T.C. ULUDAG UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TEACHING

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMME

THE EFFECTS OF STRATEGY TRAINING ON 5TH GRADE STUDENTS'

SPEAKING STRATEGY USE

MASTER THESIS

Elif EKEN

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SUPERVISOR

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Esim GÜRSOY

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BİLİMSEL ETİĞE UYGUNLUK

Bu çalışmadaki tüm bilgilerin akademik ve etik kurallara uygun bir şekilde elde edildiğini beyan ederim.

Elif EKEN

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THE EFFECT OF STRATEGY TRAINING ON THE 5TH GRADE STUDENTS' SPEAKING STRATEGY USE

In recent years, a number of studies have been focused on the effect of communication strategy training on learners' strategic competence and speaking ability. Communication strategies appeared as having a crucial importance due to their complementary roles in coping with the problems when communicating in L2. If learners have inadequate vocabulary knowledge and weak sentence building skills, effective use of these strategies would allow them to function as successful speakers in any communication context. Thus learners can

benefit from strategy training on appropriate and effective use of these strategies. The literature on adult learners provides us much evidence to support the hypothesis that communication strategies facilitate learners' communicative ability; however, such evidence remains unclear when young learners are in question. To this end, 127 5th grade students aged 11 were involved in this study in a state school in Bursa, Turkey. Two intact groups were assigned randomly to the treatment (n=21) and control (n=18) groups. The study provided evidence on a four-month, an embedded mixed methods quasi-experimental design investigating the effect of strategy training on the experimental group students' speaking strategy use. With this design children's speaking strategy use survey and classroom observation tally instruments were utilized before and after the intervention. The results revealed that the experimental group showed a significant increase in their speaking strategy use when compared to the control group. Classroom observation results also provided that the students improved their ability to handle communication problems and developed positive feelings towards participation in learning activities. The study offers suggestions for teachers with regard to the reality where the efforts have been made on the fund of knowledge rather than the development of ability to use the language.

Key words: Speaking strategies, strategy training, foreign language learning strategies, children

Özet

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STRATEJİ EĞİMİNİN 5. SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KONUŞMA STRATEJİLERİ KULLANIMI ÜZERİNE ETKİSİ

Yabancı dil öğrenirken strateji kullanımı öğrenme sürecini kolaylaştırdığından, edinilen becerilerin başka bağlamlara aktarımını sağladığından ve öğrencilerin otonom olmalarına (özerkliğine) ve öğrenme sorumluluğunu taşımalarına yardımcı olması bakımından büyük önem taşımaktadır. Literatürde bulunan strateji çalışmaları genellikle gençleri ve yetişkinleri içerdiğinden çocukların yabancı dil öğrenme stratejileri üzerine yapılan çalışmalar alanın gelişimine katkıda bulunacaktır. Çocuklar bilişsel ve meta-bilişsel olarak henüz yetişkinler kadar gelişmediğinden strateji kullanımları sınırlıdır. Çocukların dili öğrenmeyi ve

kullanmayı kolaylaştıran stratejileri doğru bir şekilde seçmeleri ve uygulayabilmeleri için bu konuda yönlendirilmeleri ve eğitilmeleri gerekmektedir. Bu nedenle bu tezin amacı 5. sınıf öğrencilerine strateji eğitimi vererek öğrencilerin konuşma stratejileri konusundaki farkındalıklarını arttırmak, öğrenilen stratejilerin kullanımını sağlamak, yabancı dilde konuşma isteklerini arttırmaktır. Ayrıca öğrencilerin kendi öğrenme süreçlerinin farkında olmalarını sağlayarak özerk olma yolunda gerekli adım ve desteği sağlamaya çalışmaktır. Bu amaçla Bursa İli Osmangazi İlçesinde yer alan Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'na bağlı Uludağ Ortaokulu'nun tüm 5. Sınıf öğrencilerine çalışmanın araştırma soruları gereği "çocukların konuşma stratejilerini belirleme anketi" genel bir değerlendirme yapmak adına dönem başı ve dönem sonunda uygulanmıştır. Uygulamaya destek veren öğretmenin gönüllülük esası dikkate alınarak kendi sınıflarından birer deney ve kontrol grubu oluşturulmuştur. Deney grubu olarak belirlenen sınıfa dönem başında uygulanan anket üzerinden belirlenen konuşma stratejilerinin eğitimi verilerek grubun kendi içindeki gelişimi ve kontrol grubuyla aralarındaki gelişim farkı değerlendirilmiştir. Yapılan çalışma 2015-2016 eğitim-öğretim yılının ikinci döneminde 08.02.2016 - 10.06.2016 tarihleri arasında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bulgular yapılan strateji eğitimi uygulamasının deney grubunda yer alan öğrencilerin konuşma stratejileri kullanımı üzerine olumlu etkisini istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir şekilde ortaya koymuştur. Uygulama neticesinde öğrencilerin konuşma isteklerinde, İngilizce diline ve dersine karşı tutumlarında artış olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin öğrenme süreçlerine dair yaptıkları geri bildirimlerin de özerk olmaları yolunda kendilerinin, kendi öğrenme süreçlerinin farkına varmaları açısından bu sürece katkı sağladığı görülmüştür.

