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INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

**TRAINING UNIVERSITY EFL STUDENTS IN COMBINED
METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES FOR LISTENING**

M.A. THESIS

**T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ**

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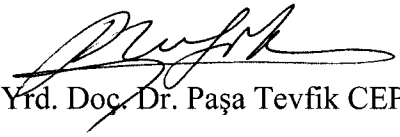
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ÖZET

Bu çalışma yabancı dili İngilizce olan bir grup Türk üniversite öğrencisinin dil öğrenme strateji profillerini ortaya koymak ve dinleme becerileri için birleşik metakognitif strateji eğitiminin faydalarını sorgulamayı amaçlamaktadır.

Bu çalışma dört bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölüm, çalışmanın kuramsal çerçevesini sunmaktadır. Aynı zamanda çalışmanın amacını, kapsamını, varsayımlarını ve çalışmada kullanılan veri toplama ve değerlendirme metotlarını ortaya koymaktadır.

İkinci bölüm, konuyla ilgili kaynak taramasını kapsamaktadır. Bu bölüm genel olarak yabancı dil öğrenme kuramlarına değinmektedir. Daha detaylı olarak dil öğrenme stratejileri, strateji eğitimi, metakognisyon ve dinleme becerisi için metakognitif strateji eğitiminden bahsedilmektedir.

Üçüncü bölüm araştırmanın yöntemini, veri analizini ve tartışmasını kapsamaktadır. Dördüncü bölüm çalışmanın kısa bir özetinin yapıldığı ve önerilerin sunulduğu sonuç bölümüdür.

ABSTRACT

This study aims to determine the language learning strategy profile of a group of Turkish university EFL students, and to investigate whether or not they can benefit from a combined metacognitive strategy training for listening.

The study comprises of four chapters. The first chapter offers a background to the study. The aim and scope of the study are given in this chapter, along with the method and assumptions.

The second chapter presents the literature review. This chapter provides a brief history of foreign language learning theories, concentrating on the cognitive approach. It then introduces the concept of language learning strategies, strategy training, metacognition, and metacognitive strategy training for listening.

Chapter three deals with the research methodology and the data analysis, and presents a discussion of the results. Chapter four, the conclusion, provides a brief summary of the study offering pedagogical implications and suggestions for future research.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as a Second Language

SILL: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

University students acquire a substantial amount of knowledge from lectures, and when these lectures are in English and the students are non-native speakers of English, the situation takes on a different dimension. Some students may find it difficult to access knowledge from a lecture for no other reason than they are simply a poor listener in a foreign language. Until recently, listening was accepted as a "passive skill", the listener appearing to be inactive during the process, and was often taken for granted. Recent research, however, has shown that it is anything but that, and it has thus come to hold a more important place in foreign language learning.

Again, over the past two decades there has been a swing towards learner-centred methodology, encouraging learner autonomy. A key-point in the idea of learner autonomy is the existence and teachability of learning strategies, including metacognitive strategies.

When we look at the role of strategy training in listening comprehension, we can see that there has been a very recent call to review the current methodology to include a more strategic approach, though this has not been without criticism. Thompson and Rubin (1996) obtained positive results with the systematic instruction of the use of strategies, while Vogely (1995) states that although students often learn strategies effectively, they do not know when or how to use them effectively. There are works on metacognitive strategies which have specifically shown success in raising metacognitive awareness in second language listeners (Goh, 1997; 1998).

LoCastro (1994) claims that most of the research done on learning strategies has been carried out in ESL situations in North America, and that the field could benefit from research in different situations. There does seem to be a lack of

research in the Turkish EFL situation on metacognitive strategies in particular. Amongst the current research in Turkey includes a study on the metacognitive strategies and beliefs about language learning (Yüzbaşıoğlu, 1991), metacognitive strategies and academic reading (Çelik, 1997; Sayram, 1994; Tunçman, 1994), and metacognitive strategies in academic listening (Özbilgin, 1993).

As it has been shown, there seems to be no current research on combined metacognitive strategies in relation to listening in the Turkish university EFL field. It is hoped that this study will show that by training the students in a combination of metacognitive strategies, they will be more successful in accessing knowledge from their lectures. If this is proven to be so, it will be possible to call for a change in the more traditional methodology of the listening class to include awareness of and training in metacognitive strategies. The study has another dimension in that the subjects are trainee EFL teachers, and if positive results are obtained, it is hoped that they too will work to raise the strategic awareness of their future students and help them to succeed.

1.2. Problem

It is known that learners of a foreign language use a variety of language learning strategies to help them, and that they are able to report these. It is also known that the strategies used by learners are affected to a certain extent by factors such as language proficiency, cultural background, and learning style. The problem is how we as educators can help our students to learn new strategies and to make the best use of strategies they may already use, so that they can improve their performance.

This study will aim first to determine the language learning strategy profile of a group of students, and then to provide them with training in a combination of metacognitive strategies for listening to determine whether or not there is an improvement in their performance. In the light of the findings, the pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research will be discussed.

1.3. Aim and Scope of the Study

The aim of this study is first to discover the language learning strategy profile of a group of students at the Department of ELT, Gazi University, by administering them an inventory (See Appendix I). Secondly, a group of these students will be given training in a combination of metacognitive strategies for listening to determine whether or not their listening comprehension improves as a result. Another more general aim of the study is to arouse in the students an interest in language learning strategies in order that they may not only help themselves to improve their proficiency, but also be in the position to be of assistance to others.

This study will be carried out in the Department of ELT of the Faculty of Education, Gazi University. In order to gather data on the language learning strategy profiles of the students, an inventory will be administered to second-year students selected at random, who will then again be assigned to a control group and an experimental group. Training in a combination of metacognitive strategies will then proceed.

1.4. Method

Firstly, the literature related to language learning strategies and strategy training will be reviewed in order to provide a theoretical background to the study. A language learning strategy inventory will then be administered to second-year students studying at the Department of ELT, Gazi University. The results of the inventory will be analysed statistically in order to present the language learning strategy profile of the group. The students will be divided into a control group and an experimental group. A pre-test will be administered to both groups to collect baseline data. The experimental group will attend an introductory lecture on language learning strategies in general to raise their awareness before commencing the training. Daily tests will be given after each training session. After the final session, the subjects of the experimental group will be asked to write comments evaluating the training they have received. A post-test will be administered to both

groups a month after training to determine whether or not there are any significant differences between the two groups. The results of all the tests will be analysed statistically, and then interpreted. Finally, the pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research will be given.

1.5. Assumptions

The following assumptions are taken into consideration throughout this study.

1. The language learning strategy profiles of the students at the Department of ELT, Gazi University have not yet been determined.
2. Students are able to report which strategies they use, and an inventory is one way to gather this information.
3. Students have difficulty accessing information when presented aurally.
4. Strategy training for listening, although scarce, has yielded successful results in other studies.
5. No similar study has yet been carried out in a Department of ELT of a Turkish university.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction

This chapter will present a brief history of the research on foreign language learning theories in order to provide a background to the current study. The role the cognitive theory of learning has played in foreign language learning research will be dwelt upon in particular, as it is from this theory that the idea of learner autonomy and language learning strategies, the main emphasis of this study, arose. The various studies carried out on learning strategies in general, strategy-based training, and metacognition will be reviewed. This will be followed by a review of studies on metacognition and metacognitive strategy training in relation to listening in a foreign language, with a final focus on studies carried out in Turkey.

2.1. Foreign Language Learning Theories – a Brief History

It is not the purpose of this study to present a detailed history of foreign language learning research, but it is important to trace back over the developments that have taken place in the ELT profession in order to provide a background to the present study.

After the Second World War, foreign language learning theory was based on the structuralist movement in linguistics and the behaviourist movement in psychology. Structural linguists, including Bloomfield, Sapir, Hockett and Fries, concerned themselves with data about language that was overtly observable. They set out to describe human language by breaking it up into basic components, which they subsequently described and contrasted scientifically, and then added back together (Brown, 2000: 9). In foreign language teaching, it was believed that the main barrier to learning a foreign language consisted of the areas of difference

between the native and target languages, and so many researchers began to compare languages for potential sources of difficulty in a process termed Contrastive Analysis (Brown, 2000: 208; Mitchell and Myles, 1998: 25).

The concurrent psychological movement, behaviourism, was similarly concerned with overtly observable data, in this case, responses to specific stimuli. The emphasis was upon an empirical approach, and any reference to consciousness or intuition was regarded as mentalist and therefore rejected. Important theories in this movement include Pavlov's classical conditioning, Skinner's operant conditioning, Thorndike's connectionism, and Watson's behaviourism (Brown, 2000: 80-81; Stern, 1983: 305). It was Skinner's view of learning, however, that had the most profound influence on education. In his opinion, the consequences of stimuli were more important than the stimuli themselves. These stimulated consequences, or responses, acted as reinforcers, and it is these reinforcers that strengthen behaviour, or increase the chance of the response being repeated, and therefore represent a powerful force in human learning (Brown, 2000: 81; Nunan, 1998: 229)

The audiolingual method of foreign language teaching was based on the assumption that language, like any other skill, is a system of habits that can be learned on this stimulus/response/reinforcement basis. A typical audiolingual lesson would focus on structure and include drills, repetition, and substitution exercises. The learner was regarded as being passive and waiting to be programmed, and no attention was given to learner contributions to the learning process. In fact, the conscious intervention of learners with the learning process was discouraged, as it was believed that such intervention would interfere with the desired automaticity of the responses (Griffiths and Parr, 2001: 248).

Although audiolingualism seemed to provide a set of clear cut formulae and procedures that were easy to follow by both teachers and learners, as Nunan (1998: 232) points out, the method was based on inadequate explanations of human learning. As a result, the method was affected by the criticism aimed at structural linguistics and behavioural psychology at the end of the 1950s, with the publishing in

1959 of Noam Chomsky's critique of Skinner's book, "Verbal Behaviour", published in 1957.

This new school of linguistics emerging under Chomsky's influence was known as the generative – transformative school. Generative linguists and cognitive psychologists took the place of the structuralists and behaviourists. The generative linguists did not just interest themselves with description of language as the structuralists had, they also sought to reach an explanatory level of language analysis. Rather than dwelling only upon the outwardly observable *performance* of language, they gave importance to language *competence*, the unobservable ability that gives rise to observable linguistic performance. The performance-competence dichotomy was coined by Chomsky himself (Brown, 2000: 10). He put forward the idea of a Universal Grammar, an innate linguistic knowledge with which the first language learner approaches a learning task. He showed that stimulus-response theory was inadequate in explaining certain aspects of a child's developing linguistic system, which could be better characterised by rule-governed creativity (Nunan, 1998: 233). McLaughlin (1987: 91), Mitchell and Myles (1998: 70-71) point out that while Universal Grammar theory is not directly concerned with foreign language learning as such, it has been a useful descriptive tool, which has contributed to our knowledge of foreign language learning. However, its weaknesses lie in the fact that it provides an exclusively linguistic explanation of language learning, and ignores the social and psychological variables of the process. In the words of Mitchell and Myles (1998: 69), "the Universal Grammar approach views the speaker/learner not as an individual with varied characteristics, nor as a social being, but as some kind of idealised receptacle for the Universal Grammar blueprint".

A similar trend of explanation was seen among the cognitive psychologists. Their search was for an explanation of observable human behaviour through discovery of the motivations that lay behind it. They broke away from the empirical tradition of the behaviourists and took on a rational approach, using logic, reason, extrapolation and inference (Brown, 2000: 10). Ausubel's meaningful learning replaced Skinner's operant conditioning. The key difference between behaviourism

and cognitivism is that the latter views learning as a “two-way process between the organism and its environment”, whereas behaviourism postulates that the organism is a “passive recipient of outside stimuli” (Nunan, 1998: 232).

The method that emerged from this marriage of generative linguistics and cognitive psychology was cognitive code learning, which differed from the audiolingual method in the same way as the parent disciplines of the two methods did. The main differences can be summarised as follows. Firstly, cognitive code learning placed little emphasis on the role of rote learning and mimicry. Secondly, it also accepted that rules can be valuable in learning, but that new knowledge should always be linked to previously learned knowledge. Language learning was seen as an intelligent, problem-solving process in which the learner should take an active part. Thirdly, target language items were presented either deductively, when the learner is presented with the new item in a meaningful context, is told the rule and given the opportunity to apply it; or inductively, when the learner is presented with a number of items and is asked to work out the rule. Finally, cognitivists are more tolerant of mistakes, believing that they are not “deviant forms” as the behaviourists claim, but an important part of the learning process (Nunan, 1998: 233).

The findings of research on Universal Grammar, which purported that children follow an internal prescribed route in learning their first language, were of interest to researchers of foreign language learning because it became obvious that not all the predictions made by Contrastive Analysis were realised in practice. Structures that were different in a pair of languages were not necessarily difficult to learn, and similar structures were not necessarily easy (Mitchell and Myles, 1998: 29). This realisation, along with the above mentioned more tolerant attitude of the cognitivists towards errors, led to a change in direction from a comparison of native and target languages to an emphasis on learner-produced language. It was discovered that a lot of the errors learners made were not due to native language interference. These errors resembled neither the native nor the target language, so it was assumed that they were learner-internal. Error Analysis, the systematic study of

learner errors, was focused on first by Corder in 1967 (Mitchell and Myles, 1998: 30).

By the end of the 1960s, as Brown (2000: 215) states, foreign language learners

“...were not looked on as producers of malformed, imperfect language replete with mistakes but as intelligent and creative beings proceeding through logical, systematic stages of acquisition, creatively acting upon their linguistic environment as they encountered its forms and functions in meaningful contexts.”

The language that learners use is considered to be a dynamic language system in its own right, with its own temporary rules that deal with linguistic input. Selinker called this system “interlanguage” in 1972, and interlanguage studies focus on the learner system as a whole, rather than just what can go wrong with it (Brown, 2000: 215; Mitchell and Myles, 1998: 31; McLaughlin, 1987: 60). Selinker saw interlanguage as the result of five cognitive processes used when learning a foreign language, here summarised from McLaughlin (1987: 61):

1. Transfer from native language
2. Transfer of some elements of the training process
3. Strategies of foreign language learning
4. Strategies of foreign language communication
5. Overgeneralisation of linguistic material in the target language.

Selinker’s view is important from the point of language learning strategies research, as it can be seen that for the first time the learners’ cognitive processes were taken into account in the language learning process. In his work of 1975 on the analysis of children’s speech, he claimed there was a systematicity in the interlanguage that was not predictable by grammatical rules, but by recognisable strategies – cognitive activities that worked at the conscious or unconscious level to process foreign language material (McLaughlin, 1987: 62). As Griffiths and Parr

(2001: 248) remark, it is from this idea of errors as signs of active efforts on behalf of the learners that language learning strategies research developed.

Selinker's description of interlanguage as a system structurally intermediate between the native and target languages in status is not the only one. In 1971, Nemser named the same phenomenon "approximative system" and stressed the successive approximation to the target language, while Corder in the same year used the term "idiosyncratic dialect" to emphasise the idea that a learner's language is unique to that individual learner (Brown, 2000: 215). In 1976, Adjemian argued that interlanguage was rule-governed behaviour, and focused on its dynamic nature. Later in 1979, Tarone postulated that interlanguage could be analysed into a set of styles dependent on the context of use (McLaughlin, 1987: 63-64).

However, an approach to foreign language learning emerged at the beginning of the 1970s that was to oppose the development of research on language learning strategies. Krashen's "Monitor Model", later renamed "Input Hypothesis", claimed that a foreign language is best learned in conditions close to those in which a first language was learned, and consists of five interrelated hypotheses which Brown (2000: 277-279) and McLaughlin (1987: 19-55) summarise as follows: 1) The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, in which Krashen claims that subconscious, intuitive "acquisition" is more effective than conscious "learning", and that there is no interface between the two concepts. 2) The Monitor Hypothesis, in which "learned" knowledge controls output. 3) The Natural Order Hypothesis, which followed as a result of morpheme studies, and states that language items are "acquired" in a predictable order. 4) The Input Hypothesis, which claims that learners should be exposed to input just beyond their comprehension. The key concept is "comprehensible input" which Krashen represents by the formula $(i+1)$. 5) The Affective Filter Hypothesis, which states that the best "acquisition" occurs in low-anxiety environments.

The Natural Approach, developed by Krashen and Terrell in 1983, is based on these hypotheses, and includes affective-humanistic activities, games, and content activities, which all aim to provide comprehensible input (Nunan, 1998: 241-243).

sound (e.g. McLaughlin, 1987; McLaughlin, 1990b), and that it greatly oversimplifies first and foreign language learning (e.g. Nunan, 1998: 244; Brown, 2000: 279). Perhaps one of the most important criticisms from the aspect of the current study is the one directed towards Krashen's claim that success in a foreign language is only attributable to input. As Brown (2000: 280) claims, "such a theory ascribes little credit to learners and their own active engagement in the process". He also calls for a distinction between input and intake, the latter being the part of input that actually gets stored in the long-term memory. Mitchell and Myles (1998: 126) quote Krashen's (1983) three-step proposal for the change of input to intake as follows:

1. Understanding an L2 $i+1$ form;
2. Noticing a gap between the $i+1$ form, and the interlanguage rule which the learner currently controls;
3. The reappearance of the $i+1$ form with minimal frequency.

The same authors point out that while such a proposal has been made, there has been no attempt to define what "understanding" and "noticing a gap" mean, or what the processes involved might be.

Despite the varied criticism, researchers in the field (e.g. McLaughlin, 1987; Brown, 2000) admit that Krashen was a pioneer in the move from grammar-based learning to communicative instruction, and that his claims have sparked off research to find feasible alternatives.

2.2. Cognitive Theory

It can be said that the theories that have been dealt with so far have not taken into consideration the learner's internal factors involved in the foreign language learning process. To the behaviourists, the learner was a passive entity waiting to be programmed. The Universal Grammar Approach, whilst accepting that the learner

had an active role, placed an emphasis on the linguistic dimension of foreign language learning. For Krashen, the most important factor was input.

