

**THE IMPACT OF OVERT STRATEGY INSTRUCTION IN EFL  
CLASSROOMS ON READING AND LISTENING ACHIEVEMENT:  
AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY**

**Pınar Kahveci**

**MASTER OF ARTS THESIS**

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**GAZİ UNIVERSITY**

**GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES**

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### YAZARIN

Adı : Pınar

Soyadı : KAHVECİ

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Pınar KAHVECİ tarafından hazırlanan “THE IMPACT OF OVERT STRATEGY INSTRUCTION IN EFL CLASSROOMS ON READING AND LISTENING ACHIEVEMENT: AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY” adlı tez çalışması aşağıdaki jüri tarafından oy birliği ile Gazi Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı’nda Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

**Danışman:** Yrd. Doç. Dr. Z. Müge TAVİL

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Gazi Üniversitesi

.....

**Başkan:** Doç. Dr. Hande UYSAL

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Gazi Üniversitesi

.....

**Üye:** Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ayşe Selmin SÖYLEMEZ

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi, Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi

.....

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Bu tezin Yabancı Diller Eğitimi/ İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı’nda Yüksek Lisans tezi olması için şartları yerine getirdiğini onaylıyorum.

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**Pınar Kahveci**

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**ABSTRACT**

Language learning strategies may have a key role in foreign language learning because they may foster learner autonomy and motivation. Keeping the learner-centred nature of language learning strategies in mind, this study sets out to understand the impact of overt listening/reading strategy instruction on learners' listening/reading achievement, learners' use of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategies, and the strategies they use at pre, while and post-listening/reading stages. The study has an explanatory mixed-method research design. Research instruments were Reading/Listening Achievement Tests and English as a Foreign Language Listening/Reading Strategies Scale. In addition, semi-structured interviews were used to collect qualitative data. The treatment involved overt listening/reading strategy instruction that lasted for one month. The findings revealed that overt listening/reading strategy instruction fostered learners' reading/listening achievement. Among the metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective categories of strategies, it was seen that learners' use of cognitive strategies significantly increased. In addition, learner's use of listening/ reading strategies at pre, while and post-listening/reading stages significantly increased. Similarly, semi-structured interviews

revealed that learners were willing to transfer the strategies they learned to new learning situations and keep using these strategies in future learning situations.

**Key Words** : listening/reading strategies, overt listening/reading strategy instruction

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACT	Adaptive Control of Thought
ALM	Audiolingual Method
CALLA	Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
CLT	Cognitive Load Theory
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CRAPEL Langues	Centre de Recherches et d'Applications Pédagogiques en Langues
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
L1	First language
L2	Target/second language
LLS	Language learning strategies
S <sup>2</sup> R	Strategic Self-Regulation
SPSS	Statistical Program for Social Sciences
SSBI	Styles and Strategies Based Instruction
TPR	Total Physical Response

## INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins with background to the study. Information on the general aim and scope of the study is provided. The research questions, hypotheses, and limitations of the study are laid out. In addition, significance of the study to English as a foreign language learning is discussed.

### **Background to the Study**

During my lessons as an EFL lecturer at university level, I came to realize that some of my students believed that if they hadn't still been able to learn English despite the long period of education they received, they would never be able to learn it anyway. Similarly, some of them put the blame on the educational system, some on their teachers or on the curricula. They argued that they kept practising the same skills, vocabulary items or language functions; one of them actually said that all they ever learned was 'What's your name? / How old are you?' every year. Some of them complained that their teachers were boring, or their English course hours were not taught at all due to the teachers' absence. Some found the course books boring and suggested that they should be redesigned.

This occasionally being the case in my EFL classrooms, I have often observed that my students could achieve better when they were overtly told which steps to take while doing language activities as supported by some studies in the literature (Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Carrier, 2003; Cross, 2009; Wagner, 2010; Bozorgian & Pillay 2013; Rokhsari, 2012; Phakiti, 2003). The language activities were at their proficiency level, they were equipped with the necessary language skills and general knowledge to complete the task; however, what they lacked was determining the effective strategies to do the language activity successfully. This observation led me to explaining which strategies they could use for completing a specific language task at hand (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford,



2011). At this point, the realization that teaching language strategies overtly could make a difference in their language achievement aroused my interest in language learning strategy research, which sparked off this study.

### **The Aim and Scope of the Study**

Earlier language learning strategy research mainly revolved around the idea of analysing the characteristics of good language learners (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). The attempt was to find what was special about good language learners which made them achieve better than others; thus, these special techniques could be explicitly taught to limited proficient learners to foster their proficiency. Explicit strategy training is favoured over implicit strategy training as research proves that effective strategy training is usually highly explicit instead of being blind or implicitly embedded (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

It is always a rewarding experience to work with successful language learners who are self-directed, autonomous and eager to share with their peers (Oxford, 2011). However, we also have learners who cannot stand on their own, need to be directed and encouraged to share more with their peers. While self-directed learners are quick to choose and apply the appropriate strategies effectively, limited proficient learners may need to be explicitly shown or told what to do (Vandergift, 2005; Carrier, 2003). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to gain insight into the relationship between overt strategy instruction in foreign language classrooms and its possible effects on reading and listening achievement. Similarly, the study aims to reveal the impact of overt strategy training on the use of language learning strategies in pre, while and post- listening/reading stages. The study also aims to analyse the relationship between overt strategy instruction and the use of cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies. The study also aims to analyse learners' willingness to sustain and transfer the listening and reading strategies they have learned. In this respect, the study is to focus on the reading and listening strategies used by learners during classroom teaching while strategies that learners use beyond classroom teaching are not to be within the scope of the study. The effect of overt strategy instruction on receptive skills, which are listening and reading, is to be dealt with.

## **Hypotheses of the Study**

The study is based on a number of hypotheses. These are the following:

- 1) Overt reading and listening strategy training fosters learners' reading and listening achievement. To put it differently, it is hypothesized that the reading/listening achievement post-test point averages of the learners in the experiment group are significantly higher than the reading/listening achievement post-test point averages of the learners in the control group.
- 2) As proven by a number of studies (Oxford, 1993), it is hypothesized that explicit strategy training fosters learners' use frequency of cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies. In other words, the second main hypothesis is that the post-test point averages of experiment group subjects' use of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategies are significantly higher than the post-test point averages of control group subjects' use of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategies.
- 3) It is hypothesized that overt listening and reading strategy instruction increases learners' strategy use frequency in pre, while and post-listening/reading stages. To put it more clearly, it is hypothesized that the post-test point averages of use of pre, while and post-listening/reading strategies of the subjects in the experiment group are significantly higher than their post-test point averages of use of pre, while and post-listening/reading strategies of the subjects in the control group.

## **Research Questions**

The study revolves around the relationship between overt reading and listening strategy instruction and its impact on reading/listening achievement and learners' strategy use frequency. The researcher seeks to find answers to the four following research questions:

- 1) Does overt reading/listening strategy instruction increase EFL learners' reading and listening achievement?
- 2) Does overt reading/listening strategy instruction increase EFL learners' use of cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies?

- 3) Does overt reading/listening strategy instruction increase EFL learners' use of language learning strategies at pre, while and post –listening/reading stages?
- 4) How willing are the learners to continue using the listening/reading strategies in their future learning situations?

### **Limitations of the Study**

Language learning strategies is a vast area of research. A number of different classifications with overlaps are present in the literature (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Küpper, 1985; Oxford, 1990). Similarly, these strategies can be integrated into the teaching all language skills and sub-skills; i.e., listening, reading, speaking, writing and grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Considering these facts, this study has a number of limitations.

To begin with, the reading and listening strategies used in the strategy teaching are based on the classification of strategies suggested by O'Malley et al. (1985). Secondly, the scope is merely limited to investigating the impact of overt reading and listening strategy training on reading and listening achievement. Thirdly, the duration of overt reading and listening instruction was one month, which is relatively a short amount of time. Likewise, the number of subjects who participated in the study is limited to forty-eight EFL students. The short duration of the treatment and the small sample size may not be helpful in obtaining statistically significant results. In other words, the statistical findings might have been different with a longer duration of the treatment and a larger sample size.

Another limitation comes from the fact that learners' strategy use cannot be directly observed (Chamot, 2005); and thus, the researcher relies on the EFL Reading and Listening Strategies Scale results, the reliability of which may have been threatened due to the subjects' uncooperative behaviour. To strengthen reliability of the results, both qualitative and quantitative data were used in the study; however, the subject's answers during the interviews may not reflect the real situation.

### **Significance of the Study**

Several studies on language learning strategies have been carried out since Rubin's (1975) ground-breaking research. However, there is still much to question about language

strategies. The results from different studies focusing on the effect of strategy training on language proficiency have some points in common; that is to say, most of them reveal that strategy instruction fosters language learning performance (Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Carrier, 2003; Cross, 2009; Wagner, 2010; Bozorgian & Pillay 2013; Rokhsari, 2012; Phakiti, 2003). In this sense, this study could be significant in that it focuses on listening and reading strategies in an integrated fashion in EFL context.

Another reason that adds to the significance of the study is that it may suggest a different approach to listening and reading strategy instruction. In the study, the strategies taught are dealt with according to the phases in which learners use them during classroom reading and listening activities. That is to say, the reading and listening strategies taught to learners were categorized as pre, while and post-reading and listening strategies. The results of the study could be useful for language teachers because they may get ideas as to which listening and reading strategies to focus on in pre, while and post listening and reading stages. Similarly, the results could facilitate the understanding of learners' strategy use behaviours in pre, while and post stages of classroom listening and reading.

## **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

In this chapter, a critical review of literature on language learning strategies and listening and reading skills is found.

### **Listening and Reading Skills in English as a Foreign Language (EFL)**

Skills development is an essential part of language learning/teaching. The majority of approaches to language learning and teaching focus on developing language skills. However, it is possible to argue that there are major differences in the way they approach language skills. To begin with, the development of all four language skills; i.e.; listening, speaking, reading and writing, are not equally emphasized by all the approaches to language teaching. For example, Grammar-Translation-Method (GTM), a traditional approach which is still in practice today despite its deficiencies, deals with only reading and writing while it disregards listening and speaking. However, Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) mainly deals with listening and oral production while reading and writing is scantily dealt with. Secondly, language skills are taught for different purposes in different approaches to language learning/teaching. In other words, while ALM encourages the development of listening and reading through the repetition of chunks of language without any communicative value, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) teaches listening in a way that prepares learners for real life listening.

### **Why are Language Skills Key to EFL Learning?**

Adopting a holistic approach is essential to achieve quality in language learning. A holistic approach refers to covering all four language skills while dealing with sub-skills, which are vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, too. Recent approaches to language

learning emphasize integrating language skills and sub-skills. However, it is also possible to teach language skills and sub-skills in isolation, which lacks authenticity and communicative value.

Quality language learning is enhanced when foreign language learning is closer to first language acquisition in nature. The aforementioned idea suggested by Krashen and Terrell in their Natural Approach (Richards & Rogers, 2001) was the departure point for many other approaches and methods in language learning, e.g. Communicative Approach, Task-Bank Language Teaching, Content-Based Language Teaching, etc. In this sense, dealing with language skills in the way they are acquired in first language, providing meaningful input for learners, creating real-life situations in the classroom can be among the ways to make foreign language learning natural.

For example, learners are allowed to spend time only listening without any oral production as it is the case in first language acquisition, which is referred to as ‘silent period’ in Total Physical Response (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Similarly, EFL reading does not cover only focusing on literary texts, their translation or some reading comprehension questions, as suggested by GTM. Teaching and learning reading skill in an authentic fashion also involves reading menus, newspapers, magazines or even content from social networking websites which are widely popular nowadays.

### **Skill or Strategy?**

The nature of teaching and learning language skills keep evolving as the demands of the modern times change. Thus, learners need to rearrange their learning habits. Strategies are a part of these learning habits. At this point, it is possible to question the boundaries between reading and listening skills and strategies. Can a strategy be a skill at the same time? A number of learning strategies definitions have been suggested by different scholars (Wade, Trathen & Schraw, 1990; Stern, 1992; Pressley & McCormick, 1995; Griffiths, 2008) which will be discussed in detail in the following sections. However, these definitions do not make a clear-cut distinction between language skills and strategies, because there may be some overlaps in the characteristics of skills and strategies.

It can be argued that a skill may be termed as a strategy when it is purposefully used for a specific task at the right time. Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, & Campione (1983) refer to the learning strategies as deliberate plans and Wade et al. (1990) emphasize the deliberate

selection of strategies. Similarly, some researchers point out that strategies are steps used for a specific action or task (Kirby, 1988). To illustrate, note-taking can be classified as both a skill and a strategy. When a learner takes notes without any specific goal of accomplishing a task, s/he practises the skill of note-taking. However, if they can use their note-taking skill with a specific purpose for a specific task at the right time, it means that they use note-taking strategy. Detailed discussions on the distinction between skill and strategy are to be found in defining language learning strategies section.

### **The Nature of Listening Skill: Receptive or Productive?**

Traditionally, listening is classified as a receptive skill; however, Nunan (1999) redefines listening as a reciprocal skill, because listeners interact with the text instead of only absorbing the input passively. Recent theories of teaching and learning, i.e. cognitive theory and constructivism, emphasize the learners' active involvement in the learning process. As such, listening is not viewed as a process in which learners are passive; on the contrary, they are active constructors of knowledge based on their schemata. In truth, listening is an interactive process (Seferoğlu & Uzakgöre, 2004) in which learners do not merely listen to the text passively, but they also react to the speaker or ask questions for clarification (Tavil, 2010) and formulate their own ideas to construct their own interpretation of meaning.

Learners do not only interact with the listening text by asking questions while constructing their own interpretation of the text, but they also employ a number of strategies during this process. Learners' strategy development is another indicator of their active role during listening process. The conventional idea that listening is a receptive skill is challenged by these concepts which emphasize the productive and reciprocal aspect of listening (Nunan, 1999).

### **The Role of Listening in EFL**

Theoretically, listening is a vital skill for foreign language learning, because it is suggested that language learning should first start with understanding and later proceed to production (Winitz, 1981). Similarly, listening provides the input for the learner (Rost, 2002) which is the base on which they can "build up the knowledge necessary for using language" (Nation

& Newton, 2009). Practically, listening is at the hearth of effective communication because we listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read; and five times more than we write (Weaver, 1972).

Listening is the basic skill for classroom communication, because learners will be involved in listening during the majority of time when they are engaged in learning a foreign language (Nunan, 1997). However, despite its importance in foreign language learning, listening has been labelled as the Cinderella skill (Nunan, 1997) in EFL. The reasons for the neglected position of listening in EFL classrooms are more than one. To begin with, listening has been put in a secondary position at the expense of improving learners' speaking skills, because listening is elusive and silent while speaking is overt and vocal (Weaver, 1972). Secondly, teachers often expect students to develop their listening skill by osmosis and without help, because they have the false belief that merely exposing students to spoken language provides adequate instruction in listening comprehension. Thirdly, listening has a highly complex nature which makes it difficult to teach and learn. Foreign language learners consider listening stressful and hard work (Chang & Read, 2006), because listening exists in time rather than space (Flowerdew, 1994).

However, it is argued that listening seldom receives direct instructional attention in native language due to the presupposition that learners acquire this skill automatically (Nunan, 1997; Morley, 2001); thus, it is not necessary to devote time to teaching this skill in the classroom. They argue that listening is also taken for granted in EFL classrooms and does not receive adequate attention. This false belief may result from labelling listening as a 'passive' skill. Therefore, emphasizing the reciprocal aspect of listening may be instrumental in saving listening from being the neglected skill.

### **Teaching and Learning to Listen in EFL**

Traditional language teaching approaches; i.e., GTM, do not put enough emphasis on teaching listening. It is thought that learners do not need overt listening instruction for they will develop this skill by osmosis (Feyten, 1991). It was not until early seventies that listening has been recognized as an important component in second language acquisition process (Feyten, 1991). However, the purposes for which these approaches use listening and the role they attach to it may differ. While ALM often uses substitution drills and mechanic listening exercises to improve accuracy in grammar and pronunciation, TPR



(Total Physical Response) views listening as the hearth of language learning. Similarly, communicative approaches put emphasis on engaging learners in real-life like listening tasks in the classroom so that they will be effective listeners in real life.

As previously discussed, recent approaches to language learning are mainly concerned with making learners effective listeners that can function well in real-life listening. Learners are expected to do more than simply recognizing sounds, word boundaries and sentences and repeat them with accurate pronunciation, because real –life listening involves guessing, inferencing, rephrasing and reconstruction of ideas. Therefore, classroom listening tasks are designed in a way to stimulate the demands of real life listening. The context for listening may be a casual conversation between friends, an announcement at the airport or a lecture by a professor. Listening activities require learners to interact with the text instead of listening passively. They ask and answer questions about what will come next as if they were in a guessing game. This type of listening is interactive listening, also termed as participatory listening (Vandergift, 1997). However, Richards (1990) argues that the focus of foreign language learning classrooms is on transactional listening which involves listening passively without any interventions for feedback and answering comprehension questions, which may still be true for foreign language classrooms today.

In real life listening, listeners conceive some ideas about the content, context, formality level of the discourse, identity of the speakers and environment beforehand (Ur, 1984). This guessing process is based on script knowledge (Richards, 1983) in schema theory. Script knowledge can be defined as the general knowledge we have about the physical, social, epistemic and pragmatic context of listening. However, foreign language learners may lack the sufficient script knowledge due to the fact they are not a part of the target language culture; and, this may create some challenges for non-native listener (Richards, 1983). Yeldam and Gruba (2014) also argue that schematic and pragmatic information that foreign language listeners use to construct meaning out of the target language input may be different in their native language; thus, this creates an impediment to match schematic knowledge with linguistic knowledge.

The challenges foreign language learners face due to the lack of culturally specific script knowledge can be overcome if they are analysed correctly. Goh (2000) carried out a study to look into the listening comprehension problems of Chinese ESL learners based on Anderson's (1988) three phases of listening comprehension: perceptual processing,

parsing, and utilization. She laid out ten major listening comprehension problems that learners face in these three overlapping phases. The most common problems students reported to have were forgetting what is heard, not recognizing the words they know and understanding the words but not the intended message. These results indicate that ESL learners may have problems with perceptual processing; i.e., not recognizing the words and parsing; i.e., quickly forgetting what is heard, which signal low a level of linguistic competence. However, understanding the words, but not the intended message; a comprehension problem in the utilization phase; may be due to a lack of script knowledge, rather than lack of linguistic knowledge.

It is EFL teachers' responsibility to design listening activities that will scaffold learners to overcome the aforementioned listening comprehension problems. Richards (1983) and Vandergift (1997) propose a set of principles regarding the nature of meaningful, purposeful and interactive listening activities. Richards (1983) suggests that designing effective listening activities involve three main steps. The first step is assessing learners' needs so as to identify the listening skills, purposes and contexts suitable for them. The second step is diagnostic testing in order to establish a profile of learners and choose the micro-skills they need from the listening skills taxonomy. The final step is setting appropriate instructional goals for learners in accordance with the listening skills, purposes and contexts which are suitable for their learning needs. Similarly, Vandergift (1997) stresses the importance of a balanced emphasis on teaching top-down and bottom-up skills because effective listening is the result of the interplay between top-down and bottom-up processes (Yeldam & Gruba, 2014). Thus, foreign language learners can compensate the gap between linguistic knowledge and script knowledge. To put it differently, purposeful, meaningful and authentic listening activities designed in accordance with learners' contextual needs and expectations may help learners combine their linguistic knowledge with script knowledge to achieve successful listening comprehension.

### **Studies on Foreign Language Listening and Listening Strategies**

Researchers focus on EFL listening from different perspectives. Descriptive studies that lay out issues in foreign language listening and providing recommendations on teaching and learning listening are common (Richards, 1983; Rubin, 1994; Vandergift, 1999). In

addition, a number of studies deal with the foreign language learners' listening comprehension problems (Goh, 2000; Hasan, 2000; Graham 2006; Hamouda, 2013).

It is possible to argue that listening comprehension studies are connected to listening strategies, because listening strategy instruction facilitates learners' taking responsibility over their listening proficiency development (White, 2006). Thus, the effect of listening strategy instruction on listening comprehension proficiency has aroused researchers' interest, too (Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Carrier, 2003; Cross, 2009; Wagner, 2010; Bozorgian & Pillay, 2013). Similarly, the relationship between learners' listening strategy use and variables such as age, gender, motivation and proficiency has also become the focus of some studies (Harley, 2000; Vandergift, 2005; Bidabadi&Yamat, 2011). Studies that aim to analyse listening strategy use patterns of EFL learners (Teng, 1998; Goh, 2002) are also found in the literature.

### **Early Studies**

One of the earliest studies on listening comprehension is Richards' (1983) study that focuses on teaching listening comprehension in three dimensions: approach, design and procedure. The approach part deals with EFL listening processes and the nature of aural input to which EFL language learners are exposed. In design part, steps of teaching EFL listening are laid out along with a detailed taxonomy of listening skills and sub-skills. In the procedure part, criteria for selecting listening activities that suits learners' needs and instructional goals determined as a result of diagnostic testing in the design part are explained in detail. In addition, a sample listening activity lesson plan is given. The study's contribution to the listening comprehension literature is worthy, because it lays out a clear and detailed taxonomy of EFL listening skills and sub-skills and provides useful information on the design and application of effective listening activities.

### **Listening Comprehension Problems**

Goh (2000) analysed listening comprehension problems of Chinese EFL learners through self-reports and found ten main problems. The most common five problems reported in her study were: quickly forgetting what is heard; not recognising words they know; understanding words but not the intended message; neglecting the next part when thinking

about meaning; being unable to form a mental representation from words heard. In her study, Goh also attempted to understand listening comprehension problems that learners with different proficiency levels had and did not find any specific problems that only learners with a certain level of proficiency had. Having analysed learners' listening comprehension problems, she suggests ways of overcoming these problems, which are to be presented in the following paragraphs.

Hasan (2000) also focused on EFL learners' perceived listening comprehension problems via a 41-item questionnaire developed by him. He classified these problems under four categories: problems related to message, activity or task, speaker and listener. Drawing on his research results, he recommends a set of tactics for learners to overcome their listening comprehension problems.

Graham (2006) used both a questionnaire and interviews to reveal French as a foreign language learners' reasons for their success or failure in listening and their perceived listening proficiency. The results of the questionnaire and interviews indicated that most of the participants considered themselves low proficiency listeners. The main challenges in listening were reported to be the high speed of text delivery, recognizing individual words within the text and grasping the meaning of the words recognized in the texts. In addition, the main reasons to which learners attributed their lack of success in listening were their low listening proficiency and the difficulty of listening tasks and texts. Interestingly, few learners mentioned any listening strategy use or lack of strategy use among their reasons for failure or success in listening, which indicates that learners of French who participated in this study were not aware of the potential benefits of listening strategy use in helping them overcome the challenges they face during EFL listening. Thus, Graham (2006) argues that it is teachers' responsibility to raise learners' awareness of their listening problems and facilitate their use of appropriate strategies to overcome them.

Similarly, Hamouda (2013) carried out a study that investigated Saudi EFL learners' listening comprehension problems through semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire. The results revealed that Saudi EFL learners' main listening comprehension problems were related to accent, pronunciation, delivery of speed, lack of listening vocabulary, failure in concentration, high affective filter and poor sound quality of listening texts. Following a similar pattern to aforementioned studies Hamouda (2013) also suggests ideas for teachers to help their learners deal with the listening comprehension problems which he analysed in his study.

It can be concluded from results of the aforementioned four studies on EFL learners listening comprehension problems that EFL learners listening comprehension problems are due to a lack of linguistic knowledge; e.g., lack of listening vocabulary (Hamouda, 2013), being unable to form a mental representation from words heard (Goh, 2000); lack of general knowledge; e.g.; understanding words but not the intended message, neglecting the next part when thinking about meaning (Goh, 2000), problems related to speaker/listener (Hasan, 2000) and lack of strategy knowledge; e.g., problems related to activity or tasks (Hasan, 2000; Graham, 2006). In addition, researchers agree that it is teachers' responsibility to help learners overcome the listening problems they have. While Goh (2000) underscores both encouraging learners to have listening practice, and learn how to use strategies to overcome their listening problems, Hasan (2000) proposes a sample listening lesson plan that clarifies each step at pre, while and post phases of listening. Graham (2006) recommends that teachers focus on teaching how to listen, rather than only giving them the chance to practice their listening skill. In this sense, teaching how to listen refers to creating a balance between top-down and bottom-up processes for successful listening comprehension. In other words, foreign language learners' awareness about listening strategies should be increased so that they can compensate the gaps in their linguistic and schemata knowledge. In addition, Hamouda (2013) suggests ideas on how to design effective listening tasks that can support learners to overcome the listening comprehension problems they have.

### **The Effect of Listening Strategy Instruction on Listening Comprehension Proficiency**

A number of studies (Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Carrier, 2003; Cross, 2009; Wagner, 2010; Bozorgian & Pillay, 2013) that focus on the relationship between listening proficiency and listening strategy instruction conclude that listening strategy instruction fosters EFL learners' listening proficiency. Thomson and Rubin (1996) carried out a longitudinal, classroom-based study to track the impact of strategy instruction on listening proficiency. The results showed that the experiment group that received strategy instruction through video segments significantly outperformed the control group that received no strategy instruction but watched the videos by being assigned with some writing and speaking tasks. However, the study focuses on only metacognitive and cognitive strategies instruction with no reference to affective or social strategies. It is understood that the

importance of affective and social strategies was yet to be recognized during the time when the study was carried out.

A second study that focuses on the relationship between listening strategy instruction and listening proficiency is Carrier's (2003) study. The participants in this study received explicit listening strategy instruction during a six-week period in fifteen class sessions. The explicit strategy instruction covered bottom-up and top down skills and application of these skills taught in their academic courses. A comparative analysis of the pre- and post-test results of discrete (bottom-up) and video (top-down) listening pointed to a statistically significant positive change in learners' academic listening proficiency.

Cross (2009) also observed that learners of Japanese in the experiment group remarkably improved their listening performance as a result of strategy instruction; however, participants in the control group made progress, too. Participants in the experiment group practiced listening through videotexts alongside with a 90-hour strategy instruction while the control group were only involved in listening activities through videotexts. The control groups' improved listening performance could be attributed to utilization of video texts because use of videotexts instead of audio texts facilitates progress in listening performance (Wagner, 2010).

Wagner (2010) was curious to observe the influence of videotexts on test-takers' listening performance. The results indicated that the experiment group who took the test through videotexts significantly outperformed the control group who was exposed to only audio texts. Similarly, Bozorgian and Pillay (2013) used learners' first language (L1) to teach listening strategies to EFL learners considering the positive contributions of L1 to foreign language learning rooted in cognitive (Macaro, 2001) socio-cultural and code-switching theory. The results indicated a remarkable improvement in learners listening performance in the experiment group after the intervention that covered listening strategy instruction.

However, the positive impact of listening strategy training on listening proficiency as shown by the aforementioned studies is questionable. To begin with, the increased listening proficiency may not be direct consequence of listening strategy training alone. Other factors; e.g., the increased amount of time learners practice listening skill, changes in motivation levels, learning styles or their problem-solving skills, may also have a positive impact on learners' listening proficiency. The increased listening proficiency in the control group who did not receive any strategy instruction in Cross' (2009) study clearly shows

that learners make progress without being trained in listening strategies, which is in line with Ridgway's (2000) assumption that it is not the strategies but the amount of time spent practicing listening that helps learners make progress. Ridgway (2000) opposes to strategic teaching of listening because listening effectively and applying the strategies purposefully at the same time is a cognitive burden that novice EFL learners may find hard to cope with. Similarly, Field (1998) questions the effectiveness of explicit teaching of strategies that are mainly unconscious and argues that learners may not make progress in their strategy use even after strategy training.

### **The Relationship between Learners' Listening Strategy Use and Variables such as Age, Gender, Proficiency and Motivation**

Research on the relationship between listening strategy use and listening proficiency underpins that high proficiency listeners use listening strategies more effectively compared to low proficiency listeners (Murphy, 1985; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Teng, 1998; Goh, 2002; Vandergift, 1997; Vandergift, 2003; Liu, 2008; Bidabadi & Yamat, 2011). The earliest studies on the differences between strategies used by effective and less effective listeners (Chamot & Küpper, 1989) concluded that successful listeners were more global and flexible in their varied combination of listening strategy use while less successful listeners were fixed on definitions of words, pronunciation and used only a limited variety of listening strategies.

Teng (1998) also focused on learners' perceived listening strategy use under six categories identified by Oxford (1990) to understand the differences between efficient and inefficient listeners and found that skilled listeners used a higher number of strategies than less skilled listeners in all six categories. Similarly, in Goh's (2002) study in which she analysed the tactics that underlie learners' listening strategy use, Goh (2002) also found that learners with a high level of proficiency used cognitive and metacognitive strategies more effectively. In accordance with the result of the aforementioned studies, Vandergift's (1997; 2003) studies also revealed that highly proficient listeners used more metacognitive strategies than less proficient listeners. In his studies, Vandergift repeatedly emphasized that as learners grew into more effective listeners as a result of their increased listening comprehension proficiency, they reported to use higher number of metacognitive strategies, which he referred to as the greatest distinction between successful listeners and

less successful listeners. Contrary to the results from the aforementioned studies, DeFilipis' (1980) study revealed that both proficient and less proficient listeners used the same number of strategies following similar strategy patterns. However, he also found that there were specific strategies that were used more often either by proficient learners; e.g., inferencing, visualization or less proficient listeners; e.g., translation.

Researchers have also attempted to understand which type of strategies listeners most frequently use. The results of these studies pointed to the metacognitive and cognitive strategies being most frequently used by foreign language listeners while socioaffective strategies were the least often to be used. (Teng, 1998, Vandergift, 2003; Bidabadi & Yamat, 2011). Teng (1998) concluded from the results of his study that compensation strategies that involve metacognitive and cognitive processes were used most often by listeners while social and affective strategies were used least often. Vandergift (2003) also found that learners used cognitive strategies most often followed by metacognitive strategies and the strategies they used least often were socioaffective strategies. Confirming these results, Bidabadi and Yamat's (2011) study revealed that learners used metacognitive strategies most often compared to cognitive and socioaffective strategies regardless of their listening proficiency.

However, it can be argued that the conclusions from these studies cannot be considered definitive and generalizable due to validity and reliability issues. To begin with, the sampling was done with a small number of learners that threatens the validity of the results. Secondly, the subjects' listening proficiency levels were not defined by standardized instruments, but subjective measures; e.g., learners' reports, teacher assessments of learners' listening proficiency. Finally, the factors that have impact on learners' listening strategy use are not only limited to their listening proficiency. The factors that influence listening comprehension also have impact on learners' listening strategy use. These factors include nature of the listening text, characteristics of speakers, demands of the listening task, personal traits of the listener and the listening processes; e.g. bottom-up, top-down and interactive (Rubin, 1994). In other words, a motivated learner may do their best to achieve success in listening and use listening strategies effectively regardless of their listening proficiency. Similarly, the familiarity with the type of listening task, speakers, topic of the listening text may positively influence their strategy use because they may feel confident.



The relationship between age, gender and learners' listening strategy use also aroused researchers' interest. However, research on the effect of age and gender on learners' listening strategy use has not yielded statistically significant results (Vandergift, 1997; Harley, 2000). Vandergift (1997) found only a slight difference between male and female strategy use, females using just a few more metacognitive strategies than males. Harley (2000) investigated whether listeners' attending to prosodic or syntactic cues differ in relation to their age and found no statistically significant differences. However, these studies do not assert definitive results because of validity and reliability concerns; thus, the results need to be confirmed with larger samples across a variety of cultures considering the sociocultural influences on gender roles and the way the gender roles shape their beliefs about language learning. To illustrate the point, female learners in Asian cultures may avoid socioaffective strategies that require interaction with others due to the cultural roles assigned to them even though they are intrinsically motivated to use them, which is a situation that may distort the results.

Motivated learners, extrinsically or intrinsically, are expected to use listening strategies more often compared to unmotivated learners, because they want to perform well. This hypothesis was tested in a number of studies that indicate significant relationships between learners' metacognitive listening strategy use and their motivational orientations. Vandergift (2005) investigated the correlation between three orientations of motivation; i.e., amotivation, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation, and learners' listening strategy use. He found a negative correlation between listening strategies and amotivation, although there were also some strategies that positively correlated with amotivation. Furthermore, the correlation among intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and listening strategies were not found to be highly significant because there were also strategies that negatively correlated with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. However, the hypothesis that motivated learners tend to use listening strategies more effectively is supported by findings from a number of studies. Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011) point out a positive and significant correlation between intrinsic, extrinsic motivation and metacognitive listening strategy use, but no correlation between amotivation and metacognitive listening strategies. Similarly, Harputlu and Ceylan (2014) found a negative and insignificant correlation between amotivation and metacognitive listening strategies; however, they found a positive correlation between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and metacognitive listening strategies; e.g., problem solving, directed attention, but a significantly negative relationship

between extrinsic motivation and other metacognitive listening strategies such as translation and person knowledge.

The reliability and validity of these studies on the relationship between motivation orientations and listening strategy use can be questioned because of a number of reasons. To begin with, research instruments were limited to only questionnaires that provide quantitative data (Vandergift, 2005); however, the findings could be supported through qualitative data from semi-structured interviews to ensure higher reliability. Secondly, the results cannot be generalized due to small sample sizes (Vanderfit, 2005; Harputlu & Ceylan, 2014). Thirdly, these studies have cultural limitations that call for more research across a variety of cultures with larger samples (Pintrich, as cited in Vandergift, 2005).

### **The Nature of Reading Skill: A Passive or Active Skill?**

Foreign and second language reading research have benefited mainly from first language reading research. Goodman's (1967) view of reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game has also inspired a different perspective for foreign and second language reading research. This interactive approach emphasizes the active involvement of the reader in the reading process instead of merely viewing reading as a passive activity in which the reader decodes written messages. Similarly, as Goodman's metaphor for reading -psycholinguistic guessing game- implies, active reading is a hypothesis testing process in which readers develop hypotheses and check whether they are correct or not and keep developing new hypotheses in case they are falsified.

Interactive approach to reading is multi-faceted. It refers to not only the interaction between the reader and the text, but also the interaction between identification and interpretation skills (Grabe, 1991). Similarly, interactionist model defends that readers interact with the text using both content knowledge and cultural background knowledge (Oxford, 2011). In addition, interactive reading also covers the interaction between learners' reading habits from their first language and the strategies they consciously develop while reading in a foreign language (Grabe, 1991). Learners transfer their first language reading habits to their reading in a foreign language experience. Syntactic structures, word order and lexical formation of their first language influence their reading habits in the foreign language they are learning. For example, a reader whose mother tongue is German may look for the verb at the end of the sentence while reading in English

as a foreign language, because German language has a S-O-V (subject-object-verb) syntactic pattern. Similarly, a beginner level learner whose mother tongue is Turkish may think of a building when they read the word ‘apartment’ in a text, because it is a false cognate. These factors lead them into developing conscious strategies for reading in foreign language, which distinguishes first language reading from foreign language reading.

### **The Position of Reading in EFL**

The role of reading in EFL instruction has changed overtime. Earlier approaches to language teaching considered reading as a means of practicing grammar and vocabulary. In other words, the main function of reading was thought to be the reinforcement of oral instruction (Silberstein, 1987). However, changing needs of learners that require an emphasis on language skills that will help learners survive in real-life have triggered changes in approaches to foreign and second language reading. Similarly, the essential role of developing academic reading skills to attain knowledge has also increased the need to move away from traditional reading approach that excludes interpretation and inferencing. Thus, reading in modern day language classrooms is considered to be a language skill that is taught not for the sake of teaching grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation but for the sake of reading itself.

The underlying processes in first and foreign language reading are not similar due to the language processing, educational and socio-cultural differences between first and foreign language (Grabe, 1991). EFL learners reading performance may be influenced not only by their effort in improving their reading comprehension skills in the target language but also by their first language education and socio-cultural background. To illustrate the point, a learner may have the sufficient linguistic competence and schemata knowledge to comprehend the reading text in the foreign language but may not be motivated to read because reading is not a highly favoured skill in their culture. Similarly, a learner who is an avid reader may make up for their lack of linguistic competence via their familiarity with content and formal schemata. In truth, the effectiveness of reading instruction is influenced by a number of variables related to learners, e.g., motivation, proficiency, age; teachers and contextual factors, e.g. curriculum, materials, institutional factors (Grabe, 1991).

## Teaching and Learning to Read

Approaches to teaching and learning reading have been shaped by research in cognitive psychology and sociolinguistics (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006). As previously discussed, traditional approaches were mainly transactional that viewed foreign language reading as a mechanic symbol-decoding process without any importance attached to sociocultural and educational background knowledge in readers' mind. However, with the advent of research in cognitive psychology and sociolinguistics, the interactive nature of foreign language reading that attached greater importance to the processes in the readers' mind was emphasized. Therefore, the role of schemata (Rumelhart, 1980), also termed as *frames* (Fillmore, 1976); *scripts* (Shank & Abelson, 1977), *event chains* (Warren, Nicholas & Trabasso, 1979) and *expectations* (Tannen, 1978), in foreign language reading became the focus point of a number of studies (Steffensen, Joag-Dev & Anderson, 1979; Carell, 1983; Bensoussan, 1998; Al-Issa, 2006). These studies emphasized that readers' sociocultural, educational background and their general world knowledge -briefly termed as schemata- play an important role in reading comprehension and interpretation processes. Steffensen et al. (1979) focused on the impact of content and formal schemata on reading comprehension. They found that culturally familiar content was more easily understood and recalled by the readers. Bensoussan's (1998) study also revealed that readers' experiences and general knowledge were more influential in facilitating effective reading comprehension than linguistic knowledge or familiarity with formal schemata. Similarly, Block (1986), in their study that compared reading behaviours of better and worse L1 and L2 readers, found that better readers employed strategies which involved text structure knowledge while worse readers did not use these strategies.

The emphasis on the facilitating effect of schemata on foreign language reading comprehension has a number of implications for teaching and learning foreign language reading. To begin with, teachers should focus on what readers know rather than what they do not know. Learners should not be expected to understand each word, but construct their own interpretation of the text based on their schemata (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006). In other words, modern day foreign language reading should attempt to teach reading for its communicative value within a social-interactive context rather than viewing as an instrument to teach grammar structures, vocabulary and pronunciation. However, it would not be wise to suggest that the teaching of these sub-skills should be totally avoided, either. The key is to put a balanced emphasis on teaching reading for global understanding,

interpretation and the aforementioned sub-skills. For example, reading aloud should be avoided if the focus is not on teaching pronunciation, because reading aloud does not facilitate reading comprehension at all. Similarly, teachers may be careful not to overemphasize individual word meanings and sentence structures when teaching scanning skill that involves reading for gist. However, learners may need to focus on both on grammatical structures and unknown vocabulary items in the text if they are skimming the text for detailed understanding.

A number of suggestions as to effective EFL reading instruction may be made. These include activating background knowledge, building up reading fluency, fostering learner's vocabulary recognition and grammar knowledge, raising learners' awareness of text structures and discourse organization, involving learners in extensive reading, making learners personally motivated for reading, setting meaningful purposes for reading, encouraging learners to develop reading strategies (Grabe, 2006; Ediger, 2006) and focusing on both bottom-up and top-down skills (Oxford, 2011). However, teachers need to choose which strategies to teach in accordance with their local needs because these suggestions may not work for all contexts due to differences in the nature of learners, e.g. their age, proficiency level, reading styles, and their needs, and differences in curriculum design, institutional demands and sociocultural factors (Oxford, 2011) . Learners who are already proficient in vocabulary and grammar knowledge may need to focus on developing greater reading proficiency. Similarly, in a society where reading is not a valued skill, teachers may start with setting meaningful purposes for reading and increasing learners' intrinsic motivation.