Anahtar sözcükler: Konuşma stratejileri, strateji eğitimi, yabancı dil öğrenme stratejileri, çocuklar

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List of Abbreviations

ACT   : Adaptive Control of Thought Model

CALLA   : Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach

CS   : Communication Strategies

EFL   : English as a Foreign Language

ELT   : English Language Teaching

ELTP   : English Language Teaching Programme

ESL   : English as a Second Language

FL   : Foreign Language

L1   : The First Languge, Mother Tongue

L2   : The Second Language

LLS   : Language Learning Strategies

LS   : Learning Strategies

MoNE   : Ministry of National Education

OCS   : Oral Communication Strategies

SL   : Second Language

WTC   : Willingness to Communicate

ZPD   : Zone of Proximal Development

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

With the introduction of "communicative approach" into the ELT curriculum, development of communicative competence in English gained importance in order to enable students to communicate for different purposes and in different situations through the essential English language skills. In reference to the new language teaching programme, the use of English is emphasized in classroom interactions of all types, supporting learners in becoming language users, as they work toward communicative competence. Communication requires social interaction and the students' only exposure to the language mostly takes place in the classroom context. Within a limited instruction time language learning strategies appear as an aid to meet the students' needs and to help them become more successful in their efforts to learn and communicate in the target language. Language learning strategies (LLS) and their explicit instruction are regarded as crucial for assisting learners in becoming more successful, effective learners. The underlying assumption of strategy instruction shows how important language learning strategies are: "If learners become aware of the ways in which they know 'how', 'when' and 'why' to use language learning strategies, and the ways in which they can evaluate and monitor their own learning" (Cohen, 1998, p. 69), then they can take a more active role in their language learning processes. In becoming more active agents in the learning process, they can become more efficient and positive in their efforts both in learning and using the language (Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1996). Therefore, identifying the types of strategies language learners use and training them to use these strategies effectively are foci for this study.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The development of communicative competence is seen as a prerequisite for language learners as it makes contribution to L2 use which is a main concern of communicative approaches in language teaching (Larsen Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The notion of "communicative competence" corresponds to L2 proficiency in language knowledge and skill required for communication (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément & Noels, 1998). However, achieving communicative competence does not always guarantee L2 use due to its multifaceted nature. Especially, with learners having lower competency level, it becomes inevitable for them to experience difficulties when communicating in L2, which might result in frustration, low self-esteem, low motivation and then less willingness to communicate (WTC). When the positive relation between the level of communicative competence and the degree of WTC is considered, compensation of lacks in communication strategically gains importance so that the learners' WTC would not melt away. At this point, strategic competence as one of the components of communicative competence is regarded as a "first aid kit" referring to knowledge of communication strategies (CS) and allows a speaker to compensate for deficiencies in any of the other underlying competencies of communicative competence. Although all of the components of communicative competence are required for effective communication, a speaker can get meaning across by relying almost entirely on strategic competence. Therefore, "the development of strategic competence is assumed to have a particularly important role in contributing to one's linguistic self-confidence" (MacIntyre et. al., 1998, p. 555).

