | Writing down feelings in minute papers | 1,14 | ,550 | 1,09 | ,507 | ,661 |
| 37 | Talking to someone about their language learning journey | 2,43 | 1,313 | 3,29 | ,957 | ,010 |

Strategies from 32 to 37 in Table 18 are under the strategy group affective strategies. In the strategies, *relaxing to speak English, giving reward when s/he does well, talking to someone about their language learning journey,* a significant difference is observed in Table 18. Nevertheless, as can be understood from the mean values of pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaire results, there occurred a decrease in the mean values of post questionnaire.

In the 33$^{rd}$, 35$^{th}$, 36$^{th}$ affective strategies a statistically significant difference is not seen in Table 18 as can be detected from the P values. Control group students' low level of motivation and not having been trained on LLSs can be the explanations for not coming across with statistically significant differences in these strategies.

In the 37$^{th}$ strategy, *talking to someone about their language learning journey,* displays a significant difference in Table 18 with .010 P value. Control group students needed to talk about the harsh language learning process.

### 4.2.2.6. Social Strategies Results of the Control Group

Table 19

*Pre- and Post-Social Strategies Results of the Control Group*

| No | Item | Pre Questionnaire | | Post Questionnaire | | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Mean | S.D | Mean | S.D | |
| 38 | Asking the other person to slow down | 2,51 | 1,095 | 2,17 | 1,150 | ,292 |
| 39 | Asking for correction while talking | 2,34 | 1,083 | 1,63 | ,942 | ,018 |
| 40 | Practicing English with others | 1,74 | ,852 | 1,46 | ,611 | ,152 |
| 41 | Asking for help | 2,80 | 1,052 | 2,91 | 1,222 | ,676 |
| 42 | Asking questions in English | 1,91 | ,981 | 1,31 | ,758 | ,004 |
| 43 | Learning the culture of English speakers | 1,14 | ,355 | 1,26 | ,701 | ,353 |
| 44 | Asking for verification | 2,69 | 1,207 | 2,34 | 1,162 | ,276 |

From strategy 38 to strategy 44 in Table 19, the strategies are subsumed under the strategy group social strategies. In the 39$^{th}$ and 42$^{nd}$ strategies, a change can be seen in the mean values of the pre and post-questionnaires, and the P value too. Nevertheless, this change is not $\leq .005$. The students did not demand correction while talking, and during the lessons they did not ask questions in English. So in these strategies a statistically significant difference in a positive way is not achieved. In the 38$^{th}$, 40$^{th}$, 41$^{st}$, 43$^{rd}$, and 44$^{th}$ strategies, significant difference is not obtained as given in Table 19. The control group participants did not make use of these strategies due to not being trained about language learning strategies.

## 4.2. Pre- and Post-Speaking Tests

At the beginning of the study a speaking test was conducted in order to determine the equality regarding the speaking proficiency between the control and experimental group.

In the following tables the results of speaking tests which were analyzed through SPSS are given.

Table 20

*Pre-Speaking Test Results of the Experimental and Control Group*

| Group | N | Mean | S.D | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Experimental | 37 | 74,59 | 18,611 | 50 | 100 |
| Control | 35 | 68,14 | 19,670 | 35 | 100 |

**P= .931**

The results of the pre-speaking test were utilized to shed light on the equivalence concerning the speaking proficiency levels of participants both in the experimental and control groups. The interpretation of Table 20 indicates that there was not a significant difference between the two groups before the launch of the study. .931 P value (.931 > .005) also supports the fact that a difference that could signal the significant speaking proficiency difference between the two groups did not occur at the beginning of the study. Even though there is a slight difference in the mean values of the two groups, it is not at a level to signify the inequality between the experimental and control groups.

Pre-speaking test was prepared in relation to the speaking activities available in the participants' regular course book.

Table 21

*Post-Speaking Test Results of Experimental and Control Group*

| Group | N | Mean | S.D | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Experimental | 37 | 83,65 | 14,844 | 50 | 100 |
| Control | 35 | 62,71 | 14,519 | 35 | 85 |

**P= .000**

In pursuit of the implementation of treatment to the experimental group, and leaving the control group untrained about speaking strategies, to detect the speaking proficiency levels of the groups, a post-speaking test was carried out following the four months, the duration of the study. Table 21 shows that the mean value of the experimental group was 83.65 at the end of the study, yet the mean value of the control group was 62.71. Besides the mean values, the probability value, .000, emphasizes the significant speaking proficiency difference between the two groups.

Table 22

*Experimental Group Pre- and Post-Speaking Test Results*

| Group | Test | N | Mean | S.D | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Experimental | Pre | 37 | 74,59 | 18,611 | 50 | 100 |
| | Post | 37 | 83,65 | 14,844 | 50 | 100 |

**P= .001**

Table 22 provides information about the pre- and post-speaking test results of the experimental group. Pre stands for the pre-speaking test scores and post stands for the post-speaking test scores. The mean values indicate the increase in the speaking proficiency levels of the experimental group participants. The mean value of the pre-speaking test is 74.59, and in the post-speaking test, the mean value of the post peaking test is 83.65.

The P value .001 is also an indication of the significant difference having occurred at the post-speaking test owing to the strategy training on developing speaking skill.

Table 23

*Control Group Pre- and Post -Speaking Test Results*

| Group | Test | N | Mean | S.D | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Control | Pre | 35 | 68,14 | 19,670 | 35 | 100 |
| | Post | 35 | 62,71 | 14,519 | 35 | 85 |

**P= .036**

In Table 23 pre represents the pre-speaking test scores, and post represents post speaking test results. The mean value of the control group in the pre-speaking test is 68.14; however, in the post-speaking test it is 62.71. A decrease in the mean value is observed in the table. The control group participants were not exposed to strategy training, the awareness of the control group participants about the effect of speaking strategies did not raise; in addition, they did not use the speaking strategies that were applied by the experimental group participants. Due to the low level of motivation, not being willing to practice speaking English, a fall is observed in the post-speaking test result of the control group.