In this context, it can be argued that setting meaningful purposes for reading may be a priority regardless of local differences because reading should be a goal-directed (Ediger, 2006) behaviour through which learners perform real-life like tasks. This can be facilitated by integrating authentic materials that suit learners' proficiency levels into reading tasks and by requiring learners perform real-life tasks, e.g. making a decision about what to wear for a party after reading about fashion, making career choices after reading job advertisements or making a cake by reading a recipe. These real-life tasks may be set in accordance with learners' needs. Setting meaningful purposes for reading also contributes to the effectiveness of teaching reading strategies because learners may have a clearer idea about when and why to use these strategies.

Finally, it should be noted that the interplay between learners' native language and foreign language needs to be considered in foreign language reading instruction, because foreign language readers combine first language and foreign language literacy knowledge (Grabe, 2006). It can be argued that learners have different levels of linguistic and general knowledge, motivation, and proficiency. Similarly, they come from different sociocultural backgrounds that have differences in discourse organization and text structure. These personal and social differences may imply that each learner will react to the reading tasks in their own way no matter how the reading tasks are designed.

### **Studies on ESL/EFL Reading and Reading Strategies**

Research on foreign language reading and reading strategies revolve around a number of research topics. These include the effect of reading strategy instruction on reading proficiency (Phakiti, 2003; Shang, 2011; Rokshari, 2012), the relationship between use of reading strategies and anxiety (Lien, 2011), the effects of extensive reading on general reading proficiency (Mason&Krashen, 1997; Yang, 2001; Leung, 2002; Yamashita, 2002) the relationship between gender and reading strategy use (Phakiti, 2003; Lien, 2011).

Rokhsari (2012) and Phakiti (2003) carried out studies on the effect of using strategies on reading comprehension and found a strong positive correlation between the two variables. In other words, reading proficiency was positively influenced by strategy use as shown by the results from these two different studies. These studies also revealed that more successful learners used cognitive and metacognitive strategies more frequently than less successful learners. However, Shang's (2011) study did not reveal a significant relationship between use of reading strategies and reading performance. Based on these results, it can be argued that using reading strategies does not always ensure improvement in learners' reading comprehension skills because other variables, e.g., learners' motivation, differences in background knowledge, first language reading skills or different curriculum and institutional demands, may also play a role in learners' reading proficiency development process.

Lien's (2011) study on the relationship between using reading strategies and anxiety uncovered a negative correlation between these two variables. It was understood that using reading strategies helped to decrease learners' anxiety. The results showed that learners with low anxiety used more complex strategies such as guessing while learners with high

anxiety levels used basic strategies such as translation. Based on this finding, it can be suggested that learners should be taught reading strategies because using strategies may not only help improve their reading performance but also lower their anxiety levels which will help them reveal their true performance.

Phakiti (2003) focused on the relationship between gender and reading strategy use and found that there was not any significant difference between males and females in the use of cognitive reading strategies; however, males reported to use metacognitive reading strategies more often than females.

Extensive reading is assumed to play a key role in promoting overall reading proficiency. This taken for granted in first language reading, researchers set out to find whether this assumption is true for foreign language reading or not. Mason and Krashen (1997) conducted three experiments with Japanese learners of EFL and found that extensive readers made greater progress than learners who continued their regular reading instruction. A similar finding came from Yang's (2001) study which revealed that reading novels outside the classroom not only fostered learners' reading performance but also boosted their motivation to read. Confirming the results of aforementioned studies, Leung (2002) also emphasized the contributions of extensive reading; i.e., enriched vocabulary knowledge, reading proficiency and motivation for reading. Yamashita (2008) also attempted to understand whether extensive reading would lead to progress in reading proficiency and linguistic knowledge at the same rate. He found that improvement in reading ability was significant in the short run while it was not for linguistic knowledge. Based on this finding, one can argue that extensive reading promotes reading skill in the short term while its effect on linguistic knowledge may be observed in the long term. Given the facilitating effect of extensive reading on foreign language reading proficiency, learners may be encouraged to read more outside the classroom to help them improve their lexical and grammatical knowledge and develop positive attitudes towards academic reading.

## **Second/Foreign Language Learning Theories**

The root of language learning strategies lies in learning theories that have evolved over time in accordance with the changing demands of new learning environments. These learning theories have shaped new approaches in language teaching. Understanding

theoretical background of language learning strategies requires a discussion of learning theories that have triggered different approaches to language teaching.

### **Behaviourist Theory of Learning**

Behaviourism, dating back to early 1920s, is a theory of psychology that explains human behaviour through a chain of stimuli-response. Developed by J.B. Watson and supported by Bloomfield, Mowrer, Skinner and Staats, behaviourist theory of learning values external factors in learning without any consideration of the processes in learners' mind.

Behaviourist theory was adapted into language teaching with the emergence of Audio-Lingual Method (ALM). ALM views language learning as a mechanic process defined by external factors; e.g., positive and negative reinforcement and punishment. Observable behaviours are viewed as sign of learning; thus, oral production is highly valued. Cognitive processes in learners' minds are not considered, product is primary to the process.

Language learning strategies are broadly defined as deliberate actions to achieve pre-set goals. They are mainly processes that function in learners' mind with limited observable behaviour. Thus, it is fair to claim that behaviourist theory of learning and learning strategies do not overlap at any point; on the contrary, language learning strategies are based in cognitive theories of learning that emerged as a reaction to behaviourism.

### **Cognitive Theories of Learning**

Cognitive theories of learning oppose to the premises of behaviourist theory. The role of individual's contributions to learning is not an issue in behaviourist theory of learning while it is the essence of cognitive theories of learning which focus on how learners acquire, process and retain knowledge. Cognitive theories view learning as a process of making connections between previous knowledge and new knowledge while behaviourists view learning as a habit-formation process which results in observable behavioural change. However, cognitive changes in learners' mind are not directly observable, which is another distinction between cognitive theory of learning and behaviourist theory.

Cognitive theory of learning does not view learners' mind as a blank page to be filled with information, but rather as a processing unit that combines new knowledge with previously



acquired knowledge. Learners are thought to be in control of their learning whereas learner behaviours are thought to be shaped by external factors in behaviourist theory of learning.

In this respect, it can be argued that language learning strategies are rooted in cognitive theories of learning because language learning strategies are associated with cognitive processes in learners' mind. Oxford (1990) defines language learning strategies as procedures used by the learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information, which is also the focus point of cognitive theory of learning.

### *Information-Processing Theories*

Information-processing theories, based on cognitivism, attempt to explain how individuals acquire, retain and use new knowledge and combine new knowledge with existing knowledge. An understanding of these theories may help us gain insights into how learners employ learning strategies in information processing. A brief discussion on two cognitive information processing theories; i.e., McLaughlin's Model, Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought Model is provided by making connections between language learning strategies and these theories.

#### *McLaughlin's Model*

McLaughlin (1978) argues that foreign language learning is similar to learning a skill and thus, it is a process of skill-automatization. Automatization and restructuring are two key terms in this cognitive information-processing model. Learning is viewed as a series of mental procedures that operate in a sequence. These mental procedures are automatization, controlled processing, automatic processing, learning and restructuring. These mental procedures are about processing information from short-term memory to long-term memory to facilitate automatization and restructuring.

Automatization starts with controlled processing that is the temporary activation of nodes in the short-term memory while automatic processing is the activation of nodes in the long-term memory. Controlled processing is conscious while automatic processing is set deep within long term memory, which makes it unconscious. Controlled processing is easy to establish and change as the new input comes in while automatic processing is difficult to change once nodes are set in the long-term memory. The process of transferring knowledge

from short-term memory to long-term memory is defined as learning in McLaughlin's model. Basic skills need to be automatized before moving onto higher order skills. Restructuring is the process of reorganizing schemata through making connections between new skills and previous skills and may result in novel organizations of skills and knowledge.

The transition between controlled and automatic processing in McLaughlin's (1978) Model may be related to the distinction between strategies and skills. Learners use strategies deliberately to achieve specific purposes. As learners practise with strategies more often, their strategy use becomes automatized and unconscious; in truth, strategies turn into skills. Thus, it may be argued that learners' strategy use is a part of controlled processing that is conscious whereas language skills are part of automatic processing that functions at a deeper level unconsciously.

#### *Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought Model*

Drawing on schema theory, Anderson's (1990) Adaptive Control of Thought (ACT) Model explains individuals' cognitive information processing by making a distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge. The model suggests that the process of transforming declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge is executed in three stages which are cognitive, associative and autonomous stages. At cognitive stage, the learner possesses declarative knowledge. The cognitive activity is conscious and operates in working memory (Mitchell & Myles, 2004) in this stage. Language learners make errors when they produce language. Associative stage is the transition stage between declarative and procedural knowledge. At this stage, language learners can self-monitor their production and begin developing fluency. They practise their new linguistic knowledge and make new connections in their schemata. Knowledge begins to be procedural (Oxford, 2011). Third stage, autonomous stage is when declarative knowledge becomes fully procedural. Cognitive processes operate in long term memory. Language learners move from mastering basic skills to complex skills; in truth, they become autonomous in knowledge processing.

Declarative knowledge, static information in memory at cognitive stage, is composed of propositional representations stored in semantic and episodic memory. A node is the basic unit of a propositional network and nodes are connected through links (O'Malley &

Chamot, 1990). Propositional networks serve to represent information schematically and they are reorganized in individuals' mind through spreading activation. Declarative knowledge is static, conscious, non-habitual and expressible in words (Oxford, 2011).

On the other hand, procedural knowledge refers to dynamic, habitual, unconscious and tacit knowledge (Oxford, 2011). While declarative knowledge can be attained at a faster rate, it takes time and practice to acquire procedural knowledge. Based on Anderson's (1990) ideas, it is claimed that procedural knowledge is composed of production systems in which complex cognitive skills are represented. These production systems are explained through condition-action pairs, i.e., 'If X occurs, then do Y' statements. These condition-action pairs may be present in declarative knowledge, which is conscious and effortful, and transform into procedural knowledge, which is unconscious and effortless, through practice as the production systems become automatized.

Piaget's schemata construction processes, i.e.; organization, assimilation, accommodation and equilibration may be associated with Anderson's cognitive, associative and autonomous stages. Both models deal with knowledge transformation from a static to dynamic phase. Organization is the stage in which the initial schema is constructed by individuals when they take in new information. Assimilation is the stage when individuals reorganize their schemata in accordance with new information. When individuals fine-tune new information into their existing schemata, they accommodate knowledge. Equilibration is the stage when individuals reach the flexibility to fine-tune new information into their existing schemata through assimilation and accommodation. Anderson's autonomous stage may be considered to be similar to equilibration, because individual's information-processing becomes automatic and unconscious. However, disequilibrium may emerge when they have difficulty with integrating new information into their existing schemata. When the individual experiences disequilibrium, they move beyond their present state and expand in new directions (Palincsar, 2005).

Language learners' knowledge is initially declarative, with knowledge of formal language rules. Learners have knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, but they cannot make practical use of this knowledge. Their language knowledge is static and conscious. However, as learners gain competence in language, their language knowledge becomes automatic and unconscious. Their language performance becomes fluent. They produce accurate language, but they are not conscious of formal rules.

However, learners may not be able to internalize knowledge all at once. They may take in some information as declarative knowledge and proceed it to procedural knowledge quickly while it may take longer for them to transform some declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge. Within this transformation process, there might still be new information coming to be placed into existing schemata or to be represented in new schemata. The process is dynamic with many possibilities. This automatization process is also true for strategies. The frequent use of a strategy may cause it to move from being stored in declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge. In other words, learners may grow unconscious of the strategies they use over time because they became automatic habits. Oxford (2011) argues that while some scholars outside second language field prefer to name these strategies that become automatic and unconscious as ‘skills’, she prefers to name them as ‘habits’ so as to prevent any misunderstanding because ‘skills’ may refer to four language skills; i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing. However, this study also makes the distinction between conscious strategy use and strategies that become automatic over time by referring these strategies as ‘skills’.

Learners’ proficiency level plays a role in their strategic awareness. It is seen that high proficiency learners are less aware of the strategies they use because they have become automatized and unconscious (Green & Oxford, 1995). However, it was also found that high proficiency learners continued to use strategies consciously as their proficiency level increased (Oxford, 2003). In addition, strategies may move between being stored in declarative or procedural knowledge. A strategy that has become unconscious may move back to declarative state when learners are asked to reflect on the strategies they use or participate in think-aloud protocols (Oxford, 2011). This interplay between declarative and procedural knowledge may be supported by Rumelhart and Norman (1976) who do not make a distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge. In addition, Rumelhart and Norman argue that learning is a complex skill that requires more stages and adds the processes of restructuring, accretion and tuning to knowledge construction process (1976).

### **Activity Theory**

Activity theory was developed as a psychological approach by Leontiev (1978) who was a student of Vygotsky. The theory revolves around these basic concepts: object orientedness, internalization/externalization, tool mediation, hierarchical structure of an activity, and

continuous development. Activity is defined as any action we take in daily life and is not considered to be an isolated entity (1978). The theory envisages that the subject/individual acts and their activity is oriented by an object. It is the activity that mediates the relationship between subjects and objects.

Oxford (2011) provides a discussion on activity theory by making connections between the basic concepts of the theory and language learning strategies. An activity is driven by a motive and executed in a chain of actions that refer to the strategies in Oxford's (2011) Strategic Self-Regulation (S<sup>2</sup>R) Model. Similarly, the term 'subject' refers to learners and 'object' refers to learners' goals in S<sup>2</sup>R Model (Oxford, 2011). Operations, which are the basic steps of an activity, are termed as 'tactics' in S<sup>2</sup>R Model. Oxford (2011) also makes connections between Activity Theory and cognitive information-processing arguing that the actions are declarative at earlier stages and move to procedural stage at advanced stage. An action/strategy may travel between declarative and procedural knowledge depending on learners' goals and changing conditions. A learner may use the affective strategy of lowering anxiety consciously while speaking and grow better at using it over time as the strategy becomes proceduralized. However, when the learner gets involved in a conversation beyond their competency, they may need to use the strategy consciously again.

To exemplify the point, a learner, termed as a subject in Leontiev's Activity Theory, may set the goal/object of improving their fluency in speaking in Chinese. This learner may use the strategy, termed as chain of actions, of practising speaking Chinese with a native speaker through online communication tools. Learners' actions/strategies may be influenced by external and internal factors which refer to the internalization/externalization concept in activity theory. The learner may find the native speakers' speech incomprehensible, which is an external factor, and may lose their motivation and interest, which is an internal factor. These changing conditions may urge the learner to rearrange their strategies/chain of actions so that they will reach their goal. The learner may choose to chat face to face with another learner of Chinese who is at a more advanced level than them. They may use a set of tactics, termed as operations in Activity Theory, e.g., asking the speaker to repeat their words, using circumlocution, using vocal fillers and hesitation words to gain time when you have difficulty to express yourself, etc..., to achieve their goal of improving their fluency in speaking Chinese.

## **Cognitive Load Theory**

Cognitive Load Theory (CLT) is based on the premise that learning can be influenced negatively or positively by cognitive load which is defined as interconnected information elements processed simultaneously. Regulating the cognitive load in working memory so as to support schema construction and automatization in the long-term memory is one of the key points of the theory. Learning may not be enhanced when the cognitive load is too high or too low; however, learning is at an optimum level when the cognitive load is balanced in accordance with human cognitive structure (Paas, Renkl & Sweller, 2004).

CLT suggests that there are three types of cognitive load; i.e., intrinsic, extraneous and germane. Intrinsic load is characterized by schema construction and automation built out of interconnected information elements. Extraneous load and germane load are related to how information elements are presented and the activities in which learners are involved. The cognitive load that does not facilitate schema construction is extraneous while it is germane if it fosters the interaction between information elements. Thus, cognitive load that learners are exposed to should be designed in accordance with learners' existing schemata, because cognitive load that is germane for a beginner level learner may be extraneous for an advanced level learner. (Paas, et al., 2004).

When CLT is viewed from the perspective of language learning strategies, language learning strategies may be considered as extraneous or germane cognitive load, because they are the instruments used to construct schemata. Using the strategy of using a dictionary to check the meaning of unknown words while reading may be extraneous or germane depending on the context. If a learner needs to only skim the text, checking the unknown words from the dictionary may be an extraneous cognitive load; however, if they are reading for detailed information, the aforementioned strategy may be germane.

## **Constructivist Theory of Learning**

Constructivist theory of learning views individuals as active participants in knowledge construction process that happens through interaction with the social setting. Challenging the role of individual as information-processors, constructivist views of learning attribute a more interactive role to learners who construct their own meanings. While cognitive information theories focus on the concept of 'objective knowledge', constructivist ideas are concerned with a more subjective knowledge construction process that is unique for each

learner. Constructivist views of learning are rooted in the works of theorists such as Piaget, Vygotsky, Bruner and the Gestalt psychologists (Woolfolk, 2013). In truth, it can be argued that constructivism lies at the root of cognitive information processing theories because they all include knowledge construction. Different perspectives on constructivist views of learning emerged from the works of these scholars which can be broadly categorized as individual/radical constructivism and social constructivism.

Individual constructivism, also termed as radical or psychological constructivism, emphasises the inner processes in learners' mind during meaning-construction process. Psychological constructivists focus on the ways individuals construct knowledge, beliefs, self-concepts, or identity. Information-processing theories, which are termed as trivial constructivism, are concerned with correct representations of knowledge while radical constructivism focuses on individual constructs of knowledge that come out of interaction. In other words, information processing theories focus on only what goes on in learners' mind while psychological constructivism deals with the interaction between the processes in learners' mind and their environment. In Piaget's view, social context was considered to have a significant role in constructing meaning out of sensory experiences that are processed into symbols, schema or propositions; however, it was not attached importance as the main drive behind changing thinking (Woolfolk, 2013). This point is, in truth, the main distinction between the views of social and radical constructivists.

Social constructivist ideas are mainly based on Vygotsky's work arguing that social interaction and cultural elements are the main mechanisms that influence learning and development. Vygotsky defended the integrity and interdependence of learning and development opposing Piagetian views that consider these two as separate concepts (Palincsar, 2005). Learning is viewed as a part of developing culturally organized, specifically human, psychological functions (Vygotsky, 1978). Learners are the active constructors of their learning environment. Education is not only limited to cognitive development but it is also a quintessential social activity (Moll, 1990).

Social interaction and cultural context are two important aspects of the learning environment that fosters learning and development. Vygotsky (1978) analyses two levels of development for learners: their present state of performance and their potential for performing better as a result of social interaction. Learners may expand the boundaries of their capabilities to solve problems and think critically when they are assisted by a more capable peer or an adult. The distance between what they can achieve and their potential to

achieve better is termed as Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Scaffolding plays a key role in learning in social constructivist theory. Simply put, it is the cognitive, social or emotional support provided by more able peers. Wood, Bruner and Ross (as cited in Stone, 1998) argue that scaffolding involves manipulating the level of the task that is initially beyond learners' competence and allowing them deal with only the elements of the task that are within the boundaries of their competence because the only good learning is the one which is in advance of development (Vygotsky, 1978). Hammond and Gibbons (2001) add that scaffolding requires involving learners in challenging tasks that are beyond their capacity to allow them to outperform themselves.

Language learning strategies, rooted in cognitive theories of learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), may also relate to constructivist theory of learning, because constructivist theories overlap with cognitive information processing theories in that they both focus on knowledge construction despite the different perspectives. In this context, it can be argued that while metacognitive and cognitive strategies are based on cognitive theories, social and affective strategies may be rooted in social constructivism that emphasizes social interaction and cultural context in learning. Similarly, it can be presumed that language learning strategies may play a role in providing scaffolding for learners because they are tools used to facilitate learning.

### **Theoretical Base of Language Learning Strategies**

Language learning strategies are interrelated with a number of different learning theories; in truth, learning strategies have an eclectic base (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014). From a broad perspective, it can be argued that language learning strategies have elements from all three major learning theories; i.e., behaviourist, cognitive and constructivist learning theories. Similarly, learning strategies may have been influenced by activity theory, cognitive load theory and other theories on learning and thinking. This complexity behind the theoretical base of learning strategies is condemned to be the reason for the conceptual ambiguity that has never been cleared away (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003).

A quick overview of language learning strategies reveals that they include behaviourist elements, e.g. memory strategies, repetition strategies. Constructivist learning theories reveal their influence on language learning strategies through social and affective strategies, included in the strategy classifications (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford,



1990). Similarly, language learning strategies have been argued to be rooted in cognitive learning theories (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In truth, it can be claimed that cognitive aspect of learning strategies has often been emphasized in the definitions of learning strategies which can be summarized as 'mental/cognitive operations/procedures/tactics employed by the learner to obtain, process, store, retain and use knowledge' (Rubin, 1975; Rigney; 1978; Derry & Murphy, 1986).

Griffiths (2005) underpinned the theoretical background of learning strategies in language teaching methods, approaches and theories. Similar to the case with learning strategies and learning theories, the relationship between language learning strategies and language teaching approaches/methods are multi-dimensional. It can be argued that research on language learning strategies have changed the focus from how teachers teach to how learners learn. Rubin (1975) suggested that language learning strategies encourage learners to learn on their own which refers to self-regulated learning.

Multi-faceted nature of language learning strategy theory comes from the fact that it is based on a web of interlocking theories (Oxford, 2011). Therefore, simplifying the theoretical base of language learning strategies to a single theory would limit the dimensions of language learning strategies theory that bears the characteristics of behaviourism, cognitive theory of learning, constructivism, activity theory, cognitive load theory (Oxford, 2011) and complexity/chaos theory and others (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014).

## **Language Learning Strategies**

In this section, information on the originating point of strategy research and a brief history of early research in language learning strategies is to be provided. Language learning strategies are to be defined from the perspective of different scholars with an analysis of similarities and differences among their definitions. Language learning strategy classifications are compared and contrasted to provide a broader perspective on LLS. Similarly, recent approaches to language learning strategies are discussed.

The relationship between language learning strategies and a number of variables; i.e., gender, language proficiency, learning styles, beliefs about language learning, motivation, self-efficacy and culture, is also to be focused on. The next point to be covered in this section is the types of language strategy instruction and factors that are related with the effectiveness of language strategy instruction. Brief information on models of strategy

instruction is to be given. The section is to end with a discussion on how language learning strategies can help optimize EFL learning.

### **How are Language Learning Strategies Defined?**

The word strategy is derived from Greek word '*stratēgia*' which literally means 'the art of planning and directing overall military operations and movements in a war or battle' (Oxford online dictionary). Contextually speaking, using the 'war' metaphor for language learning may be meaningful because they both require employing effective strategies at the right time and context with carefully chosen purposes.

Defining language learning strategies is not immune from fuzziness for a number of different terminologies used to define language learning strategies exist in the literature. To exemplify the point, the terms- learning behaviours (Politzer & McGroarty; Wesche, 1985), tactics (Seliger, 1984), and techniques (Stern, 1992) were used to refer to a similar concept although the researchers did not use these terms with literally the same meanings. Similarly, learning strategies were also termed as cognitive skills (Colley & Beech, 1989) study skills (Anderson, 1979; Rothkopf, 1988), learning to learn (Bransford, Stein, Shelton & Owings, 1981), 'metacognitive strategies' (Garner, 1988), executive control processes (Gagne, 1985) and self-regulation (Zimmerman, 1990). It can be seen that a number of scholars focus on the cognitive and metacognitive aspects of learning strategies while some others draw on the self-regulative aspect of learning strategies. It can be argued that all these different terminologies refer to a similar concept which this study terms as 'learning strategies'.

Despite elusive nature of learning strategies definition (Wenden & Rubin, 1987), they have been defined by many scholars whose works paved the way for strategy research. Early definitions go back to mid-1970's, e.g. Rubin's study (1975). Researchers did not lose interest in defining language learning strategies in 1980s, either; e.g.; Brown et al. (1983), Derry & Murphy (1986), Kirby (1988), Nisbet & Shucksmith (1986), Schmeck (1988), Weinstein & Mayer (1986). Attempts to define learning strategies continued in the next decade, too (Wade et al., 1990, Oxford, 1990, 1996). One of the most recent definitions of learning strategies belongs to Griffiths (2008). In Table 1, the learning strategy definitions by the above-mentioned scholars are provided.

Table 1

*Definitions of Learning Strategies\**

Scholars	Definitions of Learning Strategies: They are...
Rubin (1975)	the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge.
Rigney (1978)	general operations or procedures to aid the acquisition, retention and retrieval of knowledge and performance.
O'Neil (1978)	intellectual and affective skills that constitute a necessary condition for more efficient learning.
Tarone (1981)	attempts to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language.
Brown, Brasford, Ferrara and Campione (1983)	systematic application of deliberate plans, routines or activities to enhance learning.
O'Malley et al. (1985)	operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information.
Derry and Murphy (1986)	a collection of mental tactics employed by an individual in a learning situation to facilitate acquisition of knowledge or skill.
Weinstein and Mayer (1986)	behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process.
Kirby (1988)	the means of selecting, combining and redesigning cognitive routines for performing specific tasks.
Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986)	integrated sequences of procedures, the appropriate selection and flexible adaptation of which is to meet the needs of a specific situation.
Schmeck (1988)	a sequence of procedures for accomplishing learning.

Wade, Trathen and Schraw (1990)	and a configuration of different tactics, deliberately selected and carefully monitored for a particular purpose for effectiveness.
Stern (1992)	broadly conceived intentional directions.
Pressley and McCormick (1995)	steps that learners take in order to manage their learning and achieve desired goals.
Griffiths (2008)	activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning.

\*The table has been designed by the researcher.

An analysis of the learning strategy definitions given in Table 1 shows that they have quite a few overlapping terms. It can be suggested that it is commonly agreed that language learning strategies are sequences of procedures/operations/tactics/steps/behaviours/activities which learners consciously/intentionally select, monitor and use to acquire knowledge and skills and facilitate learning in specific tasks and situations. However, it is seen that a consensus on a uniform term to refer to strategies does not exist. Some scholars make a distinction among strategy, tactics, skills and techniques (Kirby, 1988; Nisbet & Shucksmith, 1986) based on the premise that a strategy is a strategy if it is wider in scope, but it is a technique/tactic/skill if it is less general; however, this is not a widely accepted dichotomy (Gu, 2012) for it does not contribute to defining learning strategies that is resistant to simple categorization.

Similarly, whether a strategy is still termed as a strategy when it becomes automatized/unconscious when the learner masters the use of the strategy is another controversial point in strategy definition. One view is that when a strategy becomes automatized, it is not a strategy anymore for strategies are conscious learning behaviours (Rabinowitz & Chi, 1987). On the other hand; Gu (2012) opposes this idea; he argues that learners do not lose consciousness over the entire demonstration of the strategy but only over the execution of the strategy. In other words, the strategy is still there when it becomes automatized. The only difference is that the learner executes the phases of

selecting, monitoring and evaluation of the strategy with greater speed than they used to at initial stages.

Learning strategies are defined considering various aspects they have. Some scholars emphasize cognitive (Kirby, 1988) and mental (Derry & Murphy, 1986) aspects of learning strategies while others (O'Neil, 1978) focus on their affective aspect. Tarone (1981) highlights the social aspect of learning strategies in her definition arguing that learning strategies contribute to sociolinguistic competence.

It is seen that the purpose of learning strategies has changed from being defined as acquiring knowledge and facilitating effective learning (O'Neil, 1978) to learners' own learning (Griffiths, 2008). In truth, the relationship between self-regulation of learning and learning strategies led to the development of Strategic Self-Regulation Model (Oxford, 2011). Self-regulation of learning involves more than acquiring and processing knowledge through cognitive set of procedures. In truth, self-regulation refers to managing cognitive, affective and social aspects of learning. In this respect, it can be argued that the scope of learning strategies has grown wider over time as shown by the change in their definitions.

Providing a clear and all-encompassing definition of language learning strategies seems to be an aspiration rather than a reality due to fuzziness of the concept and controversies over their scope and purpose. In spite of these challenges, language learning strategies catch the attention of researchers considering the cognitive, metacognitive and social-affective contributions to learners. Researchers may not agree on whether a strategy is still termed as a strategy when it becomes automatized; however, they agree that learners use language learning strategies with differing levels of proficiency. Similarly, researchers may have controversies over whether tactics, techniques, skills and strategies are similar or different concepts, but they agree that learners employ some tactics, techniques, skills and strategies consciously with different purposes.

### **Language Learning Strategies Research**

It is known that language learning strategies have roots in cognitive theory; however, research on language learning strategies emerged as a separate vein, which goes back to 1970s. The departure point of early language strategies research was triggered by the assumption that good language learners must have capabilities that less successful language learners lack. Rubin (1975) argues that if a learner can learn their first language

successfully, they can learn a second language, too; however, learners should be trained to use the strategies that good language learners use. The characteristics of good language learners explained in detail in Rubin's (1975) research can be summarized as follows: being a good guesser, willingness to communicate, high ambiguity tolerance, paying attention to the form, willingness to practise language, monitoring their own and other's speech and paying attention to the meaning. They are aware that both form and meaning are essential for effective communication. This ground-breaking research of Rubin's paved the way for further research in language learning strategies. Once a consensus on the premise that good language learners used some strategies that less successful ones did not was reached, researchers set out to classify these strategies.

### *Language Learning Strategies Classifications*

Rubin (1975) suggested a classification of language learning strategies drawing on her research on the characteristics of good language learners. She made a distinction between direct and indirect strategies. Her category of direct strategies includes clarification/verification, monitoring, memorisation, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning and practice. Indirect strategies in her classification are creating opportunities for practice and production tricks.

Naiman, Froehlich, Stern and Todesco (1978) created a list of strategies based on their interviews with adult learners who were reported to be competent in the target language they are learning. They categorized these strategies that proficient language learners use as the following: active task approach, realization of the language as a system, realization of language as means of communication and interaction, management of affective demands, and monitoring second language performance. It is understood that Naiman et al.'s (1978) list of general strategies overlaps with Rubin's list; both lists cover learners' paying attention to both form and meaning, their willingness to be active and interactive, and monitoring their performance. However, Naiman et al. (1978) add a new dimension, i.e. managing their affective status.

Similar to Rubin's dichotomy, Dansereau (1978) also suggested that strategies influence learning directly or indirectly. He used the terms primary and support strategies. Primary strategies refer to the strategies directly related with learning material while support strategies refer to strategies related with factors that influence learning; e.g., managing

affective status and maintaining motivation. Dansereau (1978) also proposes that the nature of strategies may change in relation to the difficulty and type of the task. Learners may use different strategies while speaking and reading or they may rearrange their strategy use as they move from easier tasks such as reading for gist to more difficult ones such as rephrasing what they have read.

Wild, Schiefele and Winteler (as cited in Vlckova et al., 2013) also suggested a similar classification with a minor difference in terminology. In their classification, they used the terms primary and secondary strategies. Likewise, Bimmel and Rampillion (as cited in Vlckova et al., 2013) included direct and indirect strategy categories in their classification. Memory and language processing are listed as direct strategies while affective, social, self-regulatory and language use strategies are classified under the category of indirect strategies. It can be argued the dichotomy of direct and indirect strategies used by different scholars stemmed from a similar way of thinking. In this way of thinking, direct strategies are classified as cognitive strategies that influence learning directly and indirect strategies as metacognitive and socioaffective strategies that have an indirect impact on learning.

Based on research in cognitive psychology, Brown and Palincsar (1982) made a distinction between metacognitive and cognitive strategies. They argued that successful language learning is possible through the combination of metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies are considered to be task-specific processes that involve direct analysis, transformation and synthesis of the subject matter. On the other hand, metacognitive strategies regulate cognition through planning, monitoring, self-evaluation and problem-solving. In this classification, cognitive strategies can be exemplified by inferencing, guessing, elaboration and making mental associations. Similarly, metacognitive strategies include directed attention, self-evaluation and analysing one's strengths and weaknesses.

One of the comprehensive strategy classification schemes belongs to O'Malley et al. (1985) who based their classification on the perspectives suggested by previous scholars. Their classification is based on three main categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and socioaffective strategies. Three sub-categories; i.e., planning, monitoring and evaluation, are listed under the category of metacognitive strategies. Planning strategies are advance organisers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management and functional planning. Self-monitoring and self-evaluation are monitoring and evaluation strategies. The second main category, cognitive strategies, covers strategies such as repetition,

resourcing, translation, grouping, note-taking, summarising, transfer, recombination, translation, elaboration, contextualisation, keyword method, deduction, inferencing imagery and auditory representation. Socioaffective strategies include questions for clarification, cooperation and self-talk. Reading and listening strategy instruction plan used in this study is also based on O'Malley et al.'s classification (1985).

Stern's (1992) five categories of language learning strategies; i.e.; management and planning strategies, cognitive strategies, communicative/experiential strategies, interpersonal strategies and affective strategies, also overlap with the categories in the aforementioned strategy classifications. For example, the cognitive and affective strategy categories are also found in O'Malley & Chamot's strategy classification framework. Similarly, management and planning strategies categories are also listed in Brown and Palincsar's (1982) and O'Malley et al. (1990)'s strategy classification frameworks. However, the difference is that management and planning strategies were regarded as a main category in Stern (1992)'s classification, while these strategies were listed as a sub-category under the main category of metacognitive strategies in Brown and Palincsar's (1982) and O'Malley et al.'s (1985) strategy classification systems.

Oxford (1990) also proposed a detailed framework of language learning strategies. It can be argued that Oxford proposed a strategy classification framework based on a combination of perspectives from all the previous strategy classification systems (Vlckova et al., 2013). The main distinction, direct/ indirect strategies, was already proposed by Dansereau (1978). Similarly, categories of cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social strategies in Oxford's classification were already proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Brown and Palincsar (1982) earlier. However, she added two new categories; i.e, memory and compensation under the main category of direct strategies. Based on this classification, Oxford (1990) also developed a Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) which is the most widely used language strategy scale with a high level of psychometric integrity. The table below presents the details of Oxford's Strategy Classification (Vlckova et al., 2013).



Table 2

*Oxford's Classification of Language Learning Strategies\**

Direct	Memory	Creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well, employing action
	Cognitive	Practising, receiving and sending messages, analysing and reasoning, creating structures for input and output
	Compensation	Guessing intelligently, overcoming limitations in speaking and writing
Indirect	metacognitive	Centring your learning, arranging and planning your learning, evaluating your learning
	Affective	Lowering your anxiety, encouraging yourself, taking your emotional temperature
	Social	Asking questions, cooperating with others, empathising with others

\*Adapted from Vlckova, K., Berger, J. & Völkle, M. (2013). Classification theories of foreign language learning strategies: An exploratory analysis. *Studia Paedagogica*, 18(4), 93-113.

The most recent language learning strategies classification was proposed by Cohen and Weaver (2006) in their work titled *Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction: A Teacher's Guide*. They propose a language learning strategy classification based on three main distinctions. They classify strategies by goal, language skills and function. The point that distinguishes their classification from the aforementioned classification frameworks is the distinction they made between language use and language skills strategies. Language use strategies, categorized under strategies classified by goal, are defined as rehearsal, retrieval communication and cover strategies. Language skills strategies are listed as listening, reading, writing, speaking, vocabulary, and translating strategies. Strategies classified by function are not new; they are, in truth, the cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social strategies that have been covered in previous classifications (Brown & Palincsar, 1982; Oxford, 1990). Furthermore, they suggest that strategies could also be classified by some other variables, e.g. by age, proficiency level, culture and gender. They argue that the terminology of strategies used by young learners is not quite similar to that of the strategies used by adult learners, because it may not be easy for young learners to come to terms with the concept of metacognitive strategies. Similarly, they contend that learners' strategy

preference depends on their proficiency level (Cohen & Weaver, 2006). Cohen and Weaver (2006) discuss that culture may play a role in strategy selection because British learners of Chinese may need more visualization strategies than Japanese learners of Chinese do.

### ***From Strategies to Metastrategies: Oxford's Strategic Self-Regulation Model***

#### *What is Strategic Self-Regulation?*

The fact that defining language learning strategies is not immune from fuzziness has not blocked the way to the concept of metastrategies. Earlier theories (Wenden, 1998) envisage that it is the metacognitive strategies that regulate all other types of strategies. However, Oxford (2011) asserts that it is not the metacognitive strategies alone but a broader mechanism- metastrategies- that orchestrates the use of strategies. Similarly, the relationship between learning strategies and self-regulation is one of the key elements of Oxford's Strategic Self-Regulation Model (S<sup>2</sup>R Model). Hsiao and Oxford (2002) conclude that learning strategies lead to an improvement in proficiency, autonomy and self-regulation, underlining the interplay between learning strategies and self-regulation.

Based on the premise that metastrategies orchestrate strategies, Strategic Self-Regulation Model (S<sup>2</sup>R Model) basically combines strategies and self-regulation. Self-regulation can be defined as learners' management their own learning by setting goals, designing their learning environment, using effective strategies, managing time and resources effectively and having high self-respect (Schunk & Ertmer, 2000). The merge of self-regulation and learning strategies brings about the concept of self-regulated language learning strategies. These strategies are used consciously, revealed through tactics and combined into strategy chains (Oxford, 2011). In addition, self-regulated language learning strategies not only make learning deeper, lasting and easier but also reflect the learner as a whole with cognitive, affective and sociocultural-interactive dimensions (Oxford, 2011). Similarly, learners' use of metastrategies to manage their learning is termed as metastrategic regulation in S<sup>2</sup>R model.

### *Metastrategies and Strategies*

S<sup>2</sup>R Model suggests three broad categories of metastrategies: metacognitive strategies, meta-affective strategies and meta-sociocultural-interactive strategies. The model is based on the idea that self-regulation is related with not only learner's management of cognition but also with their regulation of affective strategies and social setting in which communication takes place (Alexander, Graham & Harris, 1998). In the model, metastrategies regulate metacognitive, metaaffective and meta-social-interactive strategies while these three dimensions orchestrate the use of cognitive, affective and sociocultural-interactive strategies.

The model lays out nineteen metastrategies and strategies. Eight metastrategies are paying attention, planning, obtaining and using resources, organizing, implementing plans, orchestrating strategy use, monitoring and evaluating. The metastrategies are all-encompassing; in other words, they are included in the three sub-categories as metacognitive strategies, metaaffective strategies and meta-social-interactive strategies. Metacognitive strategies that regulate cognitive strategies function in the planning, organizing, coordinating, monitoring and assessing the building of second language knowledge (Oxford, 2011). Six cognitive strategies are listed as using senses to understand and remember, activating knowledge, reasoning, conceptualizing with details, conceptualizing broadly and going beyond the immediate data. Metaaffective strategies that manage affective strategies are related with learners' attitudes, beliefs, volition, emotions and motivation. Activating supportive emotions, beliefs and attitudes and generating and maintaining motivation are the two strategies in the affective dimension of learning in S<sup>2</sup>R Model. Meta-social-interactive strategies manage social, cultural, contextual and communicative aspects of learning. Strategies in the sociocultural-interactive dimension are interacting to learn and communicate, overcoming knowledge gaps in communication and dealing with sociocultural contexts and identities. Tactics, defined as the very specific applications of strategies and metastrategies are also an essential element of the model.