1.3. Research Questions of the Study

For all the reasons mentioned above the development of strategic competence should be aimed in language teaching practices through strategy training. With this aim in mind, the current study was conducted to provide students with strategies to maximize their ability in dealing with challenges in communication and thus improve their speaking. The following research questions were aimed in this study:

1. What are the speaking strategies of 5th grade students?

a) Which speaking strategies are mostly used by 5th grade students?

b) Which speaking strategies are the least used by 5th grade students?

2. Are there any differences between the experimental group and control groups in their use of speaking strategies after strategy training?

3. Is there an increase in participants' L2 production due to the use of strategies they learned?

4. What are the students' perceptions on the instructed strategies after strategy training?

1.4. Significance of the Study

Global representation of the English language is emphasized by Crystal (2003, p. 3) that "a language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country". It is obvious that this reflects the current status of the English language, which can be most evident in its use over the years as the language of business, technology, science, diplomacy etc. in all over the world. Ahmad and Rao (2013) put the widespread influence of English in the international community from their perspective in this way: "…..the English language runs like blood through the veins of nations worldwide. To have good communication skills in English is a burning desire for most people" (p.187).

Communicative competence in the target language is more demanded now than ever before. In response to such a global interest, English has emerged as the main language of international communication and became specifically important in schools in Turkey as well. Thus it has played a crucial role in foreign language policy and come under question in terms of its successful outcomes in communication skills, which implies proficient language learners. As a result, the researchers have begun to be interested in the development of speaking skill and shifted their attention from teacher-centred approach to learner-centred one. With the change in favour of 'how learners learn', CSs and their instruction have become the primary concern of some researchers with the claim that the development of CSs might enhance the learners 'communicative skills (e.g., Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1996; Dörnyei, 1995). However, a review of available literature revealed that majority of the studies has investigated how adult learners benefitted from the CS training. None of the previous studies have addressed the effect of strategy instruction on children at the age of 11 in an EFL setting, maybe due to the children's distinct features. As they are at the "Period of Concrete Operations" (Piaget, 1972), which prevent them from abstract thinking and affect their readiness to take responsibility for their own learning, it seems to be a complex process to train them on strategies and providing evidence on the teachability of CSs. Therefore, investigation of the effect of the strategy instruction on children's strategy use is important as such an approach provides information on this age group's speaking strategy profile in EFL context with regard to the intervention.

The teachablity of CSs has been controversial. There are different arguments for or against CS instruction. According to Dörnyei (1995), one of possible reasons for the controversy is that most of the arguments on both sides are based on indirect evidence. Hence, there is great need to conduct empirical studies to examine the effect of CS teaching.

This study is also valuable as it provides a ground in which the instruction helps children develop their speaking ability, gain strategic competence and become autonomous learners.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

It is necessary to note that there were some limitations in this study. First, the study involved a small sample size including twentyone students. The study was based on the integration of explicit strategy instruction into the foreign language teaching programme carried out by the researcher. The students were taught within the framework of the English language teaching programme on a weekly basis. Therefore, it would be doubtful to involve another group of students in the training process.

Second, the students' developmental characteristics and features of the classroom context played a crucial role in the selection of the strategies to the instruction programme. Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to other groups in different contexts with regard to Dörnyei's (1995) arguments on teachability controversy in terms of the strategies and the number of the participants included in the study, although the results provide empricdal evidence in favour of the strategy instruction.

Third limitation of the study is about the participants' family characteristics such as income, education, culture etc. The school was located in a low-income community and the students were working-class children. This might have an effect on the students' learning abilities and developmental processes, thus, their contribution to the research process.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

2.1. Introduction

The last 30 years or so have witnessed a paradigm shift in the field of language

learning and teaching with greater emphasis being put on learners and learning rather than

teachers and teaching. The paradigm shift from behaviourist to cognitivist view has led

researchers to focus on the processes which take place in the learner's mind when she/he

learns a second language (SL) or foreign language (FL). In line with this paradigm shift,

questions about what kinds of strategies learners use to understand, learn or remember the

information in the area of SL or FL learning have gained importance (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley

& Chamot, 1990; Oxford,1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987 as cited in Alhaisoni, 2012). With the

increase in the learners themselves, "the idea that language learners are individuals who can

take charge of their own learning and achieve autonomy by the use of strategies" (Griffiths,

2004, p. 10) has been promoted by educators such as Oxford (1990), O'Malley and Chamot

(1990), Bialystok (1991), Cohen (1991), Wenden (1991), and Green and Oxford (1995) as an

alternative to teacher dependency and initiated new research in the field of strategy training.