The researchers in the field of Cognitive Theory, however, argue that in order to understand the way in which a foreign language is learned, it is essential to refer to the interaction that occurs between language and cognition (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 16). As Mitchell and Myles (1998: 73) point out:

“The main difference between linguistic approaches and cognitive approaches to language learning is that whereas the former believe human beings to be endowed with a language-specific module in the mind, the latter do not believe that language is separate from other aspects of cognition; the human mind is geared to the processing of all kinds of information (information being understood in a broad sense), and linguistic information is just one type, albeit highly complex.”

The same authors continue to say that the linguistic-cognitive dichotomy described above should actually be conceived as a continuum, quoting Bley-Vroman (1989) who claims that while the learning of the mother tongue might be innate, the learning of a foreign language depends on cognitive mechanisms; Butterworth and Harris (1994), who claim that the learning of some aspects of language, such as syntax, is independent of cognitive development, yet the full understanding of most aspects call for more general cognitive abilities; and Harley (1995) who leaves the debate open by saying that it is not obvious whether a language is learned innately, cognitively, or both.

The drawback of linguistic approaches, according to O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 17), is that they do not offer any suggestions as to how foreign language learners might access linguistic information, or what learning strategies they might use. They then state the advantages of an approach that accepts foreign language learning as a complex cognitive skill, which can be summarised as follows. Firstly, by applying relevant theories and models that have been developed in the fields of cognitive psychology and information processing to the study of foreign language learning, it is possible “to provide a comprehensive and well-specified theoretical framework that is consistent with related work”. Secondly, models of skill

learning, it is possible “to provide a comprehensive and well-specified theoretical framework that is consistent with related work”. Secondly, models of skill acquisition have a high level of specificity and are “dynamic” or “process” oriented, enabling us to suggest a detailed process view of foreign language learning. Thirdly, such an approach provides a mechanism that describes ways in which it is possible to improve language learning ability. Finally, such an approach provides a framework for the development and use of learning strategies in foreign language teaching (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990: 19-20).

Before language learning strategies are dealt with in detail, it is useful at this point to describe two information processing models based on Cognitive Theory, McLaughlin’s Information Processing Model, and Anderson’s Adaptive Control of Thought Model.

An account of McLaughlin’s Information Processing can be found in his works of 1987 (133-153), and 1990 (a) and (b). He (1987: 133-134) claims that, within the framework of Cognitive Theory, to learn a foreign language is to learn a skill,

“...because various aspects of the task must be practised and integrated into fluent performance. This requires the automatization of component sub-skills. Learning is a cognitive process, because it is thought to involve internal representations that regulate and guide performance. In the case of language acquisition, these representations are based on the language system and include procedures for selecting appropriate vocabulary, grammatical rules, and pragmatic conventions of language use. As performance improves, there is constant restructuring as learners simplify, unify, and gain increasing control over their internal representations (Karmiloff-Smith 1986). These two notions – automatization and restructuring – are central to Cognitive theory”.

The key concepts of this model are as follows:

Automatisation. McLaughlin based this concept on the work of Shiffrin and Schneider (1977), who claimed that the memory is a large connection of nodes, which become interassociated through learning. Inactive, or passive, nodes constitute the long-term storage, and when a number of these nodes are activated by

Controlled Processing. This involves a temporary activation of nodes in a sequence under the attentional control of the subject, and limited by the short-term memory. “Controlled processes are thus tightly capacity-limited, and require more time for their activation. But controlled processes have the advantage of being relatively easy to set up, alter, and apply to novel situations” (McLaughlin, 1987: 135).

Automatic Processing. This is the activation of certain nodes in the presence of an appropriate stimulus. It is a learned response that arises from the continual mapping of the same input of the same pattern of activation. Automatised sequences are stored in the long-term memory, and they can be made available rapidly whenever needed with little attentional control from the subject. “Most automatic processes require an appropriate amount of training to develop fully. Once learned, an automatic process occurs rapidly and is difficult to suppress or alter” (McLaughlin, 1987: 134).

Learning. Within this framework, learning can be described as the transfer of information from the long-term memory to the short-term memory, in other words, movement from controlled to automatic processing, through practice. An important concept is that once “a component of the task becomes automatized, attention can be devoted to other components of the task and a previously difficult or impossible task becomes possible” (McLaughlin, 1987: 136). That is, it is necessary for more simple routines to be automatised before proceeding to more complex ones.

Restructuring. This concept arose from the findings of researchers such as Lightbown (1985. Cited in McLaughlin, 1990a), who underlines the fact that foreign language learning is not a linear and cumulative process, but appears to involve a certain amount of backsliding and loss of forms that were thought to be mastered. As learners learn new information, this new information modifies their existing linguistic system, sometimes resulting in the disappearance of previously known information.

linguistic system, sometimes resulting in the disappearance of previously known information.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 20-27) describe Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought Model in detail as a framework for their work on language learning strategies. The main concepts of the model can be summarised as follows:

Declarative knowledge. There is a distinction between what we know about, and what we know how to do. The former is referred to as declarative knowledge, which is stored in the *declarative long-term memory*. This type of knowledge is stored here through *propositional representations*, denoted by a *relation* and a list of *arguments*. This allows the meaning of information to be maintained while disposing of detail. The basic unit of a proposition is a *node*, or *idea*, which is joined to the relations and arguments by *links*, or *associations*, organised into a *propositional network*. The networks are organised hierarchically. Another important feature is *spreading activation*, which is the activation of further concepts through the stimulation of a single concept. O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 23) point out that "the important point is that these associations reside in the listener rather than in the sentence being communicated, are linked hierarchically to the initial concept, and are activated depending on their relationship in the propositional network to the initial concept". That is, it is the listener's own propositional networks which give meaning to a sentence. *Working memory*, which Mitchell and Myles (1998: 87) compare to McLaughlin's short-term memory, is described as the range of nodes that are reached by spreading activation.

Schemata, configurations of interrelated features that define a concept, are required in order to represent larger units of meaning. They help us to organise and understand new information.

Procedural knowledge. This is our knowledge about how to do something. Anderson (1980. Cited in O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 24) defines the term *cognitive skill* as "the ability to form various mental procedures". Understanding and producing language are examples of this type of knowledge. Similar to

declarative long-term memory. Learning, in the view of this model, can be described as declarative knowledge becoming procedural knowledge (Mitchell and Myles, 1998: 87).

Production systems. Since he purports that language is like any other complex cognitive system, Anderson believes that complex cognitive skills are represented in the human memory in the form of *production systems*, which are series of “IF....., THEN....” clauses. For example, “If the goal is to generate a plural of a noun, and the noun ends in a hard consonant, THEN generate the noun + /s/” (Anderson, 1980. Cited in O’Malley and Chamot, 1990: 25).

The question that arises now is how declarative knowledge becomes procedural knowledge. Three stages to this process are suggested: the cognitive, associative, and autonomous stages.

Cognitive stage. In this stage, the learner is instructed how to perform a task. Conscious activity is involved, and the knowledge learned in this way is declarative in that it can be reported verbally by the learner. For example, a learner might be able to describe how to communicate in a foreign language, but this knowledge alone is not sufficient enough to allow for skilled performance in that language. Performance at this stage is characterised by errors.

Associative stage. Errors in production are gradually recognised and eliminated. Also, the connections between the various components of the skill are strengthened. In other words, declarative knowledge becomes procedural knowledge. There is still some evidence of declarative knowledge as it is possible to remember rules of grammar while becoming more fluent in a foreign language.

Autonomous stage. At this stage, performance becomes increasingly automatic. While a simple fact can be learned almost immediately, complex skills such as foreign language learning require a relatively long period of practice before being mastered.

such as foreign language learning require a relatively long period of practice before being mastered.

2.3. Defining Learning Strategies

It is this assumption of cognitive science that humans are processors of information that provides the background for research on learner strategies, which Wenden (1987a: 6) describes as “the techniques actually used to manipulate the incoming information and, later to retrieve what has been stored”. She then continues to summarise research in this area in terms of four questions: What do learners do to learn a foreign language? How do they self-direct these efforts? What do they know about which aspects of their learning process? How can their learning skills be refined? (Wenden, 1987a: 6).

However, despite the prolific research in the area, it has been difficult for researchers to come to a consensus on a definition of language learning strategies due to their elusive nature, summed up by Duffy’s description of them as “algorithmic secrets” (1982. Cited in Maguire, 1997-1998: 6). Following is a selection of definitions found in the literature, given chronologically.

One of the earliest definitions to be found is that of Nisbet (1966. Cited in Maguire, 1997-1998: 6), who describes them as “integrated sequences of procedures selected with a purpose of view”. Bialystok in 1978 (cited in O’Malley et al., 1985: 559) calls them “optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language”. Tarone (1983. Cited in Lessard-Clouston, 1997: 2) refers to them as “an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language...to incorporate these into one’s interlanguage competence”. Ellis (1985. Cited in LoCastro, 1994: 409) describes them as “the means by which learners internalise L2 rules”. In 1986, Weinstein and Mayer (cited in Lessard-Clouston, 1997: 1) refer to learning strategies as “behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning...intended to influence the learner’s encoding process”. According to Rubin (1987: 23), language learning strategies “contribute to

the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly". O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 1) call them "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information". Oxford (1990: 1) refers to learning strategies as "steps taken by students to enhance their own learning. Finally, Nyikos (1996: 111) calls them "deliberate steps taken by learners to make learning easier and retrieval more efficient through planful approaches".

While most of these quotes reflect their sound bases in cognitive theory, it is interesting to note Tarone's description, which includes sociolinguistic competence along with linguistic competence, an essential part of the more contemporary communicative approaches. This concept is later supported by Oxford (1990: 8), who states, "All appropriate language learning strategies are oriented to the broad goal of communicative competence". Maguire's study (1997-1998) shows that learning strategies have an important role in Neuro Linguistic Programming, a currently popular trend in foreign language teaching. Another interesting point to take into consideration is the predominant emphasis on the learner in all these quotations, which reflects the turning point in foreign language teaching methodology from being teacher-centred to learner-centred, and the move towards learner autonomy. They also show the change in focus from the earlier product-oriented approaches to foreign language teaching to the contemporary process-oriented approaches.

Oxford (1990:9) proposes twelve features of language learning strategies. They:

1. Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
2. Allow learners to become more self-directed.
3. Expand the role of teachers.
4. Are problem oriented.
5. Are specific actions taken by the learners.
6. Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.

10. Can be taught.
11. Are flexible.
12. Are influenced by a variety of factors.”

These features are an expansion of the six criteria that Wenden (1987a: 7-8) proposed, and not only do they summarise the general features that can be understood from the various definitions, but they also include the pedagogical consequences that arise.

2.4. Classifying Learning Strategies

Just as there are many definitions of learning strategies, so there are several classification systems. In fact, much of the early research in this field set out to identify and classify the strategies that learners reported to use. The systems that will be discussed in this section are those of Naiman et al. (1978), Rubin (1981: Both cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 4-5), O'Malley et al. (1985: 567-568), and finally Oxford (1990: 14-22).

Naiman et al. (1978. Cited in Rubin, 1987: 20; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 6) took as a basis Stern's (1975) list of ten strategies required to gain competence in a foreign language and modified it with the statements and views of their interviewees, who were chosen as good language learners. Their proposal of a classification table (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 3) contains five main categories of learning strategies with a number of sub-categories, followed by examples. These main categories can be summarised as (1) active involvement in the learning process, (2) awareness of language as a system, (3) awareness of language as means of communication and interaction, (4) management of the affective demands of learning a foreign language, and (5) monitoring performance in the foreign language.

Rubin's classification scheme (1981. Cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 3) was compiled after extensive research including classroom observation, group observation, analysis of students' self-reports, and analysis of daily journal entries. It

divides learning strategies into two broad categories: those that contribute directly to learning, and those that contribute indirectly. The former group includes clarification/verification, monitoring, memorisation, guessing/inductive reasoning, and practice. The latter group includes creating practice opportunities, and using production tricks.

While O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 7) admit that these two classification schemes offer a number of useful approaches to learning a foreign language, they criticise them from the point of view that they do not have sufficient grounding in theories of foreign language learning, in particular cognitive theory. It is therefore difficult to select those strategies which might be fundamental to learning, those which might be useful for other learners, and those which should be combined in order to maximise learning effectiveness. It is, after all, these points that are the driving force behind language learning strategy research.

In the first phase of their two-phase study, O'Malley et al. (1985) set out to identify the range of strategies reported to be used by students with a variety of language tasks, not just vocabulary, as had been reported in previous studies, both inside the classroom and outside. In order to construct a classification of learning strategies in accordance with an information-processing model, they used the scheme developed by Brown and Palinscar in 1982 (O'Malley et al, 1985: 565-566). This classification system distinguishes between metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective strategies. They identified seven metacognitive, eleven cognitive, and two socioaffective strategy types.

Perhaps the most comprehensive classification system to date is that proposed by Oxford (1990: 14-22) (See Appendix III). Like that of O'Malley et al. (1985), it is a system based on cognitive theory, but it is much more detailed. Oxford's system divides strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect. These two classes are divided again into six subgroups: the direct class into memory, compensation, and cognitive; the indirect class into metacognitive, social, and affective. Oxford emphasises that these strategies support each other, likening the direct strategies to a "Performer" and the indirect strategies to a "Director" in a stage play. The important

point is that, unlike traditional teaching methods, the “Director” is the learner’s internal guide, that is, the learner is both the “Performer” and the “Director”, and can therefore accept greater responsibility for his or her own learning. Oxford points out, however, that this is by no means an exhaustive system, and reminds us again that there is no consensus on exactly what strategies are, how many there are, and how they should be classified. There is also some overlap of strategies, what one researcher might classify as a direct strategy, another might refer to as an indirect strategy.

2.5. Research on Language Learning Strategies

Richards (1990. Cited in Nyikos, 1996: 110) effectively expresses the reason for the swing from method-centred to learner-centred approaches:

“Prompted by the awareness that learners may succeed despite the teacher’s methods and techniques rather than because of them, researchers as well as teachers have begun to look more closely at learners themselves in an attempt to discover how successful learners achieve their results.”

Research on language learning strategies can be divided into two main periods, the first being from the mid-1970s to the late 1980s, characterised by the studies of Rubin (1971. Cited in Rubin, 1987: 20), Politzer and McGroarty (1985) and O’Malley et al (1985), which sought to identify and classify the language learning strategies used by “good” learners of a foreign language. The second period continues up until the present day and is characterised by studies that concentrate on how language learning strategies might be effectively taught to learners to improve their learning and encourage learner autonomy.

Rubin (1987: 19-22) provides a summary of the earliest studies on learning strategies. She mentions that the first research was carried out by Aaron Carton in 1966 and 1971, coinciding with the emergence of cognitive psychology. He identified inference as a strategy used by learners of a foreign language. He stated that language learning was a kind of problem solving, and that learners could bring

1966 and 1971, coinciding with the emergence of cognitive psychology. He identified inference as a strategy used by learners of a foreign language. He stated that language learning was a kind of problem solving, and that learners could bring their previous knowledge and experience to the processing of language. Taking Carton's work and the contemporary cognitive psychology movement as a starting point, in 1971 Rubin started research on the strategies used by successful foreign language learners assuming that once identified, these strategies could be taught to less successful learners. In 1975, she identified the following variables: learner psychological characteristics; learner communication strategies; learner social strategies; and learner cognitive strategies. In 1981 she proposed the classification system described in the previous section.

Politzer and McGroarty (1985) set out to both describe learners' self-reported language learning behaviour by means of a questionnaire, and then to relate these behaviours to the learners' gains in proficiency in order to provide empirical validation to for the largely descriptive studies to that date. Their results showed that while Asian students displayed less of the "good" learning behaviours than Hispanic students, they were seen to make more gains in linguistic and communicative competence than the Hispanics, who made more progress in oral proficiency and aural comprehension. Overall, they concluded that 1) the universal validity of "good" learning behaviours is questionable and might be affected by the learner's culture and field of profession, 2) frequency of use does not necessarily mean that a given behaviour is effective, it might be a sign of lack of progress, 3) good behaviours might be "differentially appropriate" (Politzer and McGroarty, 1985: 118) for the different types of skills involved in foreign language learning, and also for developing linguistic competence and communicative competence.

O'Malley et al (1985) aimed to identify the range and frequency of learning strategy use by learners of English, and then to discover the effects of training in learning strategies on the skills of listening and speaking. In the first part of their study, they focus on "good" learners, and state that learners do apply strategies that can be described and classified. Their classification system based on cognitive

training students in the use of strategies showed that such training could be effective for various language tasks. The researchers suggested that, in light of the results, further research could be carried out to refine strategy training techniques, focusing in particular on the metacognitive strategy of evaluation.

At the end of the 1980s, several researchers compiled volumes with learning strategies as their central theme. In 1987, Wenden and Rubin edited a collection of studies that investigated the strategies and beliefs of foreign language learners, and how it might be possible to incorporate strategy training in the classroom in order to promote learner autonomy. In his foreword to this work, Stern (Wenden and Rubin, 1987: xi-xii) states that the main value of the work was that it counteracted two tendencies that were predominant at that time: one being the tendency to render learners dependent on teachers, course materials, and strictly controlled methods; the other being the emphasis on “unconscious acquisition processes which are largely beyond the learners’ or teachers’ control.

Another major work of that time is that of O’Malley and Chamot (1990). Their aim was to integrate findings of cognitive psychology with those of research on foreign language learning. They present learning strategies from a perspective of cognitive theory, give accounts of studies that describe the learning strategies used by foreign language learners, and discuss the issues of strategy instruction.

Oxford’s work of the same year is a practical guide for teachers, and includes a classification of learning strategies with concrete examples collected from research, a model for strategy training, and inventories for assessing learners’ strategies, the latter being the subject of a point-counterpoint between LoCastro (1994; 1995) and Oxford and Green (1995).