### *Metaknowledge and Metastrategies*

Oxford (2011) proposes that metaknowledge is the mechanism behind the metastrategies. Expounding on Wenden's (1998) theory that suggests three types of metaknowledge-

person, task and strategy knowledge; Oxford (2011) adds group, culture, whole-process and conditional metaknowledge. She argues that only person knowledge is not enough when the sociocultural-interactional dimension of metastrategies is considered. Similarly, whole- process knowledge is one-step beyond task knowledge because it is not limited to only the knowledge of the task at hand but it also covers learners' long term goals. In this respect, it can be argued that Wenden (1998)'s categories of metaknowledge were defined keeping only the metacognitive strategies in mind, while Oxford (2011) included the other two dimensions, i.e., metaaffective and meta-sociocultural-interactive. Therefore, we can conclude that Oxford's S<sup>2</sup>R Model is a unified learning strategies theory because it integrates all major aspects of learning; i.e., metacognitive, cognitive, affective and sociocultural-interactional unlike other models that focus heavily on metacognitive and cognitive dimensions (Wenden, 1998; Flavell, 1979).

#### *What's new in Strategic Self-Regulation Model?*

S<sup>2</sup>R Model distinguishes itself from other strategy-based language learning theories by some aspects of it. To begin with, different strands of learning; e.g., psychological-cognitive, affective; social-cognitive and sociocultural are integrated into the model. Secondly, the multi-dimensional understanding of learning in S<sup>2</sup>R Model leads to a balanced emphasis on all learning strategies in contrast to earlier models (Wenden, 1998) that attach greater importance to metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Metacognitive, metaaffective and meta-social-interactive strategies are viewed as parts of a whole which is dynamic and interrelated. To make the point clear, learner motivation can influence their cognitive and interactional performance and their use of strategies related to these areas of learning.

Thirdly, the model makes a distinction between deep-processing and surface processing strategies, which is not existent in other language learning strategy models. The model defines deep-processing strategies as the metacognitive strategies that help learners retain information through logical reasoning and mental linkages; however, surface strategies refer to cognitive strategies that facilitate only rote memorization. Holschuh and Aultman (2008) argue that learners who use deep-processing strategies more often internalize the learning material and can use it new situations easily via deep mental associations they

have established. Their learning is long-lasting and meaningful thanks to the deep approach behind their thinking and learning strategies.

Another distinctive aspect of S<sup>2</sup>R Model is that it suggests that strategies can be used both for non-crisis and crisis situations. A non-crisis situation can refer to a simple problem with a cognitive aspect only; e.g., a learners' having difficulty with vocabulary learning; however, a crisis situation is more complex with cognitive, affective or even social dimensions. For example, a learner suffering from speaking anxiety may not be able to reveal their true performance due to affective and social inhibitions. In both situations, learners use a combination of related strategies to overcome their problems in language learning, which refers to the double utility of strategies (Oxford, 2011).

Finally, the model introduces the tactic chains as the sub-units of strategies. Instead of proposing long lists of strategies, S<sup>2</sup>R Model suggests broader categories of strategies that cover tactics which are considered as the very specific manifestations of strategies. Learners establish their strategy chains composed of sets of tactics in accordance with the nature of the task or problem they face. Similarly, the model suggests ways of assessing strategy use and improving learners' strategy use performance.

It can be concluded that S<sup>2</sup>R Model contributes to language learning strategy theory in a number of ways. Oxford (2011) has elaborated on the concept of metastrategies and extended the boundaries of metaknowledge by adding whole-process and group knowledge dimensions. In addition, her emphasis on deep and surface-processing strategies and strategy chains composed of tactics contributes to greater awareness in language learning strategies research.

### **The Relationship between Language Learning Strategies and Some Variables**

Language learners' strategy use patterns may be influenced by a range of variables. These variables include but are not limited to gender, language proficiency, learning styles, aptitude, learning stage, task requirements, teacher expectations, motivation, self-efficacy beliefs, culture and beliefs about language learning. To illustrate the point, highly motivated learners may tend to have a more effective strategy use pattern compared to less motivated learners. Similarly, proficient learners may use deep-processing strategies more often than less proficient learners because use of deep-processing strategies leads to meaningful and long-lasting learning. In the following sections, the relationship between

learners' gender, language proficiency, motivation, learning styles, self-efficacy beliefs, cultural background, their beliefs about language learning and their language strategy use patterns are to be discussed in detail.

### *Gender*

Studies on the relationship between gender and language learning strategies have produced various results. While the results of some studies (Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Punithavalli, 2003; Oxford, 1993, Zeynali, 2012) suggest that females use more language learning strategies than males, the findings from another study (Zamri, as cited in Zeynali, 2012) reveal that males use language learning strategies more often than females. However, Chang (1990) and Chou (2002) do not refer to any gender related significant difference between male and female strategy use patterns in their studies. Given these results, it can be argued that the relationship between gender and language learning strategies is not a salient one.

Research also focused on the gender-related differences in specific categories of strategies. Politzer (1983) found that females were more frequent users of social strategies than males. Differences in strategy use patterns of males and females were also found in Sy's, study, (1994) which revealed that females were significantly more frequent strategy users in cognitive, metacognitive, compensation and social strategy categories compared to males. A similar result came from Green and Oxford's (1995) study. They found that females significantly outperformed males in their use of metacognitive, affective and social language learning strategies, attributing this finding to the psychological traits of females that have greater emotional awareness and need for social interaction than males. Supporting the results from aforementioned studies, Zeynali (2012) also found that females used social and affective strategies significantly more often than males.

The relationship between gender and language learning strategies still needs further research because it is still rudimentary. Gender roles differ across cultures making it difficult to obtain objective results about the influence of gender on learners' language strategy use. Similarly, other variables, such as motivation, proficiency and learners' beliefs about language learning are all the parts of a whole that cannot be analysed separately. Thus, only gender alone may not be enough to explain learners' strategy use patterns because other psychological, cultural and social factors may also influence

strategy use patterns. Despite the finding from the abovementioned studies that females use more language learning strategies than males, it does not mean that they are more successful or proficient in language than males because a meaningful connection was not found between gender and language proficiency (Green & Oxford, 1995).

### *Language Proficiency*

The relationship between language learning strategies and language proficiency has also been the focus of research. This relationship is two-fold on grounds that it is either about the influence of learners' reported language proficiency on their strategy use patterns or the impact of strategy training on learners' language proficiency, which is also the research question of this study.

The results from studies that deal with the question if learners' perceived language proficiency level creates a difference in their language learning strategy use patterns (Rokhsari, 2012; Phakiti, 2003; Teng, 1998) reveal that learners with higher proficiency levels use language learning strategies more effectively and frequently. In other words, more successful or proficient learners use a higher number of strategies more effectively compared to less successful or proficient learners. However, as discussed in earlier chapters, a significant relationship was not found between these two variables in some studies (Shang, 2011). Therefore, it can be argued that language proficiency alone may not account for learners' strategy use patterns for other factors; e.g., motivation, learning styles, task requirements, etc..., may also interfere with learners' tendencies to use language learning strategies.

The results from studies that examine the effect of strategy instruction on learners' language proficiency (Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Carrier, 2003; Cross, 2009; Wagner, 2010; Bozorgian & Pillay 2013; Rokhsari, 2012; Phakiti, 2003) indicate that strategy training has a positive impact on learners' language proficiency. However, it can be claimed that the results from these studies cannot be generalized to all contexts because they did not have pure research designs in which other variables such as motivation or the effect of time spent learning the language were excluded. The finding from Cross' (2009) study that control group learners who did not receive any strategy instruction also improve their listening proficiency supports the idea that it is not only strategy instruction alone but

a combination of interrelated variables that leads to an improvement in learners' language proficiency.

### *Learning Styles*

Learning styles are defined as “biological and developmental set of personal traits that make the similar teaching method great for some learners and ineffective for others” (Dunn & Griggs, 1988). The merge of language learning strategies and learning styles is considered an educational necessity (Cohen & Weaver, 2006). The rationale behind combining language learning strategies with learning styles is that learning strategies can be customized in accordance with learners' learning styles. As a result, language learning strategy instruction may be more personalized considering the individual learning styles in contrast to the approach that suggests standard strategy instruction models regardless of individual differences.

Styles and strategies -based instruction (SSBI) model developed by Cohen and Weaver (2006) successfully merges learning styles and language learning strategies. The model focuses on the personalization of strategies in accordance with learners' learning style preferences. Similarly, SSBI aims to raise learners' awareness about the language learning strategies they already use and help them use these strategies purposefully and systematically (Cohen & Weaver, 2006).

Cohen and Weaver (2006) caution that learners' learning styles cannot be marked as good or bad, because they are only personal preferences and may change over time as a result of strategy instruction. For this reason, curriculum developers and teachers may pay attention to not emphasising some language learning strategies over others because each learner has their unique style of learning that will also influence the repertoire of effective language learning strategies for them. Similarly, teachers may raise learners' awareness about the fact that there is no prescribed set of effective language learning strategies that fit well for all learners, but they develop their own repertoire of effective strategies as they gain insights into how they learn, process information or handle anxiety.



### *Beliefs about Language Learning*

The focus on the role of individual's thoughts, feelings, and attitudes in learning was actually triggered by the Rogers' humanistic approach that emphasised what the learners/individuals bring to learning process (Gabillon, 2005). Research on beliefs about learning is based on two strands that are rooted in cognitive psychology and social constructivism (Gabillon, 2005). In the view of cognitive psychology, beliefs are stable and a part of metacognitive knowledge which is formed through individual cognitive processes. Social constructivist view suggests that beliefs are contextual/situational and are a part of sociocultural knowledge that is formed through social interaction/transaction. However, going one step beyond these discussions, it is also argued that beliefs about language learning, on their own, are a form of knowledge (Gabillon, 2005).

Beliefs about language learning are closely related with learner expectations, metacognitive knowledge, sociocultural knowledge, mental and social representations, self-efficacy beliefs, locus of control, self-regulatory beliefs, motivational orientations and attributions (Gabillon, 2005). A highly motivated learner may hold positive beliefs about language learning such as 'language learning is fun' while an unmotivated learner may believe that language learning is a challenge they cannot overcome. Similarly, positive representations may lead to openness to interaction with others and xenophile (Zarate, Gohard-Radenkovic, Lussier & Pens, 2004). Learners who hold positive self-efficacy beliefs may also approach language learning tasks with a positive attitude because they believe that they possess the required skills to execute the task successfully. It can be concluded that beliefs about language learning is a broader concept that covers motivational orientations and self-efficacy beliefs, which are to be discussed in greater detail in the following sections.

Beliefs about language learning may refer to any belief that learners hold about language learning and the language itself; e.g., beliefs about the nature of language, about the language learning activity, about possible outcomes of learning and about learners' personal language learning strengths and weaknesses (Sakui & Gaies, 1999). In a similar vein, Victori & Lockhart (1995) propose that beliefs about language learning are "overall judgements that learners have about themselves as learners, about factors that impact language learning, and about the nature of language learning and teaching". Furthermore, Horwitz (1987) developed Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) that is composed of five categories; i.e., foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language

learning, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivations

The realization of the significant role of beliefs about language learning in language learning gave way to the investigation of the relationship between beliefs about language learning and language learning strategies, proficiency and motivation. (Yang, 1999; Kim, 2001; Liao & Chiang, 2004; Sakui & Gaies, 1999; Saeb & Zamani, 2013). Research revealed a bidirectional relationship between language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning instead of mono-directional one (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Yang, 1999). In other words, it is not only that learners' beliefs about language learning define the strategies they use but also that language learning strategies they use shape their beliefs about language learning. Similarly, Wenden (1987) found that learners' beliefs about how to learn a language best was consistent with the strategies they used, a learner who thinks that learning the formal rules of a language is the most effective way to learn a language uses formal practice strategies.

Kim (2001) carried out a study with sixty Korean students and found that students who held high motivational and self-efficacy beliefs also used language learning strategies frequently. A similar result came from Yang's (1999) study who suggested a cyclical relationship between language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning. Hong (2006) also found that learners who thought that speaking English was easier than understanding English used the strategy of practising speaking with native speakers more often. On the other hand, research also indicates that certain beliefs about language learning may also inhibit the use of some strategies (Horwitz, 1988). Hong (2006) found that learners who believe that formal learning is important used social and practice strategies less often.

Considering the cyclical relationship between beliefs about language learning and LLS, gaining insights into their learners' beliefs about language learning may be instrumental in predicting learners' strategy use patterns, their motivational orientations and expectations. Thus, teachers can define learners' goals and design language learning activities and assessment methods accordingly. However, only understanding learners' beliefs may not be enough, it is also critical to understand which of these beliefs are functional or dysfunctional (Benson & Lor; 1999). Teachers need to be careful to deal with learners' dysfunctional beliefs- beliefs which refrain learners from realizing their full potential in

language learning- “as this will enable to assess their readiness for autonomy” (Ellis, 2001).

### *Motivation*

Motivation is one of the key components in language learning for it is related with a number of other key concepts in learning; e.g., self-regulation, orientations and self-determination (Ellis, 2001) and language learning strategies; in truth, motivation regulates the level of engagement in second language learning (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Vandergift, 2005; Baleghizadeh & Rahimi, 2011). Gardner (2001), who views motivation as a determinant of success in language learning, argues that language learning strategies may not be used when learners lack motivation to learn the second/foreign language.

Wolters (2003) argues that motivation can be defined both as a product/state or a process. When defined as a state, it can simply be defined as the internal desire, emotion, impulse that makes a person start and complete an activity. When defined as a process, motivation refers to the processes that shape learners’ interest, their feelings of self-efficacy and the influence of these states on their learning behaviours. Similarly, a distinction between motivation and orientation is made; it is argued that orientations are “the long-range goals that learners have for learning a language and learners might demonstrate particular orientations but be weakly and strongly motivated to achieve their goals” (Ellis, 2001). In sum, the study of motivation covers not only levels of motivation as a state, but also the processes that lie behind these levels of motivation (Wolters, 2003).

Research (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Vandergift, 2005; Baleghizadeh & Rahimi, 2011) reveals that motivation and language learning strategies are interrelated. These studies point to a positive correlation between motivation and language learning strategies. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) argue that motivation, among other factors that have impact on strategy selection, was the strongest influence. Their results show that students with higher motivation levels use language learning strategies more often than the students with low levels of motivation do. Likewise, Gardner (2001) suggests that students who use motivational regulation strategies have a higher possibility of getting better grades than students who do not regulate their motivation. As discussed in earlier chapters, Vandergift (2005) found that amotivation and listening strategies were negatively correlated. In other words, learners with low levels of motivation tended to use listening strategies less.

Similarly, Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011) found a positive correlation between intrinsic-extrinsic motivation and listening strategies but no correlation between amotivation and listening strategies. It can be concluded that high level of motivation fosters learners' strategy use because motivated learners have the desire to perform well. On the other hand, less motivated or unmotivated learners do not attempt to use language learning strategies as they lack the motivation to succeed.

Considering the significant role of motivation in shaping learners' language strategy use, curriculum designers and teachers may put a balanced emphasis on both strategy training and keeping learners highly motivated. This may be achieved by setting meaningful goals, designing achievable tasks in which learners can use the language learning strategies purposefully and creating an authentic learning context which inform learners of the reasons for and value of using language learning strategies. Similarly, learners may be encouraged to reflect on their experiences as they learn using language learning strategies in order to gain insights into their self-perception of their cognitive, metacognitive and affective status.

### *Self-Efficacy*

Self-efficacy can be defined as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 1986). In other words, self-efficacy beliefs are learners’ specific judgements about their cognitively perceived capabilities based on whether they can successfully deal with a task or not (Çubukçu, 2008). Self-efficacy may be the predictor of academic achievement, motivation and self-regulation. Wolters (2003) argues that the role of self-efficacy in motivation is a self-regulatory process that deals with the self- regulation of motivation.

Self-efficacy may be interrelated with concepts such as self-concept, self-regulation and self-esteem; however, it is possible to make distinctions among these concepts. Self-concept covers not only individuals’ cognitive perceptions about whether they possess the required abilities to achieve a task or not but also their responses to their affective status. It can be argued that self-efficacy is the predictor of self-concept, self-esteem and self-regulation while self-concept, self-esteem and self-regulation have an impact on learners’ self-efficacy beliefs (Çubukçu, 2008).

Research (Yang, 1999; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Yılmaz, 2010) indicates a meaningful relationship between learners' self- efficacy and their use of language learning strategies. Self-efficacious learners are reported to use language learning strategies more often than learners who report lower self-efficacy beliefs do. Based on her findings, Yang (1999) points to a strong relationship between language learning strategies, specifically functional practice strategies, and learners' self-efficacy beliefs, suggesting a cyclical relationship between these two variables. The cyclical relationship between learners' self-efficacy beliefs and their use of language learning strategies can also be associated with the relationship between use of LLS and language proficiency. Learners become more proficient in the target language as they learn to use LLS effectively and their improved proficiency may contribute to a positive image of their self; thus, promoting their self-efficacy beliefs. This cyclical relationship may also cover learner motivation and self-regulation.

A similar result supporting the relationship between LLS and self-efficacy is from Yılmaz's (2010) study in which he investigated the relationship between gender, proficiency, self-efficacy beliefs and LLS. He found that students who reported to be highly self-efficacious used cognitive, compensation and metacognitive strategies more often than the students who reported to be less self-efficacious did. Similarly, Magogwe and Oliver (2007) argue that there is a dynamic relationship between LLS and self-efficacy based on the results of their study that focuses on the relationship between age, proficiency, self-efficacy beliefs and LLS.

The positive interrelation between LLS and self- efficacy beliefs is another reason why how to use LLS should be taught to learners. As the results from abovementioned studies show, learners who use LLS more often also have high self-efficacy beliefs. Learners' positive beliefs about their self- efficacy is not only important to foster their performance in language learning but also to keep them motivated and help them become self-regulated learners.

### *Culture*

Culture defines how we are expected to think, speak, feel, get dressed, eat, etc... in typical life situations and becomes an inseparable part of our character (Bedell & Oxford, 1996). As Brown (1980) puts it, culture pertains to “ideas, customs, skills, arts and tools which

characterize a group of people in a given period of time”. The culture not only shapes the way people think and express themselves, but it also influences how individuals learn, how they learn a foreign language and what type of strategies they prefer while learning a foreign language. Learners may tend to behave in culturally and socially approved ways when they learn a language because they want to avoid feeling uncomfortable due to digressing from the norm (Bedell & Oxford, 1996).

Various studies (Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Bedell & Oxford, 1996; Deneme, 2010; Grainger, 2012) on the impact of culture on learners’ language learning strategy preferences of language learning strategies are extant in the literature. Three main divisions of culture are generally defined in these studies: western culture that covers North America, Europe, Australia, Asian culture and Hispanic culture that covers South America. The nationalities are closely linked with culture; thus, these studies have associated culture with nationalities, too.

Language learners with different cultural backgrounds are prone to using certain types of learning strategies more frequently. To illustrate the point, Asian foreign language learners tend to use rote-learning and memorization strategies more often and they favour them over communicative language learning strategies (Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). On the other hand, Politzer & McGroarty (1985) found that Hispanic students did not use rote-learning strategies; they tended to use strategies that encourage interaction instead.

Similarly, the results of Griffiths and Paar’s (2000) study revealed that European students used language learning strategies more often than students with different nationalities because of cultural aspirations, the grammar of their languages and educational backgrounds. Taiwanese students were found to use memorization strategies the most often compared to any other group and Japanese learners were inclined to use control-based strategies that avoid interaction (Oxford, 1994). In addition, in her study which compared Turkish, Jordanian and Spanish learners of EFL, Deneme (2010) found that Jordanian and Turkish students used rote-learning and affective strategies while Spanish students had a stronger preference for social learning strategies. However, Bedell and Oxford (1996) also found that Asian students did not use traditional strategies significantly, but preferred using compensation strategies more often instead.

Culture impacts learners' strategy use patterns; however, learners also have the flexibility to adapt into changing learning environments despite the fact that the new learning environment requires changing their established patterns of strategy use. Grainger (2012) argues that learners who are accustomed to living abroad may be more open to experimenting with different strategy use patterns and less inclined to stick to traditional strategies based on his finding that students from different cultures who were learning Japanese as a foreign language in Australia used similar communication strategies. Language strategy instruction may also push learners into broadening their horizons and experiment with new language learning strategies that are outside their familiar cultural zones. However, there should be a smooth transition between "culturally valid strategies that learners already use" (Oxford, 2011) and other strategies which may or may not be culturally familiar.

### **Language Learning Strategies Instruction**

The presupposition that only good language learners can use LLS because using them effectively requires a certain level of proficiency may not be well-grounded; on the contrary, LLS are teachable to all learners (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014) to help them become self-regulated learners. It might be true that successful language learners use strategies that make a difference in their achievement. However, the one-size-fits-all approach that involves teaching the LLS used by good language learners to less successful learners may not prove to be useful because each learner has individual differences that make certain LLS effective or ineffective for them (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014).

Learners do not improve their learning performance just by imitating someone else; on the contrary, strategy instruction is a more complex process (Oxford & Leaver, 1996). Thus, the purpose of LLS instruction should be equipping learners with the set of skills that will help them shape their own customized patterns of strategy use. LLS instruction should facilitate self-regulation of learning and regulation of motivation so that learners may grow more self-regulated, autonomous and motivated as a result of language strategy training.

A number of questions arise when language learning strategy instruction is under investigation. Should LLS instruction be direct or indirect? Should LLS be taught separately or in an integrative/embedded fashion? What should be the language of LLS instruction? Should learners be trained in their first language (L1) or the target/second

language (L2)? Designing LLS instruction programmes requires having these questions answered beforehand. This chapter is to deal with discussions around these questions. In addition, a discussion on the components of effective strategy instruction is presented. These components include the explicitness/directness of strategy instruction, considering learner variables, selection of strategies to be taught, designing and selecting appropriate textbook and materials, training teachers on strategy instruction and strategy assessment. The chapter ends with brief introductions of LLS programs extant in the literature.

### **Direct and Indirect Instruction**

One of the issues in LLS instruction is whether they should be taught directly or embedded in language learning activities. Direct strategy instruction involves informing learners of the purpose and value of strategy training (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Learners are aware of the LLS and the purpose of these LLS they are learning; thus, they develop strategic consciousness. However, in indirect/blind/implicit strategy instruction, learners are not overtly informed of the strategies they are learning; on the contrary, the strategies are embedded in language activities and learners are expected to elicit the strategies they need to learn. Learners are not made aware that they are involved in strategy training, it is presumed that they will develop strategic competence by osmosis (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

These two approaches have their strengths and limitations. Overt/direct strategy instruction is favoured over embedded strategy instruction because it fosters strategic awareness and facilitates the transferability of strategies to new learning situations (Chamot, 2005). In addition, metacognitive aspect of overt strategy instruction, which involves training learners in regulation and monitoring of strategies, adds to the sustainability and transferability of language learning strategies (Brown et. al, 1983; Brown & Palincsar, 1982). To put it differently, learners' strategic awareness helps them to continue using strategies even when the instruction is over and use the LLS they learn in new language learning situations. Direct strategy instruction may also foster learners' motivation because they are informed of the purpose and importance of the training they receive.

However, implicit strategy instruction rarely results in strategic consciousness because the purpose and value of learning strategies are not explicitly taught (Oxford & Leaver, 1996). Learners are expected to elicit the strategies cued in the activities, but all learners may not



be good at elicitation, which hinders the development of strategic consciousness. Because learners are not made aware of the strategies they have learned, they cannot develop the skill of transferring the strategies they learn to new situations, either. As such, it can be argued that blind strategy training lacks the metacognitive aspect on grounds that sustainability and transferability of LLS are not possible in this type of strategy instruction. Due to these reasons, learners have less chances of being autonomous (Wenden, 1998). Uninformed strategy training may not create motivated learners because they do not face anything new in their regular instruction and they are not informed of their purposes for learning. One positive aspect of implicit strategy training is cited as the lack of need for teacher training (Jones, 1983).

### **Separate and Integrative Instruction**

Another issue in strategy instruction is whether to teach strategies as a stand-alone course or to combine strategy instruction with other courses that focus on content teaching. Separate strategy instruction mainly deals with teaching strategies without integration into regular L2 instruction (Oxford, 2011). The idea is that strategy training is less time-consuming when the burden of dealing with the content material is removed and adults with limited time may prefer separate strategy instruction over integrated strategy instruction (Wenden, 1986). Similarly, proponents of separate strategy instruction defend that LLS are generalizable to different contexts (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) and; thus, they may be taught separately to allow learners to apply them to all learning situations they experience. *Learning to Learn English: A Course in Learner Training* authored by Ellis and Sinclair (1989) and Rubin (1996)' videodisc program are two examples of materials that teach strategies as a separate course.

In integrative strategy instruction, strategy training is integrated into “regular language instruction” (Oxford, 2011) rather than presenting it in a separate course. Learners are both informed of strategies and given the chance to apply the strategies with authentic learning tasks (Chamot, 2004; Grenfell & Harris, 1999). Applying strategies in real learning tasks fosters the transfer of strategies to new learning situations (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990); however, Gu (1996) opposes this view arguing that learners are less likely to transfer the strategies to other learning situations when they are trained in integrative courses. In addition, Weinstein and Mayer (1986) claim that integrative strategy training requires extra

time and effort for teacher training because the teachers may not be prepared while teacher training is not needed in separate strategy instruction because teachers' main focus is strategy training. Considering the advantages and disadvantages of separate and integrative training, it may be a good idea for teachers who adopt either separate or integrative training to "communicate often and provide scaffolding across courses" (Oxford, 2011) to facilitate the optimal efficiency of strategy instruction.

### **The Language of Learning Strategy Instruction**

Strategy training can be conducted either in learners' first language (L1) or in the foreign language they are learning. The interplay between the medium and content in language teaching gets fuzzier when it comes to LLS instruction. While the medium is also the content in language teaching, strategy instruction becomes the third component: Should it be only the content being taught but also the medium through which content is taught?

For novice language learners, strategy instruction may sound complex if it is conducted in the target language (Oxford, 2011) because they "do not have the L2 proficiency to understand explanations of why and how to use learning strategies" (Chamot, 2005). However, delaying LLS instruction to advanced levels so as to conduct the training in the target language will prevent beginner learners from exploiting the benefits of LLS instruction (Chamot, 2005). Therefore, using L1 in LLS instruction for beginner to intermediate level learners seems to be unavoidable (Macaro, 2001).

However, with more advanced learners who have grown competent enough to understand metacognitive concepts in the foreign language, the target language may be used so that strategy instruction will serve both to teach strategies and the foreign language at the same time (Oxford, 2011). To avoid any confusion or misunderstanding, teachers may constantly use comprehension checks and choose to switch between the native and foreign language. There may be cases in which learners fail to understand the purpose or the application of a complex strategy when it is explained in the foreign language, or they may want to feel confident that they have understood clearly. In these situations, teachers may take an initiative to choose which language to use. Teachers should not feel obliged to stick to using either only the learners' first language or foreign language during LLS instruction. On the contrary, they are allowed to switch between the first language and foreign language based on their mutual agreement with their learners. This mutual agreement

refers to teachers' and learners' satisfaction with the clarity of the instruction whatever the language of instruction is.

There are examples of strategy training applications using both L1 and the foreign language. In Grenfell and Harris' (1999) strategy training, some of the training materials such as the ones that require learners plan and evaluate their work were in the first language while some other materials; e.g., checklists, strategy training activities were in the foreign language. However, Ozeki (2000) designed questionnaires, journals and self-assessment charts in simple English but allowed learners to respond in the foreign language being learnt, which was also the method used in this study.

Considering the factors discussed so far, it can be argued that teachers or curriculum developers may decide which language to use during strategy instruction considering learners' proficiency level, especially their listening and reading proficiency, learning context and learner characteristics because the language of LLS instruction is considered to be a context-specific issue (Chamot, 2005).

### **Components of Effective Strategy Instruction**

There are a number of points to consider before designing a strategy instruction program. The first points to consider are whether it should be explicit/ direct or uninformed/ indirect and whether it should be separate or embedded. Similarly, the language of strategy instruction is to be defined. Secondly, it is important to analyse learner characteristics; e.g., proficiency levels, gender, learning styles, sociocultural background, etc..., so that the strategies to be taught and strategy training activities can be selected accordingly. Thirdly, selection of appropriate textbooks and materials to be used in strategy instruction is another process that should be handled keeping strategy instruction goals and strategy assessment methods in mind.

Another issue is training teachers because all language teachers may not be equipped with skills to train learners in why and how to use language learning strategies (Weistein & Mayer, 1986). Finally, defining modes of strategy assessment is one of the key components of designing LLS strategy instruction for it helps learners realize their strengths and weaknesses. The effectiveness of strategy instruction lies in making the right choices about the above-mentioned issues before designing a LLS instruction program

(Oxford, 2011). In the following sections, the components of effective LLS instruction are discussed in detail.

### *Explicitness*

Explicit strategy instruction refers to the type of instruction in which learners are informed of the purpose and the value of each strategy they learn. They are also taught how to apply the strategies. It is commonly agreed that effective strategy instruction should be explicit (Chamot, 2005; Carrier, 2003; Oxford & Leaver, 1996; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) because learners may not be able to elicit the strategies themselves when the strategies are not overtly demonstrated. Explicit/informed strategy instruction is favoured over blind/uninformed strategy instruction for it fosters strategic awareness and transferability of LLS to other tasks/ activities (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford & Leaver, 1996).

Oxford and Leaver (1996) analysed degrees of consciousness in strategy training as no consciousness, awareness, attention, intentionality and control. In blind strategy training, learners are at no consciousness level because they are not aware that they are being trained in strategies; thus, they probably may not achieve strategic awareness or use strategies intentionally and gain control over their strategy use, which hinders the desired outcomes of strategy instruction; i.e., learner autonomy, increased motivation, improved learning performance. However, explicit strategy instruction helps learners use the strategies intentionally although it may not always result in control over strategy use and transferability of strategies (Oxford & Leaver, 1996).

### *Considering Learner Variables in Selection of Strategies*

Recognizing learner characteristics so as to make the right choices while designing a LLS program is one of the steps that determines its effectiveness (Oxford, 2011). These learner variables include gender, proficiency level, sociocultural background, learning styles, their strategic consciousness level and beliefs about language learning (Oxford, 2011). Females are reported to be more frequent strategy users compared to males (Green & Oxford, 1995; Punithavalli, 2003; Oxford, 1993) although there are studies that indicate vice versa (Zamri, as cited in Zeynali, 2012). Curriculum developers can keep this in mind while

identifying the strategies learners already use and may decide to focus on training male learners in the strategies they lack compared to female learners.

Similarly, learners' proficiency level is a determinant of which strategies they use and how they use them. Learners with high proficiency levels are reported to use strategies more frequently and effectively compared to learners with low proficiency levels (Rokhsari, 2012; Phakiti, 2003; Teng, 1998); however, low proficiency learners were also reported to use strategies as frequently as learners with high proficiency (Shang, 2011). Based on these findings about learners' proficiency levels and their strategy use patterns, teachers may focus on paying extra attention to compensating the gap between strategy repertoires of learners with high and low proficiency by designing extra activities aimed at low proficiency learners. They can also help learners understand why the strategies they use are useful or not by helping them gain strategic intentionality through learning logs or diaries because keeping diaries foster strategic awareness (Oxford & Leaver, 1996). In this way, they may grow competent in choosing effective strategies according to the type of the activity/task.

Another learner variable to acknowledge is learners' sociocultural background. As discussed in earlier chapters, culture and social values impact learners' strategy use patterns (Bedell & Oxford, 1996) because the strategies they use reflect their perception of how they learn. For example, Asian learners were reported to use rote-learning strategies more often compared to Hispanic or Western learners, which may imply that rote-learning is common and favoured in Asian cultures (Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Similarly, learners raised in a culture that values social interaction and communication may tend to use social strategies more often or they may prefer to stick to cognitive strategies if speaking in public is not welcomed in their culture. Learners' sociocultural values need to be well-analysed so as to avoid any clash of teaching and learning processes. The strategies being taught to learners should not conflict with their culturally accepted set of strategies; otherwise, learners may display resistance (Bedell & Oxford, 1996). Based on an analysis of learners' culturally accepted set of strategies they already use, teachers and curriculum developers may be careful to create a balance between teaching new strategies and avoiding clashes with their cultural values.

Learning styles are also related with learners' choice of strategies (Cohen & Weaver, 2006). Understanding whether the learners have a global or analytic, closure-oriented or open, visual, auditory or kinaesthetic, field-dependent or field-independent learning style

may help define the strategies to be taught in accordance with their learning styles. Learners may be more motivated to use the strategies that suit their learning styles (Cohen & Weaver, 2006). Similarly, they may have higher tolerance for strategy training because it complements the way they learn, which makes LLS instruction work better for them.

Identifying learners' strategic consciousness level prior to strategy training is instrumental in selection of strategies that learners can benefit from (Oxford & Leaver, 1996). It is likely that all learners may not have similar degrees of consciousness; some of them may not be aware of the strategies they use at all while some others may already be using strategies purposefully. There might even be learners who can evaluate the effectiveness of their strategy use and transfer the strategies to new tasks. These learners with varying levels of strategic consciousness may need personalized strategy training to make it effective for them. One size fits all approach may not work because a strategy that is new to a learner with no strategy consciousness will have already been mastered by a learner who has reached the control level in strategic consciousness (Oxford & Leaver, 1996).

Finally, learners' beliefs about language learning; which are influenced by their culture, personality and other factors; and which influence their self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, and attitudes towards strategy training (Ellis, 2001); need to be well-understood to design an effective LLS program (Oxford, 2011). This is needed to select the right strategies that will comply with these beliefs of them. Learners may hold the belief that profound knowledge of grammar and vocabulary is needed to be successful in foreign language learning and teachers may begin with focusing on training the learners in vocabulary and grammar learning strategies and then move onto other strategies to provide a smooth transition from the familiar to the unfamiliar. Similarly, learners may hold negative self-efficacy beliefs about their language learning skills; therefore, teachers may deal with training learners in affective strategies that may help transform their self-efficacy beliefs from negative to positive (Ellis, 2001).

### ***Textbooks and Materials***

Language strategy training is generally based on pre-designed curriculums/programs. These curriculums/programs require the use of textbooks and materials that focus primarily on strategy instruction. A considerable number of textbooks by different authors are extant in the literature. In their study that analysed the language learning strategy training

textbooks and materials, in three different countries, i.e.; Netherlands, the UK and the USA, Hajer, Meestringa, Park and Oxford (1996) found three typologies. The first one is textbooks that teach strategies embedded in language learning activities. Examples of these strategy training textbooks include *Passages: Exploring Spoken English* authored by James in 1993. It can be argued that most of EFL course books are within this category because language learning activities may automatically trigger the use of some strategies embedded in them. The authors may or may not consciously plan implicit strategy training; however, teacher's approach to the textbook and learners' willingness to adopt a strategic approach to their learning may result in implicit strategy training via the textbook.

The second type of language strategy training textbooks that Hajer et al. analysed are the ones that teach strategies directly; in other words, LLS are introduced overtly to learners and the purpose of language activities is to help learners practise using the strategies. These textbooks are labelled as learner guide books by Hajer et al. (1996). *Learning to Learn English: A Course in Learner Training* authored by Ellis and Sinclair (1989) and *How to Be A More Successful Language Learner* authored by Rubin and Thompson (1994) are only two examples of LLS training coursebooks that primarily focus on teaching learners not only the foreign language but also how to learn it by equipping them with the strategies through language activities particularly designed for strategy instruction. The main distinction between the first and second category of LLS training textbooks is that the first typology textbooks provide embedded strategy instruction integrated into language learning activities while the second typology textbooks provide separate strategy instruction in which strategies are introduced as stand-alone activities, not integrated into language learning activities.

The third typology is self-directed strategy training materials presented to learners to supplement their language learning outside the classroom. An example of this type of strategy training materials is found in Park-Oh (1994)' study in which she trained learners in reading strategies through take-home print materials. Learners worked on these print materials on their own without the guidance of the teacher. This independent mode of studying facilitates self-regulation of learning and autonomy, which leads to greater sustainability and transferability of LLS (Wenden, 1998.). Computer-based materials developed for LLS instruction (Rubin, 1996) can also be considered as materials that foster self-directed learning. Rubin (1996)'s strategy training software consisted of a video-disc that contained activities that train learners' in language learning strategies via involvement

in learning more than twenty different foreign languages. In other words, the software did not attempt to teach language strategies through only one foreign language.

Teachers and curriculum developers need to be cautious about the qualities of the textbooks they design and select to use in their teaching. To begin with, these textbooks or materials should suit learners' proficiency levels, learning styles, needs and characteristics (Hajer et al., 1996). Secondly, textbooks should put a balanced emphasis on training learners in different types of strategies; i.e., cognitive, metacognitive, social, affective, compensation and communication strategies, which is a must that is repeatedly underscored by strategy researchers (Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Scarcella, 1994). Thirdly, it is important that these strategies are explicitly presented in the textbook with the clear explanations of why and how to use these strategies. Fourthly, the strategies being taught need redundancy, in other words, a strategy should not be introduced only once and never revisited. On the contrary, the strategies should be recycled, learners should encounter one learning strategy at least three times embedded in language activities or separately presented along with language activities throughout the coursebook. Finally, the textbooks should have follow up activities in which learners assess the effectiveness of their strategy use and analyse their strengths and weaknesses (Hajer et al., 1996). These follow up sections also facilitate learners' maintenance and transfer of LLS. However, choosing the right textbook or the materials for LLS instruction may not be enough; there should be a congruency between what is in the textbook and what goes on in the classroom. Similarly, teachers should create a balance between sticking to and diverging from the textbook.

### ***Training Teachers in Language Learning Strategies***

Language learning strategy instruction requires trained teachers who know how to teach strategies explicitly; therefore, teacher training is as important as learner training in LLS (Chamot, 2005). However, teacher training in LLS has not received enough attention until the end of 1980's when the learner-centred approach brought by language learning strategies urged a renewed approach in teacher training, too. Training teachers in integrating LLS into their teaching may not be enough, making teachers believe that LLS will be useful in improving their learners' performance is crucial, too (Chamot, 2005). In other words, teachers' beliefs about LLS instruction need to be reshaped in a positive way. In addition, it is argued that teachers need to be exposed to learning the strategies rather



than teaching them and they need plenty of applications in planning and giving language strategy instruction (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Effective teacher training in LLS has a number of qualities. Teacher training in LLS should be overt and embedded (Oxford & Nyikos, 1996), which are also the qualities of effective strategy training for language learners. In other words, teachers should be explicitly taught what the purpose and value of the strategies are for the learners and how to teach the application of these strategies. Secondly, teachers should regularly ask for feedback from learners because what is already known to the teacher may not be known to the learner (Oxford & Nyikos, 1996). Learners' feedback helps teachers monitor whether learners have understood the purpose, value and application of the LLS correctly or not. It is also important to balance the gap between teachers' and learners' strategic competence. Thirdly, teachers may show resistance to adopting LLS into their teaching when they receive course-oriented and instructor-controlled training; therefore, teacher training in LLS should give teachers the chance to practise teaching LLS without any external control (Oxford & Nyikos, 1996). Fourthly, equipping teachers with procedural knowledge of teaching LLS and the skills of teaching a variety of strategies rather than a fixed set of strategies are some other key aspects of effective teacher training in LLS (Oxford & Nyikos, 1996).