In order to have a clear understanding of the concept of LLS, taking a glance at the

definition of LLSs is needed. Many researchers and scholars have defined LLSs from

different points of view. The next section aims to shed some light on our understanding of

LLS.

2.2. Language Learning Strategies

2.2.1. Definition of language learning strategies. LLSs have been a topical field in

language learning since 1970s (Rubin, 1975; Savignon, 1972; Stern, 1975). Researchers

addressed the issue by dealing with the role of strategies in language acquisition, the

relationship between LLS and other individual traits, and the impact of strategy instruction.

The 1980's to mid-1990s posed a period of 'definitional literature' focusing on what constitutes a learning strategy and various definitions offered through a wide range of terms such as techniques, tactics, learning behaviours, steps, operations to refer to LLS. Since then no strong consensus has been reached in the literature. Terminology also brings into question the construction of 'Language Learning Strategy' which lacks unanimity that some researchers use the term 'learning strategies' (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), others use 'learner strategies' (Wenden & Rubin, 1987), whilst the others 'language learning strategies' (Oxford, 1990). As it was noted by Ellis (1994, p. 533) that "definition of learning strategies has tended to be ad hoc and atheoretical".

Rubin (1975, p. 533) defined learning strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge." O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 1) made another definition by highlighting cognitive aspects of strategy use, according to which these strategies involved "special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information". Oxford (1990) went one step further and in addition to cognitive aspect she included emotional and social aspects of LLS that enhance learners' language learning proficiency and self-confidence. She defined strategies as "behaviours or specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more efficient, and more transferrable to new situations" (p.8). Cohen (1998) added a further dimension to the definition of LLS, the element of choice. He considers 'conscious choice' as an essential feature of LLS in distinguishing strategic activities from other kinds of learning activities.

A framework of definitions can be provided considering two components, which are "element – refers to features and characteristics of strategy and purpose – refers to reason why the said strategy is used" (Mat Teh, 2013, p. 19). Several definitions of LLS can be seen in Table 1. It is cleary seen in the definitions that while the most frequently mentioned elements

include "actions, thoughts, operations, and planning", the purposes include "to facilitate learning and information processing, and improving language skills and achievement" (Mat Teh, 2013, p. 19).

Table 1

Language learning strategies definitions (Mat Teh, 2013, p. 19)

Researcher	Element	Purpose
Rubin (1975)	"Technique or planning"	"To acquire knowledge."
Bialystok (1978)	"Conscious methods/efforts"	"To exploit any information that can be acquired to improve second language skills."
Chamot (1987)	"Technique, approach, and intentional action"	"To facilitate learning and recall process of both the linguistic aspect and content of any information."
O'Malley & Chamot (1990)	"Specific thought or and behavior"	"To facilitate understanding, learning and retention of new knowledge."
Oxford (1990)	"Specific action"	"To make learning easier, faster, and more fun in the form of self-access, more effective, and more adaptable to new situations."
Nunan (1999)	"Mental and communicative procedure"	"To learn and use language."
Cohen (1999)	"Learning process chosen or carried out consciously"	"To improve learning or usage of target language through storage, retention, recall and application of information."

2.2.2. Classification of language learning strategies. Considerable research interest in LLS originated from the framework of learning strategies used by successful (good) language learners. The researchers (Naiman et al., 1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975) recognized lists of learning strategies applied by successful language learners. Other than the definition of LLS, variety of schemes accounting on them have arisen in language learning strategy system. Researchers have come up with different types of classifications, most of which reflect more or less the same categorization with their own rationales. Some of the most well-known taxonomies are Rubin's (1975), O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) and Oxford's (1990). In the next section some brief information about these taxonomies will be given.

2.2.2.1. Rubin's classification of language learning strategies. Being one of the pioneers in the field of LLS, Rubin (1981) made a distinction between processes which contribute directly to learning, and processes which contribute indirectly to learning. According to her classification, direct strategies related to cognitive processes include six types "(clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, practice)", and indirect strategies related to communicative processes include two types "(creating opportunities for practice, production tricks)" (p. 124-126).