Up until this time, the main assumption behind a lot of research in the field was that “good” language learners were “good” because they were active users of learning strategies, and that other learners were unsuccessful because they were inactive users. However, Vann and Abraham (1990) point out that most research until that time provided conflicting evidence, a phenomenon they accredit to a lack

learning strategies, and that other learners were unsuccessful because they were inactive users. However, Vann and Abraham (1990) point out that most research until that time provided conflicting evidence, a phenomenon they accredit to a lack of evidence of the strategies used by unsuccessful learners. They draw attention to the fact that, until that time, descriptions of good learners' behaviours had been based upon researcher observations and retrospective student self-reports (e.g. O'Malley et al, 1985), but that very little research had been carried out on how strategies are used during the task. Their study focuses on two unsuccessful learners, and used think-aloud protocols and task products for analysis. Instead of making a list of strategies used, they linked strategies with task demands. Unlike previous studies might have suggested, the two learners appeared to be active users of strategies, although they often applied them inappropriately. Vann and Abraham (1990: 191) conclude that the two learners lacked the necessary metacognitive strategies that would help them to assess the task and choose appropriate strategies. They stress that strategy training might be useful for learners who do not use their strategies in accordance with the task in hand, and emphasise that the most successful examples of strategy training have been those which give information about why, when, and where strategies should be used.

In Nunan's (1995) study on learner centredness, he seeks to discover why there seems to be a gap between what is taught and what is learned in the language classroom. He (1995: 141-143) refers to the experiential content domain, the learning process domain, and the language content domain. He emphasises the important role of language learning strategies have in closing the gap between instruction and learning in the learning process domain. He then continues to list a number steps to lead learners to autonomy, the first two being to raise the learners' awareness of the strategies underlying the task at hand, and then to train learners to identify their own preferred learning styles and strategies.

Park (1997) set out to determine the relation between language learning strategies, as measured by the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990), and language proficiency, as measured by the Test Of English as a

Foreign Language, for Korean university students. The study was designed to answer three questions: if a relationship between language learning strategies and foreign language proficiency could be determined; what the correlations among the six categories of language learning strategies of the SILL, the total language learning strategies, and foreign language proficiency were; and which categories of language learning proficiency were more predictive of foreign language proficiency.

The findings of this study show that firstly, unlike similar previous studies, the relationship between language learning strategy use and foreign language proficiency was linear. That is, students in the high-proficiency group reported more strategy use than those in the mid-proficiency group, who in turn reported more use than those in the low-proficiency group. Previous researchers (Green, 1991; Philips, 1991. Cited in Park, 1997: 216) found that the relation was curvilinear, that is, students in the mid-proficiency group reported more strategy use than those in both the high and low-proficiency groups, a phenomenon Oxford and Green (cited in Park, 1997: 216) accredit to the automatization of strategies by more advanced students. Park calls for further investigation into the proficiency level at which automatization may occur.

Secondly, the study shows a significant relationship between all the six categories of language learning strategies covered in the SILL and the TOEFL scores. Park claims that this is a critical finding, since earlier research (e.g. Politzer and McGroarty, 1985) had failed to show such a relationship. While studies such as that of Vann and Abraham (1990) state that appropriate use of strategy is important, Park (1997:216) purports that the range of language learning strategies that a learner has command of might be a prerequisite of appropriate use.

Thirdly, for the subjects of the study, cognitive and social strategies were more predictive of their TOEFL scores, suggesting the importance of active mental involvement and co-operation in the learning process.

In conclusion, Park claims that in light of the linear relation between language learning strategy use and foreign language proficiency, strategy training in

a classroom situation might be useful to help learners become autonomous outside the classroom (Park, 1997: 217).

2.6. Language Learning Strategy Training

According to Oxford and Leaver (1996: 227), the ultimate aim of strategy training in EFL is to help learners become more autonomous by equipping them with a range of appropriate learning strategies that they can use to get the most out of any learning situation.

It was originally thought that the learning strategies used by more successful foreign language students should be identified and taught to less successful learners. However, Oxford and Leaver (1996: 228) emphasise that strategy training should help learners know more about themselves and their learning, and that it should meet individual needs. As Vann and Abraham reported in 1990, training in the appropriate use of learning strategies is much more effective than simply training in a list of strategies that happen to be effective for a certain group of learners.

2.6.1. Issues in Strategy Training

The major issues of strategy training that reoccur in the studies carried out in the field can be summarised as: separate versus integrated training; embedded or informed training; instructional implementation; evaluation. Each issue will be dealt with in more detail below.

2.6.1.1. Separate versus Integrated Training

In separate strategy training, the learners are given a list of strategies and how to apply them, but no time to do so. It is conducted outside of normal class time with the belief that learners will learn better if they are able to focus their attention on developing their strategic processes without having to deal with the extra load of content material at the same time.

Integrated strategy training, on the other hand, allows the learners to apply the strategies with content material. Researchers in the field (Wenden, 1987b; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Chamot, 1993; Ely, 1994; Oxford and Leaver, 1996) concede that integrated training is more effective than separate training, because learning in context helps the learners to understand the relevance of what they are doing, which in turn enhances comprehension, which therefore facilitates retention of information.

2.6.1.2. Embedded versus Informed Training

In embedded training, or what Wenden (1987a: 160) refers to as “blind” training, the learners are told what to do, but not why. Thus, the emphasis is on learning “something”, not learning how to learn. Oxford and Leaver (1996: 231) state that this type of training neither requires strategic consciousness nor creates it. Wenden's (1987a) major criticism of this type of training is that it does not give the learners a chance to reflect on and evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies used, and therefore, while improving performance on the task in hand, it does not result in maintenance or transfer, which are both crucial aspects of learner autonomy, the ultimate goal of strategy training in the first place.

In informed training, however, the learners are told directly why a strategy might be useful for them, and they are given chances to reflect and evaluate. It is generally accepted among the researchers in this field that informed training, in which the learners are aware of and consciously use learning strategies, is much more effective than embedded training. This is in keeping with the pivotal role that consciousness plays in the cognitive approach to language learning according to McLaughlin (1987; 1990a; 1990b) and Schmidt (1990), for example.

Oxford and Leaver (1996: 230-236) refer to Schmidt's (1994) four aspects of consciousness in their discussion of strategy training. These are: *awareness*, *attention*, *intentionality*, and *control*. They also add the extra aspect of “*no consciousness*”. Their discussion can be summarised briefly as follows. The aspect of “*no consciousness*” refers to embedded training, as described above. Taking part

targeted. Strategy instruction aims to promote focal attention. *Intentionality*, or the decision to do something, is a critical part of motivation and reflects the learners' attitudes or beliefs. For learners to improve their strategic ability, they must deal with any negative beliefs they may hold. Informed training plays an important role in increasing motivation, because the learner is told why a certain strategy might be useful. Finally, *control* involves being able to evaluate the effectiveness of a particular strategy and being able to transfer it to another task. The authors advocate a "strategy-plus-control" training, claiming that it is more effective than embedded training, informed training, or no training at all.

Something to consider when conducting fully informed training is the belief that some learners hold that the teacher is the absolute authority who makes the decision as to what goes on in the classroom. When faced with a situation that calls for them to take control over their learning, it may seem to them that the teacher does not know what he/she is doing, and they may argue that since they are not trained language teachers themselves, they do not know what they need to do to develop their language skills. (Bell and Gower, 1994: 54). Of course, it would not be in keeping with the concept of learner-centredness to force a particular approach to strategy training on learners against their will, as there would ensue a serious decrease in motivation. In such cases of great resistance to explicit training, the researchers suggest that it might be better to take on a more subtle approach and camouflage the learner training to a certain extent.

2.6.2. Instructional Implementation

O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 154-165) give four sub-headings under this main issue: teacher training; teaching materials; language proficiency; and student characteristics. These will be dealt with in turn as follows.

2.6.2.1. Teacher training

Indeed, up until the 1990s, very little attention had been given to the teacher-training angle of strategy training. Ely (1994: 335) states that the shift toward the learning end of the teaching-learning dichotomy, which has occurred as a result of the focus on language learning strategies, has led to new demands on teacher education. Teachers are no longer figures that just act upon or interact with learners; they have the responsibility of showing how learners themselves can act upon or interact with the learning situation. In suggesting an approach to preparing teachers for strategy instruction, it is interesting to note that Ely emphasises the very same aspects that are advocated for strategy instruction itself. Namely, that teacher preparation for strategy training is more effective if it is conducted in both an integrated and informed way. An additional point that Ely (1994: 239) mentions is that of the teachers' receptivity to strategy training. Just as some learners may display resistance toward learning and using strategies, not all teachers are open to the concept of teaching them. Ely states that receptivity is not related to teaching experience, and that some experienced teachers found it difficult to cope with their new role in the teaching-learning process, as expressed by Grundy (1999. Cited in Griffiths and Parr, 2001: 247) when he said he felt like "Teacherosaurus Rex" in the shift toward learner autonomy.

Nyikos (1996) made similar observations in her study, which aimed to introduce teachers to strategy training through teacher modelling. The subjects were asked to create lesson plans, which were subsequently analysed in terms of the incorporation of several learning strategy types; demonstration of how these learning strategies were incorporated; and explicitness of training. The results showed that the subjects fell into one of three groups: the "assimilators", who were successful at making the "conceptual shift" to learner-centredness; the "middle-grounders", who differed from the "assimilators" in that they neglected to encourage metacognitive analysis; and the "resistors", who rarely involved the students in discussion, did not go beyond the traditional transmissive model of education, and tended to employ the more conventional strategies of memorising and thematic listing. Interestingly,

Nyikos (1996: 115) notes that the “resistors” also reflected this conventional approach in their roles as students. The main conclusion reached from this study is that teachers should try to put themselves in their learners’ places, because not everything that is self-evident to them is self-evident to their learners. Teachers and learners should become aware that not everybody learns in the same way or uses the same strategies. Nyikos claims that if teachers move to learning strategy instruction, they will in turn improve their teaching strategies and help their learners to become autonomous (1996: 117).

2.6.2.2. Teaching materials

When O’Malley and Chamot compiled their book in 1990, there were indeed few ready available materials to help teachers include strategy training in the foreign language classroom. In the same year, however, Oxford published her practical guide to strategy training for teachers, which includes a variety of exercises for strategy discovery and implementation. Guides for learner use have also been written (for example: Brown, 2002), aimed at raising learner awareness of their own learning styles and strategies, and which provide them with opportunities to practice using learning strategies in different aspects of EFL. Finally, some textbooks have been designed to include strategy training, for example Rubin and Thompson (1982. Cited in O’Malley and Chamot, 1990: 204-207), Brown (1999. Cited in Brown, 2000) and the *Tapestry Program* edited by Oxford and Scarcella (Cited in Oxford and Leaver, 1996).

In addition to teaching materials, several strategy training models have been designed, some of which will be discussed in a later section.

2.6.2.3. Language Proficiency

Another important issue of strategy training is at which level of language proficiency it might be more effective to implement. O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 160) suggest that this depends on the setting in which training occurs – monolingual, bilingual, or multilingual. They purport that in a monolingual setting, such as an

EFL classroom in Turkey, strategy training can be given from the very beginning, because it can be carried out using the learners' first language as a medium. The situation is much more difficult in a multilingual situation, however.

2.6.2.4. Student Characteristics

Again, O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 160) state that characteristics such as motivation, learning aptitude, age, sex, previous education, cultural background, and learning style may all play an important role in the receptiveness of learners to strategy training. They claim that motivation is probably the most important of all. Learners who have had successful experiences in learning generally approach new learning tasks with more motivation than those who have been less successful. Strategy training should ideally be most valuable for the less successful learners, who are, ironically, possibly the ones least likely to be motivated to try out new strategies. Jones et al. (1987. Cited in O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 161) say that strategy training should aim to change learners' attitudes by "teaching them that their failures can be attributed to the lack of effective strategies rather than to the lack of ability or to laziness". Oxford and Leaver's (1996) similar opinions on motivation have been given earlier.

To mention some of the other characteristics, Chamot et al (1996: 186) report that teachers felt that strategy training had more of an impact on learners with average learning abilities than those who were above or below average, but believed that students of all learning aptitudes could benefit from strategy training. The Politzer and McGroarty study of 1985 showed that there was some difference in use of strategies according to cultural background, which suggests that a teacher embarking upon strategy training with a group of learners should be sensitive to the strategies that might be already be used, and the new ones that might be met with some resistance, by learners of a particular culture.

2.6.2.5. Evaluation

Wenden (1987b: 162) proposes evaluation, that is, how the outcome of strategy training is measured, as a final consideration. She mentions three kinds of changes in learner behaviour to look for: task improvement, maintenance, and transfer.

Task improvement refers to the determination of whether or not learners perform language tasks more easily and accurately as a result of strategy training. Maintenance refers to the durability of the new behaviour, that is, whether or not the learners will continue to use the strategies taught spontaneously after training has finished. Transfer refers to the learners' ability to generalise the use of a particular strategy to a similar task in a different context.

O'Malley et al (1985: 576) indicate that the lack of success in their study might be attributable to the fact that the metacognitive strategy of evaluation had not been fostered.

Oxford (1990: 208), and Oxford and Leaver (1996: 236) also emphasise the importance of evaluation, in particular the evaluation made by the learners themselves, and add the improvement of learner attitude as another change to look for.

2.7. Models of Strategy Training

The aim of language learning strategy research ultimately being to improve the teaching and learning of foreign languages, many researchers have extended the information they have gained from their studies to develop learning strategy training models that can be put to use in the classroom. The models that will be dealt with here are Oxford's eight-step model (1990: 203-208), one designed to be employed by teachers in the classroom; and the Georgetown University Language Research Project, an officially funded project into learning strategies training held between 1990 and 1996 (Chamot, 1993; Chamot et al, 1996). Oxford (1990: 214-232) gives

detailed information on various other language learning strategy projects around the world.

2.7.1. Oxford's Eight-Step Model

Oxford (1990: 204) presents the following eight-step model of learning strategy training to be implemented after strategy assessment has been carried out. It is a model that can be adapted to learners of EFL and other foreign languages of all ages and proficiency levels.

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

Each step will now be explained in more detail.

The first step involves identifying who the learners are in terms of age, their reasons for learning the language, their language proficiency level, the strategies they already use, and the strategies that they are most likely to need, their beliefs about and attitudes toward learning a language. Time is also an important factor to assess.

In the second step, strategies appropriate to the needs and characteristics of the learners as identified in the first step are selected. Oxford suggests teaching more than one strategy, and ones that are compatible. Of course, not too many strategies should be introduced at the same time, Chamot (1993: 309) reports that learners become confused in such a situation. Strategies that are useful and transferable should be taught, and they should not be all easy or all difficult.

The third step is a reflection of the findings of the studies mentioned earlier that suggest that integrated training is more effective than separate training. In this step, the way in which strategy training will be integrated with the learners' normal lessons is considered.

As mentioned earlier, motivation plays a crucial part in the receptiveness of learners to strategy training. In step four, the kind of motivation that will be included in the training programme is considered. For example, credit could be given for successful attainment of strategies, or it can be assumed that learners will be motivated to learn strategies in order to become more effective learners. Again, as mentioned earlier, informed strategy training, in which learners are told of the benefits of using appropriate strategies, leads to greater motivation to learn. At this stage it is important to consider the previous learning experiences of the learners. There may be some resistance from learners who are not used to taking charge of their learning and who expect the teacher to control the learning situation.

In step five, materials that are used during language instruction can be adapted to strategy training. Materials should be selected in accordance with the learners' interests and needs. Oxford suggests that learners themselves can compile a handbook of useful strategies, especially if the training is long term.

Step six is the actual implementation of the training itself. Learners should be informed about the importance of the strategies, be given plenty of opportunity to practice them and transfer them from task to task. They should also be given the opportunity to evaluate for themselves the effectiveness of the strategies they have learned.

Step seven, the evaluation of the strategy training, involves both the learners' comments and the teacher's observations. The value of and criteria for evaluation have been given in an earlier section.

The final step is a revision of the strategy training in terms of the evaluation made in the previous step, and leads back to the first step of assessing the learners'

needs and characteristics, completing the cycle of training, and starting a new loop of training.

2.7.2. The Georgetown University Language Research Project 1990-1996

The research programme on the application of language learning strategies training to foreign language classrooms was reported by Chamot (1993) and Chamot et al (1996). It involved two studies: one researched the feasibility of teaching language learning strategies to high school and university students in the United States of America studying beginning level Japanese; and the other sought to develop effective language learning strategy training at intermediate level Russian and Spanish. Both studies had the common objectives of identifying strategies that would be most useful for the learners, implementing strategies training, and evaluating learner use of strategies.

In the third year of the study, the strategies perceived to be useful were organised within a problem-solving process model of training which emphasised the metacognitive strategies of planning, monitoring, problem-solving, and evaluation. The framework is divided into three sections: preparation and presentation; practice; evaluation and extension. At the preparation stage, the teacher is responsible for activating the learners' background knowledge. In the study, a questionnaire was administered to the learners for this purpose. At the presentation stage, the teacher explains the strategies that are to be learned and models them. The learners' responsibility up until this point is to attend and participate. At the practice stage, the teacher trains the learners, asking for feedback, and the learners practice the strategies under teacher-guidance. The responsibility of teacher and learners at this stage is equal. At the evaluation and extension stage, the teacher encourages transfer of strategies to other tasks in different contexts; the learners evaluate the strategies for themselves and then use them independently, completing the transfer of responsibility from teacher to learner (Chamot et al, 1996: 183-184).

Despite some structural differences, the training models of Oxford and Chamot et al share the same principles. Firstly, strategy training should always begin with an exploratory stage to discover what strategies learners might already be using and which ones they might need. Secondly, learners should be informed of the value of the strategies they are going to learn. Thirdly, learners should be given plenty of opportunity to practice the new strategies in an appropriate context, and learner feedback should be encouraged throughout the practice stage. Fourthly, learners should be shown how the new strategies are transferable to other tasks. Finally, learners should be encouraged to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies they have learned for themselves, and then to continue using them independently both in and out of classroom situations.

2.8. Metacognition, Metacognitive Knowledge, and Metacognitive Strategies

The importance of metacognition and metacognitive strategies in foreign language learning has been touched upon briefly in previous sections. This section will look at the broader concept of metacognition, and its two separate, distinct components – metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies.

