

T.C.
Mersin Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı

**LISTENING STRATEGIES USED BY TURKISH STUDENTS LEARNING
ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE: THE DEVELOPMENT OF
“LISTENING STRATEGY INVENTORY”**

Pelin İRGİN

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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Danışman

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Şaziye YAMAN

Mersin, 2011

Tez Onay Sayfası

Mersin Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğüne,

Pelin İRGİN tarafından hazırlanan "İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Türk Öğrencilerinin Kullandığı Dinleme Stratejileri: Dinleme Stratejileri Envanteri'nin Geliştirilmesi" başlıklı bu çalışma, jürimiz tarafından İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ÖZET**İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN
KULLANDIĞI DİNLEME STRATEJİLERİ: DİNLEME STRATEJİLERİ
ENVANTERİ'NİN GELİŞTİRİLMESİ**

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Bu çalışma, değişik arařtırmalarda ileri sürülen yabancı dil öğrenenlerin dinleme stratejilerini ölçmek için oluşturulan sınıflandırmaların doğruluğunu tartışmaktadır. Bu çalışma, Nakatani (2006) tarafından geliştirilen “Sözel İletişim Strateji Envanteri”nin (SİSE) uyarlama çalışması sonucuna göre dinleme stratejilerini belirleyerek dinleme stratejisi envanteri geliřtirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmanın önemi, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen ve sınıf ortamı dışında dinleme becerilerini nadiren kullanabilen Türk öğrencilerinin dinleme stratejileri üzerine yapılan sınırlı sayıdaki arařtırmalara katkı sunmasıdır. Ayrıca, bu çalışma dinleme stratejileri açısından Türk öğrencilerinin kültürel altyapısı göz önünde bulundurularak oluşturulmuştur. Alan yazında gösterildiđi gibi Türk öğrencilerinin kullandığı dinleme stratejilerini arařtıran ve ölçme aracı olarak kullanılmadan önce SİSE'nin uyarlama çalışmasını yapan arařtırma bulunmamaktadır. Bu çalışma, SİSE'nin Türk kültürüne uyarlama çalışmasını ve İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrenciler için likert tipi “Dinleme Stratejileri Envanteri” (DSE) geliřtirme kısmını kapsamaktadır. Çeviri geçerliđi, güvenilirlik ve geçerlik çalışmaları olmak üzere üç

aşamadan oluşan SİSE'nin uyarlama çalışmasının sonucu, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerinin kullandıkları dinleme stratejilerinin SİSE'de tanımlanan dinleme stratejilerinden farklı olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu sonuç ise madde seçimi, güvenilirlik ve geçerlik çalışmalarını kapsayan DSE'nin geliştirilmesini gerektirmiştir. Araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen envanter (DSE) Mersin Üniversitesi İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümünde okuyan ve İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen 294 İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrenciye uygulanmıştır. Toplanan veri faktör analizi, betimsel istatistik analizi ve bağımsız gruplar için t-testi ile analiz edilmiştir. Analiz sonucu, dinlerken anlam çıkarma ve tarama stratejilerinin kullanımı açısından kız ve erkek öğrenciler arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Kız Türk öğrenciler, erkek Türk öğrencilerden bu stratejileri kullanmayı daha çok tercih etmektedirler. Ancak ana fikre ulaşma, sözel olmayan stratejiler ve kelime temelli stratejilerin kullanımı açısından kız ve erkek Türk öğrenciler arasında istatistiksel olarak bir fark bulunmamaktadır. Ayrıca, hem ileri düzeyde hem de orta düzeyde dil seviyesine sahip olan Türk öğrencilerin benzer bir şekilde dinlerken anlam çıkarma stratejileri, kelime temelli stratejileri, tarama stratejileri ve sözel olmayan stratejileri kullanmayı tercih ettikleri sonucu çıkmaktadır. Ancak ileri düzeyde dil seviyesine sahip öğrenciler, orta düzeyde dil seviyesine sahip Türk öğrencilerden daha çok ana fikre ulaşma stratejilerini kullanmayı tercih etmektedirler.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dil öğrenme stratejileri, dinleme stratejileri, dinleme stratejileri öğretimi, Dinleme Stratejileri Envanteri (DSE), DSE'nin güvenilirliği, DSE'nin geçerliği.

ABSTRACT**LISTENING STRATEGIES USED BY TURKISH STUDENTS LEARNING ENGLISH
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This study aims to clarify whether listening strategies that have been proposed in various studies for many years are classified correctly to measure language learners' strategy use. The present study also aims to develop listening strategy inventory according to the result of adaptation of “Oral Communication Strategy Inventory” (OCSI) by Nakatani (2006). This study is significant for several reasons. First, it expands the limited research into listening strategies for learners of other languages, more specifically Turkish students who are learning English as a foreign language and are rarely able to augment their listening skills beyond the classroom. Next, this study considers cultural background of Turkish learners in terms of listening strategies. In addition, as it has been shown in the review of literature that there seems no research on investigation of listening strategies used by Turkish students, and no adaptation of OCSI before using it as a research tool in current studies. The present study consists of the adaptation study of OCSI into Turkish culture and the development of a likert- type, “Dinleme Stratejileri Envanteri” (DSE) for Turkish

students learning English as a foreign language. The result of the adaptation study of OCSI, consisting of three stages: the translation validity of OCSI, the reliability and the validity of OCSI, shows that listening strategies used by Turkish EFL students are different from the defined strategies in OCSI. This idea has required to develop DSE, including the selection of items, the reliability and validity of DSE. The inventory developed by the researcher, DSE was conducted to 294 Turkish EFL students at Department of English Language Teaching in Mersin University. The collected data analyzed through factor analysis, descriptive statistical analysis and independent samples t-test. The results revealed that there is a significant difference between female and male students in the use of scanning and negotiation for meaning while listening. Female Turkish students prefer to use these strategies more rather than the male Turkish students. However, there is no statistical difference between female and male Turkish students in the use of getting the gist strategies, nonverbal strategies and word-oriented strategies. Moreover, it is concluded that both advanced and intermediate level Turkish students similarly prefer to use negotiation for meaning while listening strategies, word oriented strategies, scanning strategies and nonverbal strategies. However, advanced level students prefer to use getting the gist strategies more than intermediate level Turkish students.

Keywords: Language learning strategies, listening strategies, listening strategy training, Listening Strategy Inventory (LSI), reliability of LSI, validity of LSI.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (In Alphabetical order)

CEF: Common European Framework

DSE: Dinleme Stratejileri Envanteri

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

GLL: Good Language Learners

LLS: Language Learning Strategies

LS: Learning Strategies

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

M: Mean

N: Number of the Students in the Sample

OCSI: Oral Communication Strategy Inventory

SILL: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

SD/S: Standard Deviation

p: Degree of Significance

t: t-value

X: Arithmetic Mean

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INTRODUCTION

During the last two decades, an important shift resulting in less focus on teachers and teaching and greater emphasis on learners and learning (Nunan, 1988) has taken place in education. Language learners are concerned about how they could learn another language and what they could do to make it easier (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994). Effective language learning is not just a matter of intelligence. Some people are more competent than others in learning appropriate procedures, and in applying appropriately, but some apparently intelligent people can be remarkably unaware of their approach to learning (Nisbet & Shucksmith, 1989). Recently, awareness for learning styles and language learning strategies in foreign and second language teaching and learning has increased as a consequence of this shift.

Learning strategies are special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning or retention of the information (Oxford, 1990). They are 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). Learning strategies can enable students to become more independent, autonomous, lifelong learners (Allwright, 1990; Little, 1991). Empowering language learners by having them develop learning strategies may help them to cope with the demands of class and indeed, may help them to continue to learn on their own apart from the class. Oxford (1990), O'Malley and Chamot (1990) have emphasized that effective learners use a variety of different strategies and techniques in order to solve problems that they encounter while acquiring or producing the language.

Language learning strategies are among the main factors that help determine how and how well our students learn a second or foreign language (Oxford, 1996). The types of language learning strategies used by different learners change according to many variables including motivation (Bedell & Oxford, 1996), gender (Politzer & McGroarty, 1985), age (Tyacke & Mendelsohn, 1986), subject matter (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewener-Manzaners, Russo, & Kupper, 1985), level of L2 (Huang & Van Naerssen, 1987), learning style (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), and cultural background. Some research findings (Oxford, 1989; Oxford, 1994) have completely explored the effects of culture in determining strategy preferences.

Strategies and the ability to use them effectively are particularly important in second language listening. Canale and Swain (1980) noted in their model of communicative competence for language learners that one must be strategically competent; that is, the learner must know how and when to use strategies to engage in, carry out, and repair communication. The good language learner studies of Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978), and Rubin (1975) demonstrated that successful learners employ strategies while learning and using a second language. Being communicatively competent in a language must, of course include the ability to comprehend oral input. An estimated 80 percent of what we know is acquired through listening (Hunsaker, 1990). According to Machado (1990), most people are born with the ability to hear, but the listening ability is a learned behaviour. Consequently, second language listeners need to actively choose, use, and continually evaluate the effectiveness of their listening strategies in order to successfully construct meaning from second language oral input.

English language pedagogy denotes four basic language skills to be learned - listening, speaking, reading and writing. In foreign language teaching and learning,

listening skill have attracted the least attention of the four skills when the amount of research done in all four skills and the curricula of most foreign language programs are considered (Call, 1985). It was assumed that the ability to comprehend spoken language would automatically improve because learners with exposure to the oral discourse would learn through practice (Vandergrift, 2004). Listening comprehension used to be considered a passive activity; thus, it has not merited researchers' attention (Jung, 2003; Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Vandergrift, 2004).

In the international context, listening begins to assume an important role in language teaching and learning. Nunan (2002) supports this idea by stating that listening is assuming greater and greater importance in foreign language classrooms. The reason for the importance of listening in the language classroom is that listening provides input for the learners (Rost, 1994). Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin. Krashen (1982) states that people will never acquire that language without access to comprehensible input in a language. Listening is thus fundamental to speaking. Although input alone is not sufficient for acquisition, input is absolutely necessary for second language learning (Gass & Selinker, 2001).

Listening, an important part of the second language learning process, has also been defined as an active and interactive process during which the listener constructs meaning from oral input (Bentley & Bacon, 1996). In Nagle and Sanders' (1986) model of listening comprehension processing, the listener utilizes both automatic and controlled processes to synthesize meaning from oral input. O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989), and Goh (1998) has made many studies on listening strategy types and definitions and both researchers classified the listening comprehension strategies into two categories: cognitive strategies and metacognitive listening strategies.

Listening comprehension strategies defined by O'Malley et al. (1989) as follows

- a. Metacognitive Listening Comprehension Strategies: Directed attention, selective attention, self-management, self-monitoring, self-evaluation and self-reinforcement
- b. Cognitive Listening Comprehension Strategies: Repetition, Directed Physical Response, Translation, Grouping, Note taking, Deduction, Imagery, Auditory representations, Key word, Conceptualization, Elaboration, Transfer, Inferencing, Question for clarification, Resourcing.

Listening comprehension strategies defined by Goh (1998)

- a. Cognitive Strategies: Inferencing, Elaboration, Prediction, Conceptualization, Fixation, Reconstruction.
- b. Metacognitive Listening Strategies: Directed Attention, Comprehension Monitoring, Real-time Assessment of Input, Comprehension Evaluation, Selective Attention.

Today, a growing body of research as identified above indicates that the focus has shifted to actively and intentionally using strategies for learning to process, comprehend, and respond to spoken language with greater facility, competence, and confidence (Rost, 2007). According to Vandergrift (1997), "Given the importance of listening in L2 learning, students should benefit from the development of effective listening strategies that can help them comprehend more input" (p. 495). Regarding the given importance in the use of listening strategies, the present study investigates what listening strategies may benefit L2 learners in their development of listening comprehension.

Problem Statement

There are many disagreements concerning language learning strategy classification. Hsiao and Oxford (2002) state that teachers and researchers alike are often puzzled as to

which classification system to follow when conducting strategy research, enhancing learner autonomy through learning strategies, engaging learners in strategy instruction, or developing syllabi and materials involving learning strategies. Whether certain classification theories are more representative of language learning strategy use, and whether all of the suggested strategy systems can adequately account for variability in strategy use have never before been systematically and empirically approached. Therefore, it is decided to adapt “Oral Communication Strategy Inventory” (OCSI) developed by Nakatani (2006) to Turkish culture.

Aim of the Study

There are three aims of the present study. The first aim of the study is to investigate whether the listening strategies classified in OCSI developed by Nakatani (2006) would measure the strategies used by EFL students in Turkish culture. The second aim of the study is to adapt and develop a reliable and valid instrument to measure Turkish EFL students’ listening strategies. Lastly, the third aim of the present study is to find out listening strategies used by the Turkish EFL students studying at the English Language Teaching Department of Mersin University, in both intermediate and advanced level.