Integrating LLS into their teaching experience may not be welcomed by all teachers due to the fact that it requires divergence from their accustomed methods of teaching. In their study in which they analysed the success of teachers in integrating LLS into their teaching as they received training, Oxford and Nyikos (1996) examined the lesson plans of the teachers who participated in the study to understand whether these lesson plans met the effective LLS instruction criteria; i.e., teaching a variety of strategies, teaching how to use LLS and explicitness in teaching. They found that some teachers were resisters, some of them were middle-grounders and some were assimilators. The resisters were unsuccessful in teaching LLS; they did not shift away from traditional mode of teaching in which learners passively absorb knowledge. Interactive and learner centred activities were absent from the resisters' lesson plans. Middle-grounders; however, were more successful than resisters in incorporating LLS into their classroom activities, but they lacked integrated instruction. That is to say, they taught LLS in separate activities and thought that these activities automatically triggered the use of strategies by learners, which was a false assumption. On the contrary, assimilators were the teachers who successfully integrated

LLS into their language teaching. They were effective time- managers and designed activities that had smooth transitions and integration of LLS into them. The activities in their lesson plans were interactive and learner centred; they knew how to put themselves in their learners' shoes. Oxford and Nyikos (1996) caution that both novice and experienced teachers should receive an overt and clearly-modelled instruction. Experienced teachers may possess both declarative and procedural knowledge while novice teachers possess knowledge of facts; however, the conceptual shift from a traditional approach to a new one brings both novice and experienced teachers to the same level.

### *Strategy Assessment*

Language learning strategy instruction may remain incomplete without strategy assessment because “strategy assessment is a key component of strategy instruction” (Oxford, 2011). This covers the process in which learners' strategy use performance, their ability to transfer the strategies they have learned to new learning situations and their persistence in continuing using strategies in future learning contexts are evaluated based on pre-set criteria. These criteria may include whether learners can use the LLS with the right purposes and for the right tasks or not, whether they are aware of the value of the LLS for the task at hand or not, whether they can build the chain of strategies to handle a language task effectively or not. In addition, learners' ability to transfer and sustain LSS may be among the assessment criteria.

Strategy assessment is necessary not only to assess the effectiveness of learners' strategy use but also the effectiveness of the teacher (Oxford & Nyikos, 1996). It can be claimed that learners who can use LLS purposefully to accomplish language tasks, build strategy chains, transfer LLS to new learning situations and keep using LLS after they have completed LLS instruction are indicators of teacher effectiveness, too. In other words, there is a reciprocal relationship between teachers' effectiveness and learners' strategy use effectiveness (Oxford & Nyikos, 1996).

Strategy assessment is necessary because learners may not always be doing what teachers instruct them to do. They may not be using the best combination of strategies or using strategies other than those that their teachers expect them to use (Oxford & Leaver). A number of assessment techniques may be used: observations, verbal reports, semi-structured interviews, discussions, self-assessment and peer assessment checklists, think-

aloud protocols, self-reports and questionnaires (Chamot, 2005; Oxford, 2011). Oxford (1990) cautions that sharing the assessment results with learners as interpretative feedback is necessary. She suggests group discussions about learners' strategy assessment results so that learners can recognise each other and learn about new language learning strategies. Similarly, Oxford (2011) outlines a number of key issues at the outset of strategy assessment. The first one is to choose between self-reports and other reports. Oxford (2011) lists negative and positive aspects of both and suggests that teachers select in accordance with their assessment purposes. The second issue is that "strategy assessment must be culturally attuned to learners' sociocultural situation" (Oxford, 2011) arguing that strategies considered effective in a culture may not be valued in another. Oxford (2011) also suggests that both qualitative and quantitative assessment be used.

Examples of strategy assessment applications are present in the literature. In her study with adult learners of French as a foreign language, Baily (1996) used a computer software to assess learners' writing strategy use. The software kept track of the writing strategies that the participants used during the completion of writing assignments. Baily (1996) concludes that using computer software to observe and assess learners' strategy use patterns is useful and worth further research.

### **Models of Language Learning Strategy Instruction**

Planning LLS instruction is of importance because it is one of the factors that define its effectiveness. As previously discussed, effective strategy instruction models share some common qualities, e.g. explicitness, integration into regular language instruction, textbook and material development, training teachers in LLS instruction, inclusion of strategy assessment and considering learner variables (Chamot, 2005; Oxford, 2011). An analysis of various strategy instruction models reveals that the initial step into developing a LLS instruction model is recognising learners' characteristics; e.g., their existent strategy use patterns, beliefs about language learning, sociocultural backgrounds, motivation levels, self-efficacy beliefs, learning styles and language proficiency levels, because the strategies to be taught in the model are to be defined considering these learner characteristics in mind.

There are many language learning strategy instruction models in the literature. However, the more recent models that have clear outlines are within the scope of this section. One of

the strategy instruction models that is to be focused on is Oxford's Eight Step Model (1990). Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) by O'Malley & Chamot (1990), Macaro's Phases of Strategy Instruction (2001), Grenfell & Harris' Model (1999) and Styles and Strategies Based Instruction (SSBI) by Cohen and Weaver (2006) are also among the strategy instruction models about which brief information is to be given in this chapter.

### ***Oxford's Eight Step Model***

Putting emphasis on defining learners' needs prior to instruction, the model suggests eight steps in language learning strategy instruction. The first step is defining learner needs and duration of the instruction. As discussed earlier, having knowledge of learners' age, gender, proficiency level, motivational orientations, sociocultural background and beliefs about language learning is essential to choose the right strategies to be taught. Preparing a detailed timetable in which the times allocated for teaching, application and practice of strategies are clearly defined is also essential.

The second step covers the selection of strategies. Teaching different type of strategies; e.g., metacognitive, affective, social, rather than a single type of strategies is better. Similarly, teachers should be careful to avoid teaching strategies against which learners are culturally biased (Oxford, 1990). These strategies can be analysed through knowledge of learners' sociocultural background. Strategies to be taught need to be useful and transferable to new situations.

The third step involves the motivational aspect. In this step, teachers should determine their motivational methods, whether to use instrumental or integrative motivation. Similarly, Oxford (1990) suggests that learners should be gradually introduced to strategies that are new to their sociocultural patterns of learning and thinking; otherwise, they may refrain from learning the strategies with which they are not familiar, which may decrease their motivation. The fourth step is integration of strategy training into regular language training. This step is important because effective strategy instruction is integrative not separate. As discussed earlier, integrative LLS instruction provides the immediate context in which learners can practise the strategies they have learned, which makes learning meaningful.

The fifth step is the materials and activity preparation. The materials and activities chosen should be related to learners' goals and their interest. Learners should be given the chance to choose the materials and activities (Oxford, 1990). The sixth step is the application of overt strategy training. Oxford (1990) suggests that teachers follow this order in strategy training: Firstly, learners do the language activity without any demonstration of strategies and reflect on the strategies they use. Next, teacher explicitly demonstrates the strategies and informs learners of the purpose and value of the strategies. Thirdly, learners are given the chance to practise the strategies.

The seventh and eighth steps are evaluation and revision of strategies. Evaluation refers to the process of using self-assessments, interviews, journals or diaries and think-aloud protocols that give information about learners' strategy use performance. Teachers should set criteria to assess learners' performance. As discussed earlier, these criteria may include skill improvement, sustainability and transferability of strategies and changes in learner attitudes (Oxford, 1990). Similarly, teachers need to revise the strategies they have taught, learner characteristics that were analysed at the beginning of the training, the materials and activities they used in accordance with the teaching and learning experiences they have had throughout the instruction.

### ***Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA)***

Originally designed to foster the academic language skills of limited English proficient (LEP) learners, CALLA (Chamot & O'Malley 1990) integrates content knowledge, academic language skills and strategy instruction. In other words, the purpose of CALLA is learners' acquisition of both declarative and procedural knowledge of language learning so that they can improve their academic language skills and deepen their content knowledge. Strategy training is viewed as a tool to facilitate the acquisition of procedural knowledge.

The model theoretically considers language as a complex cognitive skill that develops through a number of stages. The principles of the model suggest that the emphasis be on the acquisition of procedural knowledge to increase learners' proficiency in the target language. In later stages, learners should be introduced to the content areas of the curriculum, which the point where the instruction program actually begins.

A lesson plan model which integrates strategy instruction, content area topics, and language activities is also suggested. Learning strategy instruction is explicit and integrated within language activities. The lesson plan has five stages, which actually overlap with the stages in Oxford's Strategic Teaching (1990): preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation and expansion. In the preparation phase, teacher surveys learners' previous learning experiences to design the lesson in accordance with learners' characteristics. Learners are informed of the learning objectives. In the presentation stage, new content knowledge is introduced. In practice stage, learners are expected to use the strategies through learner-centred activities. In the evaluation stage, learners are expected to self-assess their performance. In the expansion stage, learners are expected to transfer their strategy knowledge to new learning situations.

### ***Styles and Strategies Based Instruction (SSBI)***

The model developed by Cohen is based on the integration of strategy training with learning styles. The rationale behind the model is that the strategy training may be more effective when it is customized to learners' learning styles. That is to say, strategy instruction is harmonized with learning styles. Cohen and Weaver (2006) provide detailed language learning activities for strategy instruction and inventories for diagnosing learners' learning styles and strategies in their *Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction: A Teachers' Guide*. (2006). They reject a standard strategy training model for all learners and focus on personalized strategy instruction from the perspective of learning styles.

The phases of strategy instruction in SSBI are listed as strategy preparation, awareness-raising, instruction, practice and personalization of strategies. It can be seen that these stages are similar to the ones in previously discussed models, e.g. CALLA (O'Malley&Chamot,1990), Oxford's Eight Step Model (1990). Similarly, the model assigns roles such as diagnostician, language learner, learner trainer, coordinator and coach to the teacher (Chamot, 2005). These roles assigned to the teacher are in line with the components of SSBI. In the strategy preparation and awareness-raising phases, the teacher takes on the roles of diagnostician as they diagnose learners' existing strategy use patterns and raise their awareness of how they use the strategies and the strategies used by other learners. Similarly, teachers take on the role of learner trainer in the strategy instruction phase in which they train learners in how to use strategies. In the strategy practice phase,

teachers become language learners as they practise the strategies together with the learners. In the personalization of strategies phase, teachers take on the role of a coach as they facilitate learners' evaluation of their strategy use.

### ***Grenfell & Harris's Model***

The model, which bears resemblance to Oxford's Eight Step Model (1990), suggests a number of stages for LLS instruction. Grenfell and Harris (1999) define the first stage as awareness-raising. Similar to Oxford's first step, learners are involved in a language task and reflect on the strategies they use in this stage. This stage gives teacher the opportunity to know about their learners' background. The second stage is the modelling stage in which teachers demonstrate the strategies and inform learners of the value and purpose of the strategies.

In the next stage- general practice-, learners practise the strategies introduced to them. In the fourth stage- action planning, learners set goals for themselves and create their chain of strategies to accomplish these goals. In the focused practice stage, learners employ the chain of strategies they have defined in the action planning stage. In this stage, teacher guidance is barely existent, for it is important that learners gain autonomy in strategy use. Learners are expected to move from declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge of strategies in this stage. The final stage is the evaluation stage in which learners self-evaluate their action plan, revise it and prepare another action plan based on their evaluation of their strengths and weaknesses.

### ***Macaro's Phases of Strategy Instruction***

Underscoring the role of scaffolding in strategy instruction, Macaro (2001) suggests a cyclical nine-step model for strategy instruction. Similar to previously-mentioned models, the first phase is for raising learners' awareness of the strategies they use and analysing learners' beliefs about language learning, learning styles and attitudes. The second phase covers the identification of possible strategies that learners are already using. Macaro (2001) provides detailed explanations on how to administrate the questionnaires for exploring the strategies learners already use and how to convince learners into usefulness of LLS.

The third stage is modelling, which should be explicit and informed. Macaro (2001) argues that modelling may not be the same for all strategies and he suggests different ways to demonstrate reading, listening, writing and interactive strategies by providing sample language and scaffolding activities. Therefore, learners will understand that the application of a strategy may change according to the task, situation, the language skill process (Macaro, 2001). The fourth phase involves combining strategies for a particular purpose or activity; in other words, learners are expected to formulate their own chain/combination of strategies to accomplish a specific language task. In the fifth phase, learners use the strategies with the guidance of the teacher; in other words, they apply the strategies as they teachers provide the necessary scaffolding that needs to gradually fade away.

In the sixth phase, learners assess their strategy use based on their experience with the application of the strategies. In this phase, learners may decide to keep or quit using strategies considering their effectiveness for their learning. However, it is necessary to base the concept of strategy effectiveness on a language learning theory (Macaro, 2001). One of the criteria of strategy effectiveness can be how the strategies contribute to the improvement in learners' language proficiency. Macaro (2001) argues that learners should be able to assess not only the enhancement in their language skills but also the reasons for this enhancement.

The seventh phase is when the scaffolding is gradually removed. In this phase, learners are expected to be able to use the strategies modelled by the teacher and applied/evaluated by them independently. That is to say, they move into the procedural knowledge stage in which they use strategies automatically. Macaro (2001) suggests ways of removing the scaffolding step by step. These suggestions are involving learners in explicit strategy training less often, reminding learners of the strategy combinations when they are about to start doing a task, giving them strategy self-evaluation checklists from time to time without checking whether they have filled them in or not and inquiring learners about their preferred strategy chains for a particular language activity at regular intervals.

The eighth phase involves the general evaluation of the strategy training programme by the learners. This can be done through group discussions/interviews, surveys or summaries of journals that are kept by learners during the instruction. Assessment of the strategy instruction programme by learners may reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the programme so that teachers or programme developers may focus on improving the programme in accordance with the feedback from learners.



The ninth phase covers monitoring learners' strategy use and rewarding their effort. In truth, teachers attempt to predict sustainability of strategies in this phase; in other words, they try to understand whether their learners will continue using the strategies in the future or not. Similarly, Macaro (2001) puts emphasis on the necessity of praising the effort that learners put into strategy instruction process; because learners will display their best performance when they know their effort is appreciated.

### *Strategy Instruction Programs across the World*

The revelation that equipping language learners with the skills to create and use chains of strategies can contribute to their language learning in many aspects has triggered the development of a number of strategy instruction models around the world. Some of these programs were based on Rebecca Oxford's principles and materials for teaching language learning strategies. For example, Lavine (2008) applied integrative and explicit instruction with Spanish students at the University of Maryland. She employed additional classroom activities to teach strategies; and discussions and journals to help learners evaluate their strategy use. Another program that adopted Oxford's principles was Sutter's strategy training programme with adult refugees in Denmark (as cited in Oxford, 1990). He used the strategy training activities and materials presented by Oxford (1990) in the programme. As a result of his analysis of other teachers' strategy training applications in the programme, Sutter (1989) found that less efficient teachers did not integrate strategy instruction into their regular classroom activities but treated strategy instruction as a separate entity.

The Georgetown University Language Research Project was a six-year project from 1990 to 1996 as reported by Chamot et al. (as cited in Yeşilbursalı, 2006). The project applied strategy instruction through preparation, presentation, evaluation and extension stages, which are similar to previously discussed strategy instruction stages/phases. The project adopted informed instruction by giving learners the chance to practice strategies, evaluate their strategy use and extend strategies to other language tasks.

The Centre de Recherches et d'Applications Pédagogiques en Langues, CRAPEL, a France-based institution, focuses on autonomy and self-directed learning in language learning (Oxford, 1990). In CRAPEL model of language teaching, teachers serve as guides, facilitators and motivators. Learners take responsibility over their learning by being actively involved in defining learning goals, the learning content, learning methods and

assessment techniques. These decision-making processes require the use of metacognitive strategies; similarly, it is aimed that learners' motivation is kept at high levels through the use of affective strategies (Oxford, 1990).

Another strategy training program, developed by Joan Rubin, is a computer-based program that focuses on teaching language learning strategies. The software contains more than twenty different languages through which learners can practise language learning strategies. The model, discussed earlier in strategy training materials section, is aimed at novice learners to help them grow competent in the language as they learn to use language strategies in listening, speaking, reading and writing (Rubin, 1996).

A strategy training programme both for the learners and teachers was carried out in Philippines (Oxford, 1990). The students were Peace Corps volunteers who were learning two languages being spoken in Philippines. The programme aimed at not only training learners in language learning strategies but also training teachers in teaching strategies. In order to support this aim, a handbook titled *Improving Your Language Learning: Strategies for Peace Corps Volunteers* was developed by the supporting staff of the project.

Brief information on a variety of strategy training models developed by different researchers and applied around the world was presented above. An overall analysis of these strategy training models reveals that they have a number of common qualities. Firstly, the steps/stages/phases they have are generally similar to each other. Most of them start with a strategy preparation or awareness-raising step. It is understood that taking learners' existing strategy use patterns into consideration is of importance because it provides the base for strategy instruction. Secondly, explicit/informed and integrative language strategy training is emphasized. Thirdly, giving learners the opportunity to practice the strategies in immediate learning contexts is also necessary for meaningfulness in training. Fourthly, learners' self-evaluation of their strategy use and revising their strategy use patterns accordingly are viewed as essential components of strategy training. The final essential components are monitoring learners' strategy use to assure transferability of the strategies to new language tasks and sustainability of strategies, which refers to learners' willingness to continue using strategies in future language learning situations.

## **In What Ways can LLS Help Optimize EFL Learning?**

Present-day learning/teaching can be argued to have been characterized by the emphasis on learner's role in learning and the importance of individual needs and characteristics that shape their learning (Cohen & Weaver, 2006). Knowledge can be accessed anywhere at any time, learners do not have to depend on a teacher/instructor to teach them because they can also learn on their own thanks to various sources of knowledge and skills; e.g., online courses, social media, digital libraries, self-access centres and other mediums. Therefore, these social and technological changes are pushing learners towards being more independent learners. At this point, language learning strategies, defined as steps consciously taken by the learner to make learning faster, easier, more enjoyable and more self-directed (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014), may play a significant role in optimizing foreign language learning.

Language learning strategies do not derive from one single learning theory; on the contrary, they have roots in a number of different learning theories (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014). Learners need modelling, practice and repetition in order to learn how to use strategies, which are steps that resemble the learning principles of behaviourist theory. In addition, using strategies requires cognitive and metacognitive processes that are rooted in cognitive theory of learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Similarly, social strategies are rooted in constructivist theory of learning that defends that learning happens through social interaction. Affective strategies, which are related with the management of affective status, may also be rooted in constructivist theory of learning for it puts emphasis on the factors that impact how individuals construct knowledge. Integrating language learning strategies instruction into regular language teaching may help in appealing to different learning styles thanks to its multi-faceted theoretical background. In other words, all aspects of learning may be addressed because language learning strategies dwell on different learning theories.

Learning is enhanced when learners' motivation is maintained at high levels. As discussed previously, motivation and LLS are positively correlated and highly motivated students use LLS more often (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Vandergift, 2005). Thus, equipping learners with language learning strategies may help keep them motivated because they will learn ways of regulating their motivation via the use of affective strategies. Similarly, awareness of their strengths and weaknesses they develop through metacognition (Wenden, 1998) may give them the confidence to overcome their difficulties in learning. It is also known that learners with low motivation tend to use LLS less often (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989;

Vandergift, 2005); however, training in LLS will increase learners' strategy use frequency and their motivation because they will see that they can be successful in language learning through the effective use of strategies.

Another reason for integrating LLS instruction into regular language teaching may be that it contributes to learner autonomy. Language learning strategies are learners' tools to manage their own learning in all aspects (Oxford, 2011). As learners learn to use these tools with the help of their teachers' guidance, they gradually become their own teachers. That is to say, they grow into autonomous learners who can learn on their own. Learners become conscious of the processes they use while learning and learn to rearrange these processes in accordance with the demands of the language task at hand. They think about how they think and what steps they take to acquire information and skills. These processes are related with their use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Wenden, 1998). Use of social strategies help them to learn from interaction as they think about how they interact with others and what steps they can use to learn more through interaction. Similarly, affective strategies will help them become aware of their affective status and regulate their feelings, thoughts and attitudes so that they can develop positive ones. In truth, their learning will become self-directed and self-regulated.

Individual differences can be addressed in LLS instruction (Cohen & Weaver, 2006). It does not offer a one-size-fits-all approach; on the contrary, LLS instruction can be customized to learners' needs and individual differences by helping learners create the strategy chains that will work best for them (Oxford, 2011). As discussed earlier, the purpose of LLS instruction should not be presenting a list of the most effective strategies and training learners in how to use them; on the contrary, teachers should guide learners so that they can learn to build the strategy chains that will be effective for their learning (Cohen & Weaver, 2006).

## **METHODOLOGY**

In this chapter, research methodology is expounded. Information on the subjects who participated in the study, the location where the study was carried out and the time when the study was carried out is given. In addition, the construction processes of the research instruments, which are EFL Listening and Reading Strategies Scale and Listening and Reading Proficiency Tests, are explained in detail. The design and application processes of the treatment which involved overt listening and reading strategy instruction are laid out. Information on Listening and Reading Strategies Instruction Coursepack, which was used in overt listening and reading strategy instruction, is given. The format of the coursepack and the approach on which the coursepack was based are explained. The chapter ends with detailed information and data collection and analysis processes.

### **Subjects, Setting and Time**

The subjects of the study were 48 first grade students, Class A and B, enrolled in Elementary Education Programme at Sinop University, Faculty of Education. 23 of the participants were in the control group while 25 of them were in the experiment group. They were young adult learners who were averagely aged between 18-20 years old. They had compulsory Foreign Language I-II courses, which they took in two terms, taught by the researcher during two terms. The general aim of the course was helping learners gain basic interpersonal communication skills (Cummins, 2008) in English. Their coursebook was *Enjoying English* (Ersöz, et.al , 2012) at A.1.2 CEFR language proficiency level.

The subjects' English proficiency levels ranged from elementary to pre-intermediate, the latter for only a small number of students. Some of them were false beginners. The subjects had different English language learning backgrounds. While some of them

received their high school education in Anatolian High Schools in which the course hours devoted to learning English are quite many, some others attended Vocational High Schools in which course hours devoted to English were relatively less. The study was conducted at Sinop University, Faculty of Education in Sinop, between April and May, 2014. Subjects were involved in overt reading/listening strategy instruction for 4 weeks. The subjects received overt reading and listening instruction three course hours a week. In the following section, research design in which the subjects were involved is explained.

### **Research Design**

Explanatory mixed method research design was used to understand the effect of overt listening/reading strategy instruction on subjects' reading and listening proficiency and their strategy use patterns. Experimental research design that yielded quantitative data and semi-structured interviews that provided the qualitative data were used in the study. Therefore, quantitative data from experimental research was reinforced by qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews, which may help obtain more reliable results.

In order to establish experimental research design, the control and experiment groups were assigned randomly among 48 Elementary Education programme first grade students. The researcher administrated the Listening/Reading Proficiency Pre-Test to both groups so as to determine their language proficiency and strategy use baselines. Similarly, both groups took the EFL Reading/ Listening Strategies Scale prior to the overt reading/listening strategy instruction. The subjects in the experiment group were trained in listening and reading strategies directly, which meant that they were informed of the purpose and value of each strategy they learned; however, the subjects in the control group continued with their regular English language training. The subjects in both groups took the aforementioned EFL Reading/ Listening Strategies Scale and Listening/Reading Proficiency Post-Test after the treatment so as to observe whether there was any significant difference in their language proficiency and strategy use patterns, which may have been caused by the treatment.

As the second research method, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participation of nine subjects that were randomly selected among experiment group subjects. The semi-structured interviews were conducted upon the completion of overt listening/reading strategy instruction. The purpose of the semi-structured interviews was to

predict the sustainability and transferability of the subjects' strategy use in future English language learning situations. The interview questions also aimed at facilitating learners' assessment of the overt listening/reading strategy instruction programme in which they were involved and self-assessment of their possible strategy use performance in future learning situations. Nine subjects from the experiment group were interviewed upon the completion of overt listening/reading strategy instruction. The interviews were video-taped. The qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews helped to support quantitative data from the experimental study. In the following sections, research instruments used to gather both quantitative and qualitative data are introduced.

## **Research Instruments**

In this section, information on the research instruments, which are Reading/Listening Achievement Tests and EFL Reading and Listening Strategies Scale, is given. The design, piloting and application processes of the research instruments are explained in detail. In addition, information on the semi-structured interviews used to gather qualitative data is also given.

### **Reading/Listening Achievement Tests**

Listening and Reading Achievement Tests were designed by the researcher. (Appendix 2 and 3). Reading/Listening Achievement Pre-Test was administered prior to the treatment in order to define the achievement baselines of the subjects. Similarly, Reading/Listening Achievement Post-Test was administered upon the completion of overt strategy training, too. These research instruments served to find the answer to the first research question of the study that focuses on the impact of overt listening and reading strategy instruction on learners' reading and listening achievement.

These achievement tests aimed at testing the subjects' reading and listening skills; i.e., listening for main idea, listening for details, listening to understand speaker's purposes, understanding speakers' identity, skimming, scanning, paraphrasing, inferencing, synthesizing information in the text, etc. The level of the achievement tests were adjusted to the subjects' English language proficiency level. The topics for reading and listening texts were selected from the topics covered in the coursebook that subjects had been

studying so as to reduce the threat of differences in test-takers' general knowledge to the test validity.

The reading text about global warming for Reading/Listening Achievement Pre-Test was written by the researcher. Similarly, the listening text for this test, which was a conversation between two friends about global warming, was written by the researcher based on the content information provided in the reading text. They were both proofread by a native speaker of English. In addition, the reading text titled 'Dubai: Now and Then' for Reading/Listening Achievement Post-Test was adapted from the coursebook 'Reading Jump' by Casey Malarcher, published by Compass Publishing. The listening text for this test, which was conversation between a radio programmer and a professor, was also created by the researcher using the content information given in the reading text. This listening text was also proofread by a native speaker of English. In order to facilitate the integrity between listening and reading texts, similar topics were chosen for listening and reading achievement pre- and post-tests.

The types of the test items were determined in accordance with the type of tasks in subjects' coursebook. Multiple-choice, true/false and blank-filling exercises and categorization tasks were used in the Reading and Listening Achievement Pre- and Post-Tests. The tests had three sections that resemble pre, while and post-stages of a reading/listening lesson. The tests were designed in this format, because upon the completion of the achievement tests, the subjects were expected to take EFL Reading/Listening Scale which focused on the strategies learners use in pre, while and post-stages of reading/listening. In this way, learners could relate their strategy use in the achievement tests to the questions in the scale. The piloting for reading/listening achievement pre-and post-tests was done by administrating them to 25 participants, who were participants other than the ones who constituted the research sample, prior to their use for research.

### **EFL Reading and Listening Strategies Scale**

One of the research questions of the study was related with the impact of overt listening and reading strategy training on learners' listening and reading strategy use frequency. In order to find the answers to this research question, EFL Reading and Listening Strategies Scale that aims at revealing the participants listening/reading strategy use patterns was



developed by the researcher. The scale was developed based on the learning strategies classification suggested by O'Malley, et al. (1985). This classification consists of three broad categories; i.e., cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies, which are also existent in the scale. However, the strategies in the original classification were rephrased so as to specify exactly which behaviour they represented. In this context, the study also aims to reveal how overt listening/reading strategy training influences use of strategies in cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective categories. In addition to the aforementioned sub-scales based on O'Malley, et al. (1985)'s strategy classification, the scale has three other sub-scales which are pre-reading/listening strategies, while-reading/listening strategies and post-reading/listening strategies. This categorization was suggested by the researcher to understand learners' strategy use behaviours during these three stages. A three-point Likert type scale was used with the responses 'always', 'sometimes' and 'never'.

For the reliability check, the EFL Reading and Listening Strategies Scale was given to 25 participants, who were participants other than those that constituted the control and experiment groups. The results were processed through SPSS using the Cronbach's Alpha reliability scale. The overall reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated as 0,92. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for the sub-scales were also calculated. They were 0,80 for the pre-reading/listening strategies section, 0,84 for while reading/listening strategies section and 0,83 for post-reading/listening strategies section. Similarly, the reliability coefficient was calculated as 0,79 for cognitive strategies sub-scale, 0,87 for metacognitive strategies sub-scale and 0,76 for socioaffective strategies sub-scale. Therefore, it can be claimed that the internal consistency of the scale is high because the reliability coefficient values are higher than 0,70. In addition, the scale was supervised by two experts in terms of validity. The experts' judgements on the validity of the scale were positive; in other words, they agreed that the scale measured EFL listening and reading strategies appropriately. Statistical validity tests such as confirmatory factor analysis could not be conducted because the number of participants was less than fifty.

### **Semi-Structured Interviews**

The semi-structured interviews served to provide the qualitative data that helped to find the answer to the following research question: How willing are the participants to continue

using the listening/reading strategies in their future learning situations? The interview is made up of thirteen questions which are grouped under the following themes. Questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 are concerned with learners' ability to use strategies purposefully and effectively; questions 9, 10, 11, 12 are related with learners' self-assessment of their strategy use; and questions 5, 13 aim to reveal learners' tendencies to sustain the strategies and transfer them to new learning situations.

Nine subjects from the experiment group who received overt listening/reading strategy instruction were randomly selected so as to constitute the focus group. The interviews were conducted individually with nine subjects from the experiment group after the overt reading and listening strategy instruction was completed. Each interview was videotaped. As the next step, the interview videos were transcribed to assure that subjects' responses to the interview questions were understood clearly. The transcriptions are provided in Appendix 5. The language of the interviews was interviewees' first language, Turkish, due to subjects' insufficient English language proficiency to carry on an interview on academic issues. The transcriptions were translated into English by the researcher. The translation was not a literal one; instead, the translation was based on the gist of the ideas expressed because of the difficulty of adjusting spoken language to academic writing. As discussed earlier, quantitative data from the EFL Listening/Reading Strategies Scale and qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews complemented each other.

In the following sections, the design and application processes of overt listening/reading strategy instruction program are explained and information on the Listening and Reading Strategies Instruction Coursepack, which was used as the textbook in the treatment, is given.

### **Treatment: Overt Reading/Listening Strategy Instruction**

The treatment covered overt listening/reading strategy instruction which involved teaching learners how to use a number of reading and listening strategies by informing them of the value and purpose of each strategy. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) define overt strategy instruction as a series of planned actions with the aim of teaching learners how to use, identify and develop language learning strategies by informing them of the value and purpose of language learning strategies, which was the approach adopted in the treatment. As discussed earlier, overt strategy instruction, also termed as explicit/direct, is considered

to be more effective (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) compared to indirect/implicit strategy instruction because learners' awareness of strategies they learn is high (Oxford & Leaver, 1996), which fosters the transferability of these strategies to new learning situations. However, blind/implicit strategy training does not focus on informing learners of the value and purpose of the strategies and expects learners to elicit the strategies themselves, which rarely results in strategic consciousness (Oxford & Leaver, 1996). Similarly, an integrative strategy instruction approach was preferred over separate strategy instruction because integrative strategy instruction combines strategy training with content teaching and gives learners the chance to use the strategies they have learned in their immediate learning contexts (Oxford, 2011). However, separate strategy instruction focuses on merely teaching the strategies and delays the actual use of strategies to future learning situations because it is decontextualized. For these reasons, the listening and reading strategy instruction in this study adopted an overt and integrative approach.

The selection of the listening and reading strategies was made considering learners' proficiency, beliefs about language learning, motivation levels, learning styles and cultural backgrounds. The strategies that were considered to be unfamiliar to learners' cultural backgrounds were introduced gradually. A rich variety of tasks were integrated into the listening/reading strategy instruction programme so as to appeal to different learning styles. In Table 3, the listening/reading strategies taught during overt listening/reading strategy instruction are listed. The strategies presented in Table 3 are based on O'Malley et al.'s (1985) language learning strategies classification; however, the strategies in the broad categories were rephrased so as to specify which learning steps/strategies they exactly represented.

Table 3

*Listening and Reading Strategies Taught during the Treatment based on O'Malley et al.'s (1985) Classification*

**Listening and Reading Strategies Taught during the Treatment based on O'Malley et al.'s (1985) Classification\***

Cognitive Strategies	Metacognitive Strategies	Socioaffective Strategies
<p>Organization</p> <p><i>While-Reading/Listening Stage</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>thinking of words with similar meanings when not sure about the meaning of a word while reading</li> <li>reading/listening by guessing what will come next</li> </ul> <p>Inferencing</p> <p><i>Pre-Reading/Listening Stage</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>guessing the vocabulary items and structures that may appear in the reading/listening text</li> <li>guessing who the author is, authors' purpose and the content of the reading text</li> <li>guessing the age, job, education and culture of the speakers</li> </ul> <p><i>While-Reading/Listening Stage</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>guessing when, where and how the text was written</li> <li>guessing the meanings of the unknown words from the context while reading</li> <li>inferring meaning from the words one hears when the whole listening text is not understood</li> <li>understanding the emotions of the speakers from their tone of voice</li> <li>understanding the purpose of the author/speakers</li> <li>deciphering the implied messages in the reading/listening text</li> </ul>	<p>Selective attention</p> <p><i>While-Reading/Listening Stage</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>reading/listening to the text to get the main idea first</li> <li>reading/listening to understand each and every word and sentence very carefully</li> <li>setting a different purpose each time one reads/listens to the text</li> </ul> <p>Planning</p> <p><i>Pre-Reading/Listening Stage</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>reading/ listening to instructions related to the reading/listening activity</li> <li>finding out the purpose of the reading/listening activity</li> <li>reading the title and subtitles of the reading text</li> <li>having a look at the reading/listening comprehension questions to understand what to read/listen for</li> <li>understanding the genre (poem, essay, newspaper article, etc...) of the reading text</li> </ul> <p><i>While-Reading/Listening Stage</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>both reading/listening to the text and answering the comprehension questions at the same time</li> <li>reading/listening to the whole text and then starting answering the comprehension questions benefiting from one's notes</li> </ul> <p>Monitoring</p>	<p>Cooperation</p> <p><i>Pre &amp; While-Reading/Listening Stage</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>discussing one's guesses about the reading/listening text with peers</li> <li>discussing one's interpretation of the reading/listening text with peers</li> </ul> <p>Questioning for Clarification</p> <p><i>While &amp; Post Reading/Listening Stages</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>asking and answering questions about each other's guesses</li> <li>asking questions to peers about their interpretation of the reading/listening text</li> </ul> <p>Self-talk</p> <p><i>Pre &amp; While-Reading/Listening Stage</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>reminding oneself that one doesn't have to know the meaning of each and every word to understand the reading/listening text</li> <li>motivating oneself into the reading/listening text</li> <li>eliminating stressful feelings by breathing deeply</li> <li>managing stressful feelings by thinking about nice things</li> <li>eliminating negative feelings by thinking positively</li> </ul> <p><i>While &amp; Post Reading/Listening Stages</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>relying on one's own interpretation of the reading/listening text to complete the task at hand</li> </ul>

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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ paying attention to the tone of voice, stress and intonation of the speakers to grasp their messages</li> </ul>	<i>While-Reading/Listening Stage</i>
Summarizing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ taking notes about speakers, the topic of the text, setting and one's own interpretation of the speakers' messages while listening</li> </ul>
<i>Post-Reading/Listening Stage</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ noting down one's interpretation and inferences from the text while reading</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ summarizing the reading/listening text in one's own words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ underlining the words or sentences the meaning of which one cannot make out while reading</li> </ul>
Imagery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ underlining the parts of the text which are thought to be key to comprehension while reading</li> </ul>
<i>Pre-Reading/Listening Stage</i>	<i>Post-Reading/Listening Stage</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ creating mental pictures, i.e. visualizing the setting, the appearance of speakers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ going back to the reading/listening text to look for ideas that can help complete the activity</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ looking at the pictures related to the reading/listening activity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ going over the underlined parts of the reading text</li> </ul>
Transfer	Evaluation
<i>Pre-Reading/Listening Stage</i>	<i>Post-Reading/Listening Stage</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ searching for lexical or structural clues within the reading/listening activity to guess the answers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ reflecting on the reading/listening text</li> <li>▪ defining the problems that hinder one's reading/listening comprehension</li> </ul>
<i>While-Reading/Listening Stage</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ analysing one's strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ looking for lexical and structural cues that will help answer the comprehension questions within the reading/listening text</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ thinking about the parts of the reading/listening text one could not understand</li> </ul>
<i>Post-Reading/Listening Stage</i>	Elaboration
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ exploiting the vocabulary items and structures that appeared in the reading/listening text</li> </ul>	<i>Post-Reading/Listening Stage</i>
Elaboration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ combining previous knowledge with new information</li> </ul>

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\*Adapted from O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Russo, R. P., & Küpper, L. (1985). Learning strategy application with students of English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19 (3), 557–584.

As seen in Table 3, 50 reading/listening strategies in total were taught to the subjects during the treatment. Learners were provided with a 'Listening and Reading Strategies

Instruction Coursepack' (Appendix 4) in which each of the above strategies was presented with their value and purpose in a way interwoven into reading and listening activities. Further information on how the listening/reading strategies were introduced, how learners' practice and evaluation of these strategies were facilitated and the nature of the coursepack used in the treatment is to be given in the next section.

As discussed earlier, strategy training may either be conducted in learners' native language or in the target language. Both ways have their advantages and disadvantages. Strategy instruction in the target language may mean more chances of practising the target language for advanced learners, because they may be capable of understanding the instructions and explanations about the strategies. However, this may not be the case with learners who have lower language proficiency levels (Chamot, 2005). With these learners, providing the strategy instruction in learners' native language might be a better idea. English language proficiency level of the subjects who participated in the study were not above pre-intermediate level. Therefore, the language of overt strategy instruction in this study was the subjects' first language Turkish while the target language, English, was used during language learning activities. The information about listening and reading strategies provided in the coursepack was in English; however, they were orally explained to learners in Turkish due to the fact that learners were not competent enough to understand the explanations about the strategies in the target language. They were asked to take down notes while the instructor, who was the researcher, was explaining them in Turkish.

The lessons followed a similar pattern. Learners were introduced to the strategies at the beginning of the lesson. They were made aware of the purpose and value of each strategy they were supposed to learn. Similarly, they were also explained how they could use these strategies. Following this step, learners were involved in the language learning activities in which they could practise the listening and reading strategies which was presented and explained to them. Learners were also encouraged to reflect on the strategies they used. A considerable amount of time was intentionally devoted to discussions about the value, purpose and use of the strategies during the lessons. As mentioned earlier, the next section provides detailed information on Listening and Reading Strategies Instruction Coursepack which was the textbook for the overt listening and reading strategy instruction.

## **Listening and Reading Strategies Instruction Coursepack**

The coursepack, which was the textbook for the strategy training, was prepared by the researcher. It is made up of four lessons within a module. The content material for the coursepack comes from a number of sources. Some of the listening texts were taken from different sources which are given in detail in Appendix 4, while some of them were designed by the researcher. Similarly, the listening and reading activities in the coursepack were also designed by the researcher. The visuals used in the coursepack were retrieved from Google visuals. The reading and listening texts, and the language used in the activities were proofread by two native speakers of English who are from the USA.

The course pack was designed with a skills-based approach, which was in line with the subjects' coursebook. Explicit grammar teaching was avoided; instead, the focus was on the language skills development. Listening, reading, speaking and writing activities were integrated. Reading and listening activities were often used as the main activities, for the focus was on teaching reading and listening strategies. Speaking and writing activities were employed in pre-and post-stages. Likewise, a cyclical format was adopted; in other words, the same language skills, sub-skills and listening and reading strategies were recycled throughout the four lessons. In truth, the idea was teaching each strategy at least three times.

Similarly, the topics for the reading and listening texts were chosen in accordance with the topics found in subjects' coursebook so that the course pack could be perceived as an extension of their coursebook, which would provide a smooth transition for learners. For similar reasons, skills and sub-skills to be covered were also in line with the coursebook they had been studying prior to the overt listening and reading strategy instruction.

Before each lesson, the reading and listening strategies to be covered in that lesson were listed so that the first phase of strategy awareness-raising could be initiated. In the following pages of the coursepack, the strategies were introduced alongside with the reading and listening activities in small textboxes. In these textboxes, the application steps of the listening/reading strategy, its purpose and value were explained. In addition, learners were expected to reflect on how they used the listening/reading strategy in the blank space provided in these textboxes. The congruency between the activities and strategies was observed. That is to say, a pre-reading strategy was introduced at pre-reading stage so that learners would have the chance to use it right away. Therefore, an immediate relationship

between the strategies and type of activities in which they can be used could be established.