2.8.1. Metacognition

The term “metacognition” was first used by the cognitive psychologist Flavell in 1976. He (1978. Cited in Kaufman and Randlett, 1983: 3) defined the term as follows:

“Metacognition refers to one’s knowledge, one’s awareness, concerning one’s own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them...Metacognition refers, among other things, to the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objects or data on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective.”

In other words, metacognition is the level of learning at which learners regulate their learning, and where unconscious strategies become conscious in order

for learners to reflect on how they approach a task beforehand, how they are performing during the task, and then to evaluate their performance afterwards.

2.8.2. Metacognitive Knowledge

Metacognitive knowledge is the beliefs and knowledge that learners have about their own learning. As Wenden (1998: 515) points out, the focus of language learning strategy research is to help learners improve their foreign language learning by giving them an opportunity to reflect upon and refine their beliefs and knowledge about learning, that is, their metacognitive knowledge. She defines metacognitive knowledge in foreign language research in terms of learner beliefs, learner representations, and the naïve psychology of learning (1998: 517). She then classifies it into the categories of person knowledge, task knowledge and strategic knowledge (1998: 518-519). *Person knowledge* is the knowledge that learners have gathered about the human factors that affect learning, such as age, aptitude, and motivation. *Task knowledge* is what learners know about the purpose of the task, for example its nature and its demands. *Strategic knowledge* includes the general knowledge about what strategies are, why they are useful, and specific knowledge about when and how to use them.

Metacognitive knowledge has an important role in language learning strategies research and training for several reasons. Firstly, when data is collected by means of interviews and questionnaires, learners are required to draw upon their stored metacognitive knowledge of learning strategies (Wenden, 1998: 519). In fact, many researchers state that the ability of learners to comment on why they used or rejected strategies is evidence of metacognitive knowledge (e.g. Chamot, 1993). Secondly, person knowledge is important in order to motivate learners to learn about and continue to use language learning strategies. Thirdly, task knowledge has an important role in the transfer of strategies from one task to another. Finally, Wenden (1998: 529) emphasises the importance of strategic knowledge in strategy training, stating how much more effective fully informed strategy training has been in the great majority of cases, some of which have been quoted in earlier in this study.

2.8.3. Metacognitive Strategies

In an earlier section, it was mentioned that language learning strategies have been divided into the three broad groups of cognitive, metacognitive, and socioaffective strategies by O'Malley and Chamot (1990); and into the six groups of memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social, and affective strategies by Oxford (1990). In this section, metacognitive strategies will be dealt with in more detail, referring to both these classification systems.

In their early research on strategy training, O'Malley et al (1985: 561) stress the importance of metacognitive strategies in foreign language learning, saying: "Students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishments, and future learning directions". They (O'Malley et al, 1985: 567) identified a total of seven metacognitive strategies reported to be used by learners, this time grouped under three categories. *Planning* strategies include self-management, advanced preparation, directed attention, selective attention, and delayed production; *monitoring* strategies include self-monitoring; and *evaluation* strategies include self-evaluation.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990:44) describe metacognitive strategies as higher order executive skills which can be applied to a variety of learning tasks. They divide them into four categories: *selective attention*, or planning to listen or read for key words and phrases; *planning*, or the organisation of written or spoken language; *monitoring* the comprehension for information that should be remembered, or production while it is occurring; and *evaluating*, or the checking of comprehension after the completion of a receptive language task, or of production after it has taken place. Interestingly, in this description they treat selective attention as a separate category from planning in this description.

Oxford (1990: 136-140) categorises and describes metacognitive processes slightly differently. Her three categories are as follows: *Centering*, *Arranging* and *Planning*, and *Evaluating*.

Centering involves the three sub-categories of overviewing and linking with material that is already known; paying attention, which is sub-divided into the strategies of *directed attention*, or deciding to pay attention to a task and ignore distractors, and *selective attention*, or deciding to pay attention to specific linguistic aspects or to situational details; and delaying speech production to focus on listening.

Arranging and planning learning is divided into six sub-categories: finding out about language learning; organising; setting goals and objectives; identifying the purpose of a language task; planning for a language task; seeking practice opportunities.

Evaluating strategies include self-monitoring, or the identification of errors during comprehension or production, tracking down their sources, and trying to eliminate them; and self-evaluation, or the learners' evaluation of their own progress.

While on the surface these two systems may seem to be different, looking at them more closely, it becomes obvious that they categorise the same processes in different ways. Oxford's centering category includes the strategies of advanced preparation, directed attention, selective attention, and delayed production, all which come under the planning category in the system proposed by O'Malley et al (1985). She also sub-divides the strategy of self-management into the strategies of organising, setting goals and objectives, and seeking practice opportunities. The other strategies, identifying the purpose of a language task, and planning for a language task refer to the task at hand rather than self-management. While O'Malley et al refer to monitoring as a separate category; Oxford includes the strategy of self-monitoring along with self-evaluation under the general category of evaluation.

2.9. Metacognitive Strategy Training and Listening

Listening comprehension is no longer regarded as the passive skill it once was. It is now accepted that it is a complex process involving the sub-skills of discriminating between sounds; recognising vocabulary and grammatical structures in the spoken medium; interpreting stress and intonation; and interpreting and

retaining information from what was gathered from all of the above, which, as Vandergrift (1999: 168) states, is an activity requiring a lot of mental activity on the part of the listener. Research such as that of Dunkel (1991) calls for more importance to be placed on listening comprehension in the foreign language curriculum, emphasising the crucial role of aural input in foreign language learning theory building, research, and pedagogy. The importance of listening comprehension cannot be underestimated in academic environments where students who are non-native speakers of English receive their university education in the English language, considering that a great deal of the information they learn is presented during lectures, seminars, or conferences.

Despite the increase in research on learning strategies used by foreign language learners, and the focus on listening as a skill in which the learner is cognitively active, there is a paucity of research in the area of learning strategies in relation to listening comprehension. The main bulk of research on learning strategies and strategy training, both for strategies in general and metacognitive strategies in particular, is concentrated upon reading strategies, both in the area of general education (for example, Dansereau et al, 1983; Kaufman and Randlett, 1983; Palinscar, 1986), and in the area of EFL.

This section will review the literature on learning strategies and strategy training in relation to listening comprehension.

There are several studies that have set out to identify the strategies used by learners when listening to a foreign language. Vogely (1995), in her study on the perceived use of strategies by learners of Spanish during authentic listening exercises, found that while learners were able to report which strategies led to effective learning, not all of them reported using them on task. In the terms of Anderson's information-processing model, "declarative knowledge" has not become "procedural knowledge" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). This finding reflects that of Vann and Abraham (1990), that is, it is not the range of strategies that makes learning effective, but the knowledge of how and when to use them appropriately. Vogely (1995: 54) suggests that strategy training can help to close the gap between

“knowing what” and “knowing how”, and calls for a change in tasks that focus on the correctness of outcome to ones that focus on the process of listening.

One researcher who has focused specifically on metacognition in listening is Goh. In one study (1997) she studied the listening diaries of forty Chinese speaking learners of English, and classified their comments into the three categories of metacognitive knowledge: person knowledge, task knowledge, and strategic knowledge. She identified twenty-one strategies under the category of strategic knowledge, which she divided into the three sub-categories of strategies that assist comprehension and recall, strategies for developing listening, and strategies that do not always work. She concluded that learners are capable of observing their cognitive processes in listening, and are also capable of verbalising their own beliefs about learning to listen. Like Vogely (1995), Goh (1997: 367) also proposes a process-oriented approach to listening, saying that including a metacognitive perspective to the listening lesson will enhance learners' awareness of learning to listen.

In 1998, Goh conducted a study to identify and compare the cognitive and metacognitive strategies and tactics used by high ability and low ability listeners using retrospective verbal reports during an interview and diaries. She found that the retrospective reports yielded more data than the diaries because retrospection was immediate. The metacognitive strategies used by the majority of subjects in each group included selective attention, directed attention, comprehension monitoring, real-time assessment of input (deciding on task whether a piece of information is relevant or not), and comprehension evaluation. Interestingly, the low ability group did not report using real-time assessment of input or comprehension evaluation. Goh (1998: 142) found that the main difference between high ability and low ability listeners was that the latter were lacking in metacognitive strategies in all three areas of planning, monitoring, and evaluation. She concludes by saying that both direct training and awareness raising should be included in the listening curriculum, and that more time should be spent on metacognitive strategies, since learners find it

more difficult to transfer these from their first language to a foreign language than they do cognitive strategies.

While there are some studies describing the strategies used by listeners in a foreign language there are very few that attempt to train learners in the use of learning strategies for listening. The second part of the O'Malley et al (1985) study set out to determine the effects of strategy training in the areas of listening and speaking on high school students learning English. The subjects of the listening strategies experiment were divided into three groups: the metacognitive group received training in the use of one metacognitive strategy, up to two cognitive strategies, and a socioaffective strategy; the cognitive group received training in the cognitive and socioaffective strategies only; the control group received no strategy training at all, and was told to work as they normally would. They received instruction with videotapes on academic subjects for fifty minutes daily for eight days. Although the results of the post-test failed to reach significance, results of three of the daily tests during training showed that the treatment groups outperformed the control group. However, two of these were in favour of the cognitive group, something that was not predicted. The authors suggest that the reason behind the lack of predicted success of the metacognitive group was that the strategy chosen, selective attention, did not allow for planning and evaluation, crucial aspects of metacognition.

Rubin, Quinn, and Enos (1988. Reported in Thompson and Rubin, 1996: 332-333) investigated the most suitable type of strategy training using video. The subjects were English speaking high-school students of Spanish. There were three experimental groups receiving training in three cognitive strategies: a "blind" group who received strategy training without being told what the strategies were or why they were useful; an "informed" group who were told both about what the strategies were and why they were useful; and a "self-control" group, whose difference from the "informed" group was that they were also given time to compare the usefulness of strategies with different tasks. There were also two control groups: one saw all the videos but received no training; the second neither saw the videos nor received

training. The results showed no difference between type of training, but the three experimental groups outperformed the control groups on one of the four daily tests. This was attributed to the fact that the material on the other three days was not difficult enough to require strategy use. Another important finding concerned teacher training, saying that for strategy training to be effective, teachers should also be familiar with learning strategies and how to impart them. Thompson and Rubin (1996: 333) finally point out that the study failed to show a strong relationship between strategy instruction and learner performance.

Taking this study as a starting point, Thompson and Rubin (1996) set out to test the hypothesis that systematic training in cognitive and metacognitive strategies would lead to improved performance in listening comprehension of university students of Russian, using video materials. The metacognitive strategies taught were planning, defining goals, monitoring and evaluating. Both video and audio materials were used for the pre-test and the post-test. The group receiving treatment was taught by one of the experimenters, who had extensive experience in teaching learning strategies, and the lesson plans focused on developing listening strategies. The control group viewed the same video material, but was taught by a teacher inexperienced in teaching learning strategies, and the lesson plans focused on using the content of the videos as a starting point for speaking and writing activities. The treatment was carried out over a period of two years. The results showed that the group receiving strategy instruction did perform significantly better than the control group on the video test, but significance was not reached on the audio test, a phenomenon the researchers attribute to the fact that the audio test did not parallel the type of training given. Student comments also indicated that they used metacognitive strategies to help them manage their listening.

The research base on strategy training for listening comprehension is certainly not large, and at first glance the lack of overt significance seems discouraging. However, the evidence does suggest that strategy training can help learners to make the most of the input they are exposed to, providing various factors are taken into consideration. These factors include the length of training; the

familiarity of the teacher with strategy training; the relevance of the strategies being taught to the task at hand; the level of the materials being used (materials that are too easy for the learners do not require the employment of strategies, and those which are too difficult cannot be compensated for by strategy use); the relevance of the materials used for testing to those used during training.

Taking into account the findings of the research on strategy training for listening comprehension, some researchers have proposed alternative teaching frameworks for the listening lesson that include a metacognitive component. Vandergrift (1999), for example, emphasises the active nature of listening comprehension and echoes O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) call to do more than provide comprehensible input by pairing it with appropriate strategies. He provides a framework for incorporating explicit strategy training in the foreign language class, saying that EFL teachers "would do well to create an awareness of and foster the acquisition of metacognitive strategies" (1999: 171). He proposes a number of suggestions for a listening lesson, which will be summarised here. Firstly, metastrategic awareness should be developed by discussing the concept of learning strategies in class and helping the learners to identify which strategies they already use. Secondly, he suggests including a pre-listening and post-listening stage. This is, of course, not a new idea, but these stages can be adapted so as to foster the metacognitive strategies of planning, monitoring, and evaluation. He continues to say that the advantage of the pre-listening stage is that it allows the learners to bring to consciousness their knowledge of the topic and provides a purpose for listening. It also helps them to make decisions about what to listen for and to focus their attention. During the listening task itself, he suggests that learners be taught to monitor their comprehension by checking for consistency with their predictions and for internal consistency. While it is impossible for the teacher to intervene during the task itself, he suggests a number of sub-skills to be practised, for example logical-inferencing and word derivation skills. Vandergrift then underlines the importance of evaluating the results of decisions made during the task. This can be done in the form of group or class discussions, and the learners should be encouraged to share their individual routes. Finally, he (1999: 172-174) suggests the use of listening

checklists for the learners to complete before and after listening tasks in order for them to consciously focus on planning, monitoring, and evaluation.

Another researcher who has proposed an alternative approach to listening is Field (1998; 2000). While he admits that the approach to listening has changed since the late 1960s and early 1970s to view listening as a skill in itself rather than a means to reinforce language input, to relate the nature of listening in the classroom to that of real life, and to include the factor of motivation by including a pre-listening stage, Field argues that the methodology of that period should be rethought entirely. Like Wenden (1987b: 160), Field (1998: 111) criticises the conventional listening lesson, saying it allows for the practice of listening rather than the teaching of it, and only serves to add another text to the learners' experience. As long as learners' errors are corrected in terms of language and meaning rather than the process of listening itself, it is likely that the learners will continue to use the same unsuccessful techniques and therefore not improve as listeners. He (1998: 114; 2000: 29) advocates a strategic approach to foreign language listening when using authentic material, saying that listeners are able to extract less information from this type of material than they can from graded material, because it displays the characteristics of everyday speech, and it has not been simplified to reflect the assumed level of the listeners. While listeners in their own native language may use strategies to compensate for gaps in understanding, Field claims that not all learners can transfer this strategy to the foreign language situation, and divides listeners into two types: *risk takers*, who base hypotheses on what little information they have gathered, but fail to check them against what follows; and *risk avoiders*, who are reluctant to make guesses, and may develop a sense of failure when they are unable to understand large chunks of text. According to Field (2000: 31), strategy training should aim at restraining the risk takers and encouraging the risk avoiders. His (2000: 32-33) proposal for handling a piece of authentic material is as follows. The first stage is the pre-listening stage, which is not new, during which the context is established and the learners make predictions. Unlike Vandergrift (1999), however, Field suggests keeping this stage very short. The second stage is the extensive listening stage, again as usual, after which general questions are asked. At the third step, an intensive listening stage, the

stage, the learners listen and write down as many words as they recognise and then form hypotheses as to what the text is about, and then compare in pairs their hypotheses. At the fourth stage, they listen again, write down more words, and then compare and revise what they had written in the previous stage, without the intervention of the teacher. The learners listen once again at the fifth stage to check and revise their hypotheses if necessary, and a class discussion of the hypotheses is held with the help of the teacher if necessary. At the final stage, the learners listen with the transcript. Field's model emphasises the listening phase, with the learners listening at least four times. Monitoring and evaluation is carried out throughout stages three, four, and five. It differs largely from the conventional listening lesson in that intensive listening is not carried to answer particular questions, but for the learners to make hypotheses about the content. Risk takers are restrained in that they are encouraged at every stage to evaluate and revise their hypotheses, and risk avoiders are encouraged in that they do not have to provide specific answers to specific questions, but are given plenty of opportunities to write down whatever words they recognise and form hypotheses by working in pairs or groups.

2.10. Metacognitive Strategy Research in Turkey

The most prolific time for metacognitive strategy research in the field of EFL in Turkey seems to be from the early to mid-1990s. In 1991, Yüzbaşıoğlu investigated whether or not there was a systematic relationship between the beliefs of Turkish university EFL students and the metacognitive strategies they reported to use. She found that Turkish learners had metacognition-related problems, especially concerning self-management and self-evaluation, and also self-direction, saying that they felt they needed constant guidance from the teacher. They also reported that they used the same types of strategies even if they were not successful, because there was "no alternative". It also appeared that most students believed that learning a foreign language was a matter of learning vocabulary and grammar, and tended to ignore the importance of the four skills. She also found correlations between beliefs and study focus, noting that students with more positive attitudes towards themselves

usually approached learning more holistically, and between positive belief profiles and the metacognitive strategy of monitoring.

Diken (1993) presented six case studies of EFL first year university students' metacognitive strategies in reading. She noted that the main factor that differentiated between the good and poor readers was not experience with English, but the effective use of metacognitive strategies. The data gathered from the good comprehenders also showed that they did what they said they did. In other words, they knew "what" and knew "how" (c.f. Vogely, 1995). She found that the average comprehenders did not lack in knowledge of metacognitive strategies, but they did not use them during reading. The poor comprehenders both lacked in strategic knowledge and text processing behaviours.

In 1994, Tunçman conducted a study to investigate the effects of training university EFL students in the metacognitive strategy of semantic mapping on reading comprehension. The results showed that students who had received training in this strategy outperformed those who had not. In the same year, Sayram investigated the effects of training university EFL students in the strategies of self-questioning and prediction, hypothesising that students receiving training in these strategies would outperform those who did not, and that strategy training would help these students to retain the information gained from the reading passages. The results showed, however, that the subjects receiving treatment did not outperform those of the control group significantly, while they did perform better on the recall test. The researcher attributes this to the fact that while the subjects were taught to use high-level questions about the organisation of information during the training, they might have used the direct word for word questions, which ask about information, during the tests. This, she claims, explains their ability to recall information, but lack of ability to analyse it.