The Significance of the Study

This study is significant for several reasons. First, it expands the limited research into listening strategies for learners of other languages, more specifically Turkish students who are learning English as a foreign language, and are rarely able to augment their listening skills beyond the classroom. Next, this study considers cultural background of Turkish learners’ listening strategies. In addition, as it has been shown in the review of

literature that there seems no research on investigation of listening strategies used by Turkish students, and no adaptation of “Oral Communication Strategy Inventory” before using it as a research tool in recent studies. Finally, this study has another dimension in that if “Oral Communication Strategy Inventory” is valid and reliable for Turkish learners, it is hoped that it will help researchers to determine listening strategy preferences of Turkish students via a reliable and valid tool. Then the following research questions will guide to this study.

Research Questions

The following research questions are the basis of the study:

1. What is the factorial structure of “Oral Communication Strategy Inventory” adapted into Turkish culture?
2. Are the inventory and the inventory’s subscales reliable and valid?

After “Oral Communication Strategy Inventory” is adapted to Turkish culture, if similar listening strategies occur, the sub-research questions stated below will be answered. If different strategy structures for Turkish culture occur at the end of the adaptation, listening skill will be defined again and then a listening strategy inventory will be developed.

3. What are the listening strategies used by Turkish EFL students?
 - 3.1. Do listening strategies used by the university students at the department of English Language Teaching, Mersin University differ in terms of sex?
 - 3.2. Do listening strategies used by the university students at the department of English Language Teaching, Mersin University differ in terms of proficiency levels?

In the following chapter, a review of the literature is provided. Next, there is a description of the methodology of the research. The findings of the research are given in chapter three. Chapter three presents the results of the data analysis referring to the previous studies. Finally, a conclusion for the entire study and the implications for further studies are presented.

Definitions of Terms (In Alphabetical order)

Cognitive Strategy: One that involves mental manipulation or transformation of materials or tasks and is intended to enhance comprehension, acquisition, or retention (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 229).

Language Learning Strategies: Specific actions, procedures, or techniques used by learners to facilitate their own learning, and make learning process easier, faster, more enjoyable, and more self-directed (Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

Learning Strategies: Special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning, or retention of the information (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 1).

Listening Comprehension: An interactive, interpretive process where listeners use both prior knowledge and linguistic knowledge in understanding messages (Vandergrift, 1999).

Listening Strategies: Techniques or tactics that contribute directly to the comprehension and recall of listening input.

Metacognitive Strategy: A learning strategy that involves thinking about or knowledge of the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring learning while it is taking place, or self-evaluation of learning after the task has been completed (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 230).

Social/affective Strategy: One of three general types of learning strategy. It may consist of using social interactions to assist in the comprehension, learning, or retention of information. It may also consist of using mental control over personal affect that interferes with learning. (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 232).

Strategy: Specific actions, techniques, or procedures which language learners use consciously or unconsciously, in learning, thinking,...etc. (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, 1985).

CHAPTER I: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Listening is an important skill of the communication process in second and foreign language learning. Much of what English as a second language (ESL), English as a foreign language (EFL) students learn is acquired by means of listening. In order to acquire language, exposure to oral English is vital for learners who need to hear the language spoken in meaningful contexts. According to Feyten (1991), of the total time people spend on communication, 45 percent is on listening, 30 percent on speaking, 16 percent on reading, and 9 percent on writing. Among the four skills, listening is the language skill which usually develops faster than speaking and which affects the development of reading and writing abilities in learning a new language (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Vandergrift, 1997).

Listening is also the most frequently used skill in the classroom and in daily life (Yang, 1996). Vandergrift (1997) claimed that listening internalized not only the rules of language but also facilitated the emergence of other language skills. Therefore, an investigation of listening comprehension skills could help understand the process of listening as well as offer a more solid theoretical base for more effective instructional practices in the classroom. For students, awareness and use of effective listening skills would assist them in utilizing the language input they received. Rost (1994) also pinpointed the importance of listening in the language classroom as the supplier of the input for students. More concisely, without comprehensible input at the right level, learning cannot take place. Therefore, listening is a fundamental and vital skill in the acquisition of languages (Nunan, 2002).

The theories of second language listening suggest that listeners are active processors of information rather than passive receivers of oral stimuli. Listeners construct

meaning from the oral input by drawing upon their prior knowledge of the world and of the target language (Byrnes, 1984; Nagle & Sanders, 1986). They generate information in their long term memory and make their own interpretation of the spoken texts (Murphy, 1985; Mendelsohn, 1994). Bentley and Bacon (1996) have also defined listening as an active process during which the listener constructs meaning from oral input. In Nagle and Sanders' (1986) model of listening comprehension processing, the listener utilizes both automatic and controlled processes to synthesize meaning from oral input. Similarly, in Vandergrift's (1999) Interactive-Constructivist model, the listener is actively engaged in constructing meaning from a variety of contexts and input sources.

One of the ways learners become actively involved in controlling their own learning is by using strategies. Strategies are the thoughts and behaviors that learners use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain information (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Pressley et al. (1985) link strategies to cognitive processes. They define strategies as a composed of cognitive operations over and above the processes that are a natural consequence of carrying out a task. In cognitive theory, learners are mentally active and select from the incoming information what they wish to remember, relate it to their prior knowledge, store the selected information in memory and use various procedures for remembering it when needed (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). Strategies are used to achieve cognitive purposes, and are potentially conscious and controllable activities. This definition points out that the active learner consciously chooses to use strategies in order to enhance performance of a task.

According to Rost (2002), strategies are conscious steps or actions by which learners can guide and evaluate their own comprehension and responses. Quite similarly, Wang and Qi (2003) define that strategies are the thinking activities consciously selected

by learners in order to understand or grasp the language materials. More detailed, White (1998) explains that strategies are efforts to compensate for uncertainties in understanding, and could include making inferences, realizing where misunderstandings have occurred, and asking for clarification.

I.1. Definition of Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies (LLS) are “the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge” (Rubin, 1975, p. 43). According to Oxford (1989), strategies are “behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable” (p. 235). The definition of language learning strategy in early studies (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Wong Fillmore, 1976) were what language learners used, and which were used by the more effective learners. The studies classified strategies as “direct” and “indirect” (Rubin, 1981) or “meta-cognitive”, “cognitive” and “socio-affective” (O’Malley et al., 1985).

Since 1970s and 1980s language learning strategies became the focus of researchers’ attention as theory and research into second language learning progressed from language-centered approaches towards more student-centered learning, The rationale for this was to better understand how learners learn was one step towards improving teaching practices. Although initial research into learner strategies, was aimed at recording strategies used by any second language learner, it was also considered important to look at the ways successful learners gained their new language (Naiman, Frohlich, & Stern, 1975; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975), with a view to teaching these ways to all learners of a second language. The prior studies on learning strategies led to the development of taxonomies of

learning strategies, including classifications - direct and indirect learning strategies (Oxford, 1985; Rubin, 1981), metacognitive and cognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Kupper, 1985). Studies about good language learners were administered by Rubin (1975) and Naiman et al. (1978). They recorded and identified strategies of students used in their second language (L2). In 1981, Rubin presented a taxonomy of L2 learning strategies with two broad categories 1) *direct*, including clarification/verification; monitoring; memorisation; guessing/inductive inferencing; deductive reasoning; practice; and 2) *indirect*, including creating opportunity for practice; using production tricks. According to the Naiman et al. (1978), there are five categories of strategies that the adolescent good language learners used: 1) active task approach, 2) realisation of language as a system, 3) realisation of language as a means of communication and interaction, 4) management of affective demands, and 5) monitoring.

In the studies of Ellis (1994) and Skehan (1989), it was stated that Wong Fillmore (1976) carried on an ethnographic research into pre-school children acquiring a second language, and learning strategies were classified in two groups; social strategies - three were identified, and cognitive strategies - five were identified. This classification suggested that there was an age-related factor in strategy use. Beside this classification, the study by O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo (1985) categorised language learning strategies in three types. The first of them was executive or meta-cognitive strategies (thinking about learning, planning, monitoring, self-evaluation) and the second one was operative or cognitive strategies (direct manipulation/transformation of learning materials). This categorization by O'Malley et al. (1985) was based on information-processing theory. According to Anderson (1980), it was stemmed from

cognitive theories of general learning processes. In addition to this, their study indicated that socio-affective strategies were part of the learner's repertoire, which had been recognised in the earlier studies by Naiman et al. (1978), and Wong Fillmore (1976). Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) studied strategies used by young children, and classified twelve strategies following the order of more used strategies to less frequently used. It was observed that the strategies monitoring language form, classed as meta-cognitive by O'Malley et al. (1985). The initial and the most frequently used were receptive strategies; later strategies enabled or maintained interactions; and the least frequent strategies, used by older, in other words, more cognitively developed children, were the strategies monitoring language form.

Further studies have expanded and elaborated the taxonomies with large numbers of sub-strategies classified under broader categories (Chamot, 1987; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990a; Wenden, 1991). For example, Rubin (1981) divided learning strategies into two categories: indirect and direct. Later, Oxford (1990a), divided strategies into six sub-categories, with a total listing of 62 strategies. Based on the studies by Chaudron (1988), Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985), Ellis (1994), and Skehan (1989), this range of strategies can cause difficulties in comparative research, and there can be the problem in defining or interpreting the definitions within the range. However, Skehan (1989), recognising these problems, considered that further studies administered into the exact role of strategies have been defined correctly. Moreover, Skehan (1998) added that the strategy training programs in available required rigorous empirical research into their effectiveness.

Earlier studies by Naiman et al. (1978), Bialystok and Frohlich (1978), Cohen and Apeh (1981), Politzer (1983), Padron and Waxman (1988), and Mangubhai (1991)

indicated that there was a positive correlation between strategy use and language proficiency. However, some other studies suggesting problems with data collection techniques (Bialystok, 1981; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985) were inconclusive (Ellis, 1994). For Chaudron (1988) and Ellis, (1994), another problem was a lack of uniformity regarding definitions and methods of investigation.

In addition these early studies, Naiman et al. (1978) investigated three strategies in high school French classes. 'Self-initiated repetitions' and 'self-corrections', were observed in the classroom and 'attitudes towards correcting others', were obtained via interviews. The results, comparing the strategies with two proficiency measures, listening comprehension and imitation, showed that there was a significant correlation only with 'attitudes towards correcting others'. Classroom observation has been shown to be a less reliable method in data collection rather than participant report (Cohen, 1987; O'Malley et al., 1985). Because of this, it may have affected the lack of correlation with the other two strategies.

In Bialystok and Frohlich's study (1978), a questionnaire was used, and the perceived frequency in the use of three learning strategies - practising, inferencing and monitoring - by intermediate level high school French students was investigated. It was found that there was a significant correlation in the use of strategy use among reading, listening and grammar. Bialystok and Frohlich (1978) concluded that, of the language learning variables open to manipulation, practising, inferencing and monitoring strategies were the most probably to improve achievement in language learning. However, another study by Bialystok (1981) that indicated students' frequency in the use of similar strategies for reading and listening tasks, and it was found that results regarded the correlation of

strategy use to proficiency were inconclusive. Ellis (1994) suggests this may have been due to unreliable data collection techniques used in the questionnaire.

Similar results were found in studies by Politzer (1983). In one of these studies, Politzer (1983) used a self-report questionnaire conducted with university students of intermediate French, Spanish and German, and found a significant correlation between strategies associated with asking the teacher for explanations, and teacher-allocated grades. However, Politzer, and McGroarty's (1985) study of beginner-level students learning English as a second language also used a self-report questionnaire which they acknowledge may have been unreliable; the correlation of strategy use to proficiency gave few significant results. They concluded that clusters of strategy use seemed to have greater correlation to proficiency. Wenden (1982) and O'Malley et al. (1985) had a similar conclusion indicating that there is a correlation between the use of language learning strategies and the proficiency of the language learners.

I.2. Listening Strategies

As mentioned above, following identification of language learning strategies, researchers studied on strategies more specifically. The language learning strategies investigated were generally those classified under the sub-categories already constructed, such as direct, indirect, meta-cognitive, cognitive and socio-affective. However, as research into strategy use and proficiency clearly indicates, a learner's proficiency may be superior in one or more specific aspect of the language such as vocabulary, structure, or the macro-skills, writing, reading, speaking and listening. Thus, specific language learning strategies can be utilised to enhance a learner's understanding and use of vocabulary, structure, writing, reading, speaking and listening.

Listening strategies are the conscious actions used by learners while listening to language materials. Since listeners have limited memory capacity for the target language (Richards, 1983), they use different listening comprehension strategies, that is, steps taken by learners to help them acquire, store, retrieve, and use information (O'Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1992). Some teaching professionals believe that a better understanding of the use of these strategies enables them to develop materials that suit the needs of their learners.