## 4.3. Summary of the Findings

The speaking strategies questionnaire conducted both at the beginning and end of the study in both experimental and control groups served as a crucial medium of detecting the effect of strategy training.

Pre-speaking strategies questionnaire results indicate that the participants of the both groups were not aware of the strategy usage to improve their speaking skills. Although they anticipated improving their speaking skills, they were not conscious about the attempts that could be undergone via referring to the speaking strategies for the demanded results. Following the strategy training it was indicated in Tables 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 that the participants comprising the experimental group were much more aware of the speaking strategies than the control group. This result can be got by the statistical differences observed in 42 strategies of the speaking strategies questionnaire through the statistical analysis of the pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaire. However, Tables 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19. showing the statistical changes in terms of making use of speaking strategies indicates that there was a positive statistical change only in two strategies in the control group. Thirty-one strategies did not reveal any statistically significant difference between the pre and post speaking strategies questionnaire, and the rest of the 44 strategies, 11 strategies, displayed a significant difference; however this difference was not a sample of positive increase in the strategy implementation, in opposition to this, a decline in the strategy usage was deduced from the statistical values of the 11 strategies.

Pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaire administered among both experimental and control group participants was a demonstration of the raised consciousness on the effect of strategies and strategy usage among experimental group participants after the strategy training, yet due to not having instruction on language learning strategies, the responses of the control group participants to the items in the questionnaire did not produce a statistically significant difference.

Pre- and post-speaking tests supported the information gathered through the analysis of the pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaire. Tables 20, 21, 22, 23 present the pre- and post-speaking test results of the experimental and control group students. As shown in Table 20 there is no significant difference between the pre-speaking test results of the experimental and control groups. Nevertheless, following the strategy training the experimental group students, and leaving control group untrained

Table 21, 22 displayed the significant difference experienced by the participants of the experimental group.

In the experimental group, there existed a statistically significant increase in the post-speaking test results. Consequently, a statistically significant difference took place between the pre- and post-speaking test results of the experimental group. A similar instance did not occur in the control group's pre- and post-speaking tests since the participants of the control group was not exposed to strategy training. Table 23 display the fall in the speaking success of the control group participants in the post speaking test. Control group students' not being aware of the influence of the strategy use for improving speaking skill and hence not using speaking strategies can be taken into account as points explaining not possessing a positive increase in the speaking test results of the control group.

Minute papers provided indispensible clues about the ideas of the experimental group participants on the strategy training scheduled to improve their speaking proficiency. At the end of each lesson after the strategy training, the participants wrote about the strategies *they were taught and their feelings, whether they worked or not, how they felt about the stage they arrived in speaking English by using speaking strategies*. The minute papers helped the researcher in interpreting that the participants were aware of their own progress, and were improving in speaking skill with the support of the strategies they learnt during the lessons. The strategy training helped the emergence of self-encouragement among the learners, in other words strategy training helped the participants believe in themselves and encourage themselves in the course of oral production. They could survive with the strategies when they come across with difficulties regardless of the lack of linguistic or vocabulary knowledge even without the help of their teachers.

As well as the minute papers, interviews added valuable information about the impact of strategy training on the experimental group participants. The participants commented that speaking was the most difficult, tiring, and time-consuming skill to acquire. For this reason, during the post-interview the common notion among the participants was that speaking strategies play an important role in the process of the prevention of the communication breakdowns. The students were applying the strategies that were explained and explicitly taught to the participants while speaking, and what is more striking is that they would go on using these strategies in their following academic education when they will not be backed up by the researcher. In the post semi-structured

interview one of the questions was whether they would go on using the speaking strategies in the following term and years and the majority of the responses from the participants was that they would continue addressing to them while speaking. This was an indication of the raised consciousness among the participants about the effectiveness and facilitative nature of the speaking strategies.

The diary of the researcher included the reactions of the participants to the strategy training, the observation of the researcher while the participants actively performed in the speaking tasks of their regular course book in pairs or small groups. The observations revealed that the participants in the experimental group tried to experiment with whatever strategy they learnt and spoke as much and well as possible.

# CHAPTER 5

# CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This chapter provides the conclusions, discussion and implications of this study gathered through pre- and post-speaking strategies questionnaire, pre- and post-speaking test, the researcher's diary, minute papers, semi-structured interview.

## 5.1. Introduction

This study was carried out to seek for the impact of the strategies-based instruction on the adult EFL learners' improvement in speaking skill. The participants of this study were prep-class students attending English preparatory program at Sütçü İmam University. Speaking skill when compared to the other three skills requires more time and practice circumstances to improve. In the rigorous journey set out for improving speaking skill, the influence of strategy training is considered worth focusing on. The participants of the experimental group were trained on forty-four speaking strategies dealt with separately under six strategy groups, memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. In order to collect the data that would be concentrated on to make the conclusions of the study, speaking strategies questionnaire, speaking tests, minute papers, diaries were utilized. In accordance with the data gathered through the instruments the research questions below were targeted to be answered:

1. Do Turkish adult students bring any different problems from those in the related literature in English language speaking classes?
2. Are they aware of speaking strategies?
3. Do they use speaking strategies?
4. What type of strategies do they use before training?
5. Will there be any meaningful difference between the training group and the control group after training?
6. What type of speaking strategies do they use after training?

## 5.2. Conclusions

The data collected by the data collection instruments were analyzed so as to find out the answers of the research questions that were determined before the start of the study.