### **Data Collection and Analysis**

Quantitative data for the study was collected through EFL Reading/Listening Strategies Scale and qualitative data was collected via semi-structured interviews. Quantitative data was processed through Excel 10 and SPSS.22 Package Program. Qualitative data was processed through the transcription of interview videos. Detailed information is provided on the analysis of quantitative data below.

In the analysis of quantitative data, a number of steps were taken. Firstly, missing data check was done to prepare data for statistical analysis before testing the research hypotheses. When the data set was examined, it was seen that there were no missing data. Next, the data were examined to check if there were any extreme values and it was found that there were not any. Secondly, Shapiro Wilk test was used to test normality hypothesis for the variables in the data set because the number of participants was smaller than 50. When the results of the test and coefficients of skewness and kurtosis were examined, it was seen that the it was only the reading and listening proficiency variable which met the normality hypothesis while cognitive and metacognitive variables for each group-control and experiment groups- did not meet normality hypothesis ( $p < .05$ ). In addition, the homogeneity of covariant and variant values of the variables; i.e., reading and listening proficiency and cognitive; metacognitive strategies of control and experiment groups was examined via Box test and Levene test respectively. According to the results of these tests, it was seen the hypotheses were not met ( $p < .05$ ). Therefore, the research hypotheses were tested via non-parametric tests.

When the data were prepared for analysis as a result of the aforementioned tests, the first analysis was done to see whether there was a statistically significant difference between the control and experiment groups in terms of the research variables; i.e, reading and listening achievement, cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategy use and pre, while and post-reading/listening strategy use, prior to the treatment. In other words, pre-test results related to the aforementioned variables of the control and experiment groups were compared via Mann Whitney U test. In this test, the calculation is made considering the ordinal numbers of the points from two unrelated groups (Büyüköztürk, 2012).



Similarly, reading and listening achievement, cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategy use, pre, while and post-reading/listening strategy use post-test average points of the subjects in the control and experiment groups were compared via Mann-Whitney U Test. The test was run separately for each variable.

The comparison of reading and listening achievement, cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategy use and pre, while and post-reading/listening strategy use pre-test and post-test point averages of the subjects in the control and experiment groups was made via Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test that was run separately for each variable mentioned above. This test was used because Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test calculates the significance and direction of the difference between two different measurements from related groups (Büyüköztürk, 2012).

Structural coding was used in the interpretation of the qualitative data from the interviews. In order to prepare qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews for interpretation, the interview videos were first transcribed and then translated into English because the language of the interviews was the participants' native language, Turkish.. To put it differently, learners' responses to the interview questions were categorized according to the previously defined themes which are learners' purposeful and effective use of strategies, learners' self-assessment of their strategy use and their willingness to sustain and transfer the listening and reading strategies they have learned. As stated earlier, questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 are related with learners' ability to use strategies purposefully and effectively; questions 9, 10, 11, 12 deal with learners' self-assessment of their strategy use; and questions 5, 13 focus on learners' tendencies to sustain the strategies and transfer them to new learning situations.

The transcriptions were also interpreted by two other EFL teachers and researchers to ensure interpreter reliability. The other two interpreters were provided with the original Turkish interview videos and their transcriptions in Turkish so as to facilitate objectiveness. They were also provided with detailed information on overt listening/reading strategy instruction, the coursepack used in the study and the quantitative data from EFL Listening/Reading Strategies Scale and Reading/Listening Achievement Tests. The interpretation of the subjects' answers was made keeping the quantitative data in mind because the interpretation of the qualitative data without making connections to quantitative data would be insufficient. In truth, these two types of data from different sources complement each other.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

In this chapter, statistical findings of the study are presented. Based on the findings, research questions are answered through testing the hypotheses related to the research questions. The relationship between overt listening/reading strategy instruction and learners' listening/reading achievement is examined. Similarly, the impact of overt listening strategy instruction on learners' use of in metacognitive, cognitive, socioaffective strategies categories and at pre, while and post-listening/reading stages is also examined. Discussions based on the results are presented. In addition, the impact of overt listening/reading strategy instruction on learners' willingness to continue using strategies and transfer them to new learning situations is also examined and discussed based on the qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews.

### **Descriptive Statistics and Language Achievement, Strategy Use Pattern Baselines of the Control and Experiment Groups**

Before presenting the results of statistical analyses that serve to reveal the answers to the first three research questions of the study, descriptive statistics of the points that the subjects in the control and experiment groups have in reading and listening achievement, cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategy use and pre, while and post-reading/listening strategy use are provided in Table 4 to provide a general outlook on the group dynamics.

Table 4

*Descriptive Statistics of the Control and Experiment Groups' Pre-Test and Post-Test Points ( $N_{control}=23, N_{experiment}=25$ )*

Variables	Group	Test	Min	Max	$\bar{X}$	S
Reading and Listening Achievement	Experiment	Pre	38	73	53.32	9.19
		Post	32	79	57.92	11.90
	Control	Pre	22	64	44.61	11.74
		Post	10	75	34.09	14.84
Cognitive Strategy Use	Experiment	Pre	32	53	42.28	4.93
		Post	37	51	45.72	3.87
	Control	Pre	27	54	40.56	5.84
		Post	34	53	43.17	4.36
Metacognitive Strategy Use	Experiment	Pre	35	63	49.68	5.91
		Post	49	66	57.72	4.55
	Control	Pre	31	64	48.35	8.83
		Post	40	65	53.74	7.01
Socioaffective Strategy Use	Experiment	Pre	14	28	20.76	3.23
		Post	14	29	23.68	3.51
	Control	Pre	14	27	19.04	4.05
		Post	16	30	21.83	3.61
Pre-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Experiment	Pre	23	38	31.68	3.82
		Post	26	40	35.52	3.49
	Control	Pre	23	41	30.65	4.87
		Post	23	41	32.78	4.45
While-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Experiment	Pre	40	66	51.00	5.60
		Post	49	68	57.32	4.99
	Control	Pre	33	65	48.74	7.90
		Post	43	64	53.61	6.29
Post-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Experiment	Pre	25	39	30.04	3.14
		Post	21	39	34.28	3.67
	Control	Pre	18	39	28.57	5.66
		Post	23	39	32.35	4.11

Similarly, before understanding the impact of overt strategy instruction on learners' listening/reading achievement and learners' strategy use patterns, it is essential to know whether there is a statistically significant difference between the control and experiment groups in terms of the research variables; i.e. reading/listening achievement; cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategy use and pre, while and post-reading/listening strategy use prior to the overt strategy instruction the effectiveness of which is being studied. For this purpose, Mann Whitney U-Test was conducted and the results of the analysis are given in Table 5 below.

Table 5

*Mann Whitney U-Test Results of the Control and Experiment Groups' Pre-Test Points*  
( $N_{control}=23$ ,  $N_{experiment}=25$ )

Variables	Groups	Rank Averages	Rank Totals	U	p
Reading and Listening Achievement	Control	19.87	457.00	181.00	.03
	Experiment	28.76	719.00		
Cognitive Strategy Use	Control	22.02	506.50	230.50	.23
	Experiment	26.78	669.50		
Metacognitive Strategy Use	Control	23.76	546.50	270.50	.72
	Experiment	25.18	629.50		
Socioaffective Strategy Use	Control	20.61	474.00	198.00	.06
	Experiment	28.08	702.00		
Pre-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Control	22.52	518.00	242.00	.35
	Experiment	26.32	658.00		
While-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Control	22.13	509.00	233.00	.26
	Experiment	26.68	667.00		
Post-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Control	22.28	512.50	236.50	.29
	Experiment	26.54	663.50		

As seen in Table 5, a statistically significant difference does not exist between the control and experiment group pre-test points except for the reading/listening proficiency variable.

In other words, it can be claimed that subjects in the control and experiment group have similar cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategy use patterns and pre, while and post-reading/listening strategy use patterns prior to the treatment. This result indicates that the control and experiment groups are similar in terms of the aforementioned variables ( $p>.05$ ). In addition, it can be claimed that the subjects in the control and experiment group are not similar in terms of their listening/reading achievement prior to the overt strategy instruction and that the subjects in the experiment group have higher listening/reading achievement prior to the treatment. However, it can still be argued that learners have similar listening/reading achievement levels considering the average points from their listening and reading achievement tests. However, the finding that the subjects both in the control and experiment groups have similar strategy use patterns in metacognitive, cognitive, socioaffective strategy categories and pre, while and post-reading/listening stages prior to the treatment may help understand the impact of overt listening/reading strategy training on learners' strategy use patterns more clearly.

### **The Impact of Overt Listening and Reading Strategy Instruction on Reading and Listening Achievement**

In this section, the first research question of the study, which is “Does overt strategy instruction increase EFL learners’ reading and listening achievement?” is answered. In other words, the impact of overt strategy instruction on learners’ reading/listening achievement is scrutinized. In order to test the hypothesis that the post-test points of the subjects in the experiment group are significantly higher than their pre-test points, which is related to the abovementioned research question, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was conducted. The results are given in Table 6.

Table 6

#### *Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test Results of the Experiment Group’s Reading and Listening Achievement Pre-Test and Post-Test Points*

Post-Test Pre-Test	n	Rank Averages	Rank Totals	z	p
Negative Ranks	3	14.50	43.50	-3.21	.01
Positive Ranks	22*	12.80	281.50		
Equals	0				

\*Positive ranked

The results in Table 6 indicate a significant difference between the pre- test and post-test points of the experiment group ( $z = -3.21, p < .05$ ). It is seen that the significant difference is in favour of the positive ranks when the rank averages and totals of the difference points are considered. That is to say, it can be claimed that post-test points of the experiment group are significantly higher than their pre-test points, which confirms the hypothesis. Based on these findings, it can be argued that overt listening and reading strategy instruction given to the subjects in the experiment group has increased their reading and listening achievement. However, it is also important to understand whether there is a significant difference between the listening/reading achievement pre-and post-test point averages of the subjects in the control group. In other words, it is hypothesized that a significant difference does not exist between the pre-test and post-test points of the subjects in the control group who have not received overt listening/reading strategy instruction. In order to test this hypothesis, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was run. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

*Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test Results of the Control Group's Reading and Listening Achievement Pre-Test and Post-Test Points*

Post-Test Pre-Test	n	Rank Averages	Rank Totals	z	p
Negative Ranks	16*	12.97	207.50	-2.631	.01
Positive Ranks	6	7.58	45.50		
Equals	1				

\*Negative ranked

As seen in Table 7, there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test points of the subjects in the control group, too. It is seen that the difference is in favour of the negative ranks when the rank averages and totals of the difference points are considered. In other words, pre-test points of the subjects in the control group are significantly higher than their post-test points, which does not confirm the hypothesis. Based on these findings, it can be stated that overt strategy instruction has caused a

decrease in the control group subjects' reading/listening proficiency. Given that the subjects in the experiment group who have received overt listening/reading strategy instruction have improved their listening/reading proficiency, but the subjects in the control group have not made any progress, it can be argued that overt listening/reading instruction has made a positive difference on the subjects' listening/reading proficiency. However, the decrease in the control group learners' reading/listening proficiency may be attributed to a number of reasons. The subjects in the control group, who have not received overt listening and reading strategy training, may not have performed at their best on the test day.

However, it is important to see whether there is a significant difference between the listening/reading achievement post-test points of the control and experiment group subjects or not in order to provide the final answer to the research question. The third hypothesis that the reading/listening achievement post-test point averages of the learners in the experiment group are significantly higher than the reading/listening achievement post-test point averages of the learners in the control group was tested via Mann Whitney U-Test. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

*Mann Whitney U-Test Results of the Experiment and Control Groups' Reading and Listening Achievement Post- Test Points*

Groups	n	Rank Averages	Rank Totals	U	p
Control	23	14.52	334.00	58.00	.01
Experiment	25	33.68	842.00		

The findings presented in Table 8 indicate a significant difference between the post-test point averages of the control and experiment groups ( $U=58.00$ ,  $p<.05$ ). It is seen that reading and listening achievement of the learners who have been involved in explicit listening and reading strategy instruction has significantly increased, which confirms the third hypothesis mentioned above. Thus, it can be claimed that overt reading/listening strategy instruction has caused an increase in learners' reading and listening achievement.

This result is also supported by findings from studies which were mentioned earlier (Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Carrier, 2003; Cross, 2009; Bozorgian & Pillay, 2013). Thompson & Rubin (1996) also found that learners' listening achievement who received strategy instruction was significantly fostered compared to learners who did not receive strategy training. Similarly, Carrier's (2003) study also revealed that listening strategy instruction caused a positive change in learners' listening performance. Cross' (2009) and Bozorgian and Pillay's (2013) findings from their studies also showed that explicit listening strategy training significantly fosters learner' listening performance/achievement, which is in line with the above-mentioned results from this study.

Overt listening/reading strategy instruction raises learners' strategic awareness (Oxford & Leaver, 1996) and makes them use the strategies purposefully and effectively. These changes in their strategy use habits foster their performance in listening/reading because they grow better at applying the strategies at the right step and for the right purpose, which also foster their autonomy and motivation. It can be argued that overt strategy instruction can be used as a tool to help learners improve their performance in listening/reading. However, it should be noted that it may not be strategy instruction alone but also other factors; e.g., the time learners spent learning the target language, their beliefs about language learning and their motivational orientations, may also play a role in the increase in their language proficiency.

### **The Impact of Overt Listening and Reading Strategy Instruction on Learners' Strategy Use Patterns**

In this section, the second and third research questions "Does overt reading/listening strategy instruction increase EFL learners' use of cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies?" and "Does overt reading/listening strategy instruction increase EFL learners' use of language learning strategies in pre, while and post –listening/reading stages?" are answered. The results of relevant statistical data are presented and discussed.



## **The Impact of Overt Listening and Reading Strategy Instruction on Learners’ Use of Cognitive, Metacognitive, Socioaffective Strategies**

In this sub-section, the second research question “Does overt reading/listening strategy instruction increase EFL learners’ use of cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies?” is answered. The first hypothesis related to the research question is that the post-test point averages of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategy use of the subjects in the experiment group are significantly higher than their pre-test point averages. In an attempt to test this hypothesis, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was conducted and the results from the test are presented in Table 9 below.

Table 9

*Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test Results of the Experiment Group’s Cognitive, Metacognitive and Socioaffective Strategy Use Pre-Test and Post-Test Points ( $N_{\text{experiment}}=25$ )*

Variables	Post-Test Pre-Test	n	Rank Averages	Rank Totals	z	p
Cognitive Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	6	7.92	47.50	-2.76	.01
	Positive Ranks	17*	13.44	228.50		
	Equals	2				
Metacognitive Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	2	2.50	5.00	-4.15	.01
	Positive Ranks	22*	13.41	295.00		
	Equals	1				
Socioaffective Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	6	9.75	58.50	-2.81	.01
	Positive Ranks	19*	14.03	266.50		
	Equals	0				

\*Positive ranked

The results in Table 9 indicate a significant difference between the cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategy use pre-test and post-test points of the subjects in the experiment group ( $z_{\text{cognitive}} = -2.76$ ,  $z_{\text{metacognitive}} = -4.15$ ,  $z_{\text{socioaffective}} = -2.81$ ,  $p < .05$ ). It is seen that the difference is in favour of positive ranks when the rank totals of difference points are considered. In other words, post-test point averages of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategy use are higher than the pre-test point averages of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategy use, which confirms the hypothesis. Based on these

findings, it can be claimed that explicit teaching of listening/reading strategies has increased experiment group learners' use of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategies. The first hypothesis related to the second research question was confirmed. However, it is also important to understand whether the control group subjects' use of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategies has significantly increased or not. Therefore, in order to test the second hypothesis related to the impact of overt listening/reading strategy instruction on learners' cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategy use, which is that a significant difference does not exist between the cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategy use pre-test and post-test points of the subjects in the control group, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was conducted. The results from the test are given in Table 10 below.

Table 10

*Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test Results of the Control Group's Cognitive, Metacognitive and Socioaffective Strategy Use Pre-Test and Post-Test Points ( $N_{control}=23$ )*

Variables	Post-test Pre-test	n	Rank Averages	Rank Totals	z	p
Cognitive Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	6	8.00	48.00	-2.35	0.2
	Positive Ranks	15*	12.20	183.00		
	Equals	2				
Metacognitive Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	3	10.83	32.50	-2.89	.01
	Positive Ranks	18*	11.03	198.50		
	Equals	2				
Socioaffective Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	4	13.00	52.00	-2.62	.01
	Positive Ranks	19*	11.79	224.00		
	Equals	0				

\*Positive ranked

As seen in Table 10, there is also a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test points of the control group ( $z_{cognitive}=-2.35$ ,  $z_{metacognitive}=-2.89$ ,  $z_{socioaffective}=-2.62$ ,  $p<.05$ ). It is understood that the difference is in favour of positive ranks when the rank averages and totals of difference points are examined. That is to say, post-test point averages of control group subjects' use of cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies are higher than their pre-test point averages of cognitive, metacognitive and

socioaffective strategy use, which does not confirm the hypothesis. It can be claimed that strategy training has fostered control group learners' use of cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies, too.

It is understood from the above-mentioned results that both experiment and control group subjects' use of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective listening/reading strategies have increased although a significant increase in control group subjects' strategy use was not expected because they have not received strategy training. In this context, it can be argued that learners' strategy use patterns are not only influenced by explicit strategy training, but learners may also elicit the strategies embedded in language learning activities on their own. However, before giving the final answer to the above-mentioned research question, it is important to test the third hypothesis which is that the post-test point averages of experiment group subjects' use of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategies are significantly higher than the post-test point averages of control group subjects' use of cognitive, metacognitive, socioaffective strategies. In an attempt to test this hypothesis, Mann Whitney U-Test was run. The results of the test are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

*Mann Whitney U-Test Results of the Control and Experiment Groups' Cognitive, Metacognitive and Socioaffective Strategy Use Points ( $N_{control}=23$ ,  $N_{experiment}=25$ )*

Variables	Groups	Rank Averages	Rank Totals	U	p
Cognitive Strategy Use	Control	19.89	457.50	181.50	0.3
	Experiment	28.74	718.50		
Metacognitive Strategy Use	Control	20.48	471.00	195.00	.06
	Experiment	28.20	705.00		
Socioaffective Strategy Use	Control	20.43	470.00	194.00	.06
	Experiment	28.24	706.00		

The findings presented in Table 11 reveal that a significant difference does not exist between the control and experiment groups in the use of metacognitive and socioaffective strategies ( $U_{metacognitive}=195.00$ ,  $U_{socioaffective}=194.00$ ,  $p>.05$ ). However, a significant

difference exists between the control and experiment groups in the use of cognitive strategies ( $U_{cognitive} = 181.50, p < .05$ ). It can be claimed that the third hypothesis is not confirmed in terms of the variables of metacognitive and socioaffective strategy use but it is confirmed in terms of cognitive strategy use. Therefore, it can be argued that metacognitive and socioaffective strategy use of the subjects in both experiment and control groups has increased but there is not a significant difference between the control and experiment groups. However, it is seen that experiment group subjects' use of cognitive strategies is significantly higher compared to the control group subjects.

It is understood from the above-mentioned results that learners' use of cognitive strategies has shown a significant increase while there is not a significant increase in the use of metacognitive and socioaffective strategies as a result of explicit listening/reading strategy training. This result is also supported by findings from other studies which were mentioned earlier (Teng, 1998; Vandergift, 2003). Teng (1998) also found that compensation strategies that require cognitive processes were used most often by listeners while social and affective strategies were used least often. Similarly, Vandergift's (2003) study also revealed that cognitive strategies were used most often by learners, followed by metacognitive strategies, and socioaffective strategies were used least often.

The finding that learners' use of cognitive strategies increased but there was not a significant difference in the use of metacognitive and socioaffective strategies in learners' may be attributed to learners' beliefs about language learning. Because it was observed that learners who received overt listening/reading strategy instruction seemed not to believe that metacognitive and socioaffective strategies were effective in improving their language learning performance. They were not often willing to participate in activities that required use of socioaffective strategies, e.g. asking peers about their interpretation of the listening/reading text, asking questions to their friends about their interpretation of the reading/listening text, eliminating negative feelings thinking that they are performing well, trying to understand purpose of the activities, etc... . When they were asked to ask each other questions about each other's interpretation of the text, they were often found chatting instead of doing what they were told to do. Similarly, some of them claimed that it was not necessary for them to understand the purpose of the activity. For these reasons, learners' awareness and use of metacognitive and socioaffective strategies may not have been increased.

The relatively short duration of the treatment may have also been the reason for the above-discussed result. Increasing learners' use of metacognitive and socioaffective strategies may also require shaping their beliefs about language learning (Gabillion, 2005), which takes more time and effort. Similarly, it can be argued that learners who participated in this study perceived language learning primarily as a cognitive process, which is also reflected in the increase in their use of cognitive strategies as a result of the treatment. They were willing to adopt cognitive strategies rather than metacognitive and socioaffective strategies because they seemed to believe that cognitive strategies were effective while socioaffective strategies might not contribute to their learning. It can be argued that teachers initially need to recognise their learners' beliefs about language learning before they start strategy training so that they can decide which strategies to focus on accordingly. They can try to shape their learners' beliefs about language learning by convincing them into effectiveness and value of the learning strategies which they tend to label as 'unimportant' or 'useless'. In this study, the researcher was aware of learners' beliefs about language learning because she had been teaching them for a while and focused on metacognitive and socioaffective strategies; however, as discussed earlier, the short duration of the treatment might have been responsible for failing to shape learners' beliefs about language learning.

### **The Impact of Overt Listening and Reading Strategy Instruction on Learners' Use of Pre, While and Post-Listening/Reading Strategies**

In this sub-section, the third research question "Does overt reading/listening strategy instruction increase EFL learners' use of language learning strategies in pre, while and post-listening/reading stages?" is answered. In order to answer this research question, the first related hypothesis that the post-test point averages of use of pre, while and post-listening/reading strategies of the subjects in the experiment group are significantly higher than their pre-test point averages is tested through Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test. The findings from the test are in Table 12.

Table 12

*Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test Results of the Experiment Group's Pre, While and Post-Reading/Listening Strategy Use Post-Test and Pre-Test Points ( $N_{\text{experiment}}=25$ )*

Variables	Post-test Pre-test	n	Rank Averages	Rank Totals	z	p
Pre-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	3	4.83	14.50	-3.88	.01
	Positive Ranks	21*	13.60	285.50		
	Equals	1				
While-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	3	4.17	12.50	-3.94	.01
	Positive Ranks	21*	13.69	287.50		
	Equals	1				
Post-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	2	13.25	26.50	-3.67	.01
	Positive Ranks	23*	12.98	298.50		
	Equals	0				

\*Positive ranked

The findings in Table 12 show that the difference between pre, while, post-listening/reading strategy use pre-test and post-test points of the experiment group is significant ( $z_{pre}=-3.88$ ,  $z_{while}=-3.94$ ,  $z_{post}=-3.67$ ,  $p<.05$ ). It is realized that the significant difference is in favour of positive ranks when the rank averages and totals of difference points are examined. In other words, it can be claimed that post-test point averages are significantly higher than pre-test point averages, which confirms the above-mentioned hypothesis. Therefore, it can be argued that the treatment has fostered experiment group learners' use of pre, while and post-listening/reading strategies. However, it is also important to know whether there is a significant difference between control group subjects' pre-and post-test points of pre, while and post-listening/reading strategy use or not. Therefore, the second hypothesis related to the above-mentioned research question that a significant difference does not exist between the pre, while, post-listening/reading strategy use pre- and post-test point averages of the subjects in the control group needs to be tested. In an attempt to test this hypothesis, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was conducted. The results from the test are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

*Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test Results of the Control Group's Pre, While and Post-Reading/Listening Strategy Use Post-Test and Pre-Test Points ( $N_{control}=23$ )*

Variables	Post-test Pre-test	n	Rank	Averages	Rank Totals	z	P
Pre-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	5	12.20		61.00	-2.13	.03
	Positive Ranks	17*	11.29		192.00		
	Equals	1					
While-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	4	11.38		45.50	-2.63	.01
	Positive Ranks	18*	11.53		207.50		
	Equals	1					
Post-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Negative Ranks	4	6.63		26.50	-2.58	.01
	Positive Ranks	14*	10.32		144.50		
	Equals	5					

\*Positive ranked

The findings in Table 13 reveal that there is a significant difference between the pre, while, post-listening/reading strategy use pre-test and post-test point averages of the subjects in the control group ( $z_{pre}=-2.13$ ,  $z_{while}=-2.63$ ,  $z_{post}=-2.58$ ,  $p<.05$ ). It is understood that the difference is in favour of positive ranks when the rank averages and totals of difference points are examined, which does not confirm the second hypothesis mentioned above. It can be argued that control group subjects' use of pre, while, post-listening/reading strategies has also been positively influenced by the treatment, which was not hypothesized because control group subjects have not received strategy training. As discussed earlier, it may not be only the strategy training that influences learners' strategy use patterns and frequency, learners may also implicitly learn strategies embedded in language activities. However, the answer to the research question is based on the third hypothesis which is that post-test point averages of the subjects in the experiment group are significantly higher than the post-test point averages of the subjects in the control group. In order to test this hypothesis, Mann Whitney U-Test was run on the data. The results of the test are listed in Table 14.

Table 14

*Mann Whitney U-Test results of the Control and Experiment Groups' Pre, While and Post-Reading/Listening Strategy Use Post-Test Points ( $N_{control}=23$ ,  $N_{experiment}=25$ )*

Variables	Groups	Rank Averages	Rank Totals	U	p
Pre-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Control	19.41	446.50	170.50	.01
	Experiment	29.18	729.50		
While-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Control	20.26	466.00	190.00	.04
	Experiment	28.40	710.00		
Post-Reading/Listening Strategy Use	Control	19.98	459.50	183.50	.03
	Experiment	28.66	716.50		

According to the findings provided in Table 14, a significant difference exists between the control and experiment group subjects' pre, while, post-listening/reading strategy use patterns ( $U_{pre}=170.50$ ,  $U_{while}=190.00$ ,  $U_{post}=183.50$ ,  $p<.05$ ), which confirms the third hypothesis related to the impact of explicit listening/reading strategy training on learners' use of pre, while, post-listening/reading strategies. Based on these findings, it can be argued that the overt listening/reading strategy instruction has led to an increase in the use of pre, while and post-listening/reading strategies.

It is understood from above-mentioned results that explicit strategy training has fostered learners' use of strategies in pre, while and post-listening/reading strategy stages. Learners were trained to recognize pre, while and post-listening/reading stages and choose the appropriate strategies to be used in these stages. This result reveals that strategy training was successful in raising learners' awareness of pre, while and post-listening/reading strategies and making them use these strategies more often. It can be argued that teachers can also focus on teaching pre, while and post-listening/reading strategies explicitly because it makes a difference in their strategy use patterns. Learners' increased awareness of listening/reading stages and their ability to use the appropriate strategies for these stages may also foster their language learning performance.



## **The Impact of Overt Listening and Reading Strategy Training on Sustainability and Transferability of Listening/Reading Strategies**

In this section, the answer to the fourth research question ‘How willing are the learners to continue using the listening/reading strategies in their future learning situations?’ is given based on the qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews. The main purpose of the interview questions was to predict participants’ ability and willingness to use the listening and reading strategies they have learned in future learning situations. Similarly, the researcher attempted to understand whether the overt listening and reading strategy instruction has helped to achieve the instructional goals, i.e.; raising learners’ awareness of listening and reading strategies, making learners informed of the purpose and value of the listening and reading strategies, helping learners use the listening and reading strategies appropriately and effectively. In addition, the interview questions also served to facilitate the assessment of the overt listening/reading strategy instruction programme by the participants.

With the above-discussed aims in mind, nine participants, from the experiment group who constituted the focus group, were individually interviewed based on the following questions:

1. Can you choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity?
2. Can you use the strategies without any help from peers or the teacher during listening/reading activities?
3. Can you think of the correct strategy for pre, while and post-listening/reading activities?
4. Can you apply the strategies effectively during all classroom listening/reading activities?
5. Do you think you can reapply the listening/reading strategies you have learned in new situations?
6. Can you distinguish between effective and ineffective listening/reading strategies for a particular listening/reading activity?
7. Can you use the listening/reading strategies with a specific purpose?

8. Can you choose the right strategies according to the purpose of the listening/reading activity?
9. Do you think you can perform better when you use the appropriate strategies during listening/reading activities?
10. Can you feel relaxed while using strategies during listening/reading activities?
11. Can you automatically apply the appropriate listening/reading strategy for the listening task without hesitation?
12. Can you think about whether you can use listening/reading strategies effectively enough or not?
13. Do you think you can use the listening/reading strategies outside the classroom, too?

As mentioned earlier, the interview questions served a number of purposes. For example, questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 are concerned with learners' ability to use strategies purposefully and effectively; questions 9, 10, 11, 12 are related with learners' self-assessment of their strategy use; and questions 5, 13 aim to reveal learners' tendencies to sustain the strategies and transfer them to new learning situations. In the following sections, learners' responses to the related questions are interpreted and discussed under the titles which reflect the purpose of the related interview questions. The interpretation of is done in two steps. First, participants' responses to the interview questions are provided. Secondly, these responses are interpreted and discussed by making references to the quantitative data results.

### **Learners' Purposeful and Effective Strategy Use**

In this section, learners' responses to questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 which are related with effective and purposeful use of listening/reading strategies are discussed and interpreted.

When the participants were asked whether they could choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity, eight out of nine interviewees stated that they could do it. Only one participant said that he was not sure whether he could do it. They also gave examples of how they could choose the right strategy for the appropriate activity by

referring to the strategies they used during the listening and reading proficiency test they had just taken. One of the students responded as the following:

*“Yes, I can. I used to have difficulty with listening activities. I couldn’t understand anything because I had poor vocabulary knowledge. But now, I mind the stress and intonation and take down notes while listening. And then, I make out the meaning from stress and intonation considering the meaning of the sentences, too. Before, while I was thinking about one sentence, I would miss the next sentence; thus, I couldn’t make out the meaning. But I can do this now, because I take down notes. Before, I didn’t use to look at the reading comprehension questions and I used to make a lot mistakes because of this. Now, I read the comprehension questions before I start reading.”*

It is understood from learners’ responses to the above-mentioned questions that they have grown more conscious of their listening/reading strategy use because they can choose the appropriate strategies that are useful for accomplishing the task as shown in the extract from one of the learners’ response: *“Before, while I was thinking about one sentence, I would miss the next sentence; thus, I couldn’t make out the meaning. But I can do this now, because I take down notes”*. It is likely that the learner was already aware of the existence of the note-taking strategy; however, s/he was probably not competent in using this strategy purposefully at the right listening/reading stage. It can be argued that overt listening/reading strategy instruction has facilitated learners’ purposeful and effective use of the listening/reading strategies they may already be aware of. Subjects’ increased listening/reading proficiency and strategy use as shown by the results previously discussed may also be related with learners’ purposeful use of strategies; in truth, there may be a reciprocal relationship between the two.

Learners’ ability to use the strategies they have learned independently was within the scope of the interview. When they were asked whether they could use the strategies without any help from their peers or the teacher or not, eight out of nine interviewees expressed confidence in their ability to use the strategies independently. Moreover, some of them stated that they had already used the listening and reading strategies while studying for the exam which they took on the day of the interview. One respondent said that she could use the strategies on her own, but she could do it thanks to her previous language learning experiences. Another interviewee stated that she could use the strategies without any help, because she learned how to make most of the strategies well. In this context, it is possible to argue that one of the reasons for the improvement in learners’ listening/reading achievement shown by the quantitative results may have been learners’ ability to use the listening/reading strategies independently as understood from their above-mentioned

responses. It would not be wrong to suggest that learners' ability to use the strategies on their own might have helped them handle the listening and reading tasks more effectively, which may have fostered their listening/reading achievement.

Interviewees were also asked if they could recognise the pre, while and post stages of listening and reading activities and apply the appropriate strategies at each stage. All the interviewees stated that they could do this by giving examples of the listening and reading strategies they use at pre, while and post stages. One interviewee stated that she would make inferences from the pictures or the titles before reading. During the while-listening activities, she would pay attention to stress and intonation and listen for details. Another interviewee answered this question as the following: *“Yes, I can. For example, I look at the listening comprehension questions before I begin listening. I try to guess the answers. When I listen to the text, I confirm my guesses or find the correct answers.”*

Based on the above-mentioned learner responses, it can be stated that learners' awareness of the strategies used in pre, while and post- listening/reading stages has increased as a result of the overt listening/reading strategy instruction. This is also supported by the quantitative findings which revealed that overt listening/reading strategy instruction has increased learners' use of strategies in pre, while and post-listening/reading stages. It can be argued that the above-mentioned statement based on qualitative data is reinforced by quantitative data. Similarly, it can be argued that learners' increased awareness of listening/reading stages and the strategies to be used in these stages may have contributed to their use of strategies at the right step and with the right purposes, which may have also contributed to the increase in their listening/reading proficiency as shown by the findings.

The researcher questioned whether learners could use the strategies effectively during all classroom listening and reading activities or not. Six out of nine students stated that they could do it, while three of them were not sure if they could use them effectively during all classroom listening and reading activities without any teacher guidance. One of the students stated that he could even help others with learning and using the strategies. Another student answered as the following:

*“Yes, I can. I have a dream of travelling all around the world; thus, I want to learn English better and I am interested in learning English, it is like a must for me. I already use the strategies, even outside the classroom. When I have a conversation with my family or friends, I try to speak English.”*

The desirable outcome of the overt strategy instruction is not only using strategies, but also using them effectively. In order to understand whether students could distinguish between effective and ineffective strategies, the researcher asked for interviewees' answers to the question. Seven out of nine interviewees said that they could understand which strategy is effective for the language activity, while two of them were not sure that they could do it.

Purposeful use of strategies was one of the instructional goals of the listening and reading strategy instruction. When interviewees were asked if they could use the strategies with a specific purpose and choose the right strategy according to the purpose of the activity, they all stated that they could do it. However, some of them confessed that they could not use strategies with a specific purpose in the beginning, but they learned how to do it as they grew familiar with strategies and strategy instruction. In addition, they gave examples of the strategies they used with a specific purpose in the exam they took on the day of the interview. One student stated that he used the strategy 'listening for general idea' for multiple choice items that tested listening skills and 'listening for details' for fill-in-the-blanks items in the exam. Another student said that she used the 'breathing deeply' strategy to relax before the exam.

It is understood from the above-mentioned student responses that learners could use the listening/reading strategies purposefully and effectively. As discussed earlier, it is also possible to make a connection between learners' increased listening/reading achievement as a result of the overt listening/reading strategy instruction and their ability to choose between effective and ineffective strategies and choose the strategy that is in line with the purpose of the listening/reading activity. In other words, it can be argued that learners' purposeful and effective use of strategies may have contributed to the increase in their listening/reading achievement.

### **Learners' Self-Assessment of their Strategy Use**

Learners' self-assessment of their strategy use is important in terms of evaluating the effectiveness of strategy instruction and making changes accordingly. In order to understand whether learners think strategy use has any positive effect on their listening/reading performance or not, the researcher asked for interviewees' ideas. All interviewees were positive about the impact of listening and reading strategy instruction on their performance. They all agreed that strategy instruction helped them perform better

over a period of time. Similarly, a number of interviewees confessed that they were better at listening and reading than they were before the strategy instruction. One of them stated that she became more successful in her exams after the strategy instruction began. Interestingly, one interviewee mentioned the effect of using the listening strategy of paying attention to stress and intonation on her speaking skills. She stated that she became more careful about stress and intonation while speaking because she used this strategy in listening. It can be argued that the learner actually transferred the listening strategy to her speaking, which supports the idea that overt listening/reading strategy instruction facilitates strategy transfer because learners' strategic consciousness is high (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Another interviewee said: *"Before, I used to underline the text randomly. Now, I am more selective. I can distinguish the important parts and underline them. I am more conscious."* This student response indicates that the learner is positive about the impact of explicit listening/reading strategy instruction on her strategy use because she thinks strategy training has made her a more "conscious" strategy user who can "distinguish the important parts and underline them."

When interviewees were asked whether they could use the strategies without hesitation or anxiety or not, their answers had some points in common. The majority of students stated that they used to feel anxious while using strategies during the first weeks of the strategy instruction, but they started using strategies with confidence over a period of time. However, one interviewee stated that his poor language skills prevented him from using strategies without hesitation or anxiety. In other words, he was too busy with trying to understand the language, which left him no space for strategy use.

Similarly, eight out of nine interviewees stated that they could think about whether they used the strategies effectively or not. However, one of them confessed that he could do it for reading, but not for listening. The examples students gave while explaining how they assessed their strategy use indicate that they became more conscious strategy users as a result of overt listening and reading strategy instruction. One of them stated that:

*"I didn't use to pay much attention to the pictures, I would skip them. I wouldn't read the title and subtitles, either. But, now I use them to make inferences, I think about what is to appear in the listening or reading text."*

Another student said that:

*“Before I started using strategies, I used to focus only on grammar while reading. But now, I try to grasp the main idea.”*

When learners’ reflections on their strategy use performance were analysed, it was understood that they could realize the positive difference overt listening/reading strategy instruction made on their listening and reading proficiency. Similarly, it is seen that they could notice that they grew more comfortable with strategy use over time although they were nervous at the very beginning. Learners’ self-assessments of their strategy use performance are, in truth, confirmed by the result that learners’ listening and reading achievement increased as a result of the treatment.

### **Sustainability and Transferability of the Strategies**

It is important that learners keep using the listening and reading strategies they have learned in new learning situations and outside the classroom, too. Therefore, in order to predict learners’ sustainability of their strategy use, interviewees were asked whether they could use the strategies in new situations or outside the classroom or not. All the interviewees stated that they could use the strategies in new learning situations. The interviewees have replaced the term ‘new situation’ with numerous examples. To begin with, one of them stated that he would use the strategies if he happened to work in tourism sector that required English language skills. Similarly, one of the interviewees added that she could even teach the listening and reading strategies to her students in the way she had learned them when she became a teacher in the future. One of the interviewees said:

*“I can use the strategies in new situations, because I think, the processes I used would be the same if I were learning Turkish, too. The instructor may teach well, but I can perform well as much as I can understand....I would still use the same strategies.”*

The above-mentioned student response shows that the learner is positive about their ability to transfer the strategies s/he has learned to new language learning situations. It is also understood that the learner is aware that not only the teacher but s/he is also responsible for facilitating the strategy transfer as indicated by his/her statements: *“The instructor may teach well, but I can perform well as much as I can understand”*. However, some of them indicated that they would use the listening and reading strategies only if they had to. One of the interviewees said that he would use the strategies if he happened to attend an English course and would develop some new strategies as he improved.

Learners' statements show that they are willing to use the listening/reading strategies they have learned in new learning situations, which provides the answer to the fourth research question. In other words, it can be argued that overt listening/reading strategy instruction facilitates sustainability of the strategies. Similarly, it is understood that learners think they are ready to transfer the strategies to new learning situations as one of the learners response shows: *"I can use the strategies in new situations, because I think, the processes I used would be the same if I were learning Turkish, too....."*. Learners' tendency to transfer the listening and reading strategies is also reflected in one of the learners' responses mentioned in previous sections despite the fact that the question was not related to strategy transfer. The learner mentioned transferring the listening strategy of paying attention to stress and intonation to make out the meaning to her speaking skills.