The Danish applied linguist Claus Faerch divided listening strategies into two categories: psycholinguistic and behavioral. Psycholinguistic strategies are unseen actions that are on the head (Faerch & Kasper, 1983). They involve the listener's conscious use of their personal comprehension resources. For example, the listener might exploit contextual clues and background knowledge, or guess at meaning on the basis of a word's structure. Lynch (1996) refers to these as internal strategies. Behavioral strategies, on the other hand, are visible actions in the world. They include negotiation with the speaker—making general requests (I do not understand), specific requests (What does X mean?) and admitting ignorance (I do not know the word) (Faerch & Kasper, 1983). Lynch (1996) calls these interactive strategies, as they depend on collaboration with other person or people.

In only a few studies, listening strategies have been specifically identified. These studies on listening strategies include early studies by Fujita (1984), Chamot, Kupper, and Impink-Hernandez (1988a, 1988b), O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989), Mangubhai (1991) and Laviosa (1991). After the studies mentioned above, Bacon (1992) tested university Spanish learners' listening comprehension strategies, and Vandergrift (1997) tested 16-17 year old French L2 learners' listening comprehension strategies, but no new strategies were identified. Vandergrift (1997) concluded cognitive and social constraints

modified strategy use, however, his study was of listening in two-way communication, rather than as one-way reception only.

Fujita (1984) listed the listening strategies used by successful and unsuccessful listeners, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Listening Strategies Used by Successful and Unsuccessful Students

Successful	Unsuccessful
pick/select topic from listening passage	listen for known/familiar ideas
pick/select main ideas	no self-monitoring
pick/select key factors throughout	attend to form
confirm (monitor) hypothesis/predictions	
attend to meaning	

(Fujita, 1984)

Also, Chamot et al. (1988a, 1988b) explored listening strategies used by students in listening comprehension. A summary of the favoured listening strategies is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Most Favoured Listening Strategies

Meta-cognitive	Cognitive
Selective attention	Note-taking
Self-monitoring	Elaboration (from world knowledge, personal experience or self-questioning)
Problem identification	Inferencing
	Summarizing
	Grouping (listening for larger chunks)

(O'Malley & Chamot, 1990)

In another study in this field, O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989) sought to determine which listening strategies were used by high school students. The students

included in the study, were considered to be both effective and ineffective learners. They reported their listening strategies via think-aloud protocols. Basing a theoretical approach on cognitive psychology theory (Anderson, 1985), O'Malley and Chamot (1990) considered three stages of cognitive processes involved in the students' listening comprehension:

- 1) Perceptual Processing – focusing on the sounds heard;
- 2) Parsing – comprehending 'chunks' of meaningful language (e.g., phrases);
- 3) Utilization – relating the language heard to existing knowledge.

Results showed significant differences between behaviours of effective and ineffective listeners, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Common Behaviours of Effective and Ineffective Students in Listening Comprehension

	Effective	Ineffective
Perceptual Processing	Maintained concentration Aware of inattention Attempt to refocus	Distracted by unknown word/phrase Stopped, unaware of inattention No attempt to refocus Long passages - attempted to translate, so missed later portions
Parsing	Listened to larger chunks Listened to individual words only when no wider comprehension Inferred meaning from context Combined chunks to seek overall meaning	Listened to smaller chunks Word-by-word comprehension No inferencing
Utilization	Used world knowledge Used personal experience Used self-questioning Used elaborations to support Inferencing	

(O'Malley & Chamot, 1990)

However, similarities existed between both effective and ineffective listeners. Both two types of listeners used bottom-up strategies, although the effective listeners used both

bottom-up and top-down strategies depending on the difficulty of content. They used top-down for overall meaning and bottom-up for identifying specific linguistic features. This can be seen from behaviours listed in the parsing phase given in Table 3. Goh's (2000) study, on the difficulties reported by listeners, supported these results in that although both better and weaker listeners experienced difficulties in the perceptual processing and parsing stages, the weaker listeners did not report utilisation difficulties while the better listeners did. Goh (2000) concluded that this was due to the better listeners more often progressing to the utilisation stage, while the weaker listeners remained at the more basic levels of listening comprehension.

In Mangubhai's (1991) study, the correlation between general language strategy use and proficiency was measured. However, as the learners investigated followed a course based on Total Physical Response methodology (Asher, 1977), in effect, the strategies they used, at least in the initial stages, were listening strategies. As in the above study reported by Mangubhai (1991) was able to compare effective and ineffective listeners, naming them 'high achievers' and 'low achievers'. In addition, his study identified three types of listening strategies, depending on the learner's focus: on form, on meaning or on memory. These results are summarised in Table 4.

Table 4

Differences in Strategy Use by High and Low Achievers, with Reference to Learner

Focus (Form, Meaning, Memory)

High Achievers	Low Achievers
----------------	---------------

More focus on memory compared to meaning
 Less focus on words (form) compared to meaning
 Less translation to first language (form)
 More practicing (memory)

More focus on meaning compared to memory
 More focus on words (form) compared to meaning
 More translation to first language (form)
 Less practising (memory)

(Mangubhai, 1991)

What listening strategies were used by students of Italian as a foreign language was examined by Laviosa (1991). Based on the Faerch and Kasper (1983) model, Laviosa (1991) analyzed the intellectual process involved in problem-solving in communication. The process identified had four stages: 1) perception of the problem, 2) planning the problem-solving process, 3) selection of strategy, and 4) solution. Laviosa (1991) identified nine problems, three planning processes and seven strategies. The strategies were contextual inferencing, seeking confirmation or rejecting wrong hypotheses, using background knowledge, associating (new ideas to previous content), selecting (focusing on important items/content and rejecting perceived irrelevant information), visualising spelling, and using cognates. These are similar to the strategies in the research on listening strategies, as described above, including studies of both foreign language (FL) students (Chamot et al., 1988a, 1988b; Fujita, 1984; Laviosa, 1991) and English as a second language (ESL) students (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; O'Malley, Chamot & Kupper, 1989).

The strategies reported above reflect the diverse range of strategies (including their names and definitions) described within various taxonomies. Consequently, there appears to be a need for shared terminology. Apart from this difficulty, the use of listening strategy considering cultural differences is also problematic. Notwithstanding the work described above, the question remains as to which strategies are used for developing listening comprehension.

I.3. Strategy Training

In spite of the conflicting results attesting to efficacy of strategy use, language strategy training became the next step in strategy research. By teaching strategies used by 'good language learners', language strategy training has been aimed at improving performance in L2 learners. Results have been mixed, although they generally indicate that a combination of strategies and integration of strategy training with the regular classroom program may be useful, especially for the four macro-skills listening, speaking, reading and writing. Certain pedagogy has incorporated this, albeit in an ad hoc manner. Whether or not this is warranted is open to conjecture as the following studies indicate.

Wenden (1987b) cited four studies of early second language learner training. They were by Moulden (1978, 1980) (speaking), Hosenfeld, Arnold, Kirchofer, Laciura, and Wilson (1981) (reading), Holec (1981) (speaking) and Wenden (1982) (reading, listening, writing, speaking). Unfortunately, the efficacy of training was not formally assessed in the studies of the first three researchers. Moulden (1978) and Hosenfeld et al. (1981) made no assessment, while Holec (1981) suggested that students' and teachers' opinions were positive, but no formal assessment was undertaken. Wenden (1982) did employ an efficacy measure, but results were generally negative, which she suggested was due to a lack of integration of training with the regular learning program.

By contrast, training in vocabulary learning strategies conducted by Cohen and Aphek (1980) and Brown and Perry (1991) resulted in significant improvements. Positive conclusions were also reached by O'Malley et al. (1985) following their training program in vocabulary learning, listening and speaking tasks based on information-processing theory. They taught experimental groups combinations of meta-cognitive and/or cognitive and socio-affective strategies. They suggest that a combination of meta-cognitive and

cognitive strategies is important, as a lack of meta-cognition about cognitive strategies will fail to give learners direction or an ability to review their learning (O'Malley et al., 1985). It should be noted that the early studies by Hosenfeld et al. (1981), Holec (1981) and Wenden (1982), were of learners of FL not of L2. The later studies did focus on L2 learners and indicated more conclusive results (Brown & Perry, 1991; Cohen & Aphek, 1980; O'Malley et al., 1985). However, none of these were undertaken with Indonesian language learners.

In the following part, a review of the literature on listening strategy training is provided. There is a description on the teachability of listening strategies and the correlation between strategy training and awareness in listening.

I.3.1. Listening Strategy Training

Carefully designed listening strategy instruction programs can enhance the performance of the learners and help promote learner autonomy (Mendelsohn, 1994; Chamot, 1995). Good listeners need different sub-skills according to different kinds of text they are listening to, and the reasons for listening to it. Of course, no one will not be very good at these skills to begin, it is teachers who need to teach them strategies for coping with what they have missed or misunderstood (Euck, 2001).

The teachability of listening strategies also has been proved by some researchers. They have come to realize that language learning will be facilitated if learners are more aware of the range of possible strategies that can select during language learning and language use, and the most efficient way to highlight this awareness is through strategy-based instruction. Extensive studies on instruction in learning strategies have been carried out in a worldwide context in various areas of the curriculum, including speaking, reading

comprehension, vocabulary learning, memory training, and solving (Cohen, 1998; Cohen & Apeh, 1980; Oxford, 1996).

Some other researchers hold that strategy training can improve learners' performance, help them become more autonomous, motivated and confident in language learning (Cohen, 1998; Cohen & Apeh, 1980; Oxford, 1990); other studies have proved that instruction can improve the listeners' performance (Brown & Palinscar, 1982), increase strategy awareness, help them develop a more structured approach to tasks (Su, 2002). A recent research by Su (2002) has arrived at the following conclusions: 1) Learner-based instruction in metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective strategies can improve Chinese EFL beginners' performance in transactional listening. 2) Learner-based instruction in metacognitive, cognitive and social/ affective strategies can enhance the Chinese EFL beginners' awareness of strategy use to a large extent. 3) The effect of instruction on the ineffective listeners is greater than that of the effective listeners and the ineffective listeners seem to need strategy training more than the effective listeners do. 4) Integrated, long-term training is more effective than separate, one-time training.

The essential way to have competed listeners is to help learners become more autonomous. Focusing on the process as well as on the product of listening can help students to reflect on their learning, and encourage them consciously to adjust their strategies. We can use performance checklists to help students become more aware of the process of listening, allowing them to consciously intervene in the process by deploying efficient strategies (Vandergrift, 1999). Besides, every student possesses some knowledge about listening in another language. Sharing this valuable resource helps everyone to benefit, and may help the whole class to make faster progress. The listening class should therefore make this sharing possible. Two ways can be adopted for raising metacognitive

awareness about listening (Goh, 1997). The first way is to incorporate process-based discussions as part of the course curriculum, and the second way is to expand the scope of pre- and post-listening discussions so that they include strategy use and beliefs relevant to that particular listening task.

A positive correlation was also considered between strategy use and performance (Bialystok, 1981; Bialystok & Frohlich, 1978; Naiman et al., 1978; Politzer, 1983; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985). Appropriate combinations of strategies with task types also seem related to performance (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; O'Malley et al., 1985; Skehan, 1998).

Learners were trained to use effective strategies in second language learning, (Bialystok, 1983; Cohen & Aphek, 1980; Cohen & Aphek, 1981; Holec, 1981; Moulden, 1978; O'Malley et al., 1985; Wenden, 1982). In these studies various tasks involved focusing on different language modes such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary. The results of these studies indicated that two aspects of training favoured improved performance; integrating strategy training with the regular language program, and making learners aware of the strategies they used.

In the following part, strategy measurement tools are provided. There is a general description of measurement tools for listening strategies. All tools used for measuring listening strategies will be discussed, and will be compared considering advantageous and disadvantageous of all.

I.4. Strategy Measurement Tools

A range of measurement tools has been used to determine strategy use of language learners. In early studies (Naiman et al., 1978; Rubin, 1981; Wong Fillmore, 1976) interview and observation have been used to record strategies used by language learners,

with mixed success. Also, immediate retrospective think-aloud procedures (Chamot & Kupper, 1989) and diary-writing (Rubin, 1981), recommended by Chamot (1998), have been used. Similarly, questionnaires, mostly likert-type, have also been utilised by the researchers recording strategy use. For example, Politzer (1983) used a questionnaire to indicate frequency of use of selected behaviours, based on research of good language learners. Oxford, Nyikos and Ehrman (1988), and Politzer and McGroarty (1985) used another questionnaire based on their earlier instrument with new items added. Purdie and Oliver (1999) developed their own Likert-scale questionnaire, based on tools used by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Oxford (1989). Birch (2001, cited in Chamot, 1993) collected quantitative data using a Likert-scale instrument based on Chamot and O'Malley's (1990) three categories of learning strategies, meta-cognitive, cognitive and socio-affective. Oxford's (1990) SILL questionnaire has also been widely used (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Griffiths, 2003; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Ehrman, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Tamada, 1996; Teng, 1998).