1. *Do Turkish adult students bring any different problems from those in the related literature in English language speaking classes?*

Common problems encountered by the adult learners in due course of oral production are *not being capable of controlling feelings such as excitement and anxiety, the gap in the linguistic knowledge of the target language, the fear of not getting the appreciation of the peers, teachers, and impediments arising from the deficiencies in the target language vocabulary knowledge.*

The interviews, the minute papers and the researcher's diary indicated that the participants of the experimental group had problems like the ones existing in the related literature concerning the adult learners. The comments of the participants during the interview, in the minute papers reveal the fundamental problems causing the emergence of communication breakdown.

One of the most striking and frequently conveyed problems is the overwhelming dominance of excitement during oral production. One of the participants stated that she was too excited to speak. The observations of the researcher also indicated students' not being able to regulate their excitement, and they were afraid of making mistakes. The majority of the participants stated that speaking was the most difficult skill, because excessive excitement results in forgetting the suitable words, not carrying out the communication appropriately.

Lack of vocabulary and linguistic knowledge was another influential problem that the participants came across with during speaking. Additionally, not being able to understand what the speaker says was emphasized by the participants as an impediment in front of the increased performance in speaking proficiency.

Within the scope of this study affective strategies supported the participants when they were excited at the moment of speaking. For the lack of vocabulary and linguistic knowledge, memory, cognitive, compensation strategies were utilized by the participants. Students complained about not

having opportunities to practice English outside the territory of the classroom. They could speak in English only within the walls of the classroom in the activities of their course book, and they did not have other chances to practice English out of the class hours. So as to strengthen the deficient sides of the experimental group participants, social strategies were taught and opportunities were created for the students to experiment with the speaking strategies.

*2- Are they aware of speaking strategies?*

Before the training, the students were using some of the strategies which can be seen in Tables 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13. However, semi-structured interview administered at the beginning of the study underlined that the experimental group students were not referring to these strategies consciously, in other words they were not aware of the speaking strategies. The participants' not being aware of speaking strategies is supported by the strategy *switching to mother tongue*. In the pre semi-structured some of the participants stated that they would start to speak in Turkish when they could not express their feelings, thoughts in English, however they were not aware of the fact that switching to mother is a strategy that can be intentionally applied for the purpose of continuing conversation regardless of the lack of vocabulary knowledge. During the post semi-structured interview and the data obtained from the post-speaking strategy questionnaire indicate that the participants became aware of the existence and positive impact of this strategy.

*3- Do they use speaking strategies?*

This study utilized the speaking strategies comprised of six strategy groups determined by Oxford (1990), memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategy groups. The table showing the mean values of the speaking strategies used by the experimental group participants before the training provides information about this question. As can be seen in Tables 9, 12, 13 participants were utilizing the strategies *similar words in the native and target language*, *talking to someone about their language learning journey, having clear goals to improve English* before the launch of the strategy training. Nevertheless, as suggested by Oxford (1990) strategies might be used unconsciously by the learners and semi-structured interview

carried out at the beginning of the study revealed that the students were utilizing those strategies unconsciously.

*4- What type of strategies do they use before training?*

This particular study is based on Oxford's SILL (1990). Therefore, the strategies upon which the training was provided were given under six major strategy classes. Of 37 students seven stated that they were using the memory strategy, *the relationship between the existing knowledge and the new things learnt.*

Some of the strategies under cognitive strategy group were utilized by the participants such as *trying to talk like native speakers, similar words in the native and target language, making guesses* as could be deduced from the mean and standard deviation values in Table 8.

Compensation strategies such as *using gestures, synonyms, describing something when a word cannot be remembered* were unconsciously used by the experimental group participants. *Topic avoidance, selecting topic* is among the metacognitive strategies that were made use of before the training.

Affective strategies like *relaxing to speak, self-encouragement* were used by the learners although the percentages are not very high. *Asking for help, asking for clarification* are the social strategies referred to by the participants before the training.

*5- Will there be any meaningful difference between the training group and the control group after training?*

The participants of the experimental group started to use speaking strategies consciously with regard to the demands of the speaking tasks following the implementation of the training. As shown in Table 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 the mean values, p values indicate widespread application of the speaking strategies after the completion of the training. Furthermore, the data collected by the medium of semi-structured interview, researcher's diary and minute papers and their performance during the post-speaking test supported the data gathered from the post speaking strategies questionnaire. The participants consciously and prevailingly commenced to use speaking strategies after the training. Nonetheless, as seen in the table showing the speaking proficiency of the experimental and control group in the post speaking test and as obtained from the post speaking strategy questionnaire, there occurred a meaningful

difference between the training and control group following the training in terms of awareness of strategy usage and their application in due course of oral production.

*6- What type of speaking strategies do they use after training?*

The students experimented with the strategies in the course of the implementation of the speaking activities in their course book. These strategies served to the improvement in speaking proficiency of the participants in different ways.

Memory strategies supported the participants with the storage and the retrieval of the new information. Storage and retrieval of the new information are the two key functions of the memory strategies (Oxford, 1990). Considering the relationship between the new and previously learnt knowledge, using new words in sentences were prevailingly preferred strategies by the participants. In the minute papers, the majority of the participants stated that they made sentences with the new words, and while speaking, they took the relationship between the new and prior knowledge into account. One of the students said “I like making sentences with the new words, because I can remember these words better”.

Compensation strategies were widely referred to overcome the moments of difficulties that might occur due to the lack of linguistic knowledge. Using gestures, switching to mother tongue, using synonyms, choosing the topics about which the learner knows the concepts, phrases, vocabulary, linguistic structures were experimented with by the participants. Compensation strategies acted as solutions to be made use of whenever ideas, feelings could not be expressed with the appropriate words or structures.

Affective and social strategies were also commonly applied among the participants. The participants started to encourage themselves, tried to relax through deep breathing, listening to music. They talked about their state and feelings in the lifelong language learning journey, asked questions, asked for help and verification. The affective and social strategies helped the participants continue the conversations.