In sum, learners' responses to the interview questions revealed that overt listening/ reading strategy instruction is successful in making them use strategies purposefully and effectively. Similarly, it is understood that they hold positive beliefs about the impact of strategy training on their listening/reading performance as their self-assessments of their strategy use performance revealed. As discussed earlier, learners' effective use of strategies and their positive self-assessments of their strategy use performance are interrelated with their willingness to keep using and transfer the strategies. In this context, it is also understood that learners are willing to keep using the listening/reading strategies they learned and are aware that they can transfer these strategies to new learning situations, which supports learners' responses to the previous questions. This realization is also supported by the argument that overt strategy instruction facilitates sustainability and transferability of strategies because learners develop strategic consciousness (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).



## CONCLUSIONS

Language learning strategies stem from a learner-centred philosophy of learning that puts emphasis on developing learner autonomy (Oxford, 2011). A concept based on a cobweb of learning theories (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014), LLS may have the potential to address different learners' needs (Cohen & Weaver, 2006) which makes it a research-worthy area. As such, brief information on these learning theories on which LLS are supposed to be based was given. Definitions and classifications of LLS by different researchers were also provided by comparing these definitions and classifications. It is discussed that LLS do not stand on their own; on the contrary, they are interrelated with several variables; e.g., gender, language proficiency, learning styles, beliefs about language learning, motivation, self-efficacy and culture and research indicates that these variables play a key role in learners' choice and use of LLS (Green & Oxford, 1995; Phakiti, 2003; Cohen & Weaver, 2006; Gabillon, 2005; Vandergift, 2005; Çubukçu, 2008; Grainger, 2012).

Language learning strategies used in listening and reading were within the scope of the study. Therefore, reading and listening in EFL were analysed from different perspectives in relation to LLS. Firstly, their role and importance in EFL was discussed. Secondly, a number of studies on listening and reading strategies were presented with a focus on their relevance to this study. Thirdly, the past and present of teaching reading and listening were discussed. The theoretical background of listening and reading in EFL was also briefly presented.

This study aimed to reveal the impact of overt listening/reading strategy instruction on learners' listening/reading proficiency and listening/reading strategy use patterns. For this purpose, an experimental study design was established with 48 participants, 23 in the control group and 25 in the experiment group. The participants in the experiment group received overt strategy training for one month. Therefore, strategy instruction models were

within the scope of this study, which mainly followed a similar pattern that focuses on presentation, which involves raising learners' awareness of the strategies; practice, which involves giving learners the chance to use the strategies and assessment and monitoring of the strategies, which involves transferability and sustainability of LLS. In addition, components of effective strategy instruction were discussed based on a review of literature. Explicit and integrated strategy instruction was found to be considered effective (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In addition, the importance of considering learner variables in the selection of strategies to be taught was emphasized. Similarly, discussions on the language of strategy instruction, textbook and materials design, ways of strategy assessment and the need for teacher training in strategy assessment were covered.

The findings from the statistical analysis of data yielded the results that answered the research questions. Firstly, it was found that overt listening and reading strategy instruction resulted in an increase in learners' reading and listening achievement. Secondly, the findings revealed explicit listening/reading strategy training did not result in a significant increase in the use of metacognitive and socioaffective strategies; however, it caused a significant increase in the use of cognitive strategies. Thirdly, it was found that learners' use of LLS at pre, while and post-listening/reading stages was significantly fostered by overt listening/reading strategies instruction. In other words, strategy training increased learners' use of listening and reading strategies at pre, while and post stages. Finally, an analysis of the data from semi-structured interviews revealed that learners' strategy awareness was raised as a result of strategy training, which is also in line with the results based on quantitative data. Their responses revealed that they were willing to keep using listening/reading strategies they learned in future learning situations.

### **Implications for Teaching**

Based on the above-mentioned results, discussions and interpretations, it is possible to suggest a number of implications for EFL teaching. Given that explicit strategy training fosters learners' reading/listening proficiency, it can be suggested that teachers adopt strategy training to boost their learners' performance. It can be argued that their increased proficiency may also foster autonomy and motivation as discussed earlier in detail in the explanation of Oxford's (2011) Strategic Self-Regulation Model.

Similarly, explicit strategy training may also be used to empower learners' strategy use frequency as shown by the results from a number of studies (Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Carrier, 2003; Cross, 2009; Wagner, 2010; Bozorgian & Pillay 2013; Rokhsari, 2012; Phakiti, 2003). In this study, it was found that learners' use of cognitive strategies increased significantly, while there was not a significant increase in learners' use frequency of metacognitive and socioaffective strategies after the treatment. As discussed earlier, similar findings that support the aforementioned result that learners' use cognitive strategies most often as a result of LLS instruction came from other studies, too (Teng, 1998; Vandergift, 2003). Considering this result, it may be suggested that teachers and curriculum developers put greater emphasis on teaching and use of metacognitive and socioaffective strategies because it is understood that learners stick to their beliefs about language learning in their choice of strategies and may not easily adopt strategies with which they are barely familiar as discussed by Bedell and Oxford (1996). Teachers may start with recognizing their learners' beliefs about language learning so as to understand the way they approach language learning so that they can design their strategy instruction program in a way that focuses on the strategies that learners are not familiar with. Similarly, they can raise learners' awareness of the variety of the strategies they can use by informing them of the purpose and value of the strategies. However, as discussed earlier, they should be careful not to push learners into using strategies with which they are not culturally used to; otherwise, they may develop resistance to strategy training (Oxford & Leaver, 1996). Instead, teachers may start with culturally familiar strategies and move towards strategies that are new for their learners to facilitate a smooth transition (Bedell & Oxford, 1996)..

Textbook and materials design for strategy instruction is also an important issue (Hajer et al., 1996). Teachers may decide to prepare their own materials for strategy instruction considering their learners' strategy needs instead of being dependent on materials prepared for diverse cultural contexts and learning needs that may not be parallel with their learners' needs. Keeping the criteria for effective materials design in mind, using teacher-designed materials may be useful in customizing strategy training to learners' needs, which may increase the effectiveness of teaching.

Training teachers in strategy training is another key point to consider. Teachers may choose to attend workshops or conferences on strategy training or they may attend a certified course. Following a Master's Degree may also be a good idea to improve

teachers' skills in foreign language teaching in general and strategy training in particular. In addition, teachers may keep themselves informed of the basic concepts related to strategy training by reading academic publications on LLS training or they may benefit from a teacher experienced in strategy training.

### **Further Research on LLS: What should be its focus?**

Research on language learning strategies up to now has focused on the definition, classification, instruction and assessment of LLS. It can be argued that there is an agreement on the definition of LLS despite minor differences in terminology. They are briefly defined as conscious and planned actions/steps taken by the learner to aid learning in cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social aspects. Similarly, the language learning strategy classification systems have similar divisions; e.g., cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social and affective strategy divisions. It is also possible to observe a repeated pattern in language learning strategy instruction models, which is based on a cycle of the following stages/phases: preparation for strategy training, explicit modelling/demonstration of strategies, practice integrated into regular language learning activities, assessment of strategy use and transferability/expansion of strategies to new learning situations.

In contrast to the above-mentioned research areas, little research has been conducted on how strategies can be transferred to new language tasks/activities; in other words, transferability of strategies and how learners can be encouraged to keep on using the strategies in future language learning situations which refers to the sustainability of strategies. Transferability and sustainability of language learning strategies are viewed as an extension of LLS instruction; in truth, they are already included in some of the strategy instruction models (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990; Macaro, 2001). However, transferability and sustainability of strategies deserve greater emphasis than merely being a part of strategy training. On the one hand, training learners on how to use strategies effectively may be the first step into making them strategically competent. On the other hand, it is of greater importance to facilitate the transferability and sustainability of language learning strategies so that LLS may be a permanent part of learners' language learning patterns rather than a temporary tool they use.

Further research on the transferability and sustainability of LLS needs to be conducted. What is more; these two components need to be considered as areas of research on their own rather than being viewed them as a part of strategy instruction. For this purpose, research on learners' ability to transfer LLS they have learned to new tasks can be conducted by involving the same group of learners to whom strategy instruction has been given in new language learning situations. Research methods may be think-aloud protocols, interviews, observations and learning journals. Learners' performance in using the strategies they have learned in new situations may also give ideas about the effectiveness of strategy instruction.

Similarly, longitudinal research designs can be used to understand the degree of learners' maintenance of LLS they have learned. For this purpose, learners' strategy use can be reassessed after a certain period time has passed since the completion of LLS instruction. The time periods between the initial assessment conducted right after the completion of strategy instruction and second assessment conducted sometime after the strategy instruction may vary depending on the purpose of the researchers. Similarly, this time period may help determine the level of sustainability of strategies. Learners might be expected to use strategies as often and effectively as in the initial assessment if they are reassessed a short time after strategy instruction ended. In addition, it may be hypothesized that learners tend to use strategies less often and effectively than they used to during strategy instruction when they are reassessed a long time after strategy instruction ended. Research designs that can test these hypotheses can be established.

Transferability and sustainability of LLS are research areas that may deserve attention as much as definition, classification and instruction of language learning strategies. Understanding the factors that have impact on learners' transfer of the strategies to new learning situations and how they do it may be the key to increasing the effectiveness of strategy instruction. Similarly, it may help strengthening learners' strategic competence and autonomy. In addition, focusing on the variables that influence learner's maintenance of LLS may help learners retain the strategies they have learned. For these reasons, it may be suggested that the focus of further research on LLS be the transferability and sustainability of LLS.

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*GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR..*

## **APPENDICES**

In this section, full texts of research instruments which are EFL Listening/Reading Strategies Scale (Appendix 1), Listening/Reading Proficiency Pre-Test (Appendix 2) and Listening/Reading Proficiency Post-Test (Appendix 3) are found. In addition, full text of Listening/Reading Strategy Instruction Coursepack (Appendix 4) which was used in overt listening/reading strategy instruction is provided. Finally, semi-structured interview videos transcriptions (Appendix 5) are presented.



## Appendix 1. - EFL Listening/Reading Strategies Scale

### EFL READING AND LISTENING STRATEGIES SCALE (YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE OKUMA VE DİNLEME STRATEJİLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ)

Dear Participant,  
Sayın Katılımcı,

The following survey intends to reveal which strategies you have used or not used during the reading and listening proficiency test you have just taken. The results of the survey are to be used for research purposes only, and will not be shared with a third party. Thank you for your kind participation and interest.

Aşağıdaki anket, katıldığınız okuma ve dinleme becerisi yeterlilik sınavında kullandığınız ya da kullanmadığınız stratejileri ortaya çıkarma amacı gütmektedir. Anket sonuçları sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır ve üçüncü bir şahısla paylaşılmayacaktır. Katılımınız ve ilginiz için teşekkür ederim.

Pınar KAHVECİ  
Gazi University ELT MA Student  
Gazi Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Please, read the following statements and put a tick in the relevant box.  
Lütfen, aşağıdaki ibareleri okuyunuz ve fikrinizi yansıtan kutucuğa işaret (+) koyunuz.

#### A. PRE-READING / LISTENING STRATEGIES (OKUMA/DİNLEME ÖNCESİ KULLANILAN STRATEJİLER)

		Always	Sometimes	Never
		Daima	Bazen	Asla
	During pre-reading/listening activity, I... (Okuma/dinleme öncesi aktivitesi sırasında ben...)			
1.	read/listen to the instructions about the reading/listening task. (okuma/dinleme aktivitesi le ilgili yönergeleri okur/dinlerim.)			
2.	look at the pictures related to reading/listening task (okuma parçasıyla ilgili resimlere bakarım.)			
3.	read the title and subheadings. (başlık ve alt başlıkları okurum.)			
4.	try to guess what the reading/listening text is about. (okuma parçasının neyle ilgili olduğunu tahmin etmeye çalışırım.)			
5.	visualize the setting of the listening text in my mind. (dinleme metninin geçtiği mekanı kafamda canlandırırım.)			
6.	try to guess the age, job, education and culture of the speakers. (konuşmacıların yaşını, mesleğini, eğitimini ve kültürünü tahmin etmeye çalışırım.)			
7.	try to guess when, where and how the text was written and who the author of the text is.			

	(okuma parçasının ne zaman, nerede, nasıl yazıldığını ve yazarın kim olduğunu tahmin etmeye çalışırım.)			
8.	try to guess the vocabulary items and structures that may appear in the reading/listening text. (okuma/dinleme parçasında karşıma çıkabilecek kelime ve yapıları tahmin etmeye çalışırım.)			
9.	have a look at the reading/listening comprehension questions to understand what I am going to read/listen for. (ne amaçla okuyacağımı/dinleyeceğimi anlamak için okuduğumu/dinlediğini anlama sorularına göz atarım.)			
10.	search for lexical or structural clues within the reading/listening activity to guess the answers. (okuma/dinleme aktivitesi içinde cevapları tahmin etmemi sağlayacak kelime ve yapıyla ilgili ipuçları ararım.)			
11.	discuss my guesses about the reading/listening text with my peers. (okuma parçası ve yazarla ilgili tahminlerimi arkadaşlarımla tartışırım.)			
12.	ask about my peers' guesses about the reading/listening text. (arkadaşlarıma parçanın yazarı ve içeriği hakkındaki tahminlerini sorarım.)			
13.	try to motivate myself into the reading/listening text. (kendimi okuma parçasına motive ederim.)			
14.	eliminate stressful feelings by breathing deeply. (derin nefes alarak stres duygusundan kurtulmaya çalışırım.)			

**B. WHILE- READING / LISTENING STRATEGIES (OKUMA/DİNLEME ESNASINDA KULLANILAN STRATEJİLER)**

		Always	Sometimes	Never
	During while-reading/listening activity, I... (Ana okuma/dinleme aktivitesi sırasında ben...)	Daima	Bazen	Asla
1.	read/listen to the text to get the main idea. (ana fikri edinmek için okurum/dinlerim.)			
2.	read/listen to understand each and every word and sentence very carefully. (her kelime ve cümleyi anlamak için çok dikkatlice okurum/dinlerim.)			
3.	pay attention to the tone of voice, stress and intonation of speakers. (konuşmacıların ses tonuna, vurgu ve tonlamasına dikkat ederim.)			
4.	try to understand the emotions of the speakers from their tone of voice. (konuşmacıların ses tonlarından duygularını anlamaya çalışırım.)			

5.	try to decipher the implied messages in the reading/listening text. (okuma/dinleme parçasındaki ima edilen mesajları anlamaya çalışırım.)			
6.	try to understand the purpose of the author/speakers. (yazarın/konuşanların niyetini anlamaya çalışırım.)			
7.	underline the words or sentences the meaning of which I cannot make out while reading. (okurken anlamını çıkaramadığım cümle ve kelimelerin altını çizerim.)			
8.	try to guess the meanings of the unknown words from context while reading. (okurken bilinmeyen kelimelerin anlamını bağlamdan çıkarmaya çalışırım.)			
9.	think of words with similar meanings when I am not sure about the meaning of a word while reading. (okurken bir kelimenin anlamından emin olmadığım, ona yakın anlamlı kelimeler düşünürüm.)			
10.	try to infer meaning from the words I hear when I cannot understand the whole listening text. (tüm metni anlamadığımda duyduğum kelimelerden anlam çıkarmaya çalışırım.)			
11.	try to understand the genre (poem, essay, newspaper article, etc....) of the reading text. (okuma parçasının türünü [şiir, makale, gazete yazısı, vb.] anlamaya çalışırım.)			
12.	read by guessing what will come in the next sentence or paragraph. (gelecek cümle ya da paragrafta ne geleceğini tahmin ederek okurum.)			
13.	underline the parts of the text which, I think, are key to comprehension. (parçanın anlaşılması için kilit nokta olduğunu düşündüğüm kısımların altını çizerim.)			
14.	set a different purpose each time I read/listen to the text. (her okuyuşumda/dinleyişimde farklı bir amaç belirlerim.)			
15.	take notes about speakers, the topic of the text, setting and my own interpretation of the speakers' messages while listening. (konuşanlar, metnin konusu, mekan ve konuşmacıların ifade etmek istedikleriyle ilgili notlar alırım.)			
16.	note down my interpretation and inferences from the text while reading. (okurken parçadan yaptığım çıkarımlar ve yorumları not alırım.)			

17.	look for lexical and structural cues that will help answer the comprehension questions within the reading/listening text. (okuma/dinleme parçası içinde soruları cevaplamama yardımcı olacak kelime ve yapıyla ilgili ipuçları ararım.)			
18.	try to both read/listen to the text and answer the comprehension questions at the same time. (aynı anda hem parçayı okuyup/dinleyip, hem de soruları cevaplamaya çalışırım.)			
19.	read/listen to the whole text and then start answering the comprehension questions benefiting from my notes. (önce tüm parçayı okur/dinler, sonra notlarımdan faydalanarak soruları cevaplamaya başlarım.)			
20.	discuss my interpretation of the reading/listening text with my peers. (parçayla ilgili yorumumu arkadaşlarımla paylaşıyorum.)			
21.	ask questions to my friends about their interpretation of the reading/listening text. (arkadaşıma okuma/dinleme parçasını yorumlamaları hakkında sorular sorarım.)			
22.	do not lose my motivation when I cannot understand each and every word in the reading/listening text. (okuma/dinleme parçasındaki her kelimeyi anlamadığımda motivasyonumu kaybetmem.)			
23.	eliminate negative feelings by thinking that I am performing well. (iyi bir performans sergileyeceğimi düşünerek olumsuz duygulardan kurtulurum.)			

C. POST- READING / LISTENING STRATEGIES (OKUMA/DİNLEME SONRASI KULLANILAN STRATEJİLER)

		Always	Sometimes	Never
		Daima	Bazen	Asla
1.	try to understand the purpose of the activity. (aktivitenin amacını anlamaya çalışırım.)			
2.	try to combine my previous knowledge with new information. (eski bilgilerimle yeni bilgiyi birleştirmeye çalışırım.)			
3.	go over my notes from the reading/listening text. (okuma/dinleme parçasıyla ilgili notlarımı tekrar okurum.)			
4.	rely on my own interpretation of the reading/listening text to complete the task at hand. (aktiviteyi tamamlamak için okuma/dinleme metninin kendi yorumuma güvenirim.)			
5.	summarize the reading/listening text in my own words			

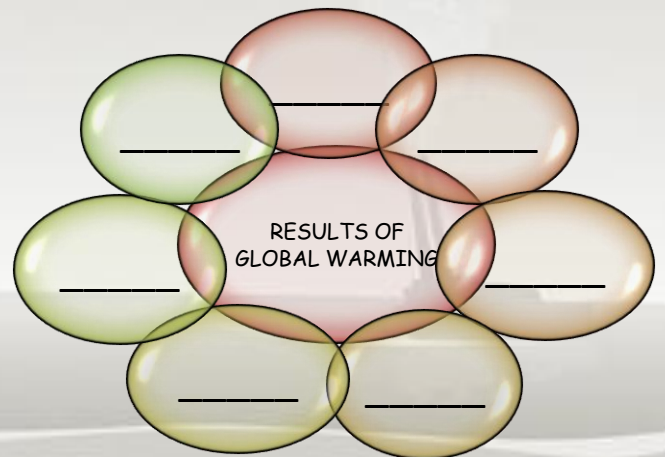
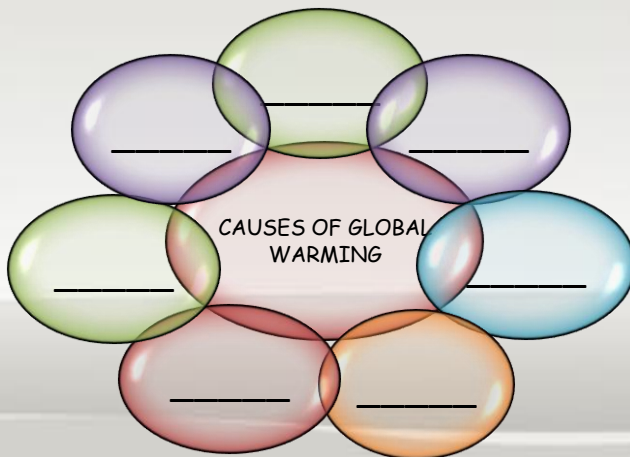
	orally or in writing. (yazılı ya da sözlü olarak okuma/dinleme parçasını kendi cümlelerimle özetlerim.)			
6.	reflect on the reading/listening text. (okuma/dinleme parçasıyla ilgili duygu ve düşüncelerimi ifade ederim.)			
7.	go back to the reading/listening text to look for ideas that can help complete the activity. (aktiviteyi tamamlama yardımcı olacak fikirler aramak için okuma/dinleme parçasına geri dönerim.)			
8.	exploit the vocabulary items and structures that appeared in the reading/listening text. (okuma/dinleme parçasında geçmiş olan kelime ve yapıları kullanırım.)			
9.	go over the parts of the reading text that I have underlined. (okuma parçasının altını çizdiğim kısımlarına tekrar bakarım.)			
10.	think about the parts of the reading/listening text I could not understand. (okuma/dinleme parçasının anlayamadığım kısımları üzerine düşünürüm.)			
11.	motivate myself to do better thinking that I performed well in reading/listening. (okurken/dinlerken iyi bir performans sergilediğimi düşünerek kendimi motive ederim.)			
12.	try to analyse my strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening. (okuma/dinleme becerimle ilgili güçlü ve zayıf yanlarımı analiz etmeye çalışırım.)			
13.	try to pinpoint the problems that hinder my reading/listening comprehension. (okuduğumu/dinlediğimi anlamamı engelleyen sorunları bulmaya çalışırım.)			

## Appendix 2. - Listening/Reading Achievement Pre-Test

### READING AND LISTENING ACHIEVEMENT PRE-TEST

A) How much do you know about global warming? Below are two diagrams. Fill in the missing parts using your knowledge about global warming. You can use the phrases given in the box. (6 points)

Burning fossil fuels	CO2 Emission	Cutting down trees	Air Pollution
Greenhouse effect	Melting of glaciers	Climate change	Extreme weather conditions



B) Below are some suggestions on how to prevent global warming. Put a check mark (✓) next to useful suggestions and an "X" next to suggestions that would not help prevent global warming. (5 points)



1. You should drive to work instead of riding a bike. \_\_\_\_
2. You should recycle paper, metal and glass. \_\_\_\_
3. You should leave the electrical appliances on standby mode. \_\_\_\_
4. You should support nuclear power plants. \_\_\_\_
5. You should use hybrid cars. \_\_\_\_
6. You should keep the lights on when you don't need them. \_\_\_\_



### PART 2

Global warming is the phenomenon of an increase in the average temperature in the atmosphere of the Earth over time. There are many reasons for global warming. While there are some natural causes for global warming, humans are largely responsible for this trend. We use fossil fuels, like coal and oil, for heating, for powering our cars, and for electricity. Burning these fossil fuels produces a great deal of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>). Carbon dioxide is stored in Earth's atmosphere, causing the atmosphere to store more heat and raising the average temperature on Earth.

Global warming can have many harmful effects on environment. Firstly, glaciers (very big ice masses) in the poles melt and sea levels increase. Increased sea level is a great risk for countries close to the poles, because a small increase in sea levels causes devastating floods. Secondly, melting glaciers cause the habitat of polar bears and penguins to get smaller. These animals may become extinct, soon. Extreme weather conditions are also a result of global warming. The winters may be too cold and summers may be too hot. Over a long period of time, global warming can result in climate change.

Is there anything we can do to prevent global warming? Actually, there are dozens of things! You can simply start by saving energy. To save energy, you can use electricity and water more economically. Using energy-saving light bulbs is also a clever idea. You can turn the water tap off while brushing your

teeth. Recycling is the best! You can recycle or reuse everything: paper, glass, metal and plastic. What about riding your bike instead of taking a bus or your car to school? You won't need any money for a bus ticket or gas, and you will burn calories, too. Global warming happens mostly because of human activity, and it is up to us to stop it, too!

**A) Read the text above and choose the best option. (5 points each)**

1. The text is generally about..... .
  - a) climate change
  - b) global warming
  - c) CO<sub>2</sub> emissions
  - d) saving energy
2. The author of the text can be a(n)..... .
  - a) elementary school student
  - b) professor of history
  - c) geography teacher
  - d) famous linguist
3. The subject "we" in the 5<sup>th</sup> line refers to..... .
  - a) the climate change scientists
  - b) people who recycle materials
  - c) human beings in general
  - d) environmentally friendly people
4. We can infer from the text that global warming..... .
  - a) happens mainly because of natural reasons
  - b) does not create any risk for animal habitats or wildlife
  - c) cannot be prevented by humans
  - d) can be controlled when people act responsibly
5. Countries close to the poles are at risk, because..... .
  - a) polar bears and penguins have a smaller habitat
  - b) high levels of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions pollute their air
  - c) the increase in sea levels causes destructive floods
  - d) they do not recycle enough
6. Which of the following is the most suitable title for the text?
  - a) Save the Globe, Stop Global Warming!
  - b) Polar Bears Cry for Help
  - c) More O<sub>2</sub>, Less CO<sub>2</sub>, Please!
  - d) Recycle-Reduce-Reuse!

**B) Read the sentences and choose the option that fits best. (2 points each)**

1. My cousin, Nathalie never does her homework on time. She is not \_\_\_\_\_ .
  - a) explicable
  - b) respectable
  - c) responsible
  - d) avoidable
2. Cigarettes are very \_\_\_\_\_ to health. Smoking too much can cause cancer.
  - a) harmful
  - b) youthful
  - c) lustful
  - d) doubtful
3. Water pollution can have destructive \_\_\_\_\_ on the environment.
  - a) reasons
  - b) effects
  - c) outcomes
  - d) causes
4. Italy, which is an amazing country, has a warm Mediterranean \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a) cuisine
  - b) people
  - c) season
  - d) climate
5. It is a really cold day! The \_\_\_\_\_ is -15 °C.
  - a) weather
  - b) season
  - c) temperature
  - d) climate

### PART 3

**A) Andy has just read the article about global warming above in the newspaper. Listen to Andy and Julia's conversation. Choose the correct option. (3 points each)**

1. Andy and Julia are talking about..... .
  - a) the newspaper articles in general
  - b) a newspaper article on global warming
  - c) Andy's ideas about global warming
  - d) the results of global warming
2. Andy and Julia can be around..... years old.
  - a) 5-8
  - b) 8-11
  - c) 11-17
  - d) 17-25
3. Which one is correct according to the text?
  - a) Julia is not interested in global warming.
  - b) Andy doesn't know a thing about global warming.
  - c) Andy and Julia are both curious about global warming.
  - d) Julia read the newspaper article before the conversation.

B) Listen to the conversation again. Read the statements below. Put a tick near the ones that are mentioned during the conversation and write their number under the correct category. (3 points each)

- Using hybrids reduces CO2 emissions. \_\_\_\_

Causes of Global Warming	
Ways to Prevent Global Warming	

- Riding a bike instead of driving can prevent global warming. \_\_\_\_
- Burning down gasoline oil for heating causes global warming. \_\_\_\_
- The use of chlorofluorocarbon causes global warming. \_\_\_\_
- Thermal plants produce too much CO2 and it causes greenhouse effect. \_\_\_\_
- Recycling paper, glass, plastic and metal is important to fight global warming. \_\_\_\_
- Greenhouse effect causes abnormal warming of the atmosphere. \_\_\_\_
- Using energy-saving light bulbs help save energy and reduce the effects of global warming. \_\_\_\_
- Using water economically is a way to prevent global warming. \_\_\_\_
- Joining protests and demonstrations can help raise awareness about global warming. \_\_\_\_

A) Andy and Julia's college has started a project competition named "What can we do to stop global warming?". Work in groups of 3 or 5. Give them some ideas based on what you have learned and write down the details of your ideas in the table given below. (10 points)

PROJECT NAME	PARTICIPANTS	PLACE	TIME	AIMS	ACTIONS	OUTCOMES

The content information for the reading text was retrieved from the following website on 1<sup>st</sup> of April 2014:  
[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Global\\_warming](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Global_warming)



### Appendix 3.- Listening/Reading Achievement Post-Test

#### READING AND LISTENING ACHIEVEMENT POST-TEST

##### PART 1: WARM UP

A) Look at the pictures below. Can you guess which city they belong to? (2 points)



The city in the pictures

is \_\_\_\_\_.

B) Read the statements about the pictures above. Which of them do you agree with or not? Indicate your opinion by writing A (agree) or D (disagree) in the spaces. (5 points)

1. This city was very small in the past, but it is a big city now. \_\_\_\_\_
2. The city did not change at all after 1990. \_\_\_\_\_
3. Many tourists visit this city every year. \_\_\_\_\_
4. There weren't many skyscrapers in this city in the past. \_\_\_\_\_
5. People don't like this city anymore, because it is very crowded. \_\_\_\_\_

##### PART 2: READING

###### DUBAI: THEN AND NOW

Dubai is like no other place on Earth. It is the world capital city of big businesses, luxury hotels, skyscrapers, and huge shopping malls. In the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, Dubai was a successful trading port. People from all over the world stopped in Dubai to do business. But it was still a small city, and most people lived as fishermen, merchants, or by raising animals. Then in 1966, oil was discovered. In time, this brought a lot of money into



region, and soon Dubai began to change.

Today, Dubai is one of the world's most influential business centres. In fact, each year most of the city's annual earnings come from business, not oil. The city is also a global trading port. Recently Dubai has become a popular *spot* for tourists. People from abroad come and relax on its beaches, and every year, millions just visit to go shopping!

Dubai is also one of the world's fastest growing cities. Buildings (some of the tallest on Earth) are built in months. The city also has a number of man-made islands. One of these, the Palm Jumeirah, is shaped like a palm tree and is particularly beautiful.

Many people are happy with the city's growth. But some native Dubai people are worried about this high speed of change. As Mohammad Al Abbar, a Dubai businessman, says, "We must always remember where we came from. Our kids must know we worked very hard to get where we are now, and there's a lot more work to do."

**A) Read the passage above and choose the best option. (5 points each)**

1. What is the main idea of the passage?
  - a) Dubai is becoming an increasingly difficult place to live.
  - b) Dubai is growing fast.
  - c) Dubai is now very similar to other cities in the world.
  - d) Dubai was a great city in the past, but now it isn't as good as before.
2. Before the mid-1960s, many people in Dubai lived \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a) in skyscrapers
  - b) on small islands
  - c) as fishermen and farmers
  - d) as oil workers
3. Which sentence about Dubai isn't true?
  - a) Dubai now makes most of its money from oil-selling.
  - b) There are a lot of foreigners working in Dubai.
  - c) Dubai gets many international visitors every year.
  - d) Dubai has created several man-made islands.
4. What does 'spot' (written in italic letters) mean?
  - a) a small colourful circle (noun)
  - b) a place, or destination (noun)
  - c) a mark on the skin (noun)
  - d) to see something (verb)
5. What does the sentence Mohammad Al Abbar says "We must always remember where we came from....." mean?
  - a) We should always remember we are from Dubai.
  - b) We should only think about the future.
  - c) We must always remember our past.
  - d) We should always visit Dubai even though we don't live there.

**B) Fill in the blanks with correct words from the box. Pay attention to the verb forms. There is one extra word. (3 points each)**

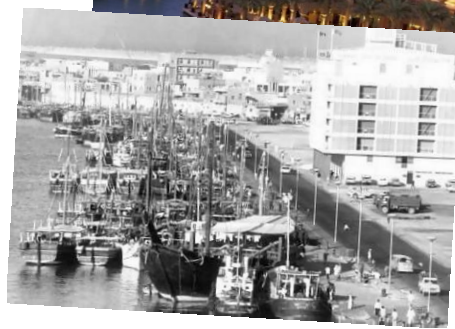
change    business    occupy    discover    tourism    spot

1. Topkapı Palace in İstanbul is one of the most important \_\_\_\_\_ for tourists.
2. People travel for many different reasons. We call this \_\_\_\_\_.
3. They \_\_\_\_\_ oil in Dubai in 1966.
4. Dubai \_\_\_\_\_ a lot after oil was discovered.
5. With its shopping malls and important trading ports, Dubai is now a \_\_\_\_\_ centre.

**PART 3: LISTENING**

**A) Listen to the text. Choose the correct option. (5 points each)**

1. The speakers are.....
  - a) a primary school teacher and a reporter
  - b) two university students
  - c) a professor and a radio presenter
  - d) a group of scientists
2. The text gives information about.....
  - a) the oil reservoirs in Dubai
  - b) Dubai's relations with its neighbours
  - c) the history and development of Dubai
  - d) the number of luxurious hotels in Dubai



3. We learn from the text that Dubai.....
- was not a very big city in the past
  - does not have any luxurious hotels
  - was not attractive to tourists after oil was discovered
  - has a lot of natural beauties

A) Listen to the text again. Fill in the blanks with correct words as you hear them in the text. (4 points each)

- In the past, Dubai \_\_\_\_\_ just a fishing village on the Persian Gulf.
- They \_\_\_\_\_ oil in Dubai in 1966.
- Dubai \_\_\_\_\_ oil as much as its neighbours.
- Dubai turned to other industries, such as trading and \_\_\_\_\_.
- Dubai has the most expensive \_\_\_\_\_, sail-shaped Burj al-Arab.
- Dubai also has man-made \_\_\_\_\_. One of them has the shape of a palm tree and the other represents a world map.
- Tourists enjoy \_\_\_\_\_ in Dubai.



#### PART 4: FOLLOW UP

A) Think about your own town. How did it change in years? Make sentences about the changes in your town. You can use the words and phrases given in the box. (10 points)

crowded      many shopping malls      not so many people      green with a lot of trees  
heavy traffic      no traffic problem      friendly people      a lot of strangers

In the past .....	Today .....
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

The reading text and reading comprehension questions are from the reading coursebook titled "Reading Jump" by Casey Malarcher published by Compass Publishing.



# LEARNING ABOUT LISTENING AND READING STRATEGIES



## MODULE 1

# TRAVEL AND TOURISM

This module consists of 4 lessons. In these lessons, you are going to.....

- ✓ learn about a number of listening and strategies
- ✓ be informed which strategies you are to learn before each lesson
- ✓ know the value and purpose of each strategy you learn
- ✓ use these strategies as you learn them within classroom learning time



In Lesson 1, you are going to learn about the following strategies:

- ✓ looking at the pictures related to the reading/listening activity
- ✓ understanding the purpose of the reading/listening activity
- ✓ reading the title and subtitles of the reading text
- ✓ guessing the vocabulary items and structures that may appear in the reading/listening text
- ✓ guessing who the author is and the content of the reading text
- ✓ guessing the content of the listening text, setting and speakers' identity
- ✓ discussing your guesses about the reading/listening text with your peers
- ✓ looking at the reading/listening comprehension questions to understand what to read/listen for
- ✓ creating mental pictures, i.e. visualizing the setting, and the appearance of speakers
- ✓ taking notes
- ✓ searching for lexical or structural clues within the reading/listening activity to guess the answers
- ✓ asking and answering questions about each other's guesses
- ✓ reflecting on the reading/listening text
- ✓ combining previous knowledge with new information
- ✓ thinking about the parts of the reading/listening text you could not understand
- ✓ analysing your strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening
- ✓ defining the problems that hinder your reading/listening comprehension

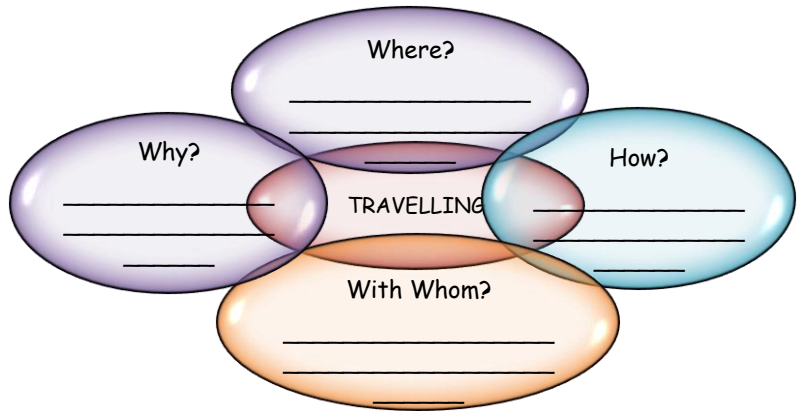




# LESSON 1: I LOVE TRAVELLING!

## PART 1: WARM UP

A) Do you like travelling and seeing different places? Fill in the diagram below about travelling.



Read the instructions. Can you understand the purpose of the activities from the instructions? Write them down.

Activity A  
\_\_\_\_\_

Activity B  
\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Reading the instructions helps you understand what you should do to complete the activity. This is important because it helps you understand which strategies are effective for the activity.

B) Look at the pictures below. Which places in Rome are they? Match them with their names by writing corresponding letters in the spaces given.

1. Roman Forum \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Trevi Fountain \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Colosseum \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Spanish Steps \_\_\_\_\_

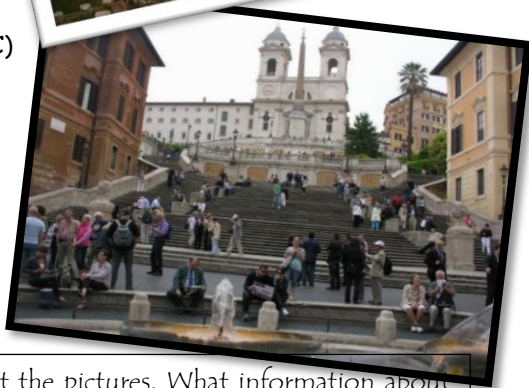
A)



B)



C)



D)



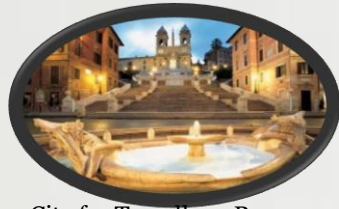
Look at the pictures. What information about the reading text do they give you?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Looking at pictures gives you ideas about the content of the reading text. They activate your previous knowledge.

On the next page are reading and listening activities. Have a quick look at the activities. Can you specify their stages, i.e. , pre, while and post reading/listening activity? Write the number/letter of the activities.

Pre-Reading/Listening Activity: \_\_\_\_\_  
While-Reading/Listening Activity: \_\_\_\_\_  
Post-Reading/Listening Activity: \_\_\_\_\_



**PART 2: READING**

**An Attractive City for Travellers: Rome**

1. \_\_\_\_\_

Rome is one of the most attractive cities for tourists from all around the world. Every year, around 7-10 million tourists from all around the world visit the city. It is home to many historical buildings, museums, archaeological remains and great works of art. It is also a fashion capital.

2. \_\_\_\_\_

There are many touristic attractions in the city. Colosseum, a hallmark of the city, is one of them. It was the largest amphitheatre during Roman Empire. Collesium witnessed many gladiator fights and other social events, such as dramas. Just west of Colosseum is Roman Forum. It was the hearth of old Rome. Many important buildings were within Roman Forum.

3. \_\_\_\_\_

Trevi Fountain is also a very popular tourist attraction. Nearly all tourists visiting Rome want to see it for its beauty. It is the largest Baroque fountain in the city. Spagna, Spanish Steps in English, is another spot worth seeing for tourists. They are the stairs between Trinità dei Monti and Piazza di Spagna at the base. C)

4. \_\_\_\_\_

Vatican is another important tourist destination. In the city, there are cultural places such as St. Peter's Basilica, the Sistine Chapel and the Vatican Museums. They have some of the world's most famous paintings, like the creation of Adam on the ceiling of Sistine Chapel, and sculptures. Close to Vatican city is Tiber River along which there are many nice restaurants where you can have really tasty Italian food and wine.

5. \_\_\_\_\_

Rome is an unforgettable city with its large streets, nice squares, amazing buildings and people who are like fashion ambassadors. There are a lot more places to see than the ones listed above. If you ever get the chance to see Rome, don't miss it! You know what they say: "All roads lead to Rome".