Strengths and weaknesses of the instruments mentioned above have been widely discussed and accepted. The advantages and disadvantages of various data collection methods were described by Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995). For example, they suggested that interviewing resulted in detailed data even though it was very time-consuming. Also, Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) stated that observation was easily utilised in the classroom but failed to identify cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies adequately. Immediate retrospective narrative by students conveyed strategy use as well as various other important learning factors such as motivation and style, but students did not remember all the strategies they used. Likert-scale instruments were quick, easy, cost-effective, non-

threatening, confidential and provided immediate feedback to students (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995).

Chamot and Kupper (1989), and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) considered the advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires, guided interviews, retrospective think-aloud reporting and diary-writing. They suggested that questionnaires or guided interviews would allow participants to present a wide range of data about their strategy use, while think aloud techniques were limited by the specific nature of the learning task. Similarly, Chamot and Kupper (1989) said that in utilising such techniques a wide range of data can be collected, or more specific data collected for one language skill such as listening comprehension, depending on the requirements of the study. Difficulties in data collection process arise when training of the participants is necessary so that they are able both to understand and to perform the data-producing activity. These problems come both with think-aloud activities, and with diary writing activities which may require the participants to focus on a specific strategy or group of strategies when writing the diary.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) suggested data collection techniques that do not require participant training are easier, and often faster, to administer. These techniques include the likert-scale type instruments. For example, Oxford's (1986) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) emerged from the taxonomy of learning strategies produced by Oxford (1985). The taxonomy of learning strategies incorporated the majority of strategies discovered through earlier research which was large, with sub-categories that O'Malley and Chamot (1990) argued overlap; however, but the earlier research allowed Oxford later to produce the SILL. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) described how the SILL was modified and tested, and concluded that it seemed to be a reasonable instrument for interpretation of strategy use.

Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) studied on the reliability of some Likert-scale instruments, which measured strategy use including the SILL. It was reported that reliability of the data was unavailable for the Likert-scale instruments by Chamot et al. (1987), Padron and Waxman (1988) but for Politzer and McGroarty (1985) reliability was 0.51, 0.61 and 0.63 (Cronbach's alpha). However, they presented a broad summary of justification of Oxford's SILL over a 15 year period, suggesting it had strong utility, reliability, content validity, criterion-related validity (predictability and concurrent) and construct validity (i.e., strategy use to proficiency). According to Griffiths (2003) the SILL's reliability is 0.89 to 0.98 (Cronbach's alpha). It was advocated as one of the most comprehensive and easiest instruments to use.

By contrast, Gu, Wen and Wu (1995) warn that caution is required when using Oxford's SILL with learners, arguing that the likert-scale label 'frequent' is a relative, not absolute, term, and thus is subject to variation according to the focus of the participant completing the questionnaire. Gu, Wen and Wu (1995) applied four parallel questionnaires to university students with instructions that required participants' focus to differ slightly each time. The first questionnaire gave no instructions other than those of the original SILL, the second one required participants to respond comparing themselves with their peers, the third questionnaire asked them to compare their present behavioural frequency with their own past learning experience in high school, and the fourth one asked them to check their frequency of strategy use by comparing such frequency with that of their other language skills. Therefore, the results showed that participants' responses differed significantly for 13 of the 20 items. They conclude, therefore, that researchers using the SILL or any other likert-type instrument should ensure that clear instructions require participants to focus appropriately. Despite this, like earlier researchers, Tamada (1996)

and Hsiao and Oxford (2002) claim that, although the SILL is not completely adequate and that modifications would be useful, it is still known as the best instrument to measure LLS.

So far research into language learning strategy, listening strategy, listening strategy training and strategy measurement tools have produced mixed results which are not convincing about the determination of the listening strategies used by language learners, especially Turkish students learning English as a foreign language, and the measurement of the listening strategies regarding the cultural differences. Thus, the studies to date indicate that further research is necessary. The following chapter, methodology presents the research to deeply clarify the listening strategy use of the Turkish EFL students via a reliable and valid tool, DSE developed in this study.

CHAPTER II: METHOD

The methodology chapter includes two parts: The first part defines the adaptation study of Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) into Turkish culture and the second part clarifies the development of a likert type “Dinleme Stratejileri Envanteri” (DSE) for Turkish students learning English as a foreign language. While the research questions as the basis of the adaptation study are answered in the first part, the sub-research questions stated in the introduction of this study will be answered at the validity of the inventory developed, DSE, in the second part of this chapter.

II.1. The Adaptation Study of OCSI into Turkish Culture

The adaptation study of OCSI into Turkish Culture requires the study of translation validity of OCSI, reliability and validity of OCSI. In the following part, it is aimed to check whether OCSI, developed for Japanese EFL university students (Nakatani, 2006) can be used for Turkish EFL students or not. Also, it is carried out to see the compatibility of OCSI with Turkish culture.

II.1.1. The Translation Validity of OCSI

OCSI (see Appendix A) was developed by Nakatani (2006), administered with 400 EFL Japanese university students. The OCSI, as a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me), consists of two parts: strategies for coping with speaking problems, including 32 items, and strategies for coping with listening problems, with 26 items. As OCSI showed highly acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha .85 for the listening part), it was determined to use in this study.

All 26 items in listening part were translated from English into Turkish by 15 experts, at the department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education, in Mersin University, Turkey. The Turkish translation of OCSI was conducted with 148 university students at the department of English Language Teaching at Mersin University. Two days after administration, the English version of OCSI was administered with the same 148 students. The students were also informed to respond the 26 items considering themselves while they are listening in foreign language. While the students were expected to respond on the 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me) in the English version of OCSI (see Appendix A), they were expected to respond on the 4 frequency uses of each item from 1 to 4 in the Turkish version of OCSI (see Appendix B). Pearson correlation of Turkish and English versions of OCSI was .654, which indicates that there is a low consistency in translation or these students use similar listening strategies as they have similar background.

After the first pilot study, Turkish translation of OCSI was conducted with 30 Turkish students at foreign language classes of MTSO Anatolian High School in Mersin and two days later, the English version of OCSI was administered with the same 30 students. However, Pearson Correlation of the Turkish and English versions of OCSI was .784, higher than the first pilot study. The items 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18, 22 of the Turkish version of OCSI were retranslated as their item correlations are low. For the next pilot study, its Turkish translation was accepted as valid.

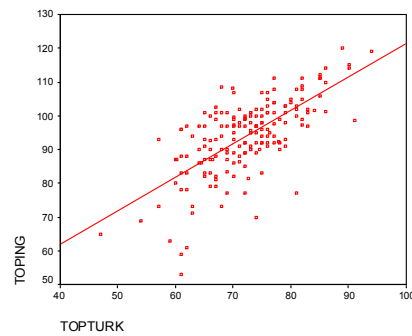


Figure 1. It shows that H_0 hypothesis is refused, and there is a significant relation between the students' scores in English version of OCSI and the Turkish version of OCSI ($r = 0.784$; $p > 0,01$).

II.1.2. The Reliability and Validity of OCSI

The reliability of “*Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems*” of OCSI during communicative tasks, measured by Cronbach’s alpha, was .85, which indicates a highly acceptable internal consistency. The mean of the 26 items was 3.59, and the standard deviation was 0.96. In order to determine the number of factors in strategies for coping with listening problems, Nakatani (2006) performed a factor analysis for all participants. By means of a minimum Eigen value criterion of 1.0, principal factor analysis, followed by varimax rotation, extracted seven orthogonal factors. The total percentage of variance accounting for seven factors was 58.3%. All factors, the mean of each factor, and the standard deviation appear in Table 5.

Table 5

Factors for Listening Strategies of OCSI (Nakatani, 2006)

Factor Name	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Factor 1 Negotiation for Meaning While Listening	4.10	0.89
Factor 2 Fluency-Maintaining	2.68	0.97
Factor 3 Scanning	3.60	0.97
Factor 4 Getting the Gist	3.55	0.93

Factor 5 Nonverbal Strategies While Listening	4.11	0.94
Factor 6 Less Active Listener	3.75	1.00
Factor 7 Word-Oriented	4.05	0.67

Nakatani (2006) described Factor 1 as *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies*, which was characterized by negotiating behavior while listening. When students have problems in listening during interaction, they use modified interaction to maintain their conversational goal with speakers. They repeat what the speaker said or make clarification requests in order to understand the speaker's intentions (Items 22, 21). They dare to show their difficulties in comprehension, and imply a need for the speaker's help in order to prevent misunderstandings (Items 20, 19, 23).

Factor 2 was clearly designated as *fluency-maintaining strategies*. Learners pay attention to the fluency of conversational flow by focusing on the speaker's rhythm, intonation, and pronunciation to capture his or her intentions (Items 13, 16). In order to avoid conversational gaps, they send continuation signals to show their understanding (Item 14). When they have listening problems, they ask speaker to give examples in order to facilitate understanding and avoid communication breakdowns (Item 10). They might use circumlocution to show how well they understand in order to continue smooth interaction (Item 15). Nakatani (2006) stated that "such strategies enable EFL learners to keep interactions going in order to achieve mutual communication goals successfully" (p.156).

Factor 3 was named *scanning strategies*. In order to get some hints about a speaker's intentions, the listeners use strategies to focus on specific points of speech, such as subject and verb, the interrogative, and the first part of the speaker's utterance, in which important information is usually contained (Items 26, 25, 5). In particular, it is almost impossible for EFL learners to understand every part of target language speech. They need

to use skills to capture the meaning of the utterance somehow. At least, once they have identified the main point of the speech (Item 12), they could in theory be ready to react to their interlocutor.

Factor 4 was evidenced in the use of strategies for getting the gist of a speaker's utterance. The learners pay attention to general information contained in speech rather than to specific utterances (Items 8, 6). They take into consideration the context and the speaker's previous sentences to guess overall meaning (Items 9, 7). Because of the difficulty for EFL learners to follow every single detail, these strategies could be useful for understanding what their interlocutor is saying by activating their schemata of background information. This factor, accordingly, can be referred to as *getting the gist strategies*.

Factor 5 was termed *nonverbal strategies while listening*. When listening in English, the learners tend to make use of nonverbal information, such as speaker's eye contact, facial expression, and gestures, in order to enhance their comprehension (Items 17, 18). Factor 6 was named as *less active listener strategies*. These strategies are diametrically opposed to Factors 1 and 2 in terms of their contribution to developing interaction. The use of these strategies represents negative attitudes towards using active listening strategies for interaction. Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) reported that less successful EFL learners tended to employ such strategies when facing communicative difficulties. These students try to translate into their native language little by little and depend heavily on familiar words (Items 11, 24). They do not think in English or take risks by guessing meaning from context. The more they use these strategies, the less likely they are to improve their listening comprehension ability during authentic interaction. Factor 6 therefore consists of negative rather than positive strategies.

Finally, Factor 7 had four variables associated with a heavy dependence on words to comprehend the speaker's intention; these strategies are *word-oriented strategies*. The use of these strategies reflects a learner's tendency to capture the meaning of speech by paying attention to individual words. Memorizing words is one of the most emphasized EFL learning methods in Japanese secondary schools (Brown & Yamashita, 1995). These students appear to have formed the habit of using words to get the meaning of speech. Of the four items, items 3 and 4 describe specific techniques for guessing the meaning of utterances by picking up individual words. Item 1 presents an interesting strategy used by these EFL students. They feel the need to pay attention to interrogative sentences because they have to understand the speaker's intentions clearly in order to respond to the question. In general, if students pay too much attention to a specific word, it could undermine their overall comprehension of an utterance, which might negatively affect their understanding.

To summarize, Nakatani (2006) developed OCSI to measure traits of students' oral communication strategy use in speaking and listening through reliable and valid data. The OCSI developed by factor analysis, using 400 Japanese students learning English, showed highly acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha .85 for the listening part). It had a clear factor structure. The listening part includes seven factors as follows: *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies*, *fluency-maintaining strategies*, *scanning strategies*, *getting the gist strategies*, *nonverbal strategies while listening*, *less active listener strategies*, and *word-oriented strategies*.

Yet, to clarify whether listening strategies that are proposed in OCSI are classified correctly to measure Turkish EFL students' strategy use, the inventory in Turkish was conducted to 823 Turkish students learning English as a foreign language. Their ages ranged from 16 to 26. These students were in advanced level in English, studying at high

schools and universities in Mersin, Adana, and Hatay. All students were asked to complete the OCSI considering the processes while they are listening in English. All participants received uniform instructions on how to complete the inventory. They were instructed to provide answers to each item. Prior to complete it, they learned that the study was not associated with the instructor, the school or university they studied. They were not required to identify themselves in the inventory. The researcher administered the inventory in the classrooms and the entire procedure lasted about 20 minutes.