Metacognitive strategies were also dealt with within the scope of this study. They were so significant for the emergence of autonomy among the participants. The participants of this particular study like the other language learners were in need of carrying out their studies even if they did not have teachers around them to provide the necessary guidance. This study channeled participants towards thinking about their own

progress; they tried to evaluate their own efforts, and attempted to find better ways of learning English.

Oxford (1990) states that the associations between the existing and new knowledge have been applied as a facilitative strategy for the speaking skill, which is demonstrated in the diary of the researcher.

### 5.3. Implications for ELT

This study was launched, because it was thought that sufficient importance was not dedicated to improving speaking skill. Speaking requires the consideration and evaluation of various factors, such as affective, social, cognitive elements having influence on the oral production of the language learners.

In Turkey, there is a great prejudice among adult language learners about the development of the speaking skill. Generally, they do not believe in themselves, and do not think they will be able to express themselves through speaking in English one day. Along with the demotivation among the adult EFL learners, English Teachers do not pay the necessary attention to the improvement of the speaking competence. Some of the teachers might not be aware of the influence of strategy training on the improvement of speaking skill. The teachers who are not conscious about the positive impact of the strategy training in the speaking classes cannot demonstrate these strategies to the students and create opportunities for them to refer to the speaking strategies to cope with any problem during speaking.

This study sheds light on the reality that adult EFL learners are not aware of the positive impact of strategies in order to strengthen themselves in speaking, the most difficult skill to acquire. Consequently, the learners remain attached to the instruction of the teacher. However, the learners should turn into self-regulated learners; in other words, they need to be the determiner of their learning process. Bedir (1998) in his study concerning the reading strategies underlines the importance of acquiring reading strategies to take the control of their own learning and change the roles to be better language learners.

Lastly, another implication of this research emphasizes the impact of the strategy training in speaking skill. It is signified that if the strategy training is integrated into the students' regular program, this can result in the improvement of speaking proficiency, the emergence of self-regulated, motivated, self-confident, and better language learners.

## 5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

Speaking is the hardest skill to acquire. Specifically, for the adult learners who are more afraid of making mistakes in front of their peers and the teacher are prone to lose their confidence in improving their speaking skill. English teachers should try to arrange more time for finding ways to develop their students' speaking skill. They can be exposed to in-service training on language learning strategies and the integration of LLSs into the students' regular program.

This study lasted a term. Since developing speaking skill is not an easily accomplished issue, further studies can be carried out for a longer period of time. The students should be motivated and supported as they are about to give up their efforts shown for improving speaking skill. Further investigation is required to enlighten the correlation between the strategic behaviors and development in speaking skill.

This study was administered with 72 students. The number of the participants can be multiplied for a more comprehensible analysis of the effect of strategy training on the improvement of speaking skill.

Language Learning Strategies can be taught to the students implicitly or explicitly. In this particular study strategies-based instruction integrated into participants' regular program was administered explicitly. So as to realize the difference in the outcome of the influence of the strategies-based instruction carried out implicitly or explicitly two experimental groups can be selected and one can be exposed to explicit training, while the other one is subject to the implicit training.

Further research might be conducted to shed light on the retainment of the learnt strategies. Whether the students continue their language learning as self-regulated learners and utilize speaking strategies following the end of the study can be figured out via the research settled to measure the sustainment of strategy usage at the moment of oral communication.

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# APPENDIX I

## SPEAKING STRATEGY QUSTIONNAIRE

Name:
Student Number:
Class:

### SPEAKING STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE

**Read the speaking strategies and put a tick under the correct answer for you.**

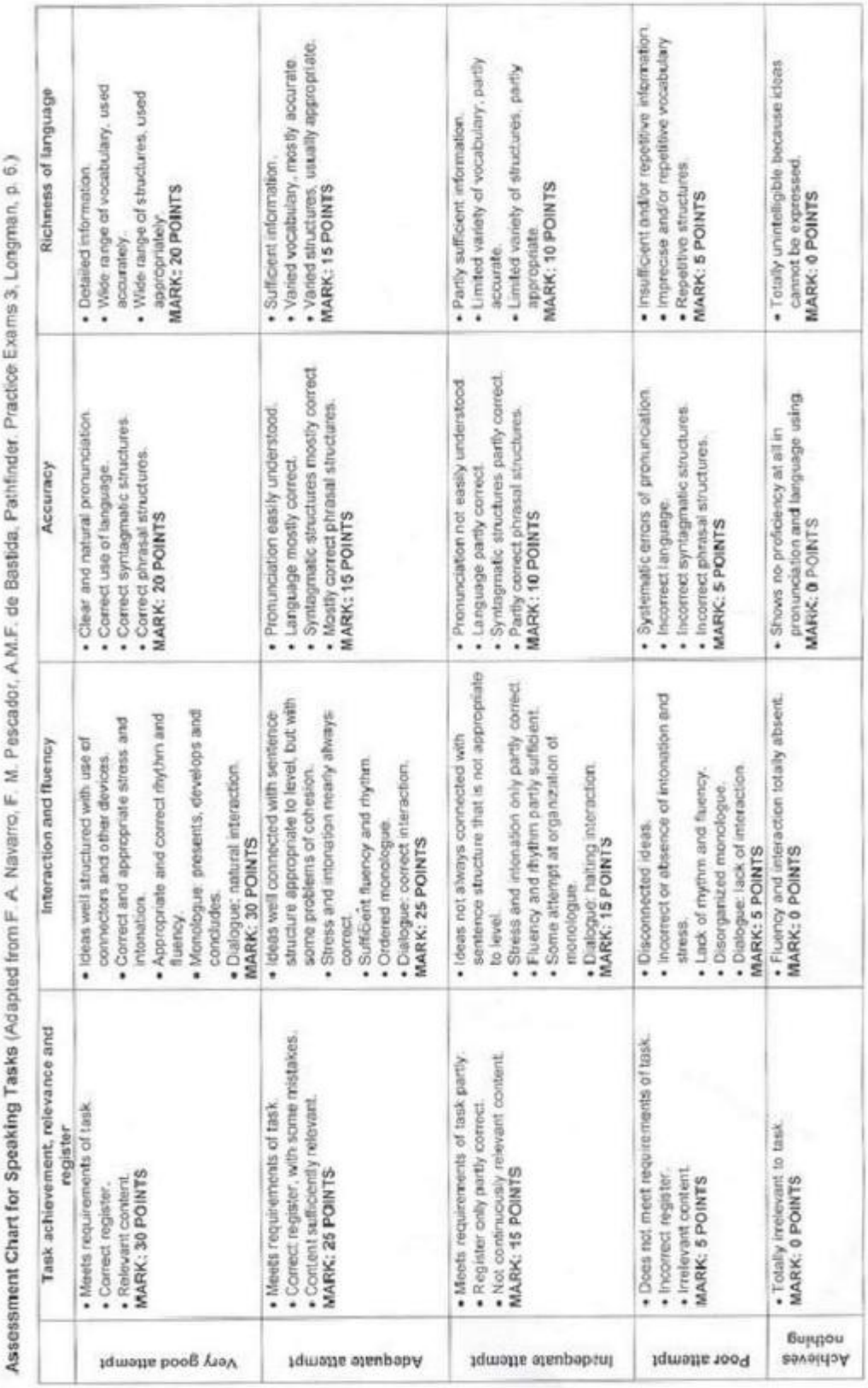
| No | Item | Always | Usually | Sometimes | Never |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English. | | | | |
| 2 | I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them. | | | | |
| 3 | I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word. | | | | |
| 4 | I use rhymes to remember new English words. | | | | |
| 5 | I review English lessons often. | | | | |
| 6 | I say or write new English words several times. | | | | |
| 7 | I practice the sounds of English. | | | | |
| 8 | I use the English words I know in different ways. | | | | |
| 9 | I start the conversations in English. | | | | |
| 10 | I try to talk like native English speakers. | | | | |
| 11 | I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English. | | | | |
| 12 | I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English. | | | | |
| 13 | I try to find patterns in English. | | | | |
| 14 | I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand. | | | | |
| 15 | I try not to translate word-for-word. | | | | |
| 16 | To understand unfamiliar words, I make guesses. | | | | |
| 17 | I use a synonym or describe the word I want to communicate if I do not know the word. | | | | |
| 18 | When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures. | | | | |
| 19 | I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English. | | | | |
| 20 | I switch to my mother tongue when I cannot remember a word in English | | | | |
| 21 | I try to guess what other people will say next in English. | | | | |
| 22 | If I cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing. | | | | |
| 23 | I try to find as many ways as I can to use my | | | | |

**Appendix 1. Continued**

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | English. | | | | |
| **24** | I avoid some topics that I do not know the words, concepts or grammatical structure in the new language while speaking. | | | | |
| **25** | I select the topics that I know I can talk about since I am interested in it, I have the needed vocabulary and structures. | | | | |
| **26** | I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better. | | | | |
| **27** | I pay attention when someone is speaking English. | | | | |
| **28** | I try to find out how to be a better learner of English. | | | | |
| **29** | I look for people I can talk to in English. | | | | |
| **30** | I have clear goals to improve my speaking skills. | | | | |
| **31** | I think about my progress in learning English. | | | | |
| **32** | I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English. | | | | |
| **33** | I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake. | | | | |
| **34** | I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English. | | | | |
| **35** | I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am talking or using English. | | | | |
| **36** | I write down my feelings in a language learning diary. | | | | |
| **37** | I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English. | | | | |
| **38** | If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again. | | | | |
| **39** | I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk. | | | | |
| **40** | I practice English with other speakers. | | | | |
| **41** | I ask for help from English speakers. | | | | |
| **42** | I ask questions in English. | | | | |
| **43** | I try to learn about the culture of English speakers. | | | | |
| **44** | I ask other people to verify that I have understood or said something correctly. | | | | |