There is only one study on the effects of metacognitive strategy training on the listening comprehension of Turkish university EFL students to date. Özbilgin's study (1993) set out to investigate the effect of training a group of students in the metacognitive strategy of self-questioning for listening comprehension,

hypothesising that subjects receiving such treatment would outperform those who did not on achievement tests, and then continue to use the strategy after training. Even though a slight improvement was reported in the post-test results of the experimental group, they did not reach significance. Similarly, it was found that the students did not continue to use the strategy after training, though students' comments after training reported that they were aware of using the strategy. The researcher suggests that before strategy training it is advisable to identify what strategies the students are already using (c.f. O'Malley et al, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Chamot et al, 1996); and also that the training in one strategy may not be sufficient, and that training in a combination of metacognitive strategies might be more effective. As it has been seen earlier, researchers in the field of learning strategies are unanimous in emphasising the importance of evaluation in strategy training.

No studies on strategy training appear to have been conducted with EFL students in an English Language Teaching Department.

To summarise the literature reviewed, it can be said that language learning strategy research emerged from the swing towards learner-centred approaches that has been observed for the past two decades. Earlier foreign language teaching approaches emphasised the behaviouristic view of learning and treated the learner as a passive entity, for example the audiolingual method; others emphasised the linguistic aspect, such as cognitive code learning, and still neglected the contributions of the learners. With the move towards communicative approaches, sparked off by Krashen's Input Hypothesis, the sociocultural setting in which language occurs was brought to the fore, yet still the learner was at the mercy of input. With the realisation that learners often successfully learn a foreign language in spite of a particular method rather than because of it, attention was turned to the mental processes that learners engage in when faced with input and the pendulum swung towards psycholinguistics.

Using information processing models as bases, many researchers identified and classified a number of learning strategies that learners reported using. Assuming that language learning was similar to any other cognitive activity, albeit more

complicated, and that language learning strategies were like any other cognitive process, the idea arose that the learning strategies of successful learners could be taught to weaker students. Students who used appropriate learning strategies would reach autonomy, the new goal in foreign language teaching, since most learning occurs out of the classroom without the help of a teacher.

Research in strategy training has certainly not provided the absolute, conclusive evidence that was hoped for, but it has shown to a certain extent that strategy training can be successful. One matter that researchers in the strategy training field emphasise is metacognition, that is, planning, monitoring, and evaluation. Metacognitive strategies coordinate the use of all the other types of strategies. As it has been shown, it is not the number of strategies used that leads to effective learning, but their appropriate use. Developing use of metacognitive strategies helps learners to decide which strategy is appropriate to use for a particular task.

There has also been a change in the way that the role of listening in foreign language learning is viewed. Previously it was considered to be a passive skill that improved with plenty of exposure to spoken material. However, it is now known that it involves a lot of mental activity on the part of the listener. Even though the listening lesson has changed over the past two or more decades, some researchers argue that conventional listening lessons only test listening, not teach it. They call for a more strategic approach, in which learners are taught strategies that can be transferred from one listening task to another to make the most out of the input they are exposed to.

Research on metacognition and metacognitive strategies in Turkey has shown that students are able to report how they approach learning, and that the factor that distinguishes between the more successful students from the less successful is metacognitive knowledge and control. The results of studies on metacognitive strategy training have been mixed. The studies on reading have achieved total and partial success, yet the one study on listening comprehension did not yield statistically significant findings.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS

3.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the research plan, the subjects of the study, the instruments used, the training procedures, the training materials, and the data collection and analysis used will be discussed.

3.1. Research Plan

The aim of the study was to identify the general language learning strategy profile of Turkish university EFL students studying at a Department of English Language Teaching, and then to investigate the effects of training in combined metacognitive strategies for listening, in this case, the strategies of over viewing and linking to already known material, selective attention, and self-monitoring. Because metacognitive strategies are strategies that orchestrate the use of other strategies, the cognitive strategy of note-taking and the social strategy of peer cooperation were taken as a base. For this reason, it was decided to carry out the research with second year students at the Department of English Language Teaching, Gazi University, Ankara. Students were assigned to an experimental and a control group according to the class of which they were members. Since students are randomly assigned to classes at the beginning of their first-year, not according to proficiency level, it was assumed that there would be no difference between the students of each class.

The research took place during the first half of the second term of the 2001-2002 academic year. The first step was to determine the language learning strategy profile, which was done by administering the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, ESL/EFL student version 7.0) (Oxford, 1990: 293-296). A pre-test was administered to both groups to gather baseline data. Before strategy training

took place, the experimental group was given an introductory session to language learning strategies in general in order to familiarise them with the concept before dealing with metacognitive strategies in more detail. The first training session took place the day following the introductory session. Daily tests were administered after each training session to follow the subjects' progress, and a post-test was administered a month later to gather final data.

3.2. Subjects

The subjects were 23 second-year students studying at the Department of English Language Teaching, Gazi University, Ankara, with an English proficiency of intermediate to upper-intermediate. The experimental group consisted of twelve subjects, one male and eleven female. Five had graduated from a state high school, six from an Anatolian or super high school, and one from a private school. All were aged between eighteen and twenty-five years old. Ten had been learning English for between six to ten years, one for one to five years, and one for over ten years. Four had attended the university's foreign language preparatory school for a year before embarking upon full-time study in the department, while eight had not. The control group consisted of eleven subjects, one male and ten female. Ten had graduated from an Anatolian or super high school, while one had graduated from a private school. All were aged between eighteen and twenty-five years old. One had been learning English for one to five years, while ten had for six to ten years. Four had attended the foreign language preparatory school before commencing their full-time studies, while seven had not. Being students in a Department of English Language Teaching, their content lectures were given in the English language.

3.3. Instruments

The instruments used in this study were: a short Background Questionnaire and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), (See Appendix I), a pre-test, a post-test (Appendix V), and two daily tests (Appendices VII and IX).

The SILL was used to gather information about the general language learning strategy use of both the experimental and the control groups before training commenced. It is a Likert-type scale of fifty items which measure frequencies of strategy use with responses ranging from “1= never or almost never true of me” to “5= always or almost always true of me”. The fifty items are grouped into the six categories of language learning strategies described by Oxford (1990): memory, compensation, cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social. The inventory was translated into Turkish before administration in order to avoid any errors that may have arisen due to language proficiency.

The Background Questionnaire was used to gather general information about the subjects, such as gender, age, type of high school graduated from, years spent learning English, whether or not they had ever been to a country where English was spoken, and if so, why, whether they had attended the university’s foreign language preparatory school, and what they considered to be their level of English proficiency.

The pre-test and post-test were identical, and were prepared by constructing a cloze test from the transcript of the lecture. Rather than assigning random blanks, words representing the main ideas of the lecture were blanked out, thus assessing whether or not the subjects had been able to grasp the main ideas of the lecture. The cloze test was preferred over other types of test due to its objective nature, and therefore avoiding the necessity to involve other raters.

In addition to the pre-test and post-test, a daily test was administered to the experimental group immediately after each training session. These tests were also prepared by constructing cloze tests from the transcripts of the lectures used during the sessions.

At the end of the final training session, the subjects were asked to write comments about language learning strategies and strategy training to give them an opportunity to evaluate what they had learned during the sessions.

3.4. Administration of the instruments

3.4.1. Administration of the SILL

The SILL was administered to both the experimental and control groups a week before training commenced during class hour with the cooperation of the instructor in charge of the class. The subjects were reminded that there were no right or wrong answers to the inventory, but that it measured what they actually did while they were learning English. They were also reminded that the results of the SILL would not be included in their academic records, and they were asked to give honest responses. Since the aim was to discover the language learning strategy profile of Turkish university EFL students, the combined data of both groups was evaluated.

3.4.2. Administration of the Pre-test and Post-test

The pre-test was administered to the experimental and control groups after on different days, but at the same time of day. The post-test was administered a month later, when it was considered that any information retained in the short-term memory would have been forgotten. Both tests were administered as follows: the subjects listened to the lecture twice, and were asked to take notes while listening as they would normally during a lecture. The cloze test was then distributed and they were given five minutes to use their notes to help them complete the test. They then listened to the lecture for a final time to check their answers.

3.4.2.1. Training Session Materials

The material used for the introductory session was the diagram of the language learning strategy system (see Appendix III) proposed by Oxford (1990: 18-21), which was distributed to the subjects as a handout, and a list of language activities taken from the Embedded Strategies Game (see Appendix II) (Oxford 1990: 27-30).

The listening material used for the pre-test, training sessions, and post-test was adapted from James et al (1979), an academic listening course aimed at non-native English speaking students studying in an English medium at tertiary level. The lecture "Some of the Problems Facing Learners of English"(see Appendix IV) (James et al 1979: 82-83) was used for the pre-test and post-test; "Listening and Understanding"(see Appendix VI) (James et al 1979: 86-88) for the first training session; and "Lectures and Note Taking" (see Appendix VIII) (James et al 1979: 91-92) for the second training session. This material was chosen because the subject matter was relevant to the subjects.

3.4.2.2. Training Procedure

The experimental group received a total of three hours instruction on consecutive days, while the control group received no training.

During the introductory session, the subjects were introduced to the concept of language learning strategies. They were guided through each of the six categories with the sixty-two strategies. The complete Strategy System and the Embedded Strategy Game were distributed, and the subjects were asked to match as many activities to the appropriate strategies from the Strategy System as possible in the given time, reminding them that some activities might be matched with more than one strategy. They worked in groups of three and were given twenty minutes. At the end of the twenty-minute period, groups reformed to compare their findings. Finally the findings were discussed as a whole class, giving reasons for the choice of match. To complete the session, the six categories of language learning strategies were reviewed, and the students were told that they would look at metacognitive strategies in more detail in the following session.

At the beginning of the first training session, the subjects were asked to recall what they remembered about metacognitive strategies from the previous session. The concept of metacognition was looked at in more detail, emphasising the importance of planning, centring, and monitoring learning during any learning process. The metacognitive strategies of "overviewing and linking with already

known material”, “selective attention”, and “self-monitoring” were introduced, and their relevance to the process of listening to lectures, and how they could be implemented before, during and after listening was discussed. The strategy of “overviewing and linking with already known material” involved looking at the title of the lecture, and making a list of what was already known about the subject matter, in this case “Listening and Understanding”. “Selective attention” involved deciding in advance to listen for the items on the list made while over viewing and linking. “Self-monitoring” involved making notes of where difficulties were met in order to listen more carefully the next time.

Before listening to the lecture for the first time, the subjects were given the title of the lecture and asked to make a list of what they already knew about the subject matter in pairs (overviewing and linking), which was then discussed with the whole class. They were then told that they were going to listen to the lecture twice, and that they should take notes as they listened. To help them take notes, they were told to use the lists they had just made as a guide (selective attention), and to indicate the places they met with difficulty (self-monitoring). After listening for the first time, the subjects were given five minutes to compare notes in groups of three in order to discuss the difficulties they had encountered, and to try to overcome them. They then listened to the lecture for the second time, and were told to pay attention to the parts they had had difficulty with. After the second listening, the subjects were given another five minutes to discuss their notes in groups of three. The cloze test (daily test 1) was then distributed, and the subjects were told to complete the test on their own using the notes they had taken. After ten minutes, they listened to the lecture for a third time for a final check before the cloze test was collected. During this first session, teacher guidance was high.

The second session began with a review of the metacognitive strategies taught and practiced in the previous session. The procedure was identical with that of the first session, except that teacher guidance was reduced to giving brief cues where necessary. After the cloze test (daily test 2) had been collected, subjects were

asked to evaluate write comments about language learning strategies and the strategy training they had received.

3.5. Data Analysis

All statistical analyses were carried out using the Statistical Program for Social Sciences for Windows version 11.0. Because the number of subjects was small, the One Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov was applied to the combined results of the SILL of both groups, the pre-test and post-test of both groups, and the daily tests of the experimental group to check that the data were normally distributed. The Cronbach's alpha values of the data gathered from these instruments were also calculated to determine their reliabilities.

The descriptive statistics of the SILL, pre-test, post-test, and daily tests were calculated. Paired sample t-tests were run to compare the means of the six adjacent categories of language learning strategies of the SILL in order of their magnitude, the means of the pre-tests and post-tests of the two groups, and the means of the daily tests of the experimental group. Paired-sample t-tests were also run to compare the mean results of the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group with those of the control group to determine any significant differences.

The results of the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test show that the data of the SILL, pre-tests, post-test, and daily tests were normally distributed.

The Cronbach's alpha values found are as follows: SILL (0.92), pre-test (0.83), post-test (0.78), daily test 1 (0.75), daily test 2 (0.61), indicating that the instruments used in this study had high reliability.

3.5.1. Data Analysis for the SILL

The descriptive statistics and the paired sample t-tests for the six categories of language learning strategies in order of mean magnitude, and the total language learning strategies of all the subjects are shown in Table 1.

Table 1-Descriptive statistics for the variables and paired sample t-tests for mean difference between the six adjacent strategy categories of all the subjects (n=23)

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.	Difference	t
Com. Str.	3.78	0.62	2.33	4.83	Com.>Met.	1.05
Met. Str.	3.67	0.69	2.00	4.78	Met.>Aff.	1.72
Aff. Str.	3.45	0.75	1.67	4.67	Aff.>Cog.	0.15
Cog. Str.	3.43	0.57	2.29	4.64	Cog.>Soc.	2.63*
Soc. Str.	3.05	0.55	2.00	4.17	Soc.>Mem.	0.14
Mem. Str.	3.03	0.62	2.00	4.22		
Total Str.	3.40	0.51	2.28	4.50		

*p<0.05

As it can be seen from the table, the subjects of this study reported using all language learning strategies at a medium level (Oxford 1990: 300), with a mean of 3.40. The means of the six categories in order of mean magnitude are as follows: compensation strategies (com.) 3.78, metacognitive strategies (met.) 3.67, affective strategies (aff.) 3.45, cognitive strategies (cog.) 3.43, social strategies (soc.) 3.05, and memory strategies (mem.) 3.03. According to Oxford's key for evaluating the SILL (1990: 300), it can be said that the subjects reported using compensation and metacognitive strategies at a high level, while they reported using the remaining five categories at a medium level. The results of the paired sample t-tests run on the

means of the adjacent categories when placed in order of mean magnitude failed to reach significance at the $p < 0.05$ level, except in the case of cognitive and social categories ($t = 2.63$; $p < 0.05$), in favour of the former.

3.5.2. Data Analysis for the Tests

Table 2-Descriptive statistics and paired sample t-tests for means of tests for experimental and control groups

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.	Difference	t
Preex	75.76	11.70	60.61	90.91	Preex>T1	0.13
T1	75.32	12.12	57.14	100	T2>T1	2.63 *
T2	83.61	8.58	70.00	96.67	T2> Postex	3.76**
Postex	72.23	11.32	54.55	90.91	Preex> Postex	1.05
Precont	76.86	16.44	51.52	93.94	Precont> Postcont	3.65**
Postcont	66.39	19.19	39.39	90.91	Preex> Precont	0.11
					Postex> Postcont	0.09

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

The results of the paired sample t-tests comparing the means of the pre-tests of the experimental (Preex) and control (Precont) (75.76% and 76.86% respectively) given in Table 2 show that there is no significant difference at the $p < 0.05$ level, indicating that both groups could be considered equal before training. The results of the paired sample t-tests run to compare the means of the post-tests of the two groups (Postex and Postcont) show there to be no significant difference between the means at the $p < 0.05$ level, indicating that there was no difference between the groups one month after training.

The results of the paired sample t-tests for the pre- and post-test of the control group show a significant decrease ($p < 0.01$) between the means of the pre-test (75.86%) and the post-test (66.39%).

The t-tests run to compare the means of the tests administered to the experimental group – the pre-test (75.76%), daily test 1 (T1) (75.32%), daily test 2 (T2) (83.61%), and the post-test (72.23%) – show that while the mean of the post-test is less than that of the pre-test, the difference is not significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. There is also no significant difference at the $p < 0.05$ level between the results of the pre-test and daily test 1. There is, however, a significant increase is observed between the means of the two daily tests in favour of the second ($p < 0.05$), and between the pre-test and daily test 2 in favour of the latter ($p < 0.05$). A significant difference is also found between the means of daily test 2 and the post-test in favour of the former ($p < 0.01$).

3.6. Results and Discussion

In this section the results of the data gathered from the SILL and the tests will be discussed, and possible explanations will be given for the findings.

3.6.1. The Results of the SILL

The results of the SILL show that the subjects of this study reported using compensation and metacognitive strategies at a high level according to Oxford's key for evaluating the SILL (1990: 300). Although the statistics show that there is no significant difference between the means of the metacognitive and affective strategies, the value of 3.45 reported for the affective strategies falls into the upper limits of the medium range of use (means range from 2.50 to 3.49) according to the same key. The fact there is no significant difference between the means of the affective and cognitive strategies suggest that the subjects use these two types with the same frequency. A significant difference between the means of the cognitive and

social strategies shows that while social and memory strategies appeared to be used at a medium level; they were used significantly less than the strategies preceding them. To summarise, it can be said that the subjects of this study used compensative and metacognitive strategies more than they did affective and cognitive strategies, which in turn they used more frequently than social and memory strategies.

Park (1997) found a similar high use of metacognitive strategies reported by Korean university students, as well as a relatively low use of social strategies, although the use of all categories of strategies after metacognitive were reported to be at a medium level. The means of the six categories and the total strategies found in this study, however, are higher than those reported by Park (1997), while still remaining within the medium range suggested by Oxford (1990: 300).

Griffiths and Parr (2001) conducted a study using the SILL to compare which categories of language learning strategies students report to use with those that their teachers thought they used. Although they do not provide any statistical data along with their results, making it difficult to compare the results effectively, it can be seen that metacognitive and compensative strategies appear high up on the list together. Interestingly, social strategies appear at the top of the list, a possible reflection of the fact that the inventory was applied to subjects living in New Zealand, hence the subjects of the study having more opportunity to employ the social strategies included in the inventory.