The specific data analysis method involved was factor analysis. In order to determine the number of the factors in strategies for coping with listening strategies, the researcher performed factor analysis for all participants. Varimax rotation was employed to determine the number of initial factors. 4 factors (see Table 6) as *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies, inferencing strategies, scanning strategies, non verbal strategies* were labeled to EFL Turkish students whereas the factors of OCSI were named totally 7 factors: *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies, fluency-maintaining strategies, scanning strategies, getting the gist strategies, nonverbal strategies while listening, less active listener strategies, and word-oriented strategies.*

Table 6
Rotated Component Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
SMEAN(M21)	.783			
SMEAN(M22)	.768			
SMEAN(M20)	.748			
SMEAN(M19)	.715			
SMEAN(M23)	.712			
SMEAN(M10)	.527			
SMEAN(M13)		.738		
SMEAN(M18)		.672		
SMEAN(M16)		.664		
SMEAN(M14)		.648		
SMEAN(M9)			.770	

SMEAN(M7)	.739	
SMEAN(M3)	.550	
SMEAN(M5)	.546	
SMEAN(M25)		.687
SMEAN(M26)		.611
SMEAN(M24)		.602
SMEAN(M1)		.579

Factor 1 can be named as *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies*, which was described in Factor 1 of OCSI (Nakatani, 2006). Turkish students ask speakers to slow down and repeat when they cannot understand what the speaker has said, and to use easy words when Turkish students have difficulties in comprehension (Items 19, 20, 22). Listeners make a clarification request when they are not sure what the speaker has said, and make clear to the speaker what they have not been able to understand (Items 21, 23). Also, listeners ask the speaker to give an example when they are not sure what they said (Item 10). Even though Item 10 was described in Factor 2 “*Fluency-maintaining strategies*” of OCSI when it was applied to the Japanese students, Turkish students use this strategy to *negotiate meaning while listening*.

Factor 2 appeared to be concerned with paying attention to the speakers’ pronunciation, rhythm and intonation, eye contact, facial expression and gestures (Items 13, 16, 18). In addition, Turkish students send continuation signals to show their understanding in order to avoid communication gaps (Item 14). However, Turkish students do not use circumlocution to react the speaker’s utterance when they do not understand his/her intention well (Item 15) whereas Japanese students prefer to use Item 15 in terms of *non-verbal strategies*. Japanese students use Items 13, 14, 16 to maintain fluency during listening while Turkish students make use of nonverbal information to maintain communication. Hence, Factor 2 can be called *non-verbal strategies*.

Factor 3 received loadings from Items 3, 5, 7, and 9. These strategies can be termed as *inferencing strategies*. Turkish students guess the speakers’ intention based on what the

speakers have said so far and they pick up familiar words (Items 3, 7). They pay attention to the first part of the sentence and guess the speaker's intention (Item 5), which was considered as scanning by Japanese students. Also, Turkish students anticipate what the speaker is going to say based on the context (Item 9). While Items 7 and 9 contributed to Japanese students for *getting the gist during listening* and Item 3 was described as *word-oriented*; Items 3, 7, 9 appear to be among *inferencing strategies*.

Items 25, 26 in OCSI were related to Japanese students' paying attention to the interrogative when they listen to wh- questions and to the subject and verb of the sentence, which were called as *scanning strategies*. These strategies show similarity for Turkish students. Factor 4 also receives loadings from Items 1 and 24. They focus on familiar expressions (Item 24), which was considered as less-active listener strategy among Japanese students. In addition, Turkish students pay attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not (Item 1), which was defined as a *word-oriented strategy* for Japanese students.

In the final version of the factor analysis, there are some strategies (Items 2, 4, 6, 8, 11, 12, 15, and 17) that load to more than a specific factor among the factors stated above. More specifically, these strategies are *trying to catch every word that the speaker uses* (Item 2), *paying attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes* (Item 4), *trying to respond to the speaker even when they do not understand the speaker perfectly* (Item 6), *not minding if they cannot understand every single detail* (Item 8). Also, *trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said* (Item 11), *trying to catch the speaker's main point* (Item 12), *using circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when they do not understand the speaker's intention well* (Item 15) and *using gestures when they have difficulties in understanding* (Item 17) are among the

strategies stated above. However, it was thought that there were more strategies Turkish students use except the defined strategies in four factors. This idea required to develop items based on studies in literature on listening strategies.

II.2. The Development of a Likert-type “Dinleme Stratejileri Envanteri” (DSE)

In the following part, selection of items for the development of a 5 points-likert type inventory, DSE, validity and reliability studies of the inventory developed are presented. The aim of the development of DSE is to reveal listening strategies of Turkish EFL students via a reliable and valid tool in the field of English Language Teaching.

II.2.1. Selection of Items

By regarding the previous studies on language learning strategies and more specifically listening part, new items were composed and they were classified in seven factors: Factor 1 *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies*, Factor 2 *inferencing strategies*, Factor 3 *scanning strategies*, Factor 4 *nonverbal strategies*, Factor 5 *word-oriented strategies*, Factor 6 *getting the gist strategies*, and Factor 7 *pre-listening strategies*. Items in Factor 1, 2, and 3 were regarded as meaningfully defining the strategies used by Turkish students; however, three items were added to Factor 4 *Nonverbal strategies*. These items were: “*I use gestures when I have difficulties in understanding*”, developed by Nakatani (2006), “*Pay attention to when and how long people tend to pause*” (Cohen, Oxford, & Chi, 2000) and “*I try to guess the content from the speakers’ intonation and pauses*” Oxford (1990), Teng (1996) and Cohen and Chi (2002). Two items (Nakatani, 2006), “*I try to catch every word that the speaker uses*” and “*I pay attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes*” were associated with Factor 5 *word-oriented*

strategies. Also, “I listen for the keywords that seem to carry the bulk of the meaning” and “I try to understand what I hear without translating it word-for-word” (Cohen, Oxford, & Chi, 2000) were more in-dept understanding of this factor. “I quit listening in case of any unknown vocabulary during the activity” (Gerçek, 2000) was the last item of Factor 5.

Factor 6 *getting the gist strategies* was regarded as defining the related factor with the following items: “I do not mind if I do not understand every single detail” and “I try to catch the speaker’s main point” (Nakatani, 2006), “I draw on my general background knowledge to get the main idea” (Cohen, Oxford, & Chi, 2000), “I keep control of my biases and attitudes when listening to others speak so that these factors won’t affect my interpretation of the message”(Lu, 2005), “I do no translation in order to comprehend better the message given in English” (Gerçek, 2000), “I use my prior knowledge to understand better what I listen” and “I repeat some sentences into my native language to understand whether I catch the meaning or not”. Factor 7 *pre-listening strategies* was related to preparation prior to listening process with the items: “I prepare for talks and performances I will hear in the target language by reading some background materials beforehand” (Cohen, Oxford, & Chi, 2000) and “I prepare oneself for the activity before listening to it” (Gerçek, 2000). Totally, thirty-five items in seven factors were included to identify listening strategies of Turkish EFL students. The reliability and validity of these selected items are defined in the following parts as they are inevitable in the scale development process.

II.2.2. The Reliability of “Dinleme Stratejisi Envateri”

The inventory, 5 points likert-type, was administered to 601 Turkish EFL students studying at high schools and universities in Mersin and Hatay. Their ages ranged from 16

to 26. They were informed about how to complete the inventory and were required to answer to each item. They were required to identify themselves with their nicknames in the inventory. Also, they evaluate their proficiency levels as beginner, intermediate and advanced in listening skill. The researcher administered the inventory in the classrooms and the entire procedure lasted about 20 minutes.

According to the factor analysis (see Table 7), there are seven factors in listening strategies used by Turkish students. However, some items give load to more than one factor, which leads to the ambiguity of the strategies preferred by Turkish students. The quantitative values required to take some items out of the second factor analysis.

Table 7

Rotated Component Matrix

	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SMEAN(M20)	.734						
SMEAN(M19)	.674						
SMEAN(M13)	.643						
SMEAN(M22)	.583						
SMEAN(M34)	.577		.363				
SMEAN(M16)	.506			.350			
SMEAN(M2)	.466			.344			
SMEAN(M14)	.457						
SMEAN(M7)	.410		.314				
SMEAN(M27)		.798					
SMEAN(M21)		.722					
SMEAN(M30)		.689					
SMEAN(M8)		.689					
SMEAN(M15)		.655					
SMEAN(M28)		.567					
SMEAN(M1)	.371	.427					.337
SMEAN(M33)			.755				
SMEAN(M24)			.591				
SMEAN(M4)			.539				
SMEAN(M35)	.393		.527				
SMEAN(M18)			.519				
SMEAN(M3)				.775			
SMEAN(M9)				.571			
SMEAN(M23)				.506			

SMEAN(M17)		.478			
SMEAN(M31)		.460			
SMEAN(M25)			.619		
SMEAN(M29)	-.309		-.612		
SMEAN(M26)			.572		
SMEAN(M32)		.339	.455		-.388
SMEAN(M6)				.757	
SMEAN(M10)			-.384	.563	
SMEAN(M5)		.386		-.468	
SMEAN(M11)					.616
SMEAN(M12)	.392				.469

The items giving load less than .30 were removed from the inventory to make a second factor analysis. According to the Pattern Matrix, the inventory was categorized in five factors (see Table 8). The Cronbach's Alpha value was .84, which defines a highly reliable instrument. The reliability analysis was used for each five factors to understand the internal consistency. The inventory showed highly acceptable internal consistency Factor 1 *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies* .82, Factor 2 *getting the gist strategies* .76, Factor 3 *scanning strategies* .67, Factor 4 *nonverbal strategies* .61, Factor 5 *word-oriented strategies* .74.

Table 8

Pattern Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
SMEAN(M27)	.869				
SMEAN(M21)	.749				
SMEAN(M8)	.741				
SMEAN(M30)	.718				
SMEAN(M15)	.681				
SMEAN(M28)	.602				
SMEAN(M13)		.800			
SMEAN(M19)		.794			
SMEAN(M20)		.722			
SMEAN(M22)		.611			
SMEAN(M25)		.610			
SMEAN(M14)		.478			
SMEAN(M3)			.881		
SMEAN(M9)			.649		
SMEAN(M23)			.607		

SMEAN(M17)	.438		
SMEAN(M31)	.362		
SMEAN(M33)		.839	
SMEAN(M4)		.698	
SMEAN(M18)		.618	
SMEAN(M6)			-.854
SMEAN(M5)			.613

II.2.3. The Validity of the Inventory Developed, DSE

In the validity study of DSE, it is aimed to identify listening strategies of intermediate and advanced level EFL students at the department of English Language Teaching. In the following part, participants of the study, data collection tools and data analysis methods are presented.

II.2.3.1. Participants

294 (218F/76M) Turkish EFL preparatory, freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior students of Department of English Language Teaching at Mersin University during the 2010-2011 academic year, participated in this study. Their ages ranged from 18 to 27. They were informed about how to complete the inventory, and were required to answer each item. Also, they were asked to identify themselves with their nicknames in the inventory, and to write their sex and classes. The participants' proficiency level in English language was determined as intermediate (independent user, B1 & B2) and advanced (proficient user, C1 & C2) based on the proficiency levels in Common European Framework (CEF). The participants in preparatory grade were independent users while participants in freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior were classified in proficient users.

II.2.3.2. Data Collection Tools

The developed inventory, DSE, a 5 points likert-type, was administered to the participants. DSE was expected to respond on the five frequency uses of each item, ranging

from “Asla bana uymaz” to “Kesinlikle bana uyar”. DSE, 21 items, was classified in five factors: Factor 1 *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies (items 5, 11, 16, 19, 20, 21)*, Factor 2 *getting the gist strategies (items 8, 9, 10, 14, 15, 17)*, Factor 3 *scanning strategies (items 1, 6, 12, 18)*, Factor 4 *nonverbal strategies (items 2, 7, 13)*, Factor 5 *word-oriented strategies (3, 4)*. The 21 items in DSE were put in order randomly without considering the factors they belong to (see Appendix D). The inventory showed highly acceptable internal consistency as shown: Factor 1 *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies* .82, Factor 2 *getting the gist strategies* .76, Factor 3 *scanning strategies* .67, Factor 4 *nonverbal strategies* .61, Factor 5 *word-oriented strategies* .74. The researcher administered the inventory in the classrooms and the entire procedure lasted about 10 minutes.

II.2.3.3. Data Analysis Methods

Factor analysis, descriptive statistics and independent samples t-test were used as data analysis methods in the present study. Factor analysis is a statistical method used to describe the interrelationships among the observed variables in a concise and accurate manner as an aid in conceptualization (Gorsuch, 1983). Factor analysis done in this study was implemented to see the validity of the Listening Strategy Inventory.