# APPENDIX 2

## SPEAKING TEST SCALE

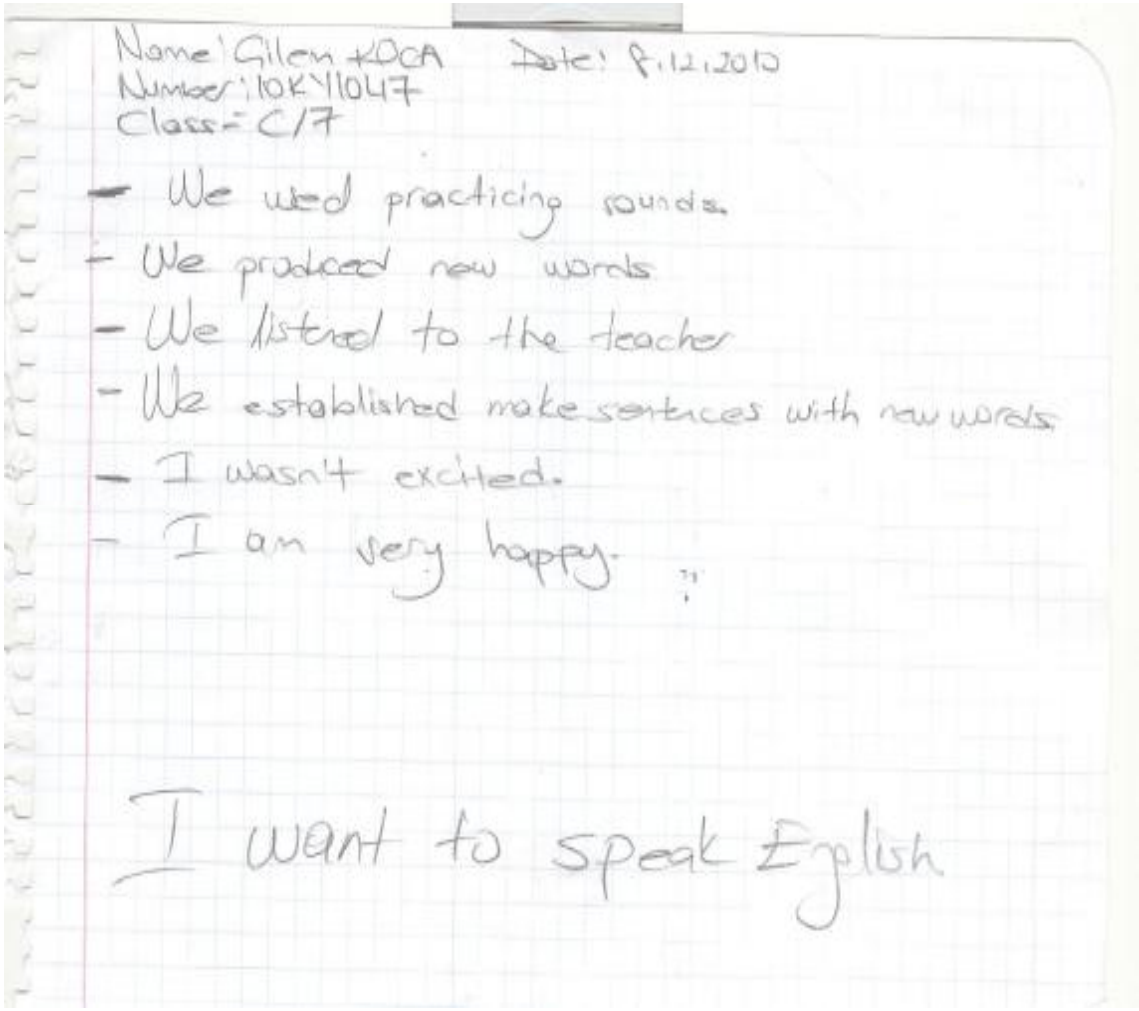


**Assessment Chart for Speaking Tasks** (Adapted from F. A. Navarro, F. M. Pescador, A.M.F. de Bastida, Pathfinder. Practice Exams 3, Longman, p. 6.)

| | Task achievement, relevance and register | Interaction and fluency | Accuracy | Richness of language |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Very good attempt | • Meets requirements of task.<br>• Correct register.<br>• Relevant content.<br>**MARK: 30 POINTS** | • Ideas well structured with use of connectors and other devices.<br>• Correct and appropriate stress and intonation.<br>• Appropriate and correct rhythm and fluency.<br>• Monologue: presents, develops and concludes.<br>• Dialogue: natural interaction.<br>**MARK: 30 POINTS** | • Clear and natural pronunciation.<br>• Correct use of language.<br>• Correct syntagmatic structures.<br>• Correct phrasal structures.<br>**MARK: 20 POINTS** | • Detailed information.<br>• Wide range of vocabulary, used accurately.<br>• Wide range of structures, used appropriately.<br>**MARK: 20 POINTS** |
| Adequate attempt | • Meets requirements of task.<br>• Correct register, with some mistakes.<br>• Content sufficiently relevant.<br>**MARK: 25 POINTS** | • Ideas well connected with sentence structure appropriate to level, but with some problems of cohesion.<br>• Stress and intonation nearly always correct.<br>• Sufficient fluency and rhythm.<br>• Ordered monologue.<br>• Dialogue: correct interaction.<br>**MARK: 25 POINTS** | • Pronunciation easily understood.<br>• Language mostly correct.<br>• Syntagmatic structures mostly correct.<br>• Mostly correct phrasal structures.<br>**MARK: 15 POINTS** | • Sufficient information.<br>• Varied vocabulary, mostly accurate.<br>• Varied structures, usually appropriate.<br>**MARK: 15 POINTS** |
| Inadequate attempt | • Meets requirements of task partly.<br>• Register only partly correct.<br>• Not continuously relevant content.<br>**MARK: 15 POINTS** | • Ideas not always connected with sentence structure that is not appropriate to level.<br>• Stress and intonation only partly correct.<br>• Fluency and rhythm partly sufficient.<br>• Some attempt at organization of monologue.<br>• Dialogue: halting interaction.<br>**MARK: 15 POINTS** | • Pronunciation not easily understood.<br>• Language partly correct.<br>• Syntagmatic structures partly correct.<br>• Partly correct phrasal structures.<br>**MARK: 10 POINTS** | • Partly sufficient information.<br>• Limited variety of vocabulary, partly accurate.<br>• Limited variety of structures, partly appropriate.<br>**MARK: 10 POINTS** |
| Poor attempt | • Does not meet requirements of task.<br>• Incorrect register.<br>• Irrelevant content.<br>**MARK: 5 POINTS** | • Disconnected ideas.<br>• Incorrect or absence of intonation and stress.<br>• Lack of rhythm and fluency.<br>• Disorganized monologue.<br>• Dialogue: lack of interaction.<br>**MARK: 5 POINTS** | • Systematic errors of pronunciation.<br>• Incorrect language.<br>• Incorrect syntagmatic structures.<br>• Incorrect phrasal structures.<br>**MARK: 5 POINTS** | • Insufficient and/or repetitive information.<br>• Imprecise and/or repetitive vocabulary.<br>• Repetitive structures.<br>**MARK: 5 POINTS** |
| Achieves nothing | • Totally irrelevant to task.<br>**MARK: 0 POINTS** | • Fluency and interaction totally absent.<br>**MARK: 0 POINTS** | • Shows no proficiency at all in pronunciation and language using.<br>**MARK: 0** POINTS | • Totally unintelligible because ideas cannot be expressed.<br>**MARK: 0 POINTS** |