2.2.2.2. O'Malley and Chamot's classification of language learning strategies. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) proposed a taxonomy including cognitive, meta-cognitive and socio-affective strategies. Metacognitive strategies involve "knowledge about learning and control or regulation over learning" (p. 105) and include the strategies of "planning, monitoring and evaluating" (p. 119). Researchers declared meta-cognitive strategies as the most favoured strategies because students who do not apply metacognitive approach lack the ability to review and control their own learning process.

Cognitive strategies which are related to both specific learning tasks and learning material itself include "repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, elaboration, contextualization, auditory representation, transfer, key word method, note taking etc." (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 119, 120). Socio-affective strategies involve interaction with another person, for example, when questioning for clarification or cooperating with others in order to solve a problem.

2.2.2.3. Oxford's classification of language learning strategies. Often cited and probably the most appreciated taxonomy was developed by Oxford (1990) and proposed two main categories as direct and indirect strategies which are further divided into six strategy groups: "memory, cognitive and compensation under the direct class" and "metacognitive, affective and social under the indirect class" (p. 14). According to Oxford, direct strategies are more directly associated with the language itself in the sense that they require mental processing of the language, whereas indirect strategies support language learning process internally without directly involving the target language (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Oxford, 1990).

Regarding direct strategies, memory strategies are mental processes used by the learners to internalize new information and retrieve them, for example, when "creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, reviewing well and employing action". Cognitive strategies such as "practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output" enable learners to manipulate the language material. Compensation strategies are used by the learners to understand the language and use it in speaking or writing despite their incompetence in the target language. They help learners to keep the communication going by "guessing intelligently from the context, using circumlocution, synonyms, gestures to overcome limitations in speaking and writing" (Oxford, 1990, p. 17).

As to indirect strategies, metacognitive strategies allow learners to control their own learning processes and include three strategy sets such as "centering your learning, arranging and planning your learning, and evaluating your learning". They have significant effect on successful language learning by providing a way for organizing L2 materials, setting goals and objectives, planning for a language task, self-monitoring and self evaluating. Affective strategies help learners identify and manage their affective traits associated with learning. Language learners can gain control over their emotions, motivation, values and attitudes by "lowering their anxiety, encouraging themselves, and taking emotional temperature". Social strategies facilitate language learning by communicating with others. Since language learning as a social behavior involve other people, it is important to employ appropriate social strategies such as "asking questions, cooperating and empathizing with others" (Oxford, 1990, p. 17). Oxford (1990) regards the interrelationship between direct and indirect strategies as a fundamental factor for better application of LLSs.

Moreover, it is worth mentioning here that a certain amount of overlapping may well be noticed in any suggested classification for learning strategies. For example,

…metacognitive self-assessment and planning often require reasoning, which is itself a cognitive strategy. Likewise, the compensation strategy of guessing, clearly used to make up for missing knowledge, also requires reasoning, as well as involving sociocultural sensitivity typically gained through social strategies (Oxford, 1990, p.16).

As stated by Cohen's (1998, p. 12) words, "the distinctions are not so clear-cut", because the same strategy may function at different levels of abstraction. Although they are given different labels, the categories are used by researchers as framework to identify the strategies employed for learning and using different language skills.

Although there has been a growing tendency in LLS research to identify the LLS of adults and adolescents, different contexts and age groups remained a neglected area as strategy taxonomies and inventories developed so far involved the older groups mostly in ESL contexts. Gürsoy's (2013) taxonomy appears from the literature as the one developed specifically for children in EFL context. The literature provides some examples of inventories used for the data collection from children such as Children's SILL (Gunning, 1997), Taiwanese Children's SILL (Lan & Oxford, 2003), but they were all adapted versions of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990), which is used widely for adults and adolescents.