In addition, descriptive statistics, which describes the variability among scores by comparing the standard deviations of the variables against the other variables (Wright, 1997), was used to define the participants’ frequent use of the factors. Independent samples t-test is used in “situations in which there are two experimental conditions and different subjects have been used in each situations” (Field, 2000, p. 233). In this study, independent samples t-test was used both to see whether the listening strategy use differs according to

the sex of the participants and to compare proficiency level of the participants and listening strategy use.

CHAPTER III: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In this chapter, the results gathered with the help of factor analysis, descriptive statistical analysis, and independent samples t-test performed on the data obtained by the developed Listening Strategy Inventory, and interpretations of the results are presented in the order of which the sub-research questions have been introduced. This chapter presents the results of the factor analysis and descriptive statistics. The following part of this chapter deals with the results of the two sub-research questions under the headings of “Independent samples t-test for sex and listening strategy use”, and “Independent samples t-test for level and listening strategy use”. The results of the research are discussed by relating them with the earlier studies both on listening strategies and language learning strategies.

III.1. Results and Discussions of the Factor Analysis and Descriptive Statistics

The inventory, 5 points likert-type and 21 items, was conducted to 294 Turkish EFL students studying at the department of English Language Teaching, Mersin University. According to the factor analysis (see Table 9), there are five factors in listening strategies used by Turkish students. This factor analysis reveals that there is a similarity in the number of factors with the one at the reliability study of DSE, which supports the validity of DSE. The Table 9 below shows the load of each item to five different factors in detail.

Table 9

Rotated Component Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
SMEAN(M19)	.876				

SMEAN(M21)	.873			
SMEAN(M16)	.807			
SMEAN(M11)	.761			
SMEAN(M5)	.739			
SMEAN(M20)	.350			
SMEAN(M17)		.668		
SMEAN(M15)		.647		
SMEAN(M9)		.647		
SMEAN(M14)		.581		
SMEAN(M10)		.559	.367	
SMEAN(M6)		.443	.370	
SMEAN(M13)			.773	
SMEAN(M2)			.689	
SMEAN(M7)	.337	.531		
SMEAN(M8)	.387	.412		.391
SMEAN(M1)			.807	
SMEAN(M12)			.703	
SMEAN(M18)		.347	.536	
SMEAN(M4)				.849
SMEAN(M3)				-.785

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

According to the Rotated Component Matrix, the inventory was categorized in five factors (see Table 9). The inventory showed highly acceptable internal consistency Factor 1 *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies* .82, Factor 2 *getting the gist strategies* .76, Factor 3 *scanning strategies* .67, Factor 4 *nonverbal strategies* .61, Factor 5 *word-oriented strategies* .74.

As it is stated in the Table 9, five items (Item 6, 7, 8, 10, 18) give load to more than one factor, which leads to the ambiguity of the strategies preferred by Turkish students; however, the quantitative values statistically do not require taking these items out of the listening strategy scale. Item 6, “*Cümlelerin ilk bölümüne dikkat ederek konuşmacının ne söylemek istediğini çıkarırım*” belongs to the factor called as *scanning strategies*. In this factor analysis, this item gives load to *scanning strategies* (.443) and *nonverbal strategies* (.370); however, conceptually it is not feasible to group Item 6 among the other strategies. Similarly, Item 18, “*Dinlerken konuşmayı anlayabilmek için öncelikle cümlelerin öznesine*

ve yüklemine dikkat ederim” is one of *scanning strategies*. Yet, Item 18 gives load to *nonverbal strategies* with .536 while its load shows .347 in *scanning strategies*.

In addition, Item 8, “Duyduğumu kelime kelime çevirmeden anlamaya çalışırım” and Item 10, “Dinlemeye başlamadan önce kendimi dinleyeceğim konuya zihnen hazırlarım” are among *getting the gist strategies*. However, it is not meaningful to group Item 8 in *scanning strategies* (.412) and *word-oriented strategies* (.391) as Item 10 is not possible to be among *nonverbal strategies* (.367). Moreover to this, Item 7, “Konuşmacının ne zaman ve ne kadar süre ile duraksadığına dikkat ederim” gives load to *getting the gist strategies* (.337) and *scanning strategies* (.531) even though it places in *non verbal strategies*.

Descriptive statistics were applied to determine the rank order of any statement in DSE from the most preferred to the least preferred. The results of the descriptive statistics are presented in Table 10.

Table 10
Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
F1TOTAL	294	9.00	30.00	22.4375	4.32533
F2TOTAL	294	14.00	30.00	24.1277	3.20646
F3TOTAL	294	8.00	20.00	15.1580	2.57827
F4TOTAL	294	6.00	15.00	11.6014	2.01936
F5TOTAL	294	3.00	10.00	6.9611	1.15550
Valid N (listwise)	294				

The Table 10 revealed that Factor 2, *Getting the gist strategies* ($M=24.1277$), is the most preferred factor among the participants of the present study. Factor 1, *Negotiation for meaning strategies* ($M=22.4375$), is the second one according to the means of the

descriptive statistics' results. Then, Factor 3, *Scanning Strategies* ($M=15.1580$), Factor 4, *Non-verbal Strategies* ($M=11.6014$), Factor 5, *Word-oriented Strategies* ($M=6.9611$), follow the order in the frequent use of strategies.

III.2. Independent Samples t-test for sex and listening strategy use

In order to answer the first sub-research question, “Do listening strategies used by the university students at the department of English Language Teaching, Mersin University differ in terms of sex?”, the independent samples t-test was run. An independent samples t-test was administered to totally 294 students (218F/76M). The results appear in the Table 11 below. It is also reported regarding the Sig. (2-tailed) for each factor in the Table 11.

Table 11

Independent Samples t- test

Factor / Sex	N	\bar{X}	S	t	P
F1 <i>Negotiation for meaning while listening strategies</i>	F 294	22.8237	4.28155	2.661	.008*
	M	21.30	4.33232		
F2 <i>Getting the gist strategies</i>	F 294	24.2284	3.12007	.840	.402
	M	23.8684	3.48460		
F3 <i>Scanning strategies</i>	F 294	15.3705	2.50388	2.317	.021*
	M	14.5789	2.73380		

	F	11.7018	1.94583		
F4 <i>Nonverbal strategies</i>	294			1.293	.197
	M	11.3553	2.19517		
	F	6.9747	1.11584		
F5 <i>Word-oriented strategies</i>	294			.432	.666
	M	6.9079	1.27726		

Note. *significant at $p < .05$

Statistically measured listening strategy use significance of the participants, was stated in Table 11, considering sex differences in five different factors (F1, F2, F3, F4, F5). The significance of each factor is noted as there is a significant difference if it is $p < .05$, and there is no significant difference if it is $p > .05$.

The analysis of independent samples t-test for Factor 1 “*negotiation for meaning while listening strategies*” revealed a significant difference in listening strategy use in terms of sex ($0.008 < 0.05$). These listening strategies are: “*Konuşmacının söylemiş olduklarını anlamadığımda konuşmacıdan konuşmasını yavaşlatmasını isterim*” (Item 5), “*Dinlerken anlamadığımda konuşmacının konuşmasında daha anlaşılır sözcük kullanmasını ve cümleler kurmasını isterim*” (Item 11), “*Konuşmacının söylemiş olduklarından emin olmadığımda açıklama yapmasını isterim*” (Item 16), “*Dinlerken konuşmacının söylediğini anlamadığımda tekrar etmesini isterim*” (Item 19), “*Anlamakta güçlük çekince vücut dilimle anlamadığımı belli ederim*” (Item 20), “*Konuşmacının konuşmasından anlayamadıklarımı netleştirmesini isterim*” (Item 21).

Similarly, the analysis of independent samples t-test for Factor 3 “*scanning strategies*” revealed a significant difference in listening strategy use in terms of sex ($0.021 < 0.05$). These listening strategies are: “*Bir konuşmayı dinlerken, cümlenin soru cümlesi olup olmadığını anlayabilmek için ilk sözcüğüne dikkat ederim*” (Item 1), “*Cümlenin ilk bölümüne dikkat ederek konuşmacının ne söylemek istediğini çıkarırım*” (Item 6),

“Konuşmayı dinlerken özellikle kim, ne, nerede, nasıl, ne zaman, hangi (wh-) soru ifadelerine dikkat ederim” (Item 12), “Dinlerken konuşmayı anlayabilmek için öncelikle cümlelerin öznesine ve yüklemine dikkat ederim” (Item 18).

In contrast, the analysis of independent samples t-test for Factor 2 “*getting the gist strategies*” revealed that there is no significant difference in listening strategy use in terms of sex ($0.402 > 0,05$). These listening strategies are: “Duyduğumu kelime kelime çevirmeden anlamaya çalışırım” (Item 8), “Konuşmacının söylediklerinden ana fikri çıkarmaya özen gösteririm” (Item 9), “Dinlemeye başlamadan önce kendimi dinleyeceğim konuya zihnen hazırlarım” (Item 10), “Anlatılmak istenilenin özünü veren anahtar kelimeleri dinlerim” (Item 14), “Ana fikri anlamak için var olan bilgimi kullanırım” (Item 15), “Bağlamdan yola çıkarak konuşmacının ne söyleyeceğini tahmin ederim” (Item 17).

Similar to the result of the analysis for Factor 2, the analysis of independent samples t-test for Factor 4 “*nonverbal strategies*” revealed that there is no significant difference in listening strategy use in terms of sex ($0.197 > 0.05$). These listening strategies are: “Konuşmacının tonlamasına ve vurgusuna dikkat ederim” (Item 2), “Konuşmacının ne zaman ve ne kadar süre ile duraksadığına dikkat ederim” (Item 7), “Dinlerken konuşmacının telaffuzuna dikkat ederim” (Item 13).

Lastly, the analysis of independent samples t-test for Factor 5 “*word oriented strategies*” revealed that there is also no significant difference in listening strategy use in terms of sex ($0.666 > 0.05$). These listening strategies are: “Konuşmacının kullandığı her sözcüğü anlamaya çalışırım” (Item 3), “Dinlerken her bir detayı anlamasam da olur” (Item 4).

In the present research, results indicate that there is a significant difference in the use of “*scanning*” and “*negotiation for meaning while listening strategies*” in terms of sex.

Female EFL university students prefer to use these strategies compared to male EFL university students. However, it has been observed that there are no statistically significant differences between female and male participants in the use of “*getting the gist strategies*”, “*nonverbal strategies*”, and “*word-oriented strategies*”. Similarly, the results support some previous studies on listening strategy use questioning sex differences. This result concurs with Goh’s (2002) study, which pointed out that differences between two genders appeared to be small indicating no statistically significant difference in strategy use.

Besides, Vandergrift (1996) proposed that listening comprehension strategies of core French high school students do not vary according to the sex of the students. Even though the subjects of Vandergrith’s (1996) study are high school students, the use of listening strategy does not change in terms of sex compared to university students. Also, Vandergrift (2004) found that preparatory students’ scores in listening comprehension test, prepared to find out the relation between the listening strategy use and level of achievement, did not show difference between female participants and their male counterparts.

According to Bacon’s (1992) study, there are statistical differences between female and male Spanish university students. While female students use comprehension and monitoring strategies, male students mostly prefer to use translating from foreign language to native language. In contrast, Vandergrift (1997) found no significant differences in listening strategy use of female and male university students.

On the other hand, in previous studies (Liu, 2004; Ching-Yi et al., 2007; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993; Yang, 1992; Nyikos, 1990; Politzer, 1983), statistically significant differences were found between male and female learners in their overall language learning strategy use. However, the relationship between sex and skill-based strategy use, more

specifically listening strategy use, shows difference in contrast to the preference of language learning strategy in terms of sex. This result of the study shows that it may not be possible and convenient to apply language learning strategy scales and inventories to measure and see the relationship between sex and listening strategy use.

In addition to the studies above, questioning the relation between sex and listening strategy use, there are studies on the use of language learning strategies regarding the relation between sex and strategy use. Kato (2005) pointed out that there was a significant difference in the language learning strategy use associated with sex. While female Japanese university students learning English as a foreign language use memory, compensation and metacognitive strategies, male Japanese university students use social, affective and cognitive strategies. However, in Shmais' (2003) study, it was found that there was no significant difference between female and male Arab EFL university students at An-Najah University in Palestine. Lee (2003) studied on the use of learning strategies in learning English of Korean junior high school students. Among 325 Korean secondary school EFL students, 162 female showed more frequent use of all six strategy-categories in SILL than male students.

III.3. Independent Samples t-test for Level and Listening Strategy Use

To tackle the second research question, "Do listening strategies used by the university students at the department of English Language Teaching, Mersin University differ in terms of students' proficiency levels?", an independent samples t-test was also run. The 294 participants' proficiency levels in English were classified as intermediate and advanced. The results appear in the Table 12 below. It is reported regarding the Sig. (2-tailed) for each factor in the table.