The validity of teaching metacognitive strategies to a group of subjects who already report using them at a high level could be debated. However, it must be born in mind that the SILL by no means covers exhaustively all strategies used by every learner, one of LoCastro's (1994) main criticisms of the inventory when used in an EFL situation. In fact, there are only nine items in the section on metacognitive strategies, and only one referring directly to listening. Hence, it must be remembered that the subjects reported using the given strategies at a high level, and that this does not necessarily mean that they are aware of and use all metacognitive strategies effectively. In this study, it has been useful to see which categories of strategies the subjects report using in relation to each other.

In summary, the results of the SILL in this study show that the subjects reported using compensative and metacognitive strategies more frequently than the remaining categories, an outcome which has been reported in other studies using the SILL as an instrument for data collection on language learning strategies.

3.6.2. The Results of the Tests

The fact that there was no significant difference recorded between the pre-tests of the two groups meant that each group could be treated as equal before training.

The results of the t-tests between the pre-test and the post-test of the experimental group fail to reach significance at the $p < 0.05$ level, suggesting that the combined metacognitive strategy training in listening was not effective. Several possible explanations to account for this phenomenon will be discussed below.

Firstly, it is necessary to look at the results of the paired sample t-tests run to compare the results of the pre- and post-test of the control group, which show a significant ($p < 0.01$) decrease in the mean result. This is interesting, considering that the pre- and post-tests were identical. This could be explained by the fact that the lectures used for the pre-test, and for the training sessions were read live by the researcher herself, whereas the post-test was administered using a cassette-recording of the researcher reading the lecture. During the post-test, the subjects were not exposed to any of the visual clues that may have helped them to focus their attention on the lecture, thereby explaining the lack of significance in the results of the pre- and post-test of the experimental group, and the significant decrease in those of the control group. Thompson and Rubin (1996) report video material to be more effective than audio material in the teaching of listening strategies, suggesting that listening strategy training might be more effective using visual material.

Another point to be taken into consideration is the level of materials used for the training. Looking at the results of the pre-tests of both groups, it can be seen that they are quite high, with a majority of scores occurring above 75%. It could be that

the material was not difficult enough for the subjects to feel the need to use strategies to help their comprehension. Rubin, Quinn, and Enos (1988. Cited in Thompson and Rubin, 1996) report a similar occurrence in their study on listening strategy training. Hence, selection of material at a suitable level of difficulty is of vital importance in strategy training.

The results of the daily tests yield interesting information to be discussed. The results of the first daily test show an insignificant decrease in relation to the pre-test, but the results of the second daily test are significantly higher than those of the pre- and post-test, with eight of the twelve subjects scoring higher. These results suggest that some kind of improvement had occurred during the second training session. However, whether or not this improvement was due to the strategy training is arguable. It could be that the subjects had become accustomed to the style and accent of the researcher. The source of the improvement could have been clarified by administering the daily tests to the control group. Also, further training sessions with further daily tests could have shown whether or not this improvement continued or increased over time.

The results of the second daily test's being significantly ($p < 0.01$) higher than those of the post-test could be explained by the fact that the former was administered immediately after training while the strategies were still fresh in the subjects' minds. The post-test was administered a month later, a period during which the subjects took their mid-term examinations, so it is possible that they forgot about listening strategy use to focus on the immediate goal of examination success. Ideally, the relevance of language learning strategies to general success should be instilled during training. However, it is highly possible, due to the fact that the research took place over a short time and was not fully integrated, that the subjects regarded the training as something "extra", and not something for which they were directly responsible in their examinations.

Finally, it is worthwhile to look at the individual case studies of the subjects. Research on language learning strategies, after all, did arise from the realisation that every learner is an individual unique from other learners, bringing their own set of

learning styles, strategies and expectations into the learning situation. Although the results of the pre- and post-tests of the experimental group showed no significant difference, on closer investigation it can be seen that out of the twelve subjects, five showed an improvement, five scored lower, and two scored exactly the same as their pre-tests. In contrast, all but one of the eleven subjects in the control group achieved lower scores, the exception achieving exactly the same. Given the change in conditions of the post-test mentioned earlier, this can be considered as a promising result. Tables 3 and 4 give the data for the individual case studies for the experimental and control groups.

Table 3-Individual case studies of experimental group

Case Number	Mem.	Cog.	Com.	Met.	Aff.	Soc.	Total	Pre-test (%)	T1 (%)	T2 (%)	Post-test (%)
1	3.44	3.07	3.33	4.78	3.33	4.17	3.64	90.91	85.71	83.33	69.70
2	2.78	3.21	3.67	3.00	3.33	3.50	3.20	81.82	71.73	80.00	90.91
3	2.89	3.29	4.00	3.56	3.33	4.17	3.46	78.79	75.00	76.67	66.67
4	2.33	3.29	3.67	3.33	2.83	3.67	3.16	90.91	67.86	73.33	63.64
5	4.22	4.64	4.83	4.78	3.83	4.50	4.50	81.82	100	96.67	81.82
6	3.78	3.64	4.33	4.11	3.33	4.67	3.92	60.61	64.29	83.33	64.64
7	3.11	3.07	4.17	4.11	3.17	2.83	3.38	60.61	60.71	80.00	63.64
8	2.89	4.00	4.67	4.33	3.17	2.67	3.68	84.85	82.14	96.67	90.91
9	2.89	3.93	4.17	3.89	3.83	3.50	3.70	63.64	57.14	86.67	54.55
10	4.11	3.79	4.33	4.33	4.17	4.67	4.16	81.82	85.71	93.33	78.79
11	2.89	3.43	3.17	4.00	2.17	3.67	3.28	60.61	78.57	70.00	69.70
12	3.56	2.93	4.00	3.67	3.33	3.67	3.44	72.73	75.00	83.33	72.73

Table 4-Individual case studies of control group

Case Number	Mem.	Cog.	Com.	Met.	Aff.	Soc.	Total	Pre-test (%)	Post-Test (%)
1	2.67	3.86	4.00	4.78	3.33	4.17	3.64	51.52	45.45
2	2.00	2.86	2.83	3.00	3.33	3.50	3.20	69.70	48.48
3	2.67	3.00	3.67	3.56	3.33	4.17	3.46	90.90	87.88
4	3.67	4.43	4.17	3.33	2.83	3.67	3.16	93.94	90.91
5	2.78	2.29	2.33	4.78	3.83	4.50	4.50	60.60	39.39
6	3.22	3.71	4.00	4.11	3.33	4.67	3.92	90.90	84.85
7	3.78	3.93	3.33	4.11	3.17	2.83	3.38	93.94	87.89
8	3.22	3.21	4.17	4.33	3.17	2.67	3.68	78.79	60.61
9	2.67	3.21	3.83	3.89	3.83	3.50	3.70	87.88	60.61
10	2.00	2.50	2.67	4.33	4.17	4.67	4.16	51.52	51.52
11	2.22	3.57	3.67	4.00	2.17	3.67	3.28	75.76	72.73

3.6.3. Post-Training Feedback

Immediately after the second daily test was completed, the subjects were asked to write their opinions on the language learning strategy training they had received. Although they were asked to remain anonymous to encourage truthful responses, everyone responded positively, so the comments were treated with some caution.

Many of the subjects made the connection between using language learning strategies to help themselves as learners and using them to help others as future teachers, emphasising the need to understand the process of learning in order to be an effective teacher. Some mentioned that it had been useful to put a name to some of the strategies they were already familiar with. While some said that they would have liked more time to learn more strategies, others mentioned that they thought people should create their own strategies. This last comment is interesting, because it reflects the awareness of the learner as an individual. These comments show that language learning strategy training has raised a certain degree of interest in the subjects on the matter.

To conclude, the language learning strategy training as implemented in this study has served a purpose to raise the awareness of future EFL teachers about how language learning strategies, in particular metacognitive strategies, can contribute to the learning process. While the results gathered from the training sessions do not provide conclusive evidence that combined metacognitive strategy training causes a direct improvement in listening, they do show that there was some improvement immediately after training, although this improvement was not maintained in the post-test.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION

This study comprised of two parts. The first part was descriptive in nature and aimed at defining the language learning strategy profile of a group of Turkish university EFL students. The second part investigated whether or not combined metacognitive strategy training in listening comprehension would be effective with these students.

The assumption was that combined metacognitive strategy would improve listening comprehension. An experimental and control group were formed to test this assumption.

A total of twenty-three second-year students from the Gazi University Department of English Language Teaching participated in the study. These subjects were chosen both because they received instruction in the English language, and because it was thought that the training would serve as a language learning strategy awareness raising exercise for them as future EFL teachers. Students in the experimental group attended an introductory lecture on the concept of language learning strategies followed by two hours of training on separate days. They were trained to use the metacognitive strategies of linking with already known material, selective attention, and self-evaluation to improve their note taking while listening to short lectures on subject-related topics. To encourage the strategy of self-evaluation, they were asked to cooperate with their peers. The control group received no training but continued with their lessons as normal. The same person gave the training.

Data on was gathered by administering the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), pre- and post-tests to all participants. Daily tests were administered to the experimental group immediately after training. The SILL was administered a week before training began to gather information on the language learning strategy profiles of the subjects. At the beginning of the training week, a

pre-test was administered to both groups to gather baseline data. The experimental group then attended the introductory lecture on language learning strategies, followed by two one-hour training sessions during which they practised their strategies. At the end of each session, they were tested on their comprehension. One month after training, all participants listened to the same lecture given for the pre-test, the given period being considered sufficient for any information that might have been retained in the short-term memory to have been lost. The purpose of this was to assess the subjects' performance after strategy training.

The tests were scored by the same rater. Because of the objective nature of the tests, cloze tests formed from the transcripts of the lectures, no need was felt to involve other raters.

Data analysis of the SILL showed that the inventory as used in this study had a high reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.92. Similarly, the reliabilities of the pre-test, daily test 1, daily test 2 and the post-test were found to be high, with alpha values of 0.83, 0.75, 0.61, and 0.78 respectively.

The results of the SILL, used to define the language learning strategy profiles of the subjects participating in this study, showed that the subjects used compensative and metacognitive strategies at a high level, and the remaining four categories at a medium level, with an overall value of 3.40 for total strategy use. No significant differences were found, however, between the uses of each category of strategies, except for between cognitive and social strategies ($t=2.63$; $p<0.05$), suggesting that social and memory strategies were used significantly less than the remaining categories. This is similar to Park's (1997) study using the SILL as method of data collection in that compensation and metacognitive strategies were reported to be used more frequently, but differs in the fact that Park found differences which were significant at both the $p<0.05$ and $p<0.01$ levels between each category.

The data were analysed to assess the performance of the two groups. T-tests were performed to determine if there were any significant differences between the results, and hence test the assumption.

The assumption was that Turkish EFL students trained in combined metacognitive strategies would achieve better results in listening tests than those who received no training. The results of the t-tests rejected this assumption, showing that the experimental group did not make any significant gains over the control group. However, on closer inspection of the results of the daily tests in comparison with the pre- and post-tests of the experimental group, it was seen that the subjects scored significantly higher on the second daily test than they did both on the pre- and post-test ($p < 0.05$, and $p < 0.01$ respectively). These findings suggested that strategy training had an effect immediately after training, but that this effect was not maintained after training had been completed. Furthermore, looking at the individual case studies, it was found that while five of the twelve subjects in the experimental group scored higher in the post-test than they had in the pre-test, all but one of the eleven subjects in the control group scored lower. This suggested that some subjects had benefited from strategy training, even if the mean results did not reach significance.

Although no statistical significance was found between the pre- and post-test results of the experimental group, nor between the post-test results of the experimental and control groups, the fact that there was a significance difference between the results of the second daily test and those of the pre-test of the experimental group suggests that the subjects used the strategies immediately after training, but that this use was not maintained over a longer period of time after training had finished. Similarly, the fact that nearly half of the subjects of the experimental group showed an increase in their post-test scores, while none of the subjects of the control group did, suggested that some of the students had made an improvement.

When the subjects were asked to evaluate the strategy training they had received, one commented that "we have known (sic) some information about

strategies, but they (sic) weren't enough. Now I can understand and making (sic) comments about strategies", and another that "maybe you know these strategies, but you need to give them a name". These comments show that learners are aware of their learning processes, but that informed strategy training can help them to put a name to what they are doing, which in turn helps them to understand these processes better and thus benefit more from them.

Another commented: "As we have just learned language learning strategies, after that moment we will get (sic) benefit from these strategies. But if these strategies were (sic) taught before, we could have got more and more. Now I think I could teach more (sic) basic form of these strategies to my students in the future". This shows that the subject felt that strategy training had been beneficial, but that it would have been more so if more time had been spent on it.

Interestingly, two subjects commented that they believed that people should create their own strategies, which can be interpreted as a reflection of their awareness of learners as individuals with a responsibility for their own learning. This is promising from the point of view that a prospective teacher with such a belief will help his or her future students to develop their own language learning strategies and become autonomous learners.

The implications for future research that arise from this study can be listed as follows. Firstly, the study could be repeated with a larger number of subjects over a longer period of time. The time factor was felt to be important from two aspects: firstly, it took some time for the subjects to become accustomed to the researcher, who was not one of their regular instructors; secondly, the relative short length of the training was a possible cause for the subjects not to treat it as a relevant part of their studies, and therefore not feel the need to maintain the strategies they had practiced. The study could be repeated with the subjects receiving shorter training sessions over several weeks, during which the subjects could be directed to practice the strategies during their regular lectures.

Training over a longer period of time would also allow for the strategy of self-monitoring to be developed, as it was uncertain in this study whether or not the subjects were employing the strategies they had practised during the tests. The subjects could be asked to keep a listening diary in which they evaluate their use of the strategies taught. Diaries encourage learners to reflect and evaluate their learning processes, thereby increasing their metacognitive awareness, and at the same time are useful sources of qualitative information on strategy use by learners. Successful studies have been carried out using diaries by Matsumoto (1996) on general classroom learning, and by Goh (1997; 2000) on listening strategies.

A possible reason for the results of the post-test was suggested to be the fact that audio material was used for the post-test, while all the other sessions were read live by the researcher. Similarly, a lack of significance in the findings was attributed to the level of the material used. Future studies could be carried out using video material of conferences on EFL related matters, for example, thereby providing listening material with a visual dimension to attract the learners' attention, and which was also authentic, a factor which Field (1998) considers to be an important factor when carrying out listening strategy training.

In conclusion, it was felt that the study might have been more successful with a larger group of subjects and a longer period of time for training. Furthermore, use of authentic video material, of the type that the subjects would be in contact with normally, would also have been beneficial. In order to evaluate the subjects' use of strategies, the subjects could have been asked to keep listening diary in which they recorded the problems they faced when listening, and how the strategies did or did not help them.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE IN BOTH ENGLISH AND TURKISH

DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİSİ ENVANTERİ

Bu envanter, yabancı dili İngilizce olan öğrenciler için tasarlanmıştır. İki bölümden ibarettir. Birinci bölüm genel bilginin toplanması için hazırlanmıştır. İkinci bölüm ise altı alt gruptan oluşmakta ve bu bölümde İngilizce'yi öğrenme konusunda önermeler bulacaksınız. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatli okuyunuz; ve yanında bulunan kutulardan birine "X" işareti koyarak cevaplayınız. Cümleleri, aşağıdaki derecelendirmeye göre işaretleyiniz.

1. Hiç doğru değildir. (0%)
2. Hemen hemen doğru değildir. (25%)
3. Bir dereceye kadar doğrudur. (50%)
4. Genellikle doğrudur. (75%)
5. Her zaman doğrudur. (100%)

Cümleleri, başkasının istediği gibi değil, kendinize göre işaretleyiniz. Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur. Lütfen cümleleri değiştirmeyiniz. Dikkatli bir şekilde, olabildiğiniz kadar hızlı cevaplayınız.