**APPENDIX 3**

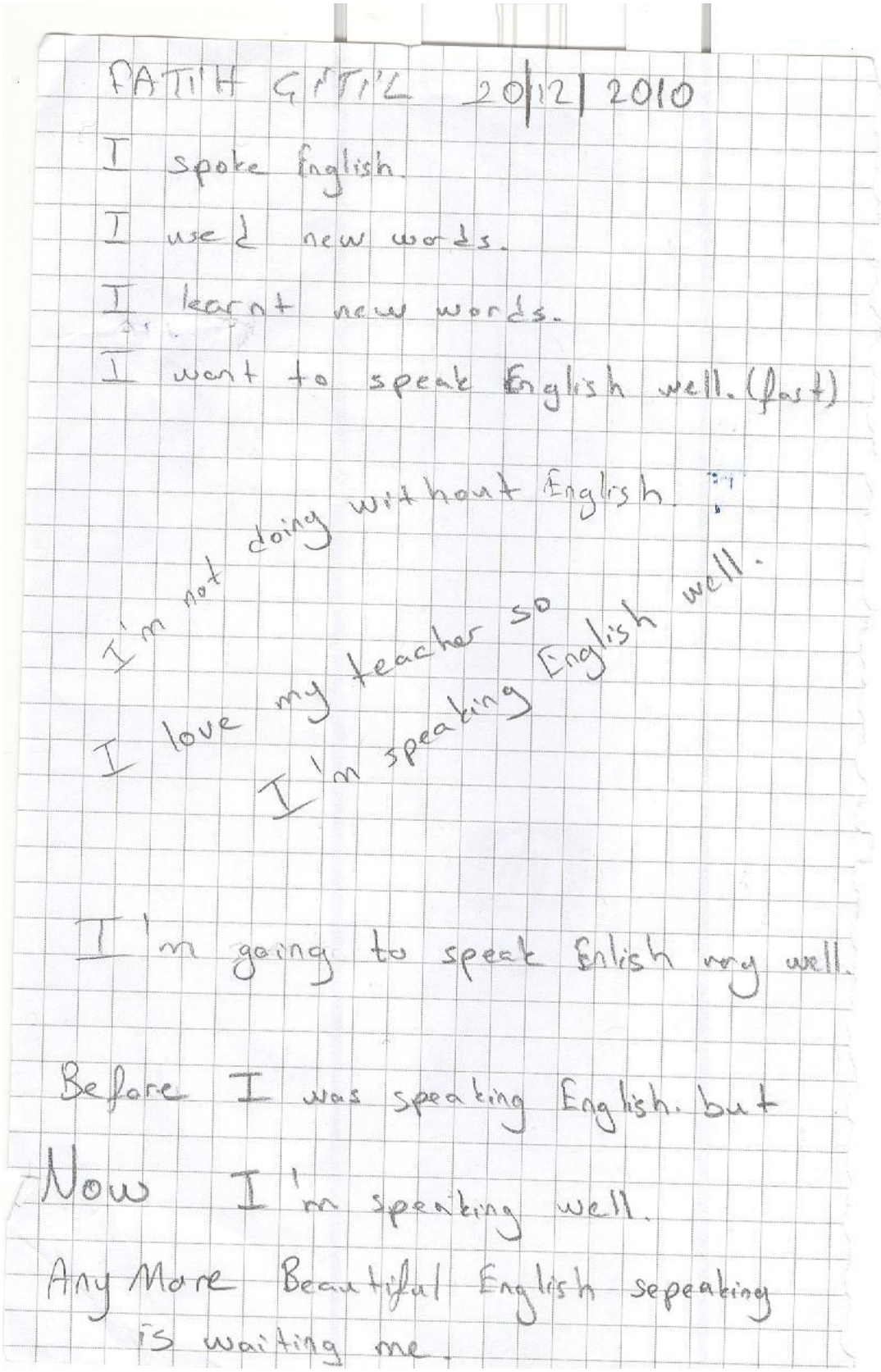
**THREE SAMPLES OF MINUTE PAPERS**



Name: Gilen KOCA Date: 8.12.2010
Number: 10KY1047
Class: C/7

- We used practicing sounds.
- We produced new words
- We listed to the teacher
- We established make sentences with new words
- I wasn't excited.
- I am very happy. :)

I want to speak English



FATİH GÜTİL 20/12/2010

I spoke English.

I used new words.

I learnt new words.

I want to speak English well. (fast)