Table 12

Independent Samples t-test

Factor / Level	N	\bar{X}	S	t	P
Intermediate		23.0605	4.64338		
F1 <i>Negotiation for meaning while listening strategies</i>	294			1.709	.088
Advanced		22.1430	4.14605		
Intermediate		23.4737	3.46669		
F2 <i>Getting the gist strategies</i>	294			-2.432	.016*
Advanced		24.4368	3.03602		
Intermediate		15.5474	2.54227		
F3 <i>Scanning strategies</i>	294			1.793	.074
Advanced		14.9740	2.58095		
Intermediate		11.2737	2.26651		
F4 <i>Nonverbal strategies</i>	294			-1.928	.055
Advanced		11.7562	1.87757		
Intermediate		7.0892	1.20976		
F5 <i>Word-oriented strategies</i>	294			1.313	.190
Advanced		6.9005	1.12696		

Note. *significant at $p < .05$

According to the results obtained from the independent samples t-test for the analysis of independent samples t-test for Factor 2 “*getting the gist strategies*” indicated a significant difference in listening strategy use in terms of level ($0.016 < 0.05$). However, Factor 1, shown in Table 12, “*negotiation for meaning while listening strategies*” revealed that there is no significant difference in listening strategy use in terms of level ($0.088 > 0.05$).

Similar to the analysis results of Factor 1, the analysis of independent samples t-test for Factor 3 “*scanning strategies*” showed that there is no significant difference in listening

strategy use in terms of level ($0.074 > 0.05$). Also, the analysis of independent samples t-test for Factor 4 “*nonverbal strategies*” revealed that there is no significant difference in listening strategy use in terms of level ($0.055 > 0.05$). Lastly, the analysis of independent samples t-test for Factor 5 “*word oriented strategies*” demonstrated that there is no significant difference in listening strategy use in terms of level ($0.190 > 0.05$).

The present study examined whether there were any differences in listening strategy use regarding four grades in the department of English Language Teaching at Mersin University. Results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in listening comprehension strategy use in terms of level. Both advanced and intermediate level university students similarly prefer to use “*negotiation for meaning while listening strategies*”, “*word-oriented strategies*”, “*scanning strategies*”, and “*nonverbal strategies*”. However, advanced level students use “*getting the gist strategies*” more than intermediate level students. Most probably, students in advanced level learn how to define the main or the essential part of any listening comprehension matter. Also, it is probably due to the fact that the advanced level students are aware of the importance of integration of their contemplating and summarizing skills into listening comprehension.

Cinemre (1991) searched on the listening comprehension strategies employed by good and poor listeners. With the help of a student interview guide developed by the researcher himself, it was found out that in the use of metacognitive strategies, *self-reinforcement* was the only strategy that indicated significant difference between good and poor listeners. Besides, *asking for clarification* was identified as one of the cognitive strategies that appeared to distinguish good listeners from the poor ones in the study. The participants in the sample of the current study reported *asking for clarification* as the most common behavior displayed in the listening activities.

Gerçek (2000) carried out a study with 139 freshmen at the ELT Department of Anadolu University. The study aimed to investigate differences in strategy use of the Prep-Group, which consisted of 59 students attended preparatory program, and the Non-prep Group, which consisted of 80 students who did not attend the preparatory program of the university. The results of the study indicated no significant difference between the Prep-Group and Non-prep Group in terms of listening comprehension strategy use. The frequencies of individual strategy use revealed that the participants both in Prep-Group and Non-prep Group were reported giving up listening when they hear any unknown vocabulary. As the participants of Gerçek's (2000) study were all ELT department freshmen, they must have been more proficient than the intermediate level participants of the current research.

Besides, Goh (1998) investigated the cognitive and metacognitive strategies and tactics employed by high ability and low ability listeners through retrospective verbal reports. It was found that low ability group did not report employing *real-time assessment of input* strategy, which involves dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary in order to achieve comprehension and noticing problems during listening. Also, Goh (2000) investigated language learners' listening comprehension problems from a cognitive perspective among a group of tertiary level students in China, at the age of 19. It was found that some problems occurred during the cognitive processing phases of perception, parsing and utilization. Most of the problems were linked to word recognition and attention failure during perceptual processing. Low ability listeners had more problems in the processing phase.

There are some studies questioning the use of language learning strategies in terms of proficiency levels of the EFL students. In one of these studies, Griffiths (2007) founded

that there was a significant relation between course level and overall reported frequency of language learning strategy use of 131 international students from 14 different nations. Higher level students use a larger repertoire of strategies more than lower level students. In another study about how language learning strategies affect English proficiency, Kato (2005) pointed that the EFL university students in Japan in proficiency level used metacognitive and cognitive strategies rather than compensation and social strategies.

As Kato (2005) stated, more research should be developed to establish whether strategy use has a positive effect on the enhancement of proficiency. Also, more research is required regarding how students from different cultural backgrounds and countries utilize different strategies and prioritize common strategies differently. Similarly, Altan (2004) focused on nationality in the use of language learning strategies which is not identified in the previous studies on strategies. He searched the effects of nationality in the choice of language learning strategies and the frequency of the strategies among intermediate and advanced level students who are from China, Hungary and Turkey. It was found that there were differences among Chinese, Hungarian and Turkish students within strategy categories. However, no significant difference emerged in terms of proficiency levels among Chinese, Hungarian and Turkish students. Altan (2004) claimed that it may be because of the high motivation of the participants in the stated study as they were the students of the department of English Language Teaching in the Faculty of Education at the universities. Similar to this study, Shmais (2003) found language learning strategies used by Arab EFL university students at An-Najah University in Palestine and he did not find a significant difference on the use of strategy in terms of proficiency.

In a study by Lee (2003), the relation of proficiency on the use of the language learning strategies among 325 Korean secondary school EFL students, was investigated. It

was found that 3rd year students employed compensation and memory strategies more often whereas 1st year students employed metacognitive, cognitive, affective, and social strategies more often. Cognitive strategies showed the highest correlation with metacognitive and memory strategies.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this study has been to investigate whether listening strategies that have been proposed in various studies for many years are correctly to measure Turkish language learners' listening strategy use as well as to develop listening strategy inventory according to the results of adaptation of "Oral Communication Strategy Inventory" (Nakatani, 2006). With this intention in mind it has been searched for several reasons. It is expected to expand the limited research on listening strategies of Turkish students learning English as a foreign language. This is because of the fact that Turkish students are rarely able to augment their listening skills beyond the classrooms. This study considers the cultural background of the Turkish students in terms of listening strategies. The present study is assumed to be promoting for the development of Turkish students' listening skills with the use of strategy. Although there is a wide range of studies focusing on the use of language learning strategies and listening strategies, there seems no research on the listening strategies of Turkish students considering the cultural differences.

The first part of the study, introduction is a lead into the context of cognitive psychology, its developmental features, like first and second language learning, learning strategies and effective language learning. This part as a background to this study has a purpose to display that the focus of the study has shifted to actively and intentionally use of strategy to comprehend the input.

The second part of the study, review of literature follows by taking attention to fundamental role listening in language acquisition, language learning strategies and listening strategies, importance and characteristics of listening, role of listening strategies in language learning, types of language learning strategies and listening strategies. In this part it has been supported that it is important to know that language learning occurs by

developing communicative competence. Development of communicative competence or negotiating meaning has been explained in light of cognitive theory. Then language learning has been elaborated by giving information about the role of listening and the importance of strategy use in listening comprehension. Even if language learning strategies are considered general for all skills the focus in this research is on listening strategies due to the aim of this study. This part is also devoted to strategy training supporting that strategies can be taught. The goal of strategy training has been defined as explicit teaching of how, when, and why strategies can be used in order to facilitate students' efforts in language learning and using a foreign language, more specifically listening skill. There have been also some implications given for instruction if strategy teaching is to be adopted. The last part of the review of literature has a role in founding the basis for the investigation of the listening strategy research tool to determine Turkish students' listening strategy use. It has been mentioned about the features of language learning strategies and listening strategy measurement instruments by giving examples from early studies done on language learning strategies, listening strategies, their classifications and use.

The third part of the study, methodology is about the adaptation study of Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) into Turkish culture, and the development of "Dinleme Stratejileri Envanteri" for Turkish students (see pages 28-30). Students were given the Turkish translation of OCSI by Nakatani (2006) in order to identify their listening strategies. It has been concluded that OCSI is not available to conduct Turkish students. On the other hand, it is thought that Turkish students use more strategies than the listening strategies defined in OCSI. As a result, this idea requires the development of items based on the previous studies on the field. The selected items meaningfully define the listening strategies of Turkish students. The reliability study of these selected items

administered 601 Turkish EFL students. The Cronbach's Alpha value was .84, which defines a highly reliable instrument, according to the results of factor analysis rotated by varimax rotation technique. The validity study of the developed inventory conducted to 296 Turkish EFL students and factor analysis was used to check whether the inventory was valid or not. The result of the adaptation of "OCSI" (Nakatani, 2006) to the Turkish Culture revealed that "OCSI" does not investigate the overall listening strategies of Turkish EFL students while it defines the Japanese EFL students' listening strategy use, which indicates that culture is a factor reasoning to different listening strategy classifications in different countries.

Moreover, the fourth part of the study, results and discussions gives some introductory information about the development of Listening Strategy Inventory with factor analysis and descriptive statistical analysis and independent samples t-test on the gathered data from the Turkish students. Then the sub-research questions of the study are presented under the heading of "Independent samples t-test for sex and listening strategy use" and "Independent samples t-test for level and listening strategy use". The differences in listening strategy use of EFL students in terms of sex and proficiency levels are because of the differences in Turkish EFL learners' backgrounds, learning styles, affective preferences, and personalities.

In the present study, the results of the Independent samples t-test in terms of sex indicate that there is a significant difference in the use of scanning and negotiation for meaning while listening. Female Turkish students prefer to use these strategies more rather than the male Turkish students. However, there is no statistical difference between female and male Turkish students in the use of getting the gist strategies, nonverbal strategies and word-oriented strategies.

According to the results of the Independent samples t-test in terms of level, it is concluded that both advanced and intermediate level Turkish students similarly prefer to use negotiation for meaning while listening strategies, word oriented strategies, scanning strategies and nonverbal strategies. However, advanced level students prefer to use getting the gist strategies more than intermediate level Turkish students. The use of getting the gist strategies by Turkish EFL Students in advanced level rather than intermediate level indicate that how well Turkish students in advanced level use top-down processing in listening comprehension with their background knowledge and inferencing skills.

To sum up, the development of Listening Strategy Inventory has attributed to the field as it is presented as a reliable and a valid instrument to determine the listening strategy use of Turkish EFL students, and to define listening strategies in an explicit way. Turkish EFL students using listening strategies can build an awareness of language systems at various levels and be aware that listening forms a base for more fluent productive skills. As language skills make sense when it is handled together, listening skill and strategies are in close connection with the other skills, especially the speaking skill.

Limitations of the Study

The qualitative data seems to be a limitation in this study but statistically as the inventory used in the study applied to a large population, the results of the study are reliable. However, the findings obtained with DSE can be supported with think aloud protocols or semi-structured interviews. Also, it is specific to the department of English Language Teaching. In addition to this, the population of the study is limited to define the Turkish EFL students' listening strategies while listening. The proficiency levels of the population are intermediate and advanced.

Implications for Future Studies

The present study has been illuminating for the future developments in the use of listening strategy. It is assumed to be of importance to make necessary highlights to the future studies. Future studies might focus on listening strategy training. The instrument of this study is limited to measure the listening strategy use of university students as it is only at the level of university students. Also, it is elicited that Turkish university students learning English as a foreign language give importance to the use of strategy but lack in some guiding principles or techniques in listening comprehension. In that sense, strategy training and more specifically listening strategy training encourage language learners to use strategy. It is hoped that students have higher frequency of strategy use with the help of listening strategy training.

In addition, having a background knowledge of teachers about strategy training or integrating strategy teaching into the curriculum can facilitate the foreign language learning and teaching processes. It can increase students' and teachers' awareness about the cognitive processes in listening, and emphasizing the role of using listening strategies.

A growing body of the present study indicates that the focus has shifted to actively and intentionally using listening strategies in communication; however, there is a shift towards unidirectional listening as language learners prefer the technology tools recently. Listening skill building is not limited to face to face interaction and two-way interactive listening activities and tasks. In that sense, this study implies the need for comparison of interactional and unidirectional way in listening.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) (Nakatani, 2006)

APPENDIX B: Turkish version of OCSI

APPENDIX C: Listening Strategies

APPENDIX D: Listening Strategy Inventory

APPENDIX A: Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) (Nakatani, 2006)

Please respond to each statement based on your personal experiences.