BİRİNCİ BÖLÜM

1. Cinsiyetiniz nedir?
 - a) Erkek b) Kız
2. Hangi tür liseden mezun oldunuz?
 - a) Devlet Lisesi b) Anadolu Süper Lisesi c) Yabancı Dil Ağırlıklı Özel Lise
3. Kaç yaşındasınız?
 - a) 18-25 b) 25-30 c) 30'un üzerinde
4. Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz?

a) 1-5 yıldır b) 6-10 yıldır c) 10 yıldan fazladır

5. İngilizce konuşulan herhangi bir ülkede buldunuz mu?

a) Evet b) Hayır

Eğer cevabınız "Evet" ise, hangi sebeplerden dolayı?

a) Tatil için b) Dil kursu için c) Ailemden birinin görevinden dolayı

6. Şu anda okumakta olduğunuz bölüme gelmeden önce üniversitenin hazırlık okulunda okudunuz mu?

a) Evet b) Hayır

7. Sizce İngilizce düzeyiniz nedir?

a) zayıf b) orta c) iyi

İKİNCİ BÖLÜM

A	1. İngilizce'de bildiğim şeyler ile yeni öğrendiğim şeyler arasında ilişki kurabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
	2. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri cümle kurarak hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	3. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için, kelimenin sesi ile bir imaj veya görüntü bağı kurarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	4. Yeni öğrendiğim bir İngilizce kelimenin nerede kullanılabileceğini zihnimde canlandırarak hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	5. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri, bildiğim kafiyeli kelimeleri esas alarak hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	6. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri, flaş kartları kullanarak hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5

	7. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri, hareketlerle canlandırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	8. Sıkça İngilizce derslerimi tekrarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	9. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri, sayfa, tahta, veya levhalarda buldukları yerleri hatırlayarak hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
B	10. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri bir çok kez söyleyerek veya yazarak tekrarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	11. Ana dili İngilizce olan insanlar gibi konuşmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	12. İngilizce sesleri tekrarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	13. Bildiğim İngilizce kelimeleri değişik yapılarda kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	14. İngilizce sohbetleri başlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	15. İngilizce programları veya sinema filmleri seyrederim.	1	2	3	4	5
	16. Zevk için İngilizce kitap / gazete vs. okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
	17. Not, mesaj, mektup veya raporları İngilizce yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	18. İngilizce metni okurken, önce hızlıca sonra daha dikkatli okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
	19. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeler ile kendi dilimde benzer kelimeler ararım.	1	2	3	4	5

	20. İngilizce cümlelerin kalıplarını anlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	21. İngilizce kelimelerin anlamlarını anlayabildiğim parçalara bölerek çıkartmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	22. Kelime kelime tercüme yapmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	23. Okuduğum ve duyduğum bilgiyi İngilizce olarak özetlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
C	24. İlk defa karşılaştığım İngilizce kelimeleri anlamak için tahminde bulunurum.	1	2	3	4	5
	25. İngilizce konuşurken bir kelime aklıma gelmezse, el kol hareketleri kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	26. Doğru İngilizce kelimeyi bilmezsem, yeni bir kelimeyi uydururum.	1	2	3	4	5
	27. İngilizce metni okurken, bilmediğim her kelimeyi sözlükte aramam.	1	2	3	4	5
	28. Başkası İngilizce konuşurken, ne diyeceğini tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	29. Eğer bir İngilizce kelime aklıma gelmezse, aynı anlamalı olan başka kelime kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
D	30. İngilizce'mi kullanabilmek için çeşitli yollara başvururum.	1	2	3	4	5
	31. İngilizce kullandığım zaman, hatalarıma dikkat eder ve hatalarımdan yola çıkarak İngilizce'mi düzeltmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	32. Biri İngilizce konuşurken, onu dikkatli dinlerim.	1	2	3	4	5

	33. Nasıl daha iyi bir İngilizce öğrencisi olabileceğimi öğrenmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	34. İngilizce'yi öğrenmeye yeterli zaman ayırmak için programımı düzenlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
	35. İngilizce konuşabileceğim insanları ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
	36. İngilizce kitap / gazete vs. okumak için fırsat ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
	37. İngilizce becerilerimin iyileşmesi için kesin hedefler koyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	38. İngilizce öğrenmedeki gelişmelerimi değerlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
E	39. İngilizce'yi kullanmaktan korktuğum zaman, sakin olmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	40. Hata yapmaktan korksam bile, kendime İngilizce konuşmaya teşvik ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
	41. İngilizce kullanıp başarılı olduğum zaman, kendimi ödüllendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
	42. İngilizce kullanırken veya öğrenirken tedirgin olduğumun farkına varırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	43. Duygularımı, "Dil Öğrenme Günlüğü" ne yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
	44. İngilizce'yi öğrenirken, başkaları ile duygularımı paylaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
F	45. Biri İngilizce konuşurken eğer söylediklerini anlamazsam, o kişinin yavaş konuşmasını, söylediklerini tekrarlamasını isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

46. İngilizce konuştuğum zaman, ana dili İngilizce insanların hatalarımı düzeltmelerini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Başka öğrenciler ile İngilizce konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Ana dili İngilizce olan insanlardan yardım isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
49. İngilizce olarak sorular sorarım.	1	2	3	4	5
50. İngilizce konuşanların kültürü hakkında bir şeyler öğrenmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

DİKKATLİ CEVAPLADIĞINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ

Adınız Soyadınız:

Adapted from Oxford, (1990: 293-296)

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

This inventory has been designed for students of English as a foreign language. It consists of two parts. The first part is designed to gather general information. The second part is made up of six categories of statements about learning English. Please read every sentence carefully and mark with an "X" the box representing the most suitable response. Make your responses in accordance with the following key.

1. Never or almost never true of me (0%)
2. Usually not true of me (25%)
3. Somewhat true of me. (50%)
4. Usually true of me. (75%)
5. Always or almost always true of me. (100%)

Please respond for yourself, not how you think someone would like you to respond. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Please do not make any alterations to the statements. Answer as quickly and carefully as possible.

PART ONE

1. What is your gender?

- a) Male b) Female

2. What kind of high school did you graduate from?

- a) State high school b) Anatolian/super high school c) Foreign language private school

3. How old are you?

- a) 18-25 b) 25-30 c) over 30

4. How long have you been learning English?

- a) 1-5 years b) 6-10 years c) more than 10 years

5. Have you ever been to a country where English is spoken?

a) Yes b) No

If you answered "Yes", for what reasons?

a) Holiday b) Language course c) Family

6. Did you attend preparatory school before commencing your studies in this department?

a) Yes b) No

7. What do you consider your level of English to be?

a) poor b) medium c) good

PART TWO

A	1. I think about relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	1	2	3	4	5
	3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me.	1	2	3	4	5
	4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	1	2	3	4	5
	5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
	6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
	7. I physically act out new English words.	1	2	3	4	5

	8. I review English lessons often.	1	2	3	4	5
	9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	1	2	3	4	5
B	10. I say or write new English words several times.	1	2	3	4	5
	11. I try to talk like a native English speaker.	1	2	3	4	5
	12. I practice the sounds of English.	1	2	3	4	5
	13. I use the English words I know in different ways.	1	2	3	4	5
	14. I start conversations in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	16. I read for pleasure in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	17. I write notes, messages, or reports in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully..	1	2	3	4	5
	19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	20. I try to find patterns in English.	1	2	3	4	5

	21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	1	2	3	4	5
	22. I try not to translate word for word.	1	2	3	4	5
	23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	1	2	3	4	5
C	24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses..	1	2	3	4	5
	25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	1	2	3	4	5
	26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	27. I read English without looking up every word.	1	2	3	4	5
	28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	1	2	3	4	5
	D	30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	1	2	3	4
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.		1	2	3	4	5
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.		1	2	3	4	5
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.		1	2	3	4	5


	34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	1	2	3	4	5
	35. I look for people I can talk to in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1	2	3	4	5
	38. I think about my progress in learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
E	39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	1	2	3	4	5
	40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
	41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	1	2	3	4	5
	42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	1	2	3	4	5
	43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	1	2	3	4	5
	44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
F	45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again	1	2	3	4	5
	46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	1	2	3	4	5

47. I practice English with other students.	1	2	3	4	5
48. I ask for help from English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
49. I ask questions in English.	1	2	3	4	5
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR ANSWERING CAREFULLY

Name/Surname:

(Oxford, 1990: 293-296)



APPENDIX II

INTRODUCTORY LECTURE

THE EMBEDDED STRATEGIES GAME

Language Activities

ALL THE NEWS THAT FITS, WE PRINT- Read the newspaper in the target language to practice the language and keep up with events.

AS THE WORLD TURNS – Watch a TV programme every day to practice understanding the target language.

BREAK DOWN – Break down into parts any other long words and expressions in the new language that you find overwhelming.

CHECK-UP – Check yourself to see the kinds of errors you make in the target language and then try to figure out why.

CINEMA CITY – Go to a foreign film festival to get more exposure to the target language.

COLOURS – Colour-code your language notebook so you can find things more easily.

CUISINE – Read and follow recipes in the target language.

GETTING IT ALL TOGETHER – When preparing to give a talk in the target language, figure out the requirements, your own capabilities, and what else you will have to do in order to give a good talk.

HELP! – When you can't seem to find the word to say in the new language, ask for help from somebody else.

HELP, I NEED YOU – Look for native speakers who can help you practice speaking the target language or who can explain things to you about the new culture.

HOW AM I DOING? – Ask someone else for feedback on whether you have understood, said, or written something correctly in the target language.

HOW COME? – Try to figure out the reason for doing a certain language activity, so that you can prepare yourself better.

IT'S BEEN A HARD DAY – Schedule a break from language learning when you are tired.

KEEP QUIET – Try to just listen and understand the target language for a while because your speaking skills aren't so good yet.

LOOKING AHEAD – Use preview questions or other ways to look ahead at the new target language reading/listening material, so that you can orient yourself.

MARKERS – In reading the target language, look for markers in the text (headings, subheadings, topic sentences) to give you clues about the meaning.

MIND IMAGES – When learning a list of words in the target language, create a picture in your head of the words and the relationships among them.

MOUTHING – When trying to learn the sounds of the target language, pay attention to how a native speaker shapes his or her mouth when talking; then do the same while looking at a mirror.

MUSIC TIME – Listen to song lyrics in the target language and try to sing along and learn the words.

NITPICKING - While reading or listening to the target language, look for specific new words, forms, or pieces of information.

PEERS WITHOUT TEARS – Stop competing with your fellow students and learn to work together in learning the new language.

PENPALS – Meet a native speaker visiting from another country and then keep in touch with that person by writing in the new language.

REWARDS – Having done very well on a language test, reward yourself with a special treat.

SCAREDY CAT – Make positive statements to yourself in order to feel more confident and be more willing to take risks.

SNOOP AROUND – Make it a point to look around at signs, headlines, magazine covers, and all the visual symbols of the target language and culture.

SPREAD 'EM OUT – Plan your sessions for reviewing new material in the target language so that the sessions are first close together and then more widely spread out.

STEERING CLEAR – When the conversation in the new language gets onto topics for which you don't know the vocabulary, change the subject or just don't say anything.

TAKING THE PULSE – Stop to determine whether you are feeling especially nervous before you go into language class.


T-TIME – Take notes on what you hear or read in the new language by drawing a big T on the paper, writing the key idea or title at the top of the T, then listing the details in the left column and examples in the right column.

WELL DONE, SHERLOCK! – While reading or listening to the target language, constantly look for clues to the meaning.

WHAT'S THE BIG IDEA? – Find all sorts of ways to locate the main idea as you are reading or listening to a passage in the target language.

WRITER'S CRAMP – To combat your “mental block” against writing a report in the target language, try to calm down and relax by means of music and breathing exercises.

Adapted from Oxford (1990: 27-30).



APPENDIX III

THE LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY SYSTEM

DIRECT STRATEGIES

(Memory, Cognitive, and Compensation Strategies)

I. Memory Strategies

A. *Creating mental linkages*

1. Grouping
2. Associating /elaborating
3. Placing new words into a context

B. *Applying images and sounds*

1. Using imagery
2. Semantic mapping
3. Using keywords
4. Representing sounds in memory

C. *Reviewing well*

1. Structured reviewing

D. *Employing action*

1. Using physical response or sensation
2. Using mechanical techniques

II. Cognitive strategies

A. *Practicing*

1. Repeating
 1. Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems
 2. Recognizing and using formulas and patterns
 3. Recombining
 4. Practicing naturalistically

B. *Receiving and sending messages*

1. Getting the idea quickly

2. Using resources for receiving and sending messages

C. Analyzing and reasoning

1. Reasoning deductively
2. Analyzing expressions
3. Analyzing contrastively (across languages)
4. Translating
5. Transferring

D. Creating structure for input and output

1. Taking notes
2. Summarizing

Highlighting

III. Compensation strategies

A. Guessing intelligently

1. Using linguistic clues
2. Using other clues

B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

1. Switching to the mother tongue
2. Getting help
3. Using mime or gesture
4. Avoiding communication partially or totally
5. Selecting the topic
6. Adjusting or approximating the message
7. Coining words
8. Using a circumlocution or a synonym

INDIRECT STRATEGIES

(Metacognitive, Affective, and Social Strategies)

I. Metacognitive strategies

A. Centring your learning

1. Overviewing and linking with already known material
2. Paying attention
3. Delaying speech production to focus on listening

B. Arranging and planning your learning

1. Finding out about language learning
2. Organizing
3. Setting goals and objectives
4. Identifying the purpose of a language task
5. Planning for a language task
6. Seeking practice opportunities

C. Evaluating your learning

1. Self-monitoring
2. Self-evaluating

II. Affective strategies

A. Lowering your anxiety

1. Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation
2. Using music
3. Using laughter

B. Encouraging yourself

1. Making positive statements
2. Taking risks wisely
3. Rewarding yourself

C. Taking your emotional temperature

1. Listening to your body
2. Using a checklist
3. Writing a language learning diary
4. Discussing your feelings with someone else

III. Social strategies

A. Asking questions

1. Asking for clarification
2. Asking for correction

B. Cooperating with others

1. Cooperating with peers
2. Cooperating with proficient users of the new language

C. Empathising with others

1. Developing cultural understanding
2. Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

APPENDIX IV

PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST LISTENING TRANSCRIPT

SOME OF THE PROBLEMS FACING LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

Today I'd like to talk about some of the problems that students face when they follow a course of study through the medium of English – if English is not their first language. The purpose is to show that we're aware of students' problems, and that by analysing them perhaps it'll be possible to suggest how some of them may be overcome.

The problems can be divided into three broad categories: psychological, cultural, and linguistic. The first two categories mainly concern those who come to study in Britain. I'll comment only briefly on these first two then spend most of the time looking at linguistic difficulties which apply to everyone, wherever they are learning English.

Some of the common psychological problems really involve fear of the unknown: for example, whether one's academic activities will be too difficult, whether one will fail the examinations, etc. All students share these apprehensions. It's probably best for students not to look too far ahead but to concentrate day-by-day on increasing their knowledge and developing their abilities. Overseas students in Britain may also suffer from separation from their families and possible homesickness; enjoyment of their activities in Britain and the passage of time are the only real help here.

Looking now at the cultural problems, we can see that some of them are of a very practical nature, for example arranging satisfactory accommodation; getting used to British money (or the lack of it!), British food and weather (neither is always bad!). Some of the cultural difficulties are less easy to define: they are bound up with the whole range of alien customs, habits and traditions – in other words, the British way of life. Such difficulties include: settling into a strange environment and

a new academic routine; learning a new set of social habits, ranging from the times of meals to the meanings of gestures; expressing appropriate greetings; understanding a different kind of humour; and learning how to make friends. Being open minded and adaptable is the best approach to some of the difficulties listed here.

The largest category is probably linguistic. Let's look at this in some detail.

Most students will have learnt English at school, but if they've already been to college or university in their own countries they'll have studied mostly in their own language except, perhaps, for reading some textbooks and journals in English. In other words, they'll have had little everyday opportunity to practise using English.

When foreign learners first have the opportunity to speak to an English-speaking person they may have a shock: they often have great difficulty in understanding! There are a number of reasons for this. I'll just mention three of them.

Firstly, it seems to students that English people speak very quickly. Secondly, they speak with a variety of accents. Thirdly, different styles of speech are used in different situations, for example everyday spoken English, which is colloquial and idiomatic, is different from the English used for academic purposes. For all these reasons students will have difficulty, mainly because they lack practice in listening to English people speaking English. Don't forget, by the way, that if students have difficulty in understanding English-speaking people, these people may have difficulty in understanding the students!

What can students do then to overcome these difficulties? Well, obviously, they can benefit from attending English classes and if a language laboratory is available use it as much as possible. They should also listen to programmes in English on the radio and TV. Perhaps most important of all, they should take every possible opportunity to meet and speak with native English-speaking people. They should be aware, however, that English people are, by temperament, often reserved and may be unwilling to start a conversation. Nevertheless, if students have the

courage to take the initiative, however difficult it may seem to be, most English people will respond. They will need patience and perseverance!

In addition to regarding problems regarding listening and understanding, students probably have difficulty in speaking English fluently. They have the *ideas*, they know *what* to say (in their own language) but they don't know *how* to say it in English. The advice here will seem difficult to follow but it's necessary. Firstly, they must simplify their language so that they can express themselves reasonably clearly; for example, short sentences will be better than long ones. Secondly, they must try to think in English, not translate from their first language. This'll only begin to take place when their use of English becomes automatic; using a language laboratory and listening to as much English as possible will help. In general, they should practise speaking as much as possible. They should also notice the kind of English, and its structure, that educated people use, and try to imitate it.

Other difficulties that the students may have, for example note taking, writing, reading, etc. will be dealt with in other talks. (Adapted from James et al, 1979: 82-83)

APPENDIX V

PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST CLOZE TEST

SOME OF THE PROBLEMS FACING LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

Today I'd like to talk about some of the problems that students face when they follow a course of study through the medium of English – if English is not their first language. The purpose is to show that we're aware of students' problems, and that by analysing them perhaps it'll be possible to suggest how some of them may be overcome.

The problems can be divided into three broad categories: 1. _____, 2. _____, and 3. _____. The first two categories mainly concern those who come to study in Britain. I'll comment only briefly on these first two then spend most of the time looking at linguistic difficulties which apply to everyone, wherever they are learning English.

Some of the common 4. _____ problems really involve 5. _____ of the 6. _____: for example, whether one's academic activities will be too difficult, whether one will fail the examinations, etc. All students share these apprehensions. It's probably best for students not to look too far ahead but to concentrate day-by-day on increasing their knowledge and developing their abilities. Overseas students in Britain may also suffer from 7. _____ from their 8. _____ and possible 9. _____; enjoyment of their activities in Britain and the passage of time are the only real help here.

Looking now at the 10. _____ problems, we can see that some of them are of a very practical nature, for example arranging satisfactory 11. _____; getting used to British 12. _____ (or the lack of it!), British 13. _____ and 14. _____ (neither is always bad!). Some of the cultural difficulties are less easy to define: they are bound up with the whole range of alien customs, habits and traditions – in other words, the British 15. _____ of 16. _____. Such

difficulties include: settling into a strange 17. _____ and a new 18. _____ routine; learning a new set of social 19. _____, ranging from the times of meals to the meanings of gestures; expressing appropriate greetings; understanding a different kind of humour; and learning how to make friends. Being 19. _____ and adaptable is the best approach to some of the difficulties listed here.

The largest category is probably 20. _____. Let's look at this in some detail.

Most students will have learnt English at school, but if they've already been to college or university in their own countries they'll have studied mostly in their own language except, perhaps, for reading some textbooks and journals in English. In other words, they'll have had little everyday opportunity to practise using English.

When foreign learners first have the opportunity to speak to an English-speaking person they may have a shock: they often have great difficulty in understanding! There are a number of reasons for this. I'll just mention three of them.

Firstly, it seems to students that English people speak very 21. _____. Secondly, they speak with a variety of 22. _____. Thirdly, different 23. _____ of speech are used in different situations, for example everyday spoken English, which is colloquial and idiomatic, is different from the English used for academic purposes. For all these reasons students will have difficulty, mainly because they lack 24. _____ in listening to English people speaking English. Don't forget, by the way, that if students have difficulty in understanding English-speaking people, these people may have difficulty in understanding the students!