**A) Read the passage above and match the subtitles given below with the correct paragraph. Write the subtitles in the blanks given.**

All roads lead to Rome

Rome, the City

What to do in Vatican

Popular Tourist Attractions

Ancient Rome and Amphitheatre

**B) Read the statements below and decide whether they are TRUE or FALSE according to the passage above.**

1. Rome is not a popular tourist destination for Asian people. \_\_\_\_
2. Rome is a city famous for its fashion brands. \_\_\_\_
3. The Sagrada Família is one of the most visited places by tourists in Rome. \_\_\_\_
4. Colosseum is still used as an amphitheatre today. \_\_\_\_
5. Roman Forum was the centre of ancient Rome. \_\_\_\_
6. Trevi Fountain is not very attractive to tourists. \_\_\_\_
7. Spagna is a modern building with lots of exhibition halls. \_\_\_\_
8. St. Peter's Basilica and the Sistine Chapel are in Vatican. \_\_\_\_
9. Tiber River is far away from Vatican. \_\_\_\_
10. There are traditional Italian restaurants along Tiber river. \_\_\_\_

Do you ask about your friends' guesses about the content and author of the text? Write them down.

Friend#1 \_\_\_\_\_

Friend#2 \_\_\_\_\_

💡 Exchanging ideas with your peers' about your guesses about the content and author of the text can help you have a broader outlook on the reading text. It can support your reading comprehension.

Read the title. What information about the reading text does it give you? What can be text about?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Reading the title gives an idea about what the reading text is about. It motivates you into the text by recalling what you already know about the topic.

Write down your guesses about what you are going to read.

Who can be the author?

\_\_\_\_\_

Topic of the Reading Text

\_\_\_\_\_

When and where was the text written?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

What are the possible grammar structures and words that may appear in the reading text?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Guessing is one of the key strategies during the pre-reading stage. It prepares you for main reading. It supports your reading comprehension. It is useful, because you have an idea about what you are going to read through your own guesses.

Do you go over the reading comprehension questions before you start reading? What clues do they give you about your purpose for reading and the content of the text? Write them down.

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Having a look at the reading comprehension questions before you start reading helps you understand what you are going to read for. It will also give you ideas what the reading text is about.





**PART 3: LISTENING**

- A) Pinar and Cho are planning a trip. Listen to their Skype conversation and choose the correct option. (3 points each)**
- They are having a trip to \_\_\_\_\_.  
a) Venice    b) Milano    c) Rome    d) Palermo
  - Their trip is going to last for \_\_\_\_\_ days.  
a) 2    b) 3    c) 4    d) 5
  - Cho and Pinar are \_\_\_\_\_.  
a) sisters    b) cousins    c) roommates    d) friends
  - They are flying from \_\_\_\_\_ to Rome.  
a) İstanbul    b) Seoul    c) Dubai    d) New York
- B) Listen to the conversation again. Fill in their itinerary with the correct information. Some information is already given. (3 points each)**

Hours	1 <sup>ST</sup> Day	2 <sup>ND</sup> Day	3 <sup>RD</sup> Day
10.00 am		Seeing the Roman Forum	
11.00 am			
12.00 pm			
01.00 pm		Lunch	
02.00 pm		Seeing Spagna	
03.00 pm			
04.00 pm			
05.00 pm		Dinner	
07.00 pm			

Do you take down notes while listening? You should do so! You can take notes about:

Setting

Content of the Listening Text

Intentions and Mood of the Speakers

Your Interpretation of the Text

💡 Note-taking while listening is an important strategy, because it saves you from the burden of keeping everything in your mind. It also helps you form your own interpretation of speakers' messages so that you can answer listening comprehension questions easily.

Look at the pictures. What information about the listening text do they give you?

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💡 Looking at pictures gives you ideas about the content of the listening text. They activate your previous knowledge.

Can you draw a mental picture of the setting and the speakers? Describe it.

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💡 Imagining what the setting and speakers look like helps you create your own visual context for the listening text. It can help you understand and interpret the text better.

Write down your guesses about what you are going to listen.

Setting

Content of the Listening Text

Identity of Speakers (Name, Age, Job, Nationality)

💡 Guessing is one of the key strategies during the pre-listening stage. It prepares you for main listening. It makes it easier for you to understand the listening text. It is useful because you have an idea about what you are to hear in the

Go over all the items in the listening activity. Are there any words or sentences that help you guess the answers? If so, write them down.

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💡 Looking for grammar structures and words that may help you guess the answers helps you save time. It also gives you an idea about what to listen for during main listening.



**PART 4: WRITING**

A) Lindsay and Steven are going on a honeymoon trip to Paris soon. Lindsay has the following itinerary in his hand. Write an answer to Steven's e-mail. Give information about the details of their honey moon trip. (19 points)

Hours	1 <sup>ST</sup> Day	2 <sup>ND</sup> Day
10.00 am	Check in at the hotel	Traditional French breakfast at the hotel
11.00 am		
12.00 pm	Lunch at a cosy restaurant	Spa& mud bath at the hotel
01.00 pm	Coffee at a nice café	Lunch
02.00 pm	Seeing the Eiffel Tower	Visiting Louvre Museum
03.00 pm		
04.00 pm	A walk along the Champs Elysees	Dinner
05.00 pm		
06.00 pm		
07.00 pm	Dinner at the hotel	Thai Massage at the hotel



Have you used your previous knowledge from the listening/reading activity to do the activity? Write down which piece of information has helped you complete the activity.

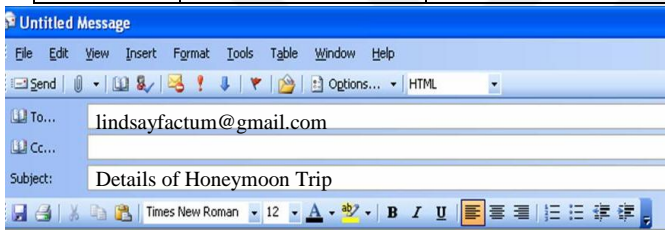
\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Combining previous and new information helps you do the post reading/listening activity effectively.



Hi Lindsay,  
 I hope you are doing great. I am very excited about our honeymoon trip and looking forward to the wedding. Can you write to me about the details of our honeymoon trip? Miss you tons.

Love & Kisses

What do you think or feel about the reading/listening text? Write down your thoughts and feelings.

Reading Text

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

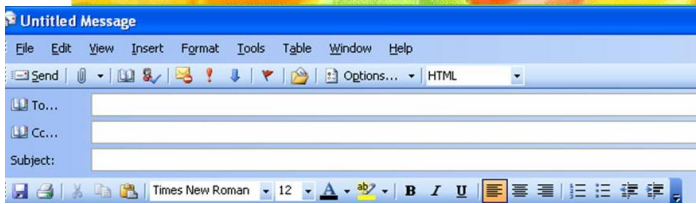
Listening Text

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Reflecting on the reading/listening text raises your awareness of your reading/listening comprehension. It helps you become a better "reader/listener".



**Think. Do. Be POSITIVE**

Think about your overall performance in the listening activity above. Write about the positive aspects of your performance.

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Focusing on your achievements can make you more motivated, so that you can achieve better.



Which parts of the reading/listening text could you not understand? Write about them.

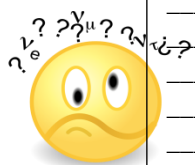
Reading Text

\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_

Listening Text

\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_

Thinking about what you could not understand in the reading/listening text can help understand the problems that hinder your reading/listening comprehension.



What are the main problems that prevent you from achieving the best performance in reading/listening? List them.

Reading

Problem 1#

\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_

Problem 2#

\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_

Listening

Problem 1#

\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_

Problem 2#

\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_

Defining the problems you face in reading/listening activities can help you solve them. Once you eliminate these problems, you can be more successful.

What are your strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening? Think about your performance in the reading/listening activity above.

Reading

Strengths: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_

Weaknesses: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_

Listening

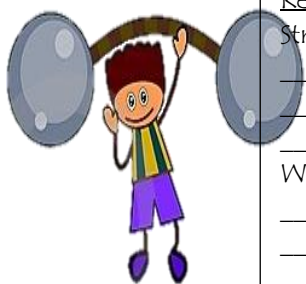
Strengths: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_

Weaknesses: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_
\_\_\_\_\_

Analysing your strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening can help you achieve greater success in listening activities. It may also help you fix the problems you face while reading/listening.





In Lesson 2, you are going to learn about the following strategies:

- ✓ looking at the pictures related to the reading/listening activity
- ✓ understanding the purpose of the reading/listening activity
- ✓ creating mental pictures, i.e. visualizing the setting, and the appearance of speakers
- ✓ understanding the genre of the reading text
- ✓ reading/listening to the text to get the main idea
- ✓ reading/listening to understand details
- ✓ reading/listening by guessing what will come next
- ✓ setting a different purpose each time one reads/listens to the text
- ✓ underlining the words or sentences the meaning of which you cannot understand while reading
- ✓ underlining the parts of the text which are thought to be key to comprehension while reading
- ✓ guessing the meanings of the unknown words from the context while reading
- ✓ thinking of words with similar meanings when not sure about the meaning of a word while reading
- ✓ the importance of using a dictionary to look up unknown words while reading
- ✓ understanding the purpose of the author/speakers
- ✓ deciphering the implied messages in the reading/listening text
- ✓ making inferences from the reading text
- ✓ paying attention to the stress and intonation of the speakers while listening
- ✓ understanding the emotions of the speakers from their tone of voice
- ✓ taking notes
- ✓ using the notes you have taken to do an activity
- ✓ asking your peers questions about their interpretation of the reading/listening text
- ✓ discussing your interpretation of the reading/listening text with your peers
- ✓ going over the underlined parts of the reading text
- ✓ going back to the reading/listening text to look for ideas that can help complete the activity
- ✓ combining previous knowledge with new information
- ✓ eliminating stressful feelings by breathing deeply
- ✓ managing stressful feelings by thinking about nice things
- ✓ eliminating negative feelings by focusing on positive aspects of your performance
- ✓ thinking about the parts of the reading/listening text you could not understand
- ✓ reflecting on the reading/listening text
- ✓ defining the problems that hinder your reading/listening comprehension
- ✓ analyzing your strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening





## LESSON 2: Holiday Time!



### PART 1: WARM UP

A) Take the following quiz. Find out which type of holiday is best for you.

1. Choose the picture that describes best holiday for you.



2. Which of the items below is always in your holiday suitcase?



3. Who do you usually want to go on a holiday with?

- a) girlfriend/boyfriend
- b) a group of friends
- c) alone

4. What is your favourite holiday activity?

- a) doing fun things all day
- b) Taking exercise
- c) Taking photos

5. What is most exciting about a holiday for you?

- a) meeting new people
- b) having interesting experiences
- c) learning about different cultures

6. Which group of words below summarize your ideal holiday best?

- a) sun, sea, sand
- b) fresh air, nature, exercise
- c) history, culture, traditions

7. Which of the sentences would you say after a perfect holiday for you?

- a) I had a lot of fun!
- b) I took lots of exercise!
- c) I learned a lot!

8. You are talking to a friend on the phone while you are on holiday. S/he asks what you are doing. You would probably answer saying:

- a) I am at a beach party!
- b) I am trekking on Kaçkar Mountains.
- c) I am taking photos in Ephesus.

Now that you are finished with the quiz, count how many A's, B's or C's you have in your answers and see what your ideal holiday is like.

Look at the pictures. What information about the reading text do they give you?

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💡 Looking at pictures gives you ideas about the content of the reading text. They activate your previous knowledge.

If you have mostly A's,....

You can't think of a holiday without sea, sand and sun. You don't even get a little bored when you spend a whole day on the beach. You like travelling only for pleasure. You want to spend time with someone special. Sunglasses, swimming wear, and sun cream are always in your holiday suitcase. Miami is a perfect holiday destination for you.

If you have mostly B's,....

You love spending time in natural surroundings on your holidays. A holiday without trekking in the mountains, and watching the stars at night does not mean much to you. Having conversations with friends around a bonfire is a perfect holiday activity for you. The Himalayas, the Kaçkar Mountains in Turkey and the Alps are your ideal holiday spots.

If you have mostly C's,....

You are a 'culture geek'. You are easily bored when you are not learning anything new on a holiday. Walking around historical sites, joining guided tours and taking photos are your favourite holiday activities. You like being on your own on your perfect holiday. Rome, Athens and Ephesus Antic city are the best holiday destinations for you.



Are you enthusiastic for reading the text right now? Or are you worried that you will not understand the reading text? You can try one of the suggestions below to feel less "stressed".

✓ Stay

away from negative

classmates!

✓ Think about your successful performances in reading.



Your negative feelings may influence your performance in reading. You should control these negative feelings to be better "readers". You are more open to learning when you think positively.



## PART 2: READING

Holidays are the best parts of everyone's lives. All people like spending fun time with their family or friends. They go somewhere they haven't been before to feel better. This drives 'tourism', which is a very important sector for countries all around the world.

The reason for travelling is not always having fun. People travel for many different reasons. If a person is suffering from a disease, they travel for health reasons. This is called medical tourism. Spa and thermal hotels are examples of medical tourism. In these hotels, people with certain illnesses, such as rheumatism or skin diseases, receive treatment under doctors' control.

There are other places famous for their cultural characteristics, like Mardin in Turkey, where there are traditional houses and many historical buildings. People want to see these places to have information about the culture of the region. We call this 'cultural tourism'.

Academic activities, such as conferences or symposiums also attract lots of people to the cities where they are organized. This is called 'congress tourism'. Similarly, businesspeople also travel a lot. They have business meetings and exhibitions in different cities and countries. This is what we call 'business tourism'.

Travelling is always a refreshing experience no matter what the reason is. You meet new people, see different places and eat delicious food. If you have enough money and time, don't forget to take a break from the hustle and bustle of daily routines and run away for a little while.



Main reading activities generally make you either "skim" or "scan" the text.

Skimming- you read the text for general understanding.

Scanning- you read the text for details.

Which of the reading activities given here make you skim the text? Write its letter.

Which of the reading activities given here make you scan the text? Write its letter.

💡 Understanding whether to read for gist or details helps you save time. It is a useful reading strategy, because it will make you a more effective reader.

Do you take notes while reading the text? Use the following space given to take notes.

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💡 Taking notes saves your time while answering the reading comprehension questions. It encourages you into interacting with the text.

Can you understand the genre of the text? What is it?

💡 Understanding the genre of the text can motivate you into the text. It also gives you ideas about what kind of language to find in the text.



Do you highlight or underline the sentences you cannot understand or the ones that, you think, are important? Indicate these sentences by numbering and marking them. Use a tick (✓) for the sentences that, you think, are important and a cross (x) for the ones you couldn't understand.

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💡 Underlining and highlighting the reading text is useful, because it personalizes the text and makes it easier for you to understand. It is also motivating.

Do you read by guessing what will come in the next sentence or paragraph? You should do so!

💡 Reading by guessing is a way of interacting with the reading text. It enhances your understanding of the text.

Can you guess the meaning of unknown words from the context? Which words could you guess in the text above? Write the words and your guesses about their meanings.

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💡 Guessing the meaning of unknown words is an important reading strategy, because it frees you from being dependent on the dictionary. It also increases your self-confidence.



**A) Read the text above and choose the best answer.**

1. The passage is mainly about.....

- a) why medical tourism is important
- b) types of tourism
- c) congress tourism
- d) why people like holidays so much

2. We understand from the passage that people.....

- a) do not like spa and thermal hotels
- b) travel for many different reasons
- c) think medical tourism is not very important
- d) travel only for pleasure and fun

3. We learn from the passage that tourism....

- a) is very important for Asian countries
- b) does not mean much to many people
- c) is in all parts of our lives
- d) can be very boring

4. Which of the following below is not mentioned in the passage?

- a) congress tourism
- b) faith tourism
- c) business tourism
- d) cultural tourism

5. Which of the following below is the most suitable title for the passage?

- a) We all travel, but why?
- b) Is a holiday always fun?
- c) How to pack a holiday suitcase
- d) Five reasons to go on a holiday



Can you find words with similar meanings when you can't remember the meaning of a word clearly? Which of the words in the text above are in this category? Write these words and the substitute words you thought of.

💡 Thinking of words with similar meanings when you can't remember the meaning of a word saves you from using the dictionary very often. It makes you a more autonomous reader.

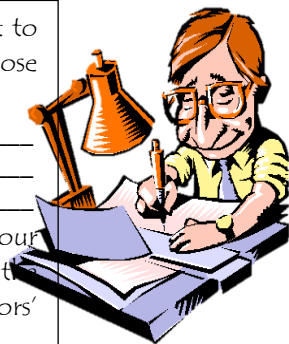


Do you check the meaning of unknown words from the dictionary while reading? Which words have you checked from the dictionary in the reading text above? Write them and their meanings down.

💡 Checking the meaning of the words from the dictionary can give you confidence, but it takes much of your time. The meaning you find in the dictionary may not always fit the context.

Can you understand the purpose of the author? Is it to inform, convince or argue? Write the author's purpose in the reading text above.

💡 Understanding authors' purpose makes your understanding of the text easier. You can interpret the messages better when you know what the authors' purpose is.



# READ

Can you read between the lines? What are the implied messages within the text? Write them down.

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💡 Deciphering the implied messages within a reading text is a useful strategy, because it deepens your comprehension of the text.

Do you set different purposes each time you read the text? What were your purposes while reading the text above?

1<sup>st</sup> Reading \_\_\_\_\_

2<sup>nd</sup> Reading \_\_\_\_\_

3<sup>rd</sup> Reading \_\_\_\_\_

💡 Setting different purposes while reading is an effective time-saving strategy. It also increases your speed of reading.



Can you make your own inferences from the information given in the text? Write them down.

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💡 Inferencing is a useful strategy, because most reading comprehension questions require it. It deepens your understanding of the text.



## PART 3: LISTENING



**A) Enrico Mortellini from Italy is suffering from eczema. He wants to visit the Balçova Thermal Hotel in Izmir for treatment. Listen to his phone conversation with the doctor. Read the statements below and write TRUE or FALSE.**

1. Enrico Mortellini is calling for more information about the treatment process. \_\_\_\_\_
2. The doctor cannot give any detailed information about the treatment plan. \_\_\_\_\_
3. Enrico Mortellini does not want to stay in the Balçova Thermal Hotel. \_\_\_\_\_

**B) Listen to the phone conversation again. Put the treatment steps in the correct order.**

- \_\_\_\_\_ The patient joins moisturizing therapy.
- \_\_\_\_\_ The doctor has a face to face interview with the patient.
- \_\_\_\_\_ The patient stays in the thermal pool according to a time plan suggested by the doctor.
- \_\_\_\_\_ The patient uses some medication.
- \_\_\_\_\_ The patient bathes with soft soaps.
- \_\_\_\_\_ The patient receives ultraviolet therapy.

Read the instructions. Can you understand the purpose of the activities from the instructions? Write them down.

Activity A

Activity B

💡 Reading the instructions helps you understand what you should do to complete the activity. It is important because it helps you to understand which strategies are effective for the activity.



Can you draw a mental picture of the setting and the speakers? Describe it.

💡 Imagining what the setting and speakers look like helps you create your own visual context for the listening text. It can help you understand and interpret the text better.

Main listening activities focus on two points. You should do the right one for the right activity.

- ✓ Listening for general idea: You don't need to hear each and every word. General understanding is enough.
- ✓ Listening for details: You need to focus on details, i.e., some individual words or phrases.

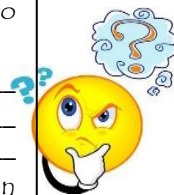
Which of the activities above make you listen for general idea? Write its letter. \_\_\_\_\_

Which of the listening activities above make you listen for details? Write its letter. \_\_\_\_\_

💡 Understanding whether to read for gist or details helps you save time. It is a useful listening strategy, because it will make you an effective listener.

Do you listen by guessing what will come next? You can do it by asking and answering questions to yourself. Write some of these questions down.

💡 Asking and answering questions to yourself can help you understand what will come next and answer the comprehension questions easily.



Do you pay attention to the stress and intonation of the speakers while listening? Write about how they help you during listening.



💡 You can learn a lot from the speakers' stress and intonation. They can give you a general idea about their messages even though you cannot hear each and every

Can you understand the speakers' emotions from their tone of voice? How are the speakers in the conversation above feeling?

#Speaker 1

#Speaker 2

💡 Understanding speakers' emotions can help you guess what they are saying more easily.

Do you listen to understand speakers' intentions? What are their intentions in the conversation above?

#Speaker 1

#Speaker 2

💡 Knowing whether speakers are arguing or informing can help you understand the listening text better.



Do you ask questions to your friends about their interpretation of the listening text? What are your friends' interpretations? Write them down.

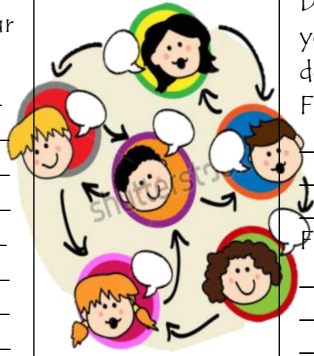
Friend#1 \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Friend#2 \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Asking about your friends' interpretation of the text can help you confirm your own interpretation. You can compare and contrast their interpretations with your interpretation and see which points you have missed.



Do you exchange ideas with your peers about your interpretation of the listening text? What do your friends think about your interpretation?

Friend#1 \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Friend#2 \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Your friends' opinions about your interpretation can help you confirm it. You can think over and make it clearer.

### PART 4: SPEAKING

A) You are going to play a game. Divide into two groups. Each person from each group chooses a card. Using the information on the card, s/he describes what kind of holiday s/he is on. The group with more correct guesses wins.

Look at Part 4. Have you used your previous knowledge from the reading/listening text to do the activity? Write down which piece of information has helped you complete the activity.

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Combining previous and new information helps you do the post-reading/listening activity effectively.

Look at Part 4. Can you rewrite/retell at least two sentences from the reading/listening text while you are describing the information in the cards? Write these sentences down.

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Retelling the ideas in the reading/listening text in your own words fosters your reading/listening comprehension. It makes you an independent learner.



Look at Part 4. Have you used your notes to do the activity? Which notes you have taken helped you?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

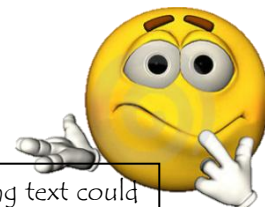
\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Using your notes to do the activity can help you save time. It also facilitates revision of what you have learned.





What do you think or feel about the reading/listening text? Write down your thoughts and feelings.

Reading Text

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Listening Text

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💡 Reflecting on the reading/listening text raises your awareness of your reading/listening comprehension. It helps you become a better reader/listener.

Which parts of the reading/listening text could you not understand? Write about them.

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💡 Thinking about what you could not understand in the listening text helps understand the problems that hinder your reading/listening comprehension.



Think about your overall performance in the reading/listening activity above. Write about the positive aspects of your performance.

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💡 Focusing on your achievements will generate positive feelings about your performance.



What are the main problems that prevent you from achieving the best performance in reading/listening? List them.

Reading

Problem 1#

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Problem 2#

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Listening

Problem 1#

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Problem 2#

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💡 Defining the problems you face in reading/listening activities can help you solve them. Once you eliminate these problems, you can be a better reader/listener.

What are your strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening? Think about your performance in the reading/listening activity above.

Reading

Strengths:

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Weaknesses:

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Listening

Strengths:

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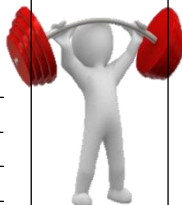
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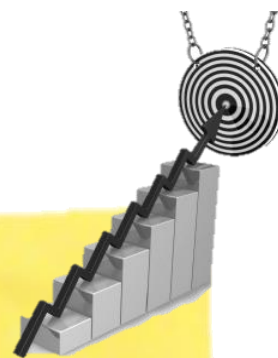
Weaknesses:

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💡 Analysing your strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening can will raise your self-awareness. It may help you fix the problems you face while reading/listening, as a result, you will be more successful.





In Lesson 3, you are going to learn about the following strategies:

- ✓ looking at the pictures related to the reading/listening activity
- ✓ understanding the purpose of the reading/listening activity
- ✓ reading the title and subtitles of the reading text
- ✓ creating mental pictures, i.e. visualizing the setting, and the appearance of speakers
- ✓ guessing the vocabulary items and structures that may appear in the reading/listening text
- ✓ guessing the content of the listening text, setting and speakers' identity
- ✓ searching for lexical or structural clues within the reading/listening activity to guess the answers
- ✓ understanding the genre of the reading text
- ✓ reading/listening to the text to get the main idea
- ✓ reading/listening to understand details
- ✓ reading/listening by guessing what will come next
- ✓ setting a different purpose each time one reads/listens to the text
- ✓ underlining the words or sentences the meaning of which you cannot understand while reading
- ✓ underlining the parts of the text which are thought to be key to comprehension while reading
- ✓ guessing the meanings of the unknown words from the context while reading
- ✓ thinking of words with similar meanings when not sure about the meaning of a word while reading
- ✓ the importance of using a dictionary to look up unknown words while reading
- ✓ understanding the purpose of the author/speakers
- ✓ deciphering the implied messages in the reading/listening text
- ✓ making inferences from the reading text
- ✓ paying attention to the stress and intonation of the speakers while listening
- ✓ understanding the emotions of the speakers from their tone of voice
- ✓ taking notes
- ✓ using the notes you have taken to do an activity
- ✓ asking your peers questions about their interpretation of the reading/listening text
- ✓ discussing your interpretation of the reading/listening text with your peers
- ✓ going over the underlined parts of the reading text
- ✓ going back to the reading/listening text to look for ideas that can help complete the activity
- ✓ combining previous knowledge with new information
- ✓ eliminating stressful feelings by breathing deeply
- ✓ managing stressful feelings by thinking about nice things
- ✓ eliminating negative feelings by focusing on positive aspects of your performance
- ✓ thinking about the parts of the reading/listening text you could not understand
- ✓ reflecting on the reading/listening text
- ✓ defining the problems that hinder your reading/listening comprehension
- ✓ analyzing your strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening



# LESSON 3: What's so interesting about travelling?



How do you feel at the moment? Are you ready for listening? You can try one of the following to eliminate stress!

✓ Breathe deeply!



✓ Say to yourself: "I can do it!"



✓ Imagine somewhere or something nice!



💡 Controlling your stress is important, because you can perform better when you are relaxed.

## PART 1: WARM UP

A) Listen to a lecture with a group of students. Choose the correct option.

- They are talking about.....
  - best holiday destinations in Europe
  - their travelling habits
  - the most interesting cities around the world
  - their favourite holiday destinations
- Most of the students.....
  - do not like travelling
  - answer the teachers' question
  - want to spend their favourite holiday in USA
  - do not want to travel abroad
- Teachers and students stop the conversation because.....
  - it is break time
  - students are bored
  - the topic is boring
  - the teacher changes the subject

B) Listen to the lecture again. Fill in the blanks with correct information.

- One of the students doesn't like travelling. S/he is \_\_\_\_\_.
- Mark's favourite holiday destination is \_\_\_\_\_, because he likes \_\_\_\_\_ and their \_\_\_\_\_ is very delicious.
- Christina's dream city is \_\_\_\_\_. S/he wants to see \_\_\_\_\_ most.
- Ali wants to see \_\_\_\_\_ most, because he loves \_\_\_\_\_.
- \_\_\_\_\_ wants to see Las Vegas most, because there

Read the instructions. Can you understand the purpose of the activities from the instructions? Write them down.

Activity A

Activity B

💡 Reading the instructions helps you understand what you should do to complete the activity. It is important because it helps you to understand which strategies are effective for the activity.

Can you draw a mental picture of the setting and the speakers? Describe it.



💡 Imagining what the setting and speakers look like helps you create your own visual context for the listening text. It can help you understand and interpret the text better.

Go over all the items in the listening activity. Are there any words or sentences that help you guess the answers? If so, write them down.

💡 Looking for grammar structures and words that may help you guess the answers is time-saving. It also gives you an idea about what to listen for during main listening.

Do you listen by guessing what will come next? You can do it by asking and answering questions to yourself. Write some of these questions down.



💡 Asking and answering questions to yourself can help you understand what will come next and answer the comprehension questions easily.

Write down your guesses about what you are going to listen.



Content of the Listening Text

Identity of Speakers (Name, Age, Job, Nationality)

What are the possible grammar structures and words that may appear in the listening text?

💡 Guessing is one of the key strategies during pre-listening stage. It prepares you for main listening. It makes it easier for you to understand the listening text. It is useful because you have an idea about what you are to hear in the listening text.





Main listening activities generally focus on two points. You should do the right one for the right activity.

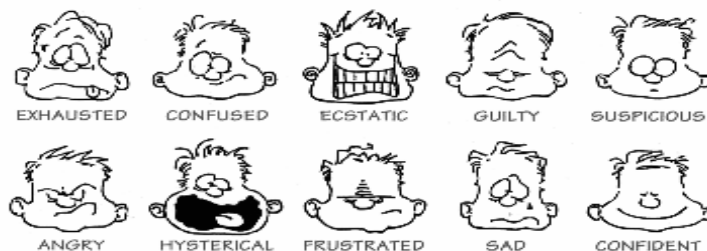
Listening for general idea: You don't need to hear each and every word. General understanding is enough.

Listening for details: You need to focus on details, i.e., some individual words or phrases.

Which of the activities above make you listen for general idea? Write its letter. \_\_\_\_\_

Which of the listening activities above make you listen for details? Write its letter. \_\_\_\_\_

💡 Understanding whether to read for gist or details helps you save time. It is a useful reading strategy, because it will make you a more effective listener.



Can you understand the speakers' emotions from their tone of voice? How are the speakers in the conversation above feeling?

#Speaker 1

\_\_\_\_\_

#Speaker 2

\_\_\_\_\_

#Speaker 3

\_\_\_\_\_

#Speaker 4

\_\_\_\_\_

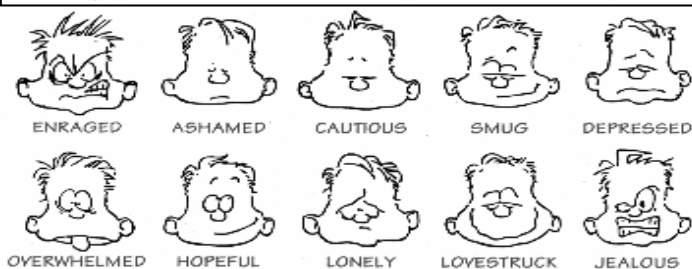
#Speaker 5

\_\_\_\_\_

#Speaker 6

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Understanding speakers' emotions helps you guess what they are saying.



Do you set different purposes each time you listen to the text? What were your purposes while listening to conversation above?

1<sup>st</sup> Listening \_\_\_\_\_

2<sup>nd</sup> Listening \_\_\_\_\_

💡 Setting different purposes while listening is an effective time-saving strategy. It is also motivating.

Do you pay attention to the stress and intonation of the speakers while listening? Write about how they help you during listening.

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 You can learn a lot from the speakers' stress and intonation. They can help you understand their messages even though you cannot hear each and every word.

Do you listen to understand speakers' intentions? What are their intentions in the conversation above?

#Speaker 1

\_\_\_\_\_

#Speaker 2

\_\_\_\_\_

#Speaker 3

\_\_\_\_\_

#Speaker 4

\_\_\_\_\_

#Speaker 5

\_\_\_\_\_

#Speaker 6

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Knowing whether speakers are arguing or informing can help you understand the text better.

Do you ask questions to your friends about their interpretation of the listening text? What are your friends' interpretations? Write them down.

Friend#1 \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Friend#2 \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Asking about your friends' interpretation of the text can help you confirm your own interpretation. You can compare and contrast their interpretations with your interpretation and see which points you have missed.



Do you exchange ideas with your peers about your interpretation of the listening text? What do your friends think about your interpretation?

Friend#1 \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Friend#2 \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Your friends' opinions about your interpretation can help you confirm it. You can think over and make it clearer.

## PART 2: READING

A) Read the text below. Choose what the text is generally about.

- a) The reasons why some cities are very interesting
- b) Interesting facts about some cities around the world
- c) How to collect information about different countries
- d) What we should avoid doing in some cities and countries

### 5 Interesting Facts about Travelling

There are hundreds of different places to see all around the world. Every city is another story. New York, Hong Kong, New Delhi, Sao Paulo are just a few examples. Most people dream of travelling all around the world. If you have such a plan, the following information can be useful for you!

You want to visit a foreign country, but don't know where to start. Here is some information that may help you decide. France is the most visited country in the world. If you haven't been there yet, you may begin with this beautiful country that many people want to see.

Throwing coins into famous fountains or rivers to make wishes is a popular holiday activity. Trevi Fountain in Rome is one of these popular fountains. The amount of the money thrown into the fountain every day is nearly 3,000 Euros. Have you ever been curious about what they do with all these coins? They collect it every night and give the money to charity organizations.

In some cities, doing things that would be normal elsewhere may not be welcomed. One of these cities is San Francisco. In this city, it is illegal to give food to the birds on the streets. If you like feeding birds, it is better for you to do it in a city other than San Francisco.

Are you interested in volcanoes? Then, Indonesia is the country you should visit, because it has more volcanoes than any other country in the world.

Which country, do you think, has the most expensive hotel room? Can you guess? Here is the answer: Switzerland. The Royal Penthouse suite at the President Wilson Hotel in Geneva costs \$65,000 just for one night. What about the city with the highest number of hotel rooms? It is Las Vegas. Las Vegas has more hotel rooms than any other city or country in the world.

You will certainly have your own very interesting experiences while you are travelling. But, it is always a good idea to collect some information about the city you are going to visit beforehand. Travelling is the best way to learn and have fun at the same time.



Read the title. What information about the reading text does it give you? What can be text about?

💡 Reading the title gives an idea about what the reading text is about. It helps you recall what you already know about the topic.

Do you read by guessing what will come in the next sentence or paragraph? You should do so!

💡 Reading by guessing is a way of interacting with the reading text. It enhances your understanding of the text.

Can you understand the genre of the text? What is it?

💡 Understanding the genre of the text can motivate you into the text. It also gives you ideas about what kind of language to find in the text.



Main reading activities generally make you either "skim" or "scan" the text.

Skimming- you read the text for general understanding.

Scanning- you read the text for details.

Which of the reading activities given here make you skim the text? Write its letter.

Which of the reading activities given here make you scan the text? Write its letter.

💡 Understanding whether to read for gist or details helps you save time.



**B) Read the text again. Read the statements about the text below and write TRUE or FALSE.**

1. Sao Paulo and New Delphi are boring cities. \_\_\_\_\_
2. France attracts more tourists than any other country in the world. \_\_\_\_\_
3. People throw coins into rivers or fountains to make a wish. \_\_\_\_\_
4. Trevi fountain is not a very famous fountain. \_\_\_\_\_
5. Nobody can touch the coins thrown into Trevi fountain. \_\_\_\_\_
6. In San Francisco, you can feed only some birds. \_\_\_\_\_
7. Indonesia has a lot of volcanic mountains, more than any other country in the world. \_\_\_\_\_
8. Switzerland is famous for offering very cheap hotel rooms. \_\_\_\_\_
9. Las Vegas is filled with many hotels with plenty of hotel rooms. \_\_\_\_\_
10. Learning about the city you are going to visit is a bad idea. \_\_\_\_\_

Can you find words with similar meanings when you can't remember the meaning of a word clearly? Which of the words in the text above are in this category? Write these words and the substitute words you thought of.

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💡 Thinking of words with similar meanings when you can't remember the meaning of a word saves you from using the dictionary very often. It makes you a more autonomous reader.

Can you guess the meaning of unknown words from the context? Which words could you guess in the text above? Write the words and your guesses about their meanings.




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💡 Guessing the meaning of unknown words is an important reading strategy, because it frees you from being dependent on the dictionary. It also increases your self-confidence.

Do you check the meaning of unknown words from the dictionary while reading? Which words have you checked from the dictionary in the reading text above? Write them and their meanings down.

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💡 Checking the meaning of the words from the dictionary can give you confidence, but it takes much of your time. The meaning you find in the dictionary may not always fit the context.

Can you make your own inferences from the information given in the text? Write them down.

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💡 Inferencing is a useful strategy, because most reading comprehension questions require it. It deepens your understanding of the text.

Can you read between the lines? What are the implied messages within the text? Write them down.

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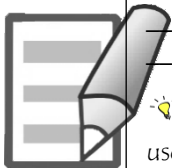
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💡 Deciphering the implied messages within a reading text is a useful strategy, because it deepens your comprehension of the text.

Do you highlight or underline the sentences you cannot understand or the ones that, you think, are important? Indicate these sentences by numbering and marking them. Use a tick (✓) for the sentences that, you think, are important and a cross (X) for the ones you couldn't understand.




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💡 Underlining and highlighting the reading text is useful, because it personalizes the text and makes it easier for you to understand. It is also motivating.

Can you understand the purpose of the author? Is it to inform, convince or argue? Write the author's purpose in the reading text above.

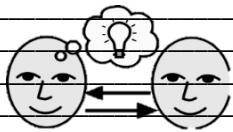
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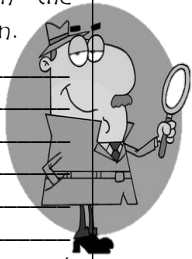
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💡 Understanding authors' purpose makes your understanding of the text easier. You can interpret the messages better when you know what the authors' purpose is.







Do you exchange ideas with your peers about your interpretation of the reading text? What do your friends think about your interpretation?

Friend#1 \_\_\_\_\_

Friend#2 \_\_\_\_\_

💡 Your friends opinions about your interpretation can help you confirm it.

Do you ask questions to your friends about their interpretation of the reading text? What are your friends' interpretations? Write them down.

Friend#1 \_\_\_\_\_

Friend#2 \_\_\_\_\_

💡 Asking about your friends' interpretation of the text can help you confirm your own interpretation. You can compare and contrast their interpretations with your interpretation and see which points you have missed.



Do you set different purposes each time you read the text? What were your purposes while reading the text above?

1<sup>st</sup> Reading \_\_\_\_\_

2<sup>nd</sup> Reading \_\_\_\_\_

3<sup>rd</sup> Reading \_\_\_\_\_

💡 Setting different purposes while reading is an effective time-saving strategy. It also increases you speed of reading.

### PART 3: SPEAKING

A) Work in groups of 5. In which of the following places in the pictures do you want to spend your favourite holiday? Talk about your favourite holiday. You can fill in the information card given below before you start speaking.



Miami



Hong Kong



Barcelona



Buenos Aires



Kathmandu



Where: \_\_\_\_\_

Why: \_\_\_\_\_

With whom: \_\_\_\_\_

How long: \_\_\_\_\_

Which activities: \_\_\_\_\_





Look at Part 3. Have you used your previous knowledge from the reading/listening text to do the activity? Write down which piece of information has helped you complete the activity.

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💡 Combining previous and new information helps you do the post reading/listening activity effectively.

Look at Part 3. Can you rewrite/retell at least two sentences from the reading/listening text while you are talking about your favourite holiday? Write these sentences down.

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💡 Retelling the ideas in the reading/listening text in your own words fosters your listening comprehension. It makes you an independent learner.



Look at Part 3. Have you used your notes to do the activity? Which notes you have taken helped you?

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💡 Using your notes to do the activity can help you save time. It also facilitates a revision of what you have learned.

Which parts of the reading/listening text could you not understand? Write about them.

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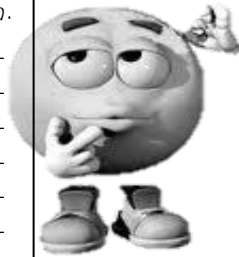
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💡 Thinking about what you could not understand in the listening text can help understand the problems that hinder your reading/listening comprehension.



Think about your overall performance in the reading/listening activity above. Write about the positive aspects of your performance.