<p style="text-align: center;">Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI)</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Strategies for Coping With Listening Problems</i></p>	Never or almost never true of me	Generally not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Generally true of me	Always or almost always true of me
1. I pay attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not.					
2. I try to catch every word that the speaker uses.					
3. I guess the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words.					
4. I pay attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes.					
5. I pay attention to the first part of the sentence and guess the speaker's intention.					
6. I try to respond to the speaker even when I don't understand him/her perfectly.					
7. I guess the speaker's intention based on what he/she has said so far.					
8. I don't mind if I can't understand every single detail.					
9. I anticipate what the speaker is going to say based on the context.					
10. I ask the speaker to give an example when I am not sure what he/she said.					
11. I try to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said.					
12. I try to catch the speaker's main point.					
13. I pay attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation.					
14. I send continuation signals to show my understanding in order to avoid communication gaps.					
15. I use circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when I don't understand his/her intention well.					
16. I pay attention to the speaker's pronunciation.					
17. I use gestures when I have difficulties in understanding.					

18. I pay attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures.					
19. I ask the speaker to slow down when I can't understand what the speaker has said.					
20. I ask the speaker to use easy words when I have difficulties in comprehension.					
21. I make a clarification request when I am not sure what the speaker has said.					
22. I ask for repetition when I can't understand what the speaker has said.					
23. I make clear to the speaker what I haven't been able to understand.					
24. I only focus on familiar expressions.					
25. I especially pay attention to the interrogative when I listen to WH-questions.					
26. I pay attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when I listen.					

APPENDIX B: Turkish version of OCSI

Factor 1 Negotiation for Meaning While Listening - Items 19, 20, 22, 21, 23.
19. Konuşmacının söylemiş olduklarını anlamadığımda konuşmacıdan konuşmasını yavaşlatmasını isterim. 20. Dinlerken anlamadığımda konuşmacının konuşmasında daha anlaşılır sözcük kullanmasını ve cümleler kurmasını isterim. 21. Konuşmacının söylemiş olduklarından emin olmadığımında açıklama yapmasını isterim. 22. Dinlerken konuşmacının söylediğini anlamadığımda tekrar etmesini isterim. 23. Konuşmacının konuşmasından anlayamadıklarımı netleştirmesini isterim.
Factor 2 Fluency-Maintaining - Items 10, 13, 14, 15, 16.
10. Konuşmacının ne söylediğinden emin olmadığımında konuşmacıdan konuyla ilgili bir örnek vermesini isterim. 13. Konuşmacının tonlamasına ve vurgusuna dikkat ederim. 14. Konuşmacıyı dinlerken iletişimde bir kopukluk olmaması için başımı sallamak gibi bazı hareketlerle anladığımı gösteririm. 15. Konuşmacının niyetini iyi anlayamadığım zaman onun söylediklerini farklı bir şekilde ifade ederek anlamaya çalışırım. 16. Dinlerken konuşmacının telaffuzuna dikkat ederim.
Factor 3 Scanning - Items 12, 26, 25, 5.
5. Cümlenin ilk bölümüne dikkat ederek konuşmacının ne söylemek istediğini çıkarırım. 12. Konuşmacının söylediklerinden ana fikri çıkarmaya özen gösteririm. 25. Konuşmayı dinlerken özellikle kim, ne, nerede, nasıl, ne zaman, hangi (wh-) soru ifadelerine dikkat ederim. 26. Dinlerken konuşmayı anlayabilmek için öncelikle cümlenin öznesine ve yüklemine dikkat ederim.
Factor 4 Getting the Gist - Items 8, 6, 9, 7.
6. Konuşmacıyı tam olarak anlamadığım zaman bile cevap vermeye çalışırım. 7. Konuşmacının söylemek istediklerini, söylemiş olduklarından yola çıkarak tahmin etmeye çalışırım. 8. Dinlerken her bir detayı anlamasam da olur. 9. Bağlamdan yola çıkarak konuşmacının ne söyleyeceğini tahmin ederim.
Factor 5 Nonverbal Strategies While Listening - Items 17, 18.
17. Anlamakta güçlük çekince vücut dilimle anlamadığımı belli ederim. 18. Dinlerken, konuşmacının göz teması kurup kurmadığına, yüz ve el-kol hareketlerine başvurup başvurmadığına dikkat ederim.
Factor 6 Less Active Listener - Items 11, 24.
11. Konuşmacının ne dediğini anlamak için söylediklerini parça parça ana dilime çevirmeye çalışırım. 24. Dinlerken yalnızca bildiğim ifadelerle odaklanırım.
Factor 7 Word-Oriented - Items 1, 3, 4.
1. Bir konuşmayı dinlerken, cümlenin soru cümlesi olup olmadığını anlayabilmek için ilk sözcüğüne dikkat ederim. 3. Bildiğim kelimeleri seçerek konuşmacının ne söylemek istediğini tahmin ederim. 4. Konuşmacının üzerine basarak vurgulamaya çalıştığı sözcüklere özellikle dikkat ederim.

2. Konuşmacının kullandığı her sözcüğü anlamaya çalışırım.

(Nakatani, 2006)

APPENDIX C: Listening Strategies

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu çalışma, sözlü iletişimde kullanılan stratejiler konusunda kullanılmakta olan bir ölçeği kültürümüze uyarlama amacıyla yapılmaktadır. Bu bakımdan isim belirtmenize gerek yoktur. Lütfen aşağıdaki 35 ifadeyi dikkatli bir şekilde okuyup her ifadedeki davranışa **yabancı dilde dinlerken** ne kadar sıklıkta başvurduğunuzu dikkate alarak size uygun olanı işaretleyiniz.

İFADELER	Asla bana uymaz	Genellikle bana uymaz	Bana biraz uyar	Genellikle bana uyar	Kesinlikle bana uyar
1. Konuşmacının ne söylediğinden emin olmadığım da konuşmacıdan konuyla ilgili bir örnek vermesini isterim.					
2. Bildiğim kelimeleri seçerek konuşmacının ne söylemek istediğini tahmin ederim.					
3. Bir konuşmayı dinlerken, cümlenin soru cümlesi olup olmadığını anlayabilmek için ilk sözcüğüne dikkat ederim.					
4. Konuşmacının tonlamasına ve vurgusuna dikkat ederim.					
5. Konuşmacının kullandığı her sözcüğü anlamaya çalışırım.					
6. Dinlerken her bir detayı anlamasam da olur.					
7. Dinleyeceğim konuşmayı daha iyi anlayabilmek için önceden var olan materyallere göz atarım.					
8. Konuşmacının söylemiş olduklarını anlamadığım da konuşmacıdan konuşmasını yavaşlatmasını isterim.					
9. Cümlenin ilk bölümüne dikkat ederek konuşmacının ne söylemek istediğini çıkarırım.					
10. Dinlerken yalnızca bildiğim ifadelerle odaklanırım.					
11. Konuşmacıyı dinlerken iletişimde bir kopukluk olmaması için başımı sallamak gibi bazı hareketlerle anladığımı gösteririm.					
12. Konuşmacının üzerine basarak vurgulamaya çalıştığı sözcüklere özellikle dikkat ederim.					
13. Konuşmacının söylediklerinden ana fikri çıkarmaya özen gösteririm.					
14. Dinlemeye başlamadan önce kendimi dinleyeceğim konuya zihnen hazırlarım.					
15. Dinlerken anlamadığım da konuşmacının konuşmasında daha anlaşılır sözcük kullanmasını ve cümleler kurmasını isterim.					
16. Konuşmacının söylemek istediklerini, söylemiş olduklarından yola çıkarak tahmin etmeye çalışırım.					
17. Konuşmayı dinlerken özellikle kim, ne, nerede, nasıl, ne zaman, hangi (wh-) soru ifadelerine dikkat ederim.					
18. Dinlerken konuşmacının telaffuzuna dikkat ederim.					

İFADELER	Asla bana Uymaz	Genellikle bana uymaz	Bana biraz uyar	Genellikle bana uyar	Kesinlikle bana uyar
19. Anlatılmak istenilenin özünü veren anahtar kelimeleri dinlerim.					
20. Ana fikri anlamak için var olan bilgimi kullanırım.					
21. Konuşmacının söylemiş olduklarından emin olmadığımda açıklama yapmasını isterim.					
22. Bağlamdan yola çıkarak konuşmacının ne söyleyeceğini tahmin ederim.					
23. Dinlerken konuşmayı anlayabilmek için öncelikle cümlelerin öznesine ve yüklemine dikkat ederim.					
24. Dinlerken, konuşmacının göz teması kurup kurmadığına, yüz ve el-kol hareketlerine başvurup başvurmadığına dikkat ederim.					
25. Duyduğumu kelime kelime çevirmeden anlamaya çalışırım.					
26. Önyargılı dinlemem.					
27. Dinlerken konuşmacının söylediğini anlamadığımda tekrar etmesini isterim.					
28. Anlamakta güçlük çekince vücut dilimle anlamadığımı belli ederim.					
29. Dinlerken anlamını bilmediğim bir kelime ile karşılaştığımda dinlemeyi bırakmam.					
30. Konuşmacının konuşmasından anlayamadıklarımı netleştirmesini isterim.					
31. Dinlediğimi anlamak için duyduğum bazı cümleleri (içimden/sesli) tekrar ederim.					
32. Dinlediğimi daha iyi anlayabilmek adına anadilime çevirmem.					
33. Konuşmacının ne zaman ve ne kadar süre ile duraksadığına dikkat ederim.					
34. Dinlediğimi anlayabilmek için önceki bilgilerime başvururum.					
35. Konuşmacının tonlaması ve duraksamasından yararlanarak bağlamı tahmin etmeye çalışırım.					

Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.
Arş.Gör.Pelin Irgin

APPENDIX D: Listening Strategy Inventory

Dinleme Stratejileri Envanteri

Rumuz :

Sınıf:

Cinsiyet :

Sevgili Öğrenci Arkadaşlarımız,

Bu çalışma İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerinin dinleme stratejilerini ölçmek amacı ile yapılmaktadır. Aşağıda bulunan ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyup kişisel deneyimlerinize bağlı olarak “Asla bana uymaz” dan “Kesinlikle bana uyar” arasında size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Lütfen, her bir ifade için tek bir işaret koyup hiçbir ifadeyi atlamadan yapınız. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

Arş. Gör. Pelin İRGİN

İfadeler	Asla bana Uymaz	Genellikle bana uymaz	Bana biraz uyar	Genellikle bana uyar	Kesinlikle bana uyar
1. Bir konuşmayı dinlerken, cümlenin soru cümlesi olup olmadığını anlayabilmek için ilk sözcüğüne dikkat ederim.					
2. Konuşmacının tonlamasına ve vurgusuna dikkat ederim.					
3. Konuşmacının kullandığı her sözcüğü anlamaya çalışırım.					
4. Dinlerken her bir detayı anlamasam da olur.					
5. Konuşmacının söylemiş olduklarını anlamadığımda konuşmacıdan konuşmasını yavaşlatmasını isterim.					
6. Cümlenin ilk bölümüne dikkat ederek konuşmacının ne söylemek istediğini çıkarırım.					
7. Konuşmacının ne zaman ve ne kadar süre ile duraksadığına dikkat ederim.					
8. Duyduğumu kelime kelime çevirmeden anlamaya çalışırım.					
9. Konuşmacının söylediklerinden ana fikri çıkarmaya özen gösteririm.					

İfadeler	Asla bana Uymaz	Genellikle bana uymaz	Bana biraz uyar	Genellikle bana uyar	Kesinlikle bana uyar
10. Dinlemeye başlamadan önce kendimi dinleyeceğim konuya zihnen hazırlarım.					
11. Dinlerken anlamadığımda konuşmacının konuşmasında daha anlaşılır sözcük kullanmasını ve cümleler kurmasını isterim.					
12. Konuşmayı dinlerken özellikle kim, ne, nerede, nasıl, ne zaman, hangi (wh-) soru ifadelerine dikkat ederim.					
13. Dinlerken konuşmacının telaffuzuna dikkat ederim.					
14. Anlatılmak istenilenin özünü veren anahtar kelimeleri dinlerim.					
15. Ana fikri anlamak için var olan bilgimi kullanırım.					
16. Konuşmacının söylemiş olduklarından emin olmadığımda açıklama yapmasını isterim.					
17. Bağlamdan yola çıkarak konuşmacının ne söyleyeceğini tahmin ederim.					
18. Dinlerken konuşmayı anlayabilmek için öncelikle cümlenin öznesine ve yüklemine dikkat ederim.					
19. Dinlerken konuşmacının söylediğini anlamadığımda tekrar etmesini isterim.					
20. Anlamakta güçlük çekince vücut dilimle anlamadığımı belli ederim.					
21. Konuşmacının konuşmasından anlayamadıklarımı netleştirmesini isterim.					