2.2.2.4. Children's inventory for language learning strategies (CHILLS). Gürsoy (2013) proposed an inventory specific to children with the purpose of providing a more practical, reliable, and valid way to identify children's LLS. In many ways the inventory was a unique contribution to the literature as it was developed based on the data collected from children in an EFL context with the focus on all language skills and strategy groups. The inventory's items were generated via data triangulation not through literature review. The CHILLS was categorized into four factors, which is different from adult's SILL with six factors. "The first factor consists of strategies for general study habits; second factor includes strategies to improve language learning. Third factor is composed of strategies to facilitate the reception and production of the language. Fourth factor consists of strategies one use to consolidate knowledge in the target language" (Güsoy, 2013, p. 28). She regards her contribution as a call for other scholars to conduct studies on children in other contexts with different L1 and cultural backgrounds.

The lack of consensus on categorization of LLS can be attributed to defining LLS, to distinguish between LLS and to different criteria that the researchers applied in their

classifications. The literature also reveals a further problem with the learning vs. use distinction.

2.2.3. Language learning vs. language use strategies. The distinction between language learning and language use strategies has been somewhat a tangled argument within LLS research. Researchers have questioned the effect of language use strategies on the learning process. Some researchers (Brown, 1980; Ellis, 1986; Rubin, 1981; Selinker, 1972) draw a clear distinction between them by the claim that language use strategies do not contribute directly to the learning process as their use are stimulated by the learners' desire to communicate rather than learning; however, others find such a simplistic dichotomy unsustainable (Oxford, 1990; Stern, 1992; Tarone, 1980, 1981) by supporting the view that CS potentially affect the learning, that is, even if a strategy is used for communication purposes, learning may take place in anyway. It might be almost impossible to determine what motivates a learner as learners may use them both to learn and communicate (Brown, 1994; Ellis, 1994; Tarone, 1981).

Cohen (1996, p. 1) distinguishes between 'language learning' and 'language use' strategies and defines both sets of strategies as "the steps or actions selected by the learners to improve the learning of a foreign language, the use of a foreign language, or both". According to him "whereas language learning strategies have an explicit goal of assisting learners in improving their knowledge in a target language, language use strategies focus primarily on employing the language that learners have in their current interlanguage" (Cohen, 1996, p. 1-2).

Oxford (1990, p. 49) includes CS among learning strategies as actions taken by language learners to control and improve their own learning, and justifies this inclusion by stating that they "help learners become more fluent in what they already know [and] may lead learners to gain new information about what is appropriate or permissible in the target

language". "After all each instance of L2 use is an opportunity for more L2 learning" (Oxford, 2003, p. 14).

To Stern (1992) learning the target language combines both formal study and practice. Therefore, he regards communication strategies and learning strategies to be similar manifestations of language learner behavior. As one of the components of learning strategies, CSs are used in L2 as a tool to enhance language learning.

In addition, Tarone (1980; 1981) suggests that CS can help expand language since they assist students to express what they really want or need to say. Regardless of the correctness of the learner's output, as long as a skillful learner exploits CSs, he or she inevitably elicits more input in order to communicate, which may cause learning to take place; thus the strategies involved in the process can be considered as LS. The key point in this argument is that it is LS when there is motivation to learn the language rather than motivation to communicate which stimulates the use of the strategy. However, according to Tarone (1980) it is theoretically possible whether it is the desire to learn or to communicate which motivates the learner to use a strategy; in practice it is difficult to determine what motivates a learner. Two things could be possible: first, learners may have a dual motivation both to learn and to communicate at the same time; second, the desire to communicate brings about learning incidentally.

Brown (1980), Ellis (1986) and Selinker (1972) support the distinction between language learning and language use strategies and they (Brown, 1994; Ellis, 1994) find it almost impossible to recognize whether a strategy is used because of a desire to communicate or to learn.

Based on the previous account of language learning and language use strategies, giving a clear image of the relationship between them is a challenging task. It is uncertain from the learning side that we do not know for sure whether the learners' desire is to learn or

to communicate. As it is stated by Cohen (1996) "Taken together, they constitute the steps or actions selected by learners either to improve the learning of a second language, the use of it, or both" (p.2). Therefore, taking into account the broader area of LLSs, all elements in this study will include the strategies which help the learners solve their potential communication problems and increase their ability in using the language.

2.2.4. The role of language learning strategies. Although there is no consensus on the definition and classification of LLSs, the literature provides evidence of the unquestionable role of LLSs in effective and successful language learning. The fact that some language learners are more successful than others in their language learning can be based on the effective use of LLSs. Oxford (1990, p. 1) stated that "….strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Appropriate language learning strategies result in improved proficiency and greater confidence." Her explanation accounts for the fact that LLSs help learners become more self-directed and independent learners, and develop communicative competence which is considered as the main goal for many language learners.