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💡 Focusing on your achievements can make you more motivated, so that you can achieve better.



What do you think or feel about the reading/listening text? Write down your thoughts and feelings.

Reading Text

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Listening Text

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💡 Reflecting on the reading/listening text raises your awareness of your reading/listening comprehension. It helps you become a better reader/listener.





What are your strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening? Think about your performance in the reading/listening activity above.

Reading

Strengths: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Weaknesses: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Listening

Strengths: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Weaknesses: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Analysing your strengths and weaknesses in reading/listening can help you achieve greater success in listening activities. It may help you fix the problems you face while reading/listening.



What are the main problems that prevent you from achieving the best performance in reading/listening? List them.

Reading

Problem 1#  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

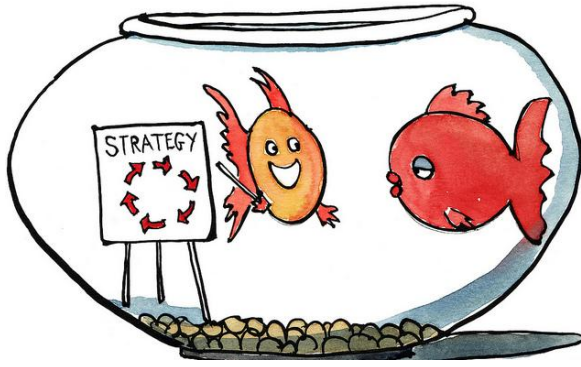
Problem 2#  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Listening

Problem 1#  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Problem 2#  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

💡 Defining the problems you face in reading/listening activities can help you solve them. Once you eliminate these problems, you can display a better performance in reading/listening.



In Lesson 4, you are going to learn about the following strategies:

- ✓ reading the title and subtitles of the reading text
- ✓ guessing the vocabulary items and structures that may appear in the reading/listening text
- ✓ guessing who the author is and the content of the reading text
- ✓ guessing the content of the listening text, setting and speakers' identity
- ✓ discussing your guesses about the reading/listening text with your peers
- ✓ looking at the reading/listening comprehension questions to understand what to read/listen for
- ✓ searching for lexical or structural clues within the reading/listening activity to guess the answers
- ✓ understanding the genre of the reading text
- ✓ underlining the words or sentences the meaning of which you cannot understand while reading
- ✓ underlining the parts of the text which are thought to be key to comprehension while reading
- ✓ guessing the meanings of the unknown words from the context while reading
- ✓ thinking of words with similar meanings when not sure about the meaning of a word while reading
- ✓ the importance of using a dictionary to look up unknown words while reading
- ✓ deciphering the implied messages in the reading/listening text
- ✓ making inferences from the reading text
- ✓ paying attention to the stress and intonation of the speakers while listening
- ✓ understanding the emotions of the speakers from their tone of voice
- ✓ using the notes you have taken to do an activity
- ✓ going over the underlined parts of the reading text
- ✓ going back to the reading/listening text to look for ideas that can help complete the activity
- ✓ eliminating stressful feelings by breathing deeply
- ✓ managing stressful feelings by thinking about nice things



## LESSON 4: What did you do last summer?

### PART 1: LISTENING

A) Think about the best holiday you have had so far. Fill in the details about your best holiday. Then, ask about the details your friend's best holiday.

**My Best Holiday**

When: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Where: \_\_\_\_\_  
 With Whom: \_\_\_\_\_  
 What did you do?  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

**My Friend's Best Holiday**

When: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Where: \_\_\_\_\_  
 With Whom: \_\_\_\_\_  
 What did s/he do?  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_



How do you feel at the moment? Are you ready for listening? You can try one of the following to get rid of stress!

✓ Breathe deeply!



✓ Say to yourself: "I can do it!"



✓ Imagine somewhere or something nice!



💡 Controlling your stress is important, because you can perform better when you are relaxed.

B) Listen to the conversation between Audrey and her mum, Ms Savannah. Choose the correct option.

- Audrey and her mum are talking about....
  - Audrey's best summer holiday
  - Ms Savannah's best friends
  - Audrey's travel plans
  - Ms Savannah's holiday in 1986
- Ms Savannah.....
  - liked Bodrum a lot
  - did not like people in Bodrum
  - went fishing every day while on holiday
  - did not like her friends at all
- Audrey thinks her mum's holiday was .....
  - very boring
  - perfect
  - not very exciting
  - not a good one

C) Listen to the conversation again. Below are some sentences from the conversation. Fill in the blanks with the correct word as you hear them.

- I, once, \_\_\_\_\_ on a holiday with my friends, too.
- It \_\_\_\_\_ 30 years ago. We went to \_\_\_\_\_.
- The people \_\_\_\_\_ very friendly.
- We \_\_\_\_\_ in the same neighbourhood.
- How long \_\_\_\_\_ you stay there? We \_\_\_\_\_ there for like 5 or 6 days.
- Anne \_\_\_\_\_ the guitar and we \_\_\_\_\_ songs all together.

Write down your guesses about what you are going to listen.

Setting

Content of the Listening Text

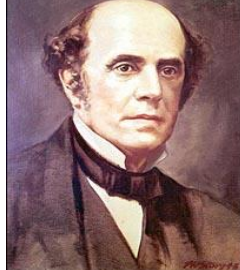
Identity of Speakers (Name, Age, Job, Nationality)

What are the possible grammar structures and words that may appear in the listening text?

💡 Guessing is one of the key strategies during the pre-listening stage. It prepares you for main listening. It makes it easier for you to understand the listening text. It is useful because you have an idea about what you are to hear in the listening text.







**PART 2: READING**

**A) Read the statements below. Which of them are true about travelling and package tours?**

- In the past, only rich people could travel abroad. \_\_\_
- Package tours were very popular before 1830. \_\_\_
- Travelling abroad is very expensive for most people today. \_\_\_
- Package tours are always very expensive. \_\_\_
- People travelled mainly for pleasure in 1800s. \_\_\_

**The Story behind Package Tours**

Travelling abroad is not a luxury these days. People can easily travel abroad by joining package tours. But, in the past, it was very expensive and a luxury for most people, before Thomas Cook started organizing package tours in 1841.

Thomas Cook was the secretary of a local church organisation in Leicester, England. His job was arranging rail travel for members of his church to a meeting in Loughborough. This was the world's first package trip. After his first success, he organised more trips for his church. In 1845, he organized a package tour to Liverpool for all people and put it on a newspaper. Before the trip, he went to Liverpool and checked the hotel and the restaurants.

Thomas Cook started to organise trips to all the cities in Britain. In 1851, he published the world's first travel magazine. The magazine had detailed information about trips, advice to travellers about the places to visit. In 1855, he organized trips to Belgium, Germany and France. The following year, he opened an office in London. In 1866, the first group of European tourists visited New York and the Civil War battlefields of Virginia. Carrying large amounts of cash money was dangerous those days. Thus, Cook introduced an early form of traveller's cheque in 1874. Travellers could use this traveller's cheque at a number of hotels and banks around the world.

Thomas Cook died in 1892 at the age of 84. He was the man who started the age of the package tour and mass tourism.

**A) Read the text above. Match the sentences with the correct endings according to the text.**

- |                             |                                    |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. The text is about.....   | a) abroad easily these days.       |
| 2. Thomas Cook was the..... | b) was very expensive in the past. |
| 3. Travelling abroad.....   | c) package tours before 1841.      |
| 4. People can travel.....   | d) secretary of a local church.    |
| 5. There were no.....       | e) the history of package tours.   |

**B) Read the text again. Put the events in chronological order according to the information given in the text. Write numbers in the spaces given.**

- \_\_\_\_\_ Thomas Cook went to Liverpool to see the hotel and restaurants beforehand.
- \_\_\_\_\_ He organized a package tour to Liverpool for general public in 1845.
- \_\_\_\_\_ Thomas Cook organized a package trip for church members to a meeting in Loughborough.
- \_\_\_\_\_ The age of mass tourism began.
- \_\_\_\_\_ Thomas Cook organized package tours to Belgium, Germany and France.
- \_\_\_\_\_ Thomas Cook introduced traveller's cheque.
- \_\_\_\_\_ A group of European tourist visited New York for the first time.
- \_\_\_\_\_ He published the world's first travel magazine.

Read the title. What information about the reading text does it give you? What can be text about?

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Reading the title gives an idea about what the reading text is about. It motivates you into the text by recalling what you already know about the topic.

Do you discuss your guesses with your friends? Write about your friends' guesses about the listening text.


Friend#1 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 Friend#2 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

Exchanging ideas with your peers' about your guesses about the content and author of the text can support your reading comprehension.

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Write down your guesses about what you are going to read.

Who can be the author?

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Topic of the Reading Text

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When and where was the text written?

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What are the possible grammar structures and words that may appear in the reading text?

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Guessing is one of the key strategies during the pre-reading stage. It prepares you for main reading. It supports your reading comprehension. It is useful, because you have an idea about what you are going to read through your own guesses.

Can you understand the genre of the text? What is it?

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Understanding the genre of the text can motivate you into the text. It also gives you ideas about what kind of language to find in the text.





**PART 3: WRITING**

A) Imagine that you went on a holiday with some friends. Look at the pictures below and write an e-mail to your cousin about what you did on holiday. You can use the words given in the box.

stay at a luxurious hotel	buy a dress	visit an historical castle
do shopping	hire a car	go sailing
meet some friends		

Untitled Message

File Edit View Insert Format Tools Table Window Help

Send [Attachment Icon] [Send Icon] [Options Icon] HTML

To: \_\_\_\_\_

Cc: \_\_\_\_\_

Subject: \_\_\_\_\_

Arial 10 [Color Picker] [Font Size] [Bold] [Italic] [Underline] [List Icons]

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Can you use the ideas from the reading/listening text while you are writing about your holiday? Write about the ideas you have used.

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💡 Retelling the ideas in the reading/listening text in your own words fosters your reading/listening comprehension. It makes you an independent learner.

Have you used your notes to do the activity? Which notes you have taken helped you?

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💡 Using your notes to do the activity can help you save time. It also facilitates a revision of what you have learned.

## AUDIO TEXTS

### *Lesson 1, Part 3*

**Pinar:** Hi, Cho! Are you ready for planning for our Rome trip?

**Cho:** Yes, my dear friend, I am super ready! I have some details already.

**Pinar:** That is great! So, we are going to have 3 days in Rome, right?

**Cho:** Exactly! And our flight to Rome is at 10.00 on Saturday, isn't it Pinar?

**Pinar:** Yes, sweetheart. And we are checking in at the hostel at 2.00 p.m. in the afternoon, you know the flight from İstanbul to Rome takes 4 hours.

**Cho:** Yes, I know that. What are we doing on the first day in Rome? Do you have any suggestions?

**Pinar:** I thought we could visit Colosseum and Trevi Fountain from 3.00 to 5.00 p.m. and finish the day with dinner at around 6.00 p.m.

**Cho:** That sounds great. Let's do it. And on the second day, we can start by seeing the Roman Forum at 10.00 a.m. Afterwards, we can have lunch at 12.00 p.m. In the afternoon, we can go and see Spanish Stairs, I mean Spagna -at 2.00 p.m. And we can finish the day with dinner at 5.00 p.m.

**Pinar:** Well, the second day plan is fine with me, Cho. What about the third day?

**Cho:** Here is the plan for the third day: We are visiting Vatican city from 10.00 a.m. to 2.00 pm. Then, we are taking a wine-tasting tour, I have already booked one! And we may finish the day with dinner by Tiber River.

**Pinar:** That's excellent! I loved the plan. Wine-tasting tour is a great idea, Cho!

**Cho:** Thanks! I am so excited for it!

**Pinar:** Me, too. But I have got to go now. I have a meeting in five minutes. See you on Saturday, Cho!

**Cho:** See you, Pinar. Bye!

**Pinar:** Bye! Take care!

### *Lesson 2- Part 3*

**Ms. Razumova:** Hello, this is Maria Razumova. How can I help you?

**Enrico:** Hi, Ms. Razumova. I want to talk to the doctor, please.

**Ms. Razumova:** You are talking to her already. I am the dermatologist at Balçova Thermal Hotel. What do you want to learn, sir?

**Enrico:** Err, I am suffering from eczema. It is very annoying, and I feel really bad about it. I am planning to stay at your hotel for treatment. I want to learn about the treatment plan.

**Ms. Razumova:** I will be happy to help you. We start the process after we have a face to face interview with you. Then, we arrange a special treatment plan accordingly.

**Enrico:** Oh, I see. So, you need to see me first to make a definite plan.

**Ms. Razumova:** You are right. But, the treatment plan for eczema generally has these steps: staying in the thermal pool, ultraviolet light therapy, moisturizing therapy and bathing with soft soaps. You can also take some medication depending on how severe your eczema is.

**Enrico:** Well, I understand. And how long does the treatment last?

**Ms. Razumova:** It lasts between three to six weeks depending on your response to the treatment.

**Enrico:** I see. Thank you very much Ms. Razumova. I am going to call for reservation soon, I think.

**Ms. Razumova:** It is my pleasure. See you soon, then!

**Enrico:** Have a nice day! Bye!

**Ms. Razumova:** Thank you, bye!



### *Lesson 3, Part 1*

**Teacher:** Hi, everyone! Today, we are going to talk about travelling. We all like travelling, don't we?

**Class:** Yes, we do!

**Etsuko:** Well, actually I don't like travelling at all, teacher.

**Teacher:** Hmm, interesting, Etsuko. What about others? Where do you want to travel most? What is your favourite holiday destination? Who wants to answer these questions first?

**Mark:** I would like to, teacher. My favourite holiday destination is Switzerland, because I like skiing a lot. They have amazing skiing centres. Swiss pizza is also very delicious. The nature is also great.

**Teacher:** Thanks a lot, Mark. Have you ever been there?

**Mark:** Yes I have. And I would like to go again.

**Teacher:** That's great! What about you, Christina? Where do you want to travel most?

**Christina:** My dream city is Rome, but I haven't seen it yet. I have always been attracted to this historical city. It is like an open-air museum. I want to see Trevi Fountain most.

**Teacher:** I hope, you will soon have the chance to see the city, dear. What about others?

**Ali:** You may think, I am crazy but, I want to see Antarctica most. I love penguins. Wildlife in Antarctica is very rich, it is very exciting for me.

**Teacher:** That's really crazy, Ali. I think you like adventurous holidays.

**Ali:** Yes, I love adventure! I don't care about the freezing weather!

**Teacher:** Good for you, then Ali. I hope, you will go to Antarctica, soon. What about you Faaris?

**Faaris:** Err, I want to see Las Vegas most. It is the perfect place to have fun. There are hundreds of dance clubs and luxurious hotels. But I need a lot of money for a holiday in Las Vegas.

**Teacher:** Sure, you do. So, I think, it is break time, folks. We are going to read an

interesting article in the next lesson. But, let's first have our break.

### *Lesson 4, Part 1*

**Audrey:** Mum, my friends are planning a trip to Ibiza, Spain. Can I go with them?

**Ms Savannah:** Of course, you can. When are you going?

**Audrey:** Next Saturday. We are going to be there for a week.

**Ms Savannah:** Good for you, Audrey. I once went on a holiday with my friends, too. It was really fun.

**Audrey:** Seriously? When was it? Where did you go?

**Ms Savannah:** Well, I was only 15, then. It was 30 years ago.

**Audrey:** The year was 1986, then.

**Ms Savannah:** You are right. We went to Bodrum, Turkey. It was one of the most beautiful towns I ever saw. The people were very friendly.

**Audrey:** What about your friends?

**Ms Savannah:** Oh, we were three very close friends: Anne, Sarah and me. We lived in the same neighbourhood. We were best friends! Sarah's boyfriend, Robert was with us, too. He was a really funny guy!

**Audrey:** That sounds great. How long did you stay there?

**Ms Savannah:** Hmm, I think, we stayed there for like 5 or 6 days. We went swimming every day. The sea was great. Robert and Sarah went fishing. We ate the fish they caught in the evenings.

**Audrey:** That was a really perfect holiday. I am jealous of you! What was the best thing you remember?

**Ms Savannah:** We made a fire and sat around it in the evenings. Anne played the guitar and we sang songs all together. Those were the best moments of our holiday.

**Audrey:** You were all quite lucky. I hope, our holiday will be as great as yours, mum.

**Ms Savannah:** I hope so, honey.

**Audrey:** Oh, it is my phone. I have got to take it! See you, mum!

## REFERENCES

The content information for the reading text titled 'An Attractive City for Travellers: Rome' in Lesson 1 was retrieved from the following website on 15<sup>th</sup> April 2014  
<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rome>

The content information for the reading text titled '5 Interesting Facts about Travelling' in Lesson 3 was retrieved from the following website on 15<sup>th</sup> April 2014. <http://memolition.com/2013/03/20/12-interesting-facts-about-tourism/>

The reading text titled 'The Story behind Package Tours' in Lesson 4 was retrieved from the following website on 15<sup>th</sup> April 2014. <https://www.google.com.tr/#q=Module5-Travelling>



## Appendix 5- Semi-Structured Interview Video Transcriptions

### INTERVIEWEE 1

1. Can you choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity?

Evet, mesela altını çiziyoruz ya, şıklı sorularda direk aklıma geliyor. O şıkka, o cümleye benzer bir şey varsa hemen onu işaretliyorum. Bilmediğim kelimedeyse, cümleye göre gidiyorum kelimeye pek takılmıyorum da. Cümlede anlamı çıkarıyorsam, o şıklı sorularda o anlamı arıyorum.

2. Can you use the strategies without any help from peers or the teacher during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Tabii temelimin de katkısı var.

3. Can you think of the correct strategy for pre, while and post-listening/reading activities?

Evet.

4. Can you apply the strategies effectively during all classroom listening/reading activities?

Sadece strateji öğrenimi değil, bilmediğim kelimeleri öğrenmemi sağladı. Stratejileri etkili kullanabileceğimi düşünüyorum, tabii dil eğitimine de devam edersem.

5. Do you think you can reapply the listening/reading strategies you have learned in new situations?

Kullanırım, çünkü şöyle düşünüyorum. Türkçe dersi olsa da yine aynı şeyler olacaktı, hoca söyler ama benim anladığım kadarını yapabilirim. Paragrafı anlamam gerekiyorsa onu anlarım, sorunun anlamına bakarak paragraftan bulurum, yine aynı stratejileri kullanırım.

6. Can you distinguish between effective and ineffective listening/reading strategies for a particular reading activity?

O soruda geçmiş zaman olması kuralından giderek yaptım, düzenli fiilse –ed gelecek, düzensizse past hali olacak gibi. O alıştırma için (cloze test) altına çizme etkili bir strateji değildir. Cümlede kullanılması gereken yapıyı strateji sayesinde buldum.

7. Can you use the listening/reading strategies with a specific purpose?

Stratejiye göre değişir. Kullanabilirim. Beş ya da altı ders yaptık. İlk başta benimseyememiştim, ama daha sonra alışınca, kelime anlamlarını kavrayınca daha da ileri gitti.

8. Can you choose the right strategies according to the purpose of the listening/reading activity?

Evet. Aktivitenin amacına göre altını çizerim.

9. Do you think you can perform better when you use the appropriate strategies during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Önceden rastgele altını çizerdim, şimdi daha dikkatliyim. Önemli olan yerleri ayırt edip onları çizebiliyorum, daha özenliyim.

10. Can you feel comfortable with using reading strategies during listening/reading activities?

Evet.

11. Can you automatically apply the appropriate listening/reading strategy for the listening/reading task without hesitation or anxiety?

Evet. Sınavda da öyle oldu. Reading uzun oluyor bir korkutuyor insanı, ama tamam dedim sakin ol, önce biraz sorulara bak ne istiyor, çiz altını, oku. Zaten kelime dağarcığı olunca, tamam.

12. Can you think about whether you can use listening/reading strategies effectively enough or not?

Evet. Önceden öylesine çiziyordum altını, kelime anlamına da pek bakmıyordum. Bir tane kelime çarpardı gözüme tamamdı o cümle. Şimdi gramere, kelimenin aldığı takıya bakıyorum, geliştirme çabası olduğu için.

13. Do you think you can use the listening/reading strategies outside the classroom, too?

Evet. Hatta arkadaşlarımı bile çalıştırabilirim.

## *INTERVIEWEE 2*

1. Can you choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity?

Evet. Bu sınavda altını çizmeye başladım, soruya baktım, direk gözüme çarptı. Bu kadar kolaydı.

2. Can you use the strategies without any help from peers or the teacher during reading/listening activities?

Evet yapabilirim. Bugün herkes bir araya gelmiş tartışıyordu sınavdan önce. Bu herhalde stratejinin etkisi.

3. Can you think of the correct strategy for pre, while and post-listening/reading activities?

Evet.

4. Can you apply the strategies effectively during all classroom listening/reading activities?

Evet. Daha önce bir dil kursuna katıldım ama pek bir şey öğrenemedim orada. Buradaki eğitim daha dikkatli olmamı sağladı. Bu sefer sınava rahat girdim. Önceden uyuyamıyordum, başım dönüyordu falan.

5. Do you think you can reapply the listening/reading strategies you have learned in new situations?

Evet. Altını çizme ve not alma stratejilerinin faydası oldu. Dikkat dağınıklığı vardı, şimdi daha dikkatliyim. Etkili kullandığım stratejilerin farkına vardım.

6. Can you distinguish between effective and ineffective listening/reading strategies for a particular listening/reading activity?

Evet. Resim gördüğümde dinleme ya da okuma metniyle ilgili çıkarımlar yapmaya başlarım. Kendimi hazırlarım ve çıkarımlarıma dayanarak alıştırmayı yaparım.

7. Can you use the listening/reading strategies with a specific purpose?

Evet. Nefes alıp vermeyi rahatlamak, stres atma amacıyla kullanabilirim.

8. Can you choose the right strategies according to the purpose of the listening/reading activity?

Mesela dinlerken, vurgulanan yerlere daha çok dikkat ederim.

9. Do you think you can perform better when you use the appropriate strategies during listening/reading activities?

Anlamadığım kelimeleri eski kelimelerle birleştirerek anlamaya çalışıyorum. Benim için önemli olan yerlerin altını çiziyorum.

10. Can you feel relaxed while using strategies during listening/reading activities?

Question not asked.

11. Can you automatically apply the appropriate listening/reading strategy for the listening task without hesitation?

Eskiden sınav stresim vardı, şimdi daha rahatım. Öğrendiğim stratejiler sayesinde sınav kaygım azaldı.

12. Can you think about whether you can use listening/reading strategies effectively enough or not?

Evet. Önceden resimlere pek dikkat etmezdim, direk geçerdim veya başlık okuma, başlığı okuyunca karşıma ne çıkabileceğini tahmin ediyorum, düşünüyorum.

13. Do you think you can use the listening/reading strategies outside the classroom, too?

Evet. Dün akşam mesela tek başıma çalıştım. Oradan kelime çıkardım, tercüme yaptım. Manası birbirine yakın olan kelimelerin altını çizdim. Defterimde de bu kelimelerin altı çizili aradığım zaman direk açıp bakıyorum. O şekilde stratejileri daha etkili kullanıyorum.

### *INTERVIEWEE 3*

1. Can you choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity?

Evet. Artık kullanabileceğimi düşünüyorum, önceden kullanamıyordum, listeningde zorlanıyordum. Doğrusunu yapmak için nasıl yapmam gerektiğini düşünüyordum. Ama artık rahat bir şekilde kullanabiliyorum.

2. Can you use the strategies without any help from peers or the teacher during listening/reading activities?

Stratejileri artık kendi başıma kullanabilirim.

3. Can you think of the correct strategy for pre, while and post-listening/reading activities?

Evet, yapabiliyorum. Mesela listeningde önce alıştırmaya bakıyorum, mantıklı olan tahminler yapıyorum kendimce, cevaplarla ilgili. Sonra dinlediğimde yerine oturuyor.

4. Can you apply the strategies effectively during all classroom listening/reading activities?

Evet, kullanabilirim. Benim dünya turu yapma hayalim var, bu yüzden İngilizce öğrenmek istiyorum ve ilgim de var, bir mecburiyet benim için. Zaten kullanıyorum, arkadaşlarla ya da ailem de bir şey olduğunda İngilizce söylüyorum.

5. Do you think you can reapply the listening/reading strategies you have learned in new situations?

Evet. Bir strateji altyapısı oluştu artık. Stratejileri biliyoruz, nerde nasıl kullanacağımızı biliyoruz. Bir dil kursuna gidersem de artık bir şeyler biliyorum, bunları tamamlarım, eksik yönlerimi tamamlarım.

6. Can you distinguish between effective and ineffective listening/reading strategies for a particular listening/reading activity?

Evet yapabilirim. Okuma parçasına bakıyorum, sonra sorulara bakıyorum. Okuma parçasından soruları çıkarabiliyorum. Mesela listening de vurguya dikkat ediyorum, vurgu sayesinde daha iyi anlıyorum ve ona göre stratejimi de değiştiriyorum.

7. Can you use the listening/reading strategies with a specific purpose?

Evet. Sınavda da faydası oldu. Mesela vurgunun fazla olduğu yere daha fazla dikkat ettim. Türünü anlamamı sağlıyor.

8. Can you choose the right strategies according to the purpose of the listening/reading activity?

Evet. Önceden yapamıyordum, hangi stratejiyi hangi aktiviteye uygulayayım diye. Ama artık ayırt edebiliyorum.

9. Do you think you can perform better when you use the appropriate strategies during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Mesela vurgu ve tonlamaya dikkat ederek daha iyi anlıyorum. Ve bunu kendi konuşma şeklime de yansıtıyorum. Cümle ve kelimelerin vurgu ve tonlamasına dikkat ediyorum. Dünya turu yapma hayalim var. Yurt dışına gittiğimde monoton bir şekilde söylersem anlaşılmam ama vurgu ve tonlamaya dikkat edersem daha iyi ifade ederim.

10. Can you feel relaxed while using strategies during listening/reading activities?

Çok stresli değilim ama bazen sorunun cevabını bulamadığımda bocalayabiliyorum.

11. Can you automatically apply the appropriate listening/reading strategy for the listening task without hesitation?

Evet, kullanabiliyorum, oturdu artık.

12. Can you think about whether you can use listening/reading strategies effectively enough or not?



Önceden, lisedeyken daha klasik çalışıyordum. Şimdi daha çok kendimi içine katıyorum. Kendimi içine katmak istediğim için de doğru strateji hangisidir diye düşünüyorum ve bunu değerlendiriyorum.

13. Do you think you can use the listening/reading strategies outside the classroom, too?

Evet.

#### *INTERVIEWEE 4*

1. Can you choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity?

Evet. Mesela dinlemede, önceden nasıl anlayacağımı düşünüyordum. Artık vurgu ve tonlamaya dikkat ediyorum. Birinci dönem genel olarak dinliyordum, şimdi daha dikkat ederek dinliyorum, kelime kelime. Bayağı etkili oldu.

2. Can you use the strategies without any help from peers or the teacher during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Dün sınava çalışırken kendim uyguladım. Mesela anlamadığımda başlıktan çıkarım yapabiliyorum.

3. Can you think of the correct strategy for pre, while and post-listening/reading activities?

Evet, mesela öncesinde resimlerden ya da başlıklardan çıkarım yapabilirim. Listening sırasında vurgu ve tonlamaya dikkat ederim, dikkatli dinlerim.

4. Can you apply the strategies effectively during all classroom listening/reading activities?

Evet.

5. Do you think you can reapply the listening/reading strategies you have learned in new situations?

Evet. Genel olarak okuduğumu anlayabiliyorum. Lisede kelime kelime gidiyorduk, şimdi genel olarak anlayabiliyorum.

6. Can you distinguish between effective and ineffective listening/reading strategies for a particular listening/reading activity?

Evet.

7. Can you use the listening/reading strategies with a specific purpose?

Anlamadığımda bildiğim kelimelerden çıkarım yaparım.

8. Can you choose the right strategies according to the purpose of the listening/reading activity?

Okuduğumda çıkarım yaparım, dinlemede daha dikkatli dinlerim.

9. Do you think you can perform better when you use the appropriate strategies during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Etkili oluyor stratejiler.

10. Can you feel relaxed while using strategies during listening/reading activities?

Question not asked.

11. Can you automatically apply the appropriate listening/reading strategy for the listening task without hesitation?

Evet. Nerde nasıl bir strateji kullanacağımı hemen kestirebiliyorum. Mesela sorulara bakarak, benden ne istediğini anlayarak dolduruyorum.

12. Can you think about whether you can use listening/reading strategies effectively enough or not?

Mesela dinlemede daha dikkatli olmam gerektiğini biliyorum.

13. Do you think you can use the listening/reading strategies outside the classroom, too?

Evet. Özellikle dinlemede çok geliştiğimi hissediyorum. Kendim video falan dinlerken anlamaya çalışıyorum. Anlıyorum, yakaladığım yerler oluyor.

## INTERVIEWEE 5

1. Can you choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity?

Evet, benim en zorlandığım dinleme sorularıydı. Kelime dağarcığım olmadığı için anlayamıyordum. Ama artık dinlemede vurgu ve tonlama yapılan yerleri aklımda tutmaya çalışıyorum ve not alıyorum. Sonra cümleye göre oradan bir anlam çıkartıyorum. Dinlerken bir cümleyi düşünüyordum, diğer cümleye geçmiş oluyordu, o yüzden bir anlam çıkaramıyordum. Ama artık not aldığım için bunu yapabiliyorum. Reading de de soruyu okumuyordum, o yüzden çok yanlışım oluyordu. Şimdi okuyorum soruları.

2. Can you use the strategies without any help from peers or the teacher during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Çünkü artık belli stratejiler var.

3. Can you think of the correct strategy for pre, while and post-listening/reading activities?

Evet. Mesela dinleme öncesinde kimin konuştuğunu hayalimde canlandırabilirsem ne konuştuklarını bile çıkarabilirim. İki öğrenci konuşuyorsa ayırır, profesörler konuşuyorsa daha ayrıntılı konuşurlar.

4. Can you apply the strategies effectively during all classroom listening/reading activities?

Evet. Bu stratejileri öğrenmeyenler, bana sorabilir bile.

5. Do you think you can reapply the listening/reading strategies you have learned in new situations?

Evet. Diğer hocalar da strateji üzerinden gidiyordur.

6. Can you distinguish between effective and ineffective listening/reading strategies for a particular listening/reading activity?

Evet, mesela reading de altını çizerek okurum. Bunu listening de yapamam, listening de hayalimde canlandırmayı yapabiliyim.

7. Can you use the listening/reading strategies with a specific purpose?

Evet, mesela okurum anladığım kadarıyla çıkarım yapabilirim.

8. Can you choose the right strategies according to the purpose of the listening/reading activity?

Question not asked.

9. Do you think you can perform better when you use the appropriate strategies during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Sınavlarıma bile yansıdı. Birinci dönem daha çok zorlanmışım. Bugünkü sınavda daha başarılıydım mesela.

10. Can you feel relaxed while using strategies during listening/reading activities?

Question not asked.

11. Can you automatically apply the appropriate listening/reading strategy for the listening task without hesitation?

Evet. Sınavda dinleme varsa, tamam diyorum şunu yapacağım, sakın oluyorum.

12. Can you think about whether you can use listening/reading strategies effectively enough or not?

Evet. Mesela dinlemede hayalimde canlandırmayı kullanmam iyi olur.

13. Do you think you can use the listening/reading strategies outside the classroom, too?

Evet. İlerde öğretmen olduğumda, ben de öğrencilerime anlayacakları dilden strateji öğretebilirim.

#### *INTERVIEWEE 6*

1. Can you choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity?

Evet. Listeningde çoktan seçmeli sorularda vurgu ve tonlamaya dikkat ederim, doğru ve yanlış bulmaya çalışırım.

2. Can you use the strategies without any help from peers or the teacher during listening/reading activities?

Evet.

3. Can you think of the correct strategy for pre, while and post-listening/reading activities?

Evet. Okuma öncesi okuma parçasına odaklanırım. Genel okurum, sonar altını çizerim, vs.

4. Can you apply the strategies effectively during all classroom listening/reading activities?

Her zaman yapamam.

5. Do you think you can reapply the listening/reading strategies you have learned in new situations?

Evet. Farklı bir sektörde, turizm gibi, çalışmam gerekiyorsa bunları yapmalıyım. Sadece gramer bilgisi yetmiyor, stratejileri de bilmemiz gerekir.

6. Can you distinguish between effective and ineffective listening/reading strategies for a particular listening/reading activity?

Evet. Doğru yanlıştta genel anlama bakarım. Vurgu ve tonlamaya bakarım, ona göre cevaplarımı ayarlarım.

7. Can you use the listening/reading strategies with a specific purpose?

Evet. Mesela resimlerden çıkarım yaparım.

8. Can you choose the right strategies according to the purpose of the listening/reading activity?

Başta aktivitenin amacını anlarım ve ona göre dinlerim.

9. Do you think you can perform better when you use the appropriate strategies during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Şu ana kadar gramer ağırlıklı öğrendim. Şimdi farklı şeylerden çıkarım yapıyorum. Bir parça okurken, sadece gramere bakıyordum. Şimdi soruya göre önemli olan kısımların ayrımını yapıyorum, altını çiziyorum.

10. Can you feel relaxed while using strategies during listening/reading activities?

Gergin olmam, çünkü gergin olduğum zaman vurgu tonlamayı kaçıyorum. Genelde stres yapmam.

11. Can you automatically apply the appropriate listening/reading strategy for the listening task without hesitation?

Evet. Reading alıştırmasında sınavda, önce genel olarak okudum, aklımda canlanasın yine, sonra tekrar okudum. Önemli yerlerin altını çizdim. Sonra soruya baktım, işaretledim.

12. Can you think about whether you can use listening/reading strategies effectively enough or not?

Evet. Strateji kullanmadan önce, sadece gramere bakıyordum. Ama şimdi genel olarak anlamaya çalışıyorum, orda belli oluyor zaten şıklardan direkt eleme yapıyorum.

13. Do you think you can use the listening/reading strategies outside the classroom, too?

Evet.

#### *INTERVIEWEE 7*

1. Can you choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity?

Evet.

2. Can you use the strategies without any help from peers or the teacher during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Zaten kendi başıma yapmayı severim.

3. Can you think of the correct strategy for pre, while and post-listening/reading activities?

Evet. Ayırt ederim. Okuma öncesi resimlere bakılır, okuma sırasında kelimelerin genel anlamlarını bilmediklerimi çizerim, vs....

4. Can you apply the strategies effectively during all classroom listening/reading activities?

Evet. Konuya göre kullanırım. Bu seviye için kullanırım. İleri seviyede farklı stratejiler geliştiririm.

5. Do you think you can reapply the listening/reading strategies you have learned in new situations?

Evet.

6. Can you distinguish between effective and ineffective listening/reading strategies for a particular listening/reading activity?

Evet. Okumada tahmin etmeyi, dinlemede çıkarım yapma stratejisini kullanırım.

7. Can you use the listening/reading strategies with a specific purpose?

Evet.

8. Can you choose the right strategies according to the purpose of the listening/reading activity?

Aktivitenin amacını anlarsam, doğru stratejiyi hemen bulurum.

9. Do you think you can perform better when you use the appropriate strategies during listening/reading activities?

Bir sene İngilizce öğrenmem pek etkili olmadı, zaten İngilizce kelimeleri pek bilmiyorum. Sadece stratejiler üzerinden yaptım.

10. Can you feel relaxed while using strategies during listening/reading activities?

Rahatça kullanabiliyorum, hangisini kullanmam gerektiğini bildiğim için.

11. Can you automatically apply the appropriate listening/reading strategy for the listening task without hesitation?

İlk başlarda pek olmuyordu ama şimdi duraksama olmuyor.

12. Can you think about whether you can use listening/reading strategies effectively enough or not?

Evet. Listeningde iyi yaptığımı düşünüyorum.

13. Do you think you can use the listening/reading strategies outside the classroom, too?

Bunları benimsedim, öğrendim ama kullanıp kullanmamak bana kalmış.

#### *INTERVIEWEE 8*

1. Can you choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity?

Evet.

2. Can you use the strategies without any help from peers or the teacher during listening/reading activities?

Evet.

3. Can you think of the correct strategy for pre, while and post-listening/reading activities?

Evet.

4. Can you apply the strategies effectively during all classroom listening/reading activities?

Bazen kullanabilirim, öğretmenin yönlendirmesine ihtiyaç duyarım.

5. Do you think you can reapply the listening/reading strategies you have learned in new situations?

Evet. Başka bir dil öğrenirken de kullanabilirim.

6. Can you distinguish between effective and ineffective listening/reading strategies for a particular listening/reading activity?

Tam olarak değil.



7. Can you use the listening/reading strategies with a specific purpose?

Evet. Genel dinlemeyi farklı, ayrıntılar için dinlemeyi farklı amaçlarla kullanırım.

8. Can you choose the right strategies according to the purpose of the listening/reading activity?

Evet.

9. Do you think you can perform better when you use the appropriate strategies during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Yavaş yavaş ilerleme kaydettiğimi düşünüyorum.

10. Can you feel relaxed while using strategies during listening/reading activities?

Evet.

11. Can you automatically apply the appropriate listening/reading strategy for the listening task without hesitation?

Yavaş yavaş otomatikleşti, ilk başta gerginlik yaşıyordum. Mesela bugünkü sınavda okuma parçasında direk altını çizdim.

12. Can you think about whether you can use listening/reading strategies effectively enough or not?

Evet. Bugünkü sınavda bilmediğim kelimelerin altını çizdim, tahmin etmeye çalıştım.

13. Do you think you can use the listening/reading strategies outside the classroom, too?

İngilizce ile bir işim olmayacak, olursa kullanabilirim.

#### *INTERVIEWEE 9*

1. Can you choose the right listening/reading strategy for the appropriate activity?

Yani, çok emin değilim.

2. Can you use the strategies without any help from peers or the teacher during listening/reading activities?

Kendi başıma kullanabilirim.

3. Can you think of the correct strategy for pre, while and post-listening/reading activities?

Evet. Başlık ve alt başlıkları okumayı okuma öncesi kullanırım.

4. Can you apply the strategies effectively during all classroom listening/reading activities?

Birçoğunu kullanabilirim.

5. Do you think you can reapply the listening/reading strategies you have learned in new situations?

Evet.

6. Can you distinguish between effective and ineffective listening/reading strategies for a particular listening/reading activity?

Birçoğunu yapabiliyorum ama bazen yapamadığım oluyor.

7. Can you use the listening/reading strategies with a specific purpose?

Evet. Çoktan seçmeli de daha genel dinledim, boşluk doldurmada daha dikkatli dinledim.

8. Can you choose the right strategies according to the purpose of the listening/reading activity?

Evet.

9. Do you think you can perform better when you use the appropriate strategies during listening/reading activities?

Evet. Eskiye göre daha iyiyim. Hem İngilizce öğrenerek geçirdiğim zamanın hem de stratejilerin etkisi var.

10. Can you feel relaxed while using strategies during listening/reading activities?

Stratejileri kullanırken stres yaşıyorum. Bildiğim kelimeler olduğunda daha rahatım ama bilmediğim kelimeler olduğunda anlamayacağımı düşünüp stres oluyorum. Strateji kullanımımı da etkiliyor bu.

11. Can you automatically apply the appropriate listening/reading strategy for the listening task without hesitation?

Evet, yalnız dinleme aktivitelerinde tedirginlik oluyor.

12. Can you think about whether you can use listening/reading strategies effectively enough or not?

Evet –dinlemede etkili değil readingde etkili strateji kullanımı.

13. Do you think you can use the listening/reading strategies outside the classroom, too?

Evet, farklı dilleri öğrenirken de kullanabilirim.