What can students do then to overcome these difficulties? Well, obviously, they can benefit from attending 25. _____ and if a language laboratory is available use it as much as possible. They should also 26. _____ to 27. _____ in English on the radio and TV. Perhaps most important of all, they should take every possible opportunity to meet and speak with 28. _____ 29. _____ people. They should be aware, however, that English people are, by

temperament, often reserved and may be unwilling to start a conversation. Nevertheless, if students have the courage to take the initiative, however difficult it may seem to be, most English people will respond. They will need patience and perseverance!

In addition to regarding problems regarding listening and understanding, students probably have difficulty in 30. _____ English 31. _____. They have the *ideas*, they know *what* to say (in their own language) but they don't know *how* to say it in English. The advice here will seem difficult to follow but it's necessary. Firstly, they must

32. _____ their language so that they can express themselves reasonably clearly; for example, short sentences will be better than long ones. Secondly, they must try to

33. _____ in English, not translate from their first language. This'll only begin to take place when their use of English becomes automatic; using a language laboratory and listening to as much English as possible will help. In general, they should practise speaking as much as possible. They should also notice the kind of English, and its structure, that educated people use, and try to imitate it.

Other difficulties that the students may have, for example note taking, writing, reading, etc. will be dealt with in other talks.

APPENDIX VI

TRAINING SESSION 1: LISTENING TRANSCRIPT

LISTENING AND UNDERSTANDING

Students learning English often find the following problems when they listen to talks or lectures.

Firstly, they don't always identify all the words correctly. I refer here to known words, that is, words that students would usually recognise in print. Let's examine some of the reasons for this particular difficulty. In writing, there are clear spaces between each word; in speech, one word runs into the next. It's very difficult to decide, therefore, where one word finishes and the next one begins.

In writing, the words consist of letters of the alphabet. The letters have a fixed shape: they're easy to identify. In speech, however, vowel and consonant sounds are very difficult to identify. Some of these sounds may not exist in the students' native language. Many of them, particularly the vowel sounds, are given different pronunciations by different English speakers.

Finally, some words in English, words like 'and' or 'there' or 'are' or 'will' are frequently pronounced with their weak or reduced forms in speech. This is sometimes so short that non-native speakers, perhaps not accustomed to it, fail to recognise it at all. Many students, for example, don't recognise the normal pronunciation /ð r / for the words 'there are' which occur at the beginning of so many English sentences. Furthermore, they encounter a similar problem with the unstressed syllables which are part of a longer word. For instance, think of the word 'cotton', spelt 'c-o-t-t-o-n'. Each letter is the same size; no difference is made between the first syllable 'c-o-t-' and the second syllable '-t-o-n'. In speech, however, the first syllable is stressed and the second is unstressed. The word is not pronounced 'cot-ton' but 'COT n'. The same is true for the word 'carbon'; spelt 'c-a-r-b-o-n'; it's not pronounced 'car-bon' but 'CAR bn'.

But I want now to come on to the second main problem: the difficulty of remembering what's been said. Again, the problem here is much less difficult in the written rather than the spoken form. Words on a page are permanently fixed in space. They don't disappear like words that are spoken. They remain in front of you. You can choose your own speed to read whereas in listening you've got to follow the speed of the speaker. A difficult word, or sentence, on the printed page can be read again, whereas a word not clearly heard is rarely repeated. Listeners, therefore, find that they have to concentrate so hard on identifying the words correctly and on understanding them that they have little time left to remember.

In a foreign language, their brains simply have too much to do. In their own language, of course, they are not only able to identify and understand the words automatically but also they can often even predict the words which are going to come. Their brains, therefore, have much more time to remember.

Thirdly, I want to deal with a problem that worries most students in a lecture. The problem is this – they can't always follow the argument. This is, of course, partly due to the first two difficulties I have discussed. When you have difficulty in identifying or remembering words and sentences, you obviously won't be able to follow the argument. But even those students who can do these things perfectly well have problems in following a quite straightforward argument. Why is this? I'll suggest three reasons here. Firstly, students don't always recognise the signals which tell the listener that certain points are important. Some of these will be quite different from those employed in writing. Secondly, some students try too hard to understand *everything*. When they come to a small but difficult point, they waste time trying to work it out, and so they miss a more important point. Thirdly, students must concentrate very hard on taking notes and therefore may miss developments in the argument. But note taking is a separate subject that will be dealt with in a later talk.

There are, however, other problems students are faced with, which I'd like to mention briefly.

It's always a surprise to students to discover how much the pronunciation of English changes from one English-speaking country to another, and from region to region. Many lecturers from Britain have a B.B.C.-type accent, the type of English associated with the South of England and most commonly taught to non-native speakers. However, other lecturers will speak differently. To give an example /b s/, /l v/, /m m/ etc. as spoken in the south are pronounced in Manchester and many other parts as /bʊv/, /lʊv/, and /mʊm/. Southern English /gr s/, /f st/, /p θ/ are pronounced in Yorkshire and elsewhere as /græs/, /fæst/, and /pæθ/. It's worth noticing that it's usually the vowels which have variants, though sometimes it may be the consonants. For instance, a Scotsman will roll his 'r's', whereas a Londoner won't. So a lecturer with a particularly strong regional accent may cause non-native speakers considerable difficulty.

Whether students follow a lecturer easily or not depends also on the style of English the lecturer uses. By this, I mean the *type* of English chosen to express an idea: at one extreme it may be very formal, at the other colloquial or even slang. Generally, speaking, the more formal the style, the easier it is for the student to understand. For example, a lecturer who says, formally, 'This is undoubtedly the writer's central point' will be readily understood. On the other hand, if the lecturer says 'That's really what the writer is on about', many students will have difficulty in understanding.

Other factors, which I haven't the time to discuss in detail, may also be involved. These include the speed at which the lecture is delivered, the rather common use of irony, the peculiarly English sense of humour, references which presuppose a knowledge of British culture, etc.

All these factors combine to make it a formidable task for students to follow lectures comfortably. It's clearly helpful to be aware of the problems and to get as much practice as possible in listening to and trying to understand spoken English. (Adapted from James et al, 1979: 86-88).

APPENDIX VII

TRAINING SESSION 1: CLOZE TEST

LISTENING AND UNDERSTANDING

Students learning English often find the following problems when they listen to talks or lectures.

Firstly, they don't always 1. _____ all the words correctly. I refer here to known words, that is, words that students would usually recognise in print. Let's examine some of the reasons for this particular difficulty. In writing, there are clear 2. _____ between each word; in speech, one word runs into the next. It's very difficult to decide, therefore, where one word finishes and the next one begins.

In writing, the words consist of 3. _____ of the 4. _____. The letters have a fixed shape: they're easy to identify. In speech, however, 5. _____ and 6. _____ sounds are very difficult to identify. Some of these sounds may not exist in the students' native language. Many of them, particularly the vowel sounds, are given different pronunciations by different English speakers.

Finally, some words in English, words like 'and' or 'there' or 'are' or 'will' are frequently pronounced with their 7. _____ or reduced forms in speech. This is sometimes so short that non-native speakers, perhaps not accustomed to it, fail to recognise it at all. Many students, for example, don't recognise the normal pronunciation /ð r / for the words 'there are' which occur at the beginning of so many English sentences. Furthermore, they encounter a similar problem with the 8. _____ syllables which are part of a longer word. For instance, think of the word 'cotton', spelt 'c-o-t-t-o-n'. Each letter is the same size; no difference is made between the first syllable 'c-o-t-' and the second syllable '-t-o-n'. In speech, however, the first syllable is stressed and the second is unstressed. The word is not pronounced 'cot-ton' but 'COT n'. The same is true for the word 'carbon'; spelt 'c-a-r-b-o-n'; it's not pronounced 'car-bon' but 'CAR bn'.

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But I want now to come on to the second main problem: the difficulty of 9. _____ what's been said. Again, the problem here is much less difficult in the written rather than the spoken form. Words on a page are 10. _____ fixed in space. They don't disappear like words that are spoken. They remain in front of you. You can choose your own speed to read whereas in listening you've got to 11. _____ the 12. _____ of the speaker. A difficult word, or sentence, on the printed page can be read again, whereas a word not clearly heard is rarely repeated. Listeners, therefore, find that they have to concentrate so hard on 13. _____ the words correctly and on 14. _____ them that they have little time left to remember.

In a foreign language, their brains simply have too much to do. In their own language, of course, they are not only able to identify and understand the words automatically but also they can often even 15. _____ the words which are going to come. Their brains, therefore, have much more time to remember.

Thirdly, I want to deal with a problem that worries most students in a lecture. The problem is this – they can't always 16. _____ the 17. _____. This is, of course, partly due to the first two difficulties I have discussed. When you have difficulty in identifying or remembering words and sentences, you obviously won't be able to follow the argument. But even those students who can do these things perfectly well have problems in following a quite straightforward argument. Why is this? I'll suggest three reasons here. Firstly, students don't always recognise the 18. _____ which tell the listener that certain points are important. Some of these will be quite different from those employed in writing. Secondly, some students try too hard to understand 19. _____. When they come to a small but difficult point, they 20. _____ trying to work it out, and so they miss a more important point. Thirdly, students must concentrate very hard on 21. _____ and therefore may miss developments in the argument. But note taking is a separate subject that will be dealt with in a later talk.

There are, however, other problems students are faced with, which I'd like to mention briefly.

It's always a surprise to students to discover how much the 22. _____ of English changes from one English-speaking country to another, and from region to region. Many lecturers from Britain have a B.B.C.-type accent, the type of English associated with the South of England and most commonly taught to non-native speakers. However, other lecturers will speak differently. To give an example /b s/, /l v/, /m m/ etc. as spoken in the south are pronounced in Manchester and many other parts as /bʊv/, /lʊv/, and /mʊm/. Southern English /gr s/, /f st/, /p θ/ are pronounced in Yorkshire and elsewhere as /græs/, /fæst/, and /pæθ/. It's worth noticing that it's usually the 23. _____ which have variants, though sometimes it may be the consonants. For instance, a Scotsman will roll his 'r's', whereas a Londoner won't. So a lecturer with a particularly strong regional accent may cause non-native speakers considerable difficulty.

Whether students follow a lecturer easily or not depends also on the 24. _____ of English the lecturer uses. By this, I mean the *type* of English chosen to express an idea: at one extreme it may be very 25. _____, at the other 26. _____ or even slang. Generally, speaking, the more formal the style, the easier it is for the student to understand. For example, a lecturer who says, formally, 'This is undoubtedly the writer's central point' will be readily understood. On the other hand, if the lecturer says 'That's really what the writer is on about', many students will have difficulty in understanding.

Other factors, which I haven't the time to discuss in detail, may also be involved. These include the 27. _____ at which the lecture is delivered, the rather common use of 29. _____, the peculiarly English sense of 30. _____, references which presuppose a knowledge of British 31. _____, etc.

All these factors combine to make it a formidable task for students to follow lectures comfortably. It's clearly helpful to be aware of the problems and to get as much practice as possible in listening to and trying to understand spoken English.

APPENDIX VIII

TRAINING SESSION 2. LISTENING TRANSCRIPT

LECTURES AND NOTE-TAKING

Note taking is a complex activity which requires a high level of ability in many separate skills. Today I'm going to analyse the four most important of these skills.

Firstly, the student has to understand what the lecturer says *as he or she says it*. Students cannot stop the lecture in order to look up a new word or check an unfamiliar sentence pattern. This puts *non-native speakers* of English under a particularly severe strain. Often – as we have already seen in a previous lecture – they may not be able to recognise words in speech which they understand straightaway in print. They'll also meet words in a lecture which are completely new to them. While they should, or course, try to develop the ability to infer their meaning from the context, they won't always be able to do this successfully. They must not allow failure of this kind to discourage them however. It's often possible to understand much of a lecture by concentrating solely on those points which are most important. But how do students decide what is important? This is in itself another skill they must try to develop. It is, in fact, the second of the four skills I want to talk about today.

Probably the most important piece of information in a lecture is the title itself. If this is printed (or referred to) beforehand students should study it carefully beforehand and make sure they're in no doubt about its meaning. Whatever happens they should make sure that they write it down accurately and completely. A title often implies many of the major points that will be later covered in the lecture itself. It should help students, therefore, to decide what the main point of the lecture will be.

Good lecturers, of course, often signal what is important and what is unimportant. They may give direct signals or indirect signals. Many lecturers, for example, explicitly tell their audience that a point is important and that the students should write it down. Unfortunately, lecturers who are trying to establish a friendly relationship with their audiences are likely on these occasions to employ a colloquial style. They might say such things as 'This is, of course, the crunch' or 'Perhaps you'd like to get it down'. Although this will help students who are native English-speakers, it may very well be difficult for the non-native speakers. They'll therefore have to make a very big effort to get used to the various styles of their lecturers.

It's worth remembering that most lecturers also give *indirect* signals to indicate what's important. They either pause or speak slowly or speak loudly or use a greater range of intonation, or they employ a combination of these devices, when they say something important. Conversely, their sentences are delivered quickly, softly, within a narrow range of intonation and with short or infrequent pauses when they are saying something which is incidental. It is, of course, helpful for students to be aware of this and for them to focus their attention accordingly.

Having sorted out the main points, however, students still has to write them down. And they have to do this quickly and clearly. This is, in fact, the third basic skill they must learn and develop. In order to write at speed, most students find it helps to abbreviate. They also try to select only those words which give maximum information. These are usually nouns, but sometimes verbs or adjectives. Writing only one point on every line also helps students to understand their notes when they come to read them later on. An important difficulty is, of course, finding time to write the notes. If students choose the wrong moment to write they may miss a point of greater importance. Connectives may guide them to a correct choice here. Those which indicate that the argument is proceeding in the same direction also tell the listener that it's a safe time to write. 'Moreover', 'furthermore', 'also', etc., are examples of this. Others such as 'however', 'on the other hand' or 'nevertheless' usually mean that new and perhaps unexpected information is going to follow. Therefore, it may, on these occasions, be more appropriate to listen.

The fourth skill that the students must develop is one that is frequently neglected. They must learn to show the connections between the various points they've noted. This can often be done more effectively by a visual presentation than by a lengthy statement in words. Thus the use of spacing, of underlining, and of conventional symbols plays an important part in efficient note taking. Points should be numbered, too, wherever possible. In this way, students can see at a glance the framework of the lecture. (Adapted from James et al, 1979: 91-92).



APPENDIX IX

TRAINING SESSION 2: CLOZE TEST

LECTURES AND NOTE-TAKING

Note taking is a complex activity which requires a high level of ability in many separate skills. Today I'm going to analyse the four most important of these skills.

Firstly, the student has to 1. _____ what the lecturer says *as he or she says it*. Students cannot stop the lecture in order to look up a new word or check an unfamiliar sentence pattern. This puts *non-native speakers* of English under a particularly severe strain. Often – as we have already seen in a previous lecture – they may not be able to 2. _____ 3. _____ in speech which they understand straightaway in print. They'll also meet words in a lecture which are completely 4. _____ to them. While they should, or course, try to develop the ability to infer their meaning from the context; they won't always be able to do this successfully. They must not allow failure of this kind to discourage them however. It's often possible to understand much of a lecture by concentrating solely on those points which are most important. But how do students 5. _____ what is 6. _____? This is in itself another skill they must try to develop. It is, in fact, the second of the four skills I want to talk about today.

Probably the most important piece of information in a lecture is the 7. _____ itself. If this is printed (or referred to) beforehand students should study it carefully beforehand and make sure they're in no doubt about its meaning. Whatever happens they should make sure that they write it down accurately and completely. A title often implies many of the 8. _____ 9. _____ that will be later covered in the lecture itself. It should help students, therefore, to decide what the main point of the lecture will be.

Good lecturers, of course, often signal what is important and what is unimportant. They may give 10. _____ signals or 11. _____ signals. Many lecturers, for example, explicitly tell their audience that a point is important and that the students should write it down. Unfortunately, lecturers who are trying to establish a friendly relationship with their audiences are likely on these occasions to employ a 12. _____ style. They might say such things as 'This is, of course, the crunch' or 'Perhaps you'd like to get it down'. Although this will help students who are native English-speakers, it may very well be difficult for the non-native speakers. They'll therefore have to make a very big effort to get used to the various 13. _____ of their lecturers.

It's worth remembering that most lecturers also give *indirect* signals to indicate what's important. They either 14. _____ or speak 15. _____ or speak loudly or use a greater range of 16. _____, or they employ a combination of these devices, when they say something important. Conversely, their sentences are delivered 17. _____, softly, within a narrow range of intonation and with short or infrequent 18. _____ when they are saying something which is incidental. It is, of course, helpful for students to be aware of this and for them to focus their attention accordingly.

Having sorted out the main points, however, students still have to write them down. And they have to do this 19. _____ and clearly. This is, in fact, the third basic skill they must learn and develop. In order to write at speed, most students find it helps to 20. _____. They also try to select only those words which give 21. _____ 22. _____. These are usually nouns, but sometimes verbs or adjectives. Writing only one 23. _____ on every line also helps students to understand their notes when they come to read them later on. An important difficulty is, of course, finding 24. _____ to write the notes. If students choose the wrong moment to write they may miss a point of greater importance. 25. _____ may guide them to a correct choice here. Those which indicate that the argument is proceeding in the same direction also tell the listener that it's a safe time to write. 'Moreover', 'furthermore', 'also', etc., are examples of

examples of this. Others such as 'however', 'on the other hand' or 'nevertheless' usually mean that new and perhaps unexpected information is going to follow. Therefore, it may, on these occasions, be more appropriate to listen.

The fourth skill that the students must develop is one that is frequently neglected. They must learn to show the 26. _____ between the various points they've noted. This can often be done more effectively by a 28. _____ than by a lengthy statement in words. Thus the use of spacing, of 29. _____, and of conventional symbols plays an important part in efficient note taking. Points should be 30. _____, too, wherever possible. In this way, students can see at a glance the framework of the lecture.