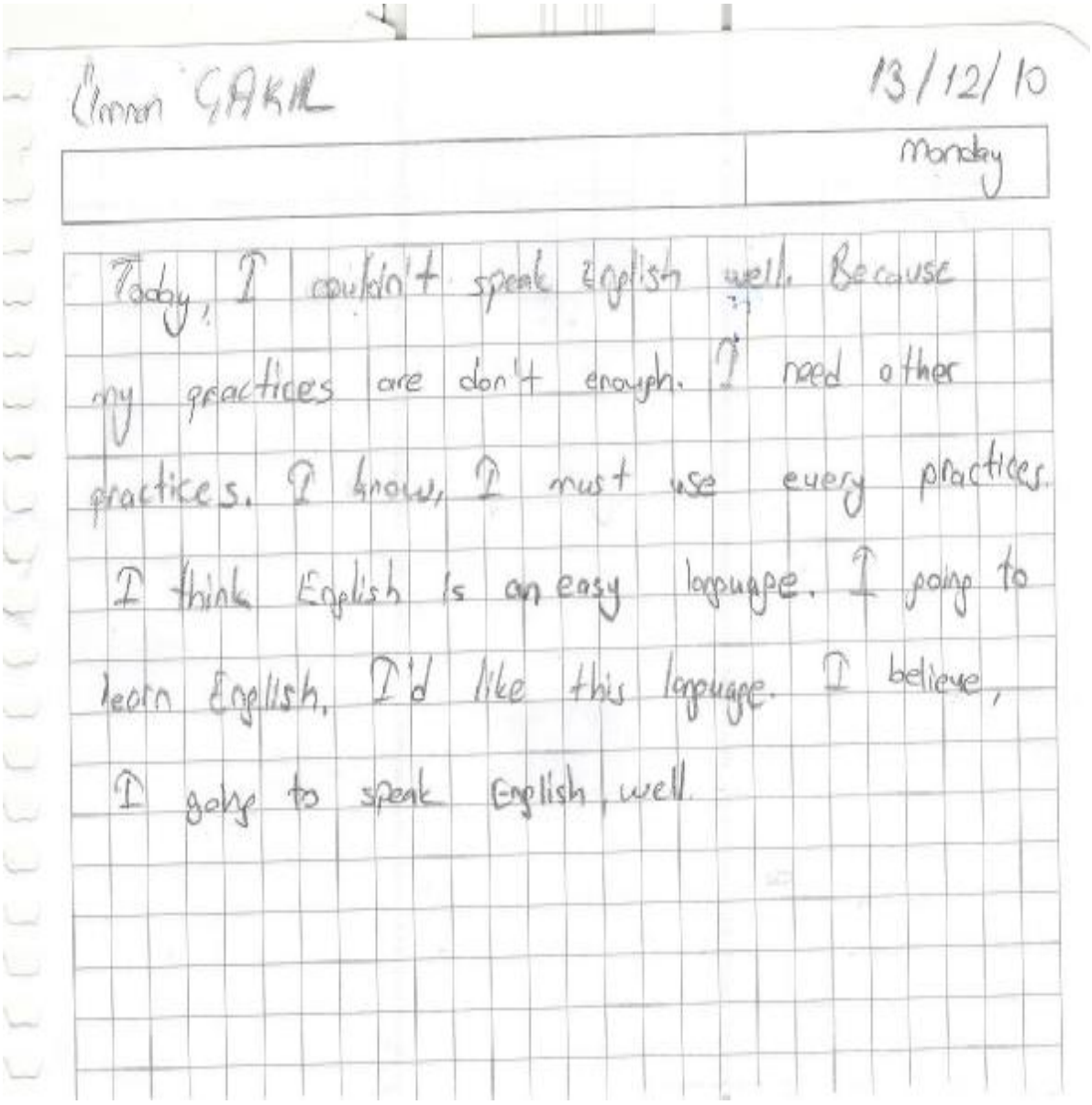
I'm not doing without English.

I love my teacher so I'm speaking English well.

I'm going to speak Enlish my well.

Before I was speaking English. but Now I'm speaking well.

Any More Beautiful English sepeaking is waiting me.



Ümran ÇAKIL 13/12/10

Monday

Today, I couldn't speak English well. Because my practices are don't enough. I need other practices. I know, I must use every practices. I think English is an easy language. I going to learn English. I'd like this language. I believe, I going to speak English well.

# APPENDIX 4

## QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DETERMINING LANGUAGE LEARNING GOALS AND OBJECTIVES



**Table 5.3 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.

## Appendix 4 Continued



**Table 5.3 Continued**

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.

*Source:* Original.

# APPENDIX 5

## SAMPLES FROM THE RESEARCHER'S DIARY

**04.10.2010**

Revising the things that are learned during courses is very essential in learning a foreign language, but what I realized today was that my students were not implementing this strategy. I am at the beginning of the training period, and I have understood that this is the strategy I ought to seriously focus on. Therefore, today I started to teach my students the importance of continuing to study outside the classroom and revising the words, structures they learned in the courses. One of the students said that he had never had that habit before, and it was not easy for him to gain that habit. Yes, starting to get used to something new is not easy, yet it is not impossible. I am sure that with my support they will start revising the things they learn in the classroom.

**06.10.2010**

Today the students were eager to speak English. However, I cannot ignore the fact that some of the students were reluctant to speak. Thus, I wanted my students to remember their goals about developing their speaking skills. I told my students that self-encouragement is one of the most significant points in achieving something, and especially when the concern is improving speaking skill requiring rigorous efforts and a long time, without self-encouragement, belief in the probable success accomplishing the desired outcome would not possible. The reactions of the students made me really happy, because they said they would try to encourage themselves from that day on.

**03.11.2010**

Today I taught the strategy "***asking for help***". Some of the students were already utilizing this strategy, but the others were not asking questions when they had question marks in their minds. I told my students whenever they came across with hesitations about something, one of the best things to do was asking for help. I also stated that they could ask questions not only to their teacher but also to more proficient peers, classmates. My students' reactions were extremely positive toward applying this strategy. They understood that asking questions would not result in losing face or self-esteem. On the contrary, this strategy would help them perform better.

# APPENDIX 6

## BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

282 GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

### BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name _____ 2. Date _____
3. Age _____ 4. Sex _____ 5. Mother tongue _____
6. Language(s) you speak at home _____
7. Language you are now learning (or have most recently learned) List one language only

   _____
8. How long have you been studying the language listed in #7?

   _____
9. How do you rate your overall proficiency in the language listed in #7 as compared with the proficiency of *other students in your class*? (Circle one)

   Excellent Good Fair Poor
10. How do you rate your overall proficiency in the language listed in #7 as compared with the proficiency of *native speakers of the language*? (Circle one)

    Excellent Good Fair Poor
11. How important is it for you to become proficient in the language listed in #7? (Circle one)

    Very important Important Not so important
12. Why do you want to learn the language listed in #7? (Check all that apply)

    _____ interested in the language

    _____ interested in the culture

    _____ have friends who speak the language

    _____ required to take a language course to graduate

    _____ need it for my future career

    _____ need it for travel

    _____ other (list): _____

    _____
13. Do you enjoy language learning? (Circle one) Yes No
14. What other languages have you studied?

    _____
15. What has been your favorite experience in language learning?

    _____

    _____

    _____

# CURRICULUM VITAE

## PERSONAL DETAILS


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