Fedderholdt (1997) says that those language learners who make use of various LLSs properly can make a better progress in their language skills. Developing skills through strategies such as metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective areas can help language learners develop learner independence and autonomy through which they can keep their learning under control.

As mentioned in the definition made by Hsaio and Oxford (2002) 'learner autonomy' means learners' willingness and ability to have more responsibility for their own learning. Learner autonomy makes it possible for them to accomplish various learning tasks. And at the same time, it provides flexibility to transfer strategies to novel learning tasks. In this sense,

the general observation that certain learners are more effective strategy users than others suggest the existence of "some sort of a trait-like strategic potential" that they put into improving their own learning (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 163).

The more learners are active participants in their own learning, the more they become efficient and positive in their approach to learning. Hedge regards such an approach towards learning as

> a set of procedures or activities which raise learners' awareness of what is involved in the process of learning a second language, which encourage learners to become more involved in and responsible for their own learning, and which help learners to develop and strengthen their strategies for language learning (Hedge, 1993, p.92).

In addition to developing learners' autonomy, LLSs are important because research suggests that LLSs contribute to the desired outcome of language learning and the ability to communicate competently. 'Communicative competence' was defined by Hymes (1972, p. 282) not only as "(tacit) knowledge", but also as "(the ability for) use" in order to convey and interpret meaning. It was later divided by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) into

> grammatical competence (which refers to a learner's knowledge of the vocabulary, phonology and rules of the language), discourse competence (which relates to a learner's ability to connect utterances into a meaningful whole), sociolinguistic competence (which relates to a learner's ability to use language appropriately) and strategic competence (which relates to a learner's ability to employ strategies to compensate for imperfect knowledge) (as cited in Griffiths, 2013, p. 140).

Within the context of this study, the focus will be on strategic competence which is considered as a key element in communicative success. It is obvious that the development of communicative competence requires learners to interact with each other in the target language. However, they may find difficulties in taking part in the conversations because

being in a situation where they lack the appropriate words at their disposition at the right time is difficult for them. Therefore, promoting learners' strategic competence appears as the best way to help them overcome these unexpected obstacles or problems in communication, and manipulate a conversation and negotiate interaction in an effective way. Moreover, strategic competence contributes to the activation of the knowledge of other competences (Canale & Swain, 1980) that it also results in the development of the overall communicative competence (Mariani, 1994), which is the main aim of language teaching.

Regarding the fact that LLSs operate in both general and specific ways to support the development of communicative competence (Oxford, 1990), the following conclusion can be drawn from the above discussion: If learners use strategies appropriately and efficiently, they can learn by themselves and self-examine their own progress, which gradually results in boosted self-confidence. Therefore, having proper LSSs help learners improve themselves and enhance their abilities of language, as reflected in the learner's skills in listening, speaking, reading, or writing. Taking into consideration the language skills, the focal point for this study will be strategic competence as it is the anchor point by which students can develop their communicative competence, specifically their speaking skill.

2.3. Speaking Skill

Speaking as an interactive process of constructing meaning (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000) requires "simultaneous interaction of producing and processing spoken discourse under time constrains" (Martinez-Flor, Uso-Juan & Soler, 2006, p.139). It takes place in the presence of a listener because listener responds to the speaker's communication. As Byrne (1986, p. 8) defines "oral communication is a two-way process between the speaker and the listener and involves the productive skills of speaking and the receptive skills of understanding". Among the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) speaking is viewed to be at the heart of second language learning (Egan, 1999).

According to Ur (1996, p. 120) speaking is considered as the most important skill because "people who know a language are referred to as speakers of that language", which indicates that using a language is more important than just knowing about it. This is precisely the point that "there is no point knowing a lot about language if you cannot use it" (Scriener, 2005, p. 146). As cited by Brown (2000) successful oral communication in the target language serves as a display of successful language acquisition.

When the development of oral language acquisition considered, it is easily seen that it is "a natural process, heavily influenced by home literacy and preschool experiences" (Nyman, 2009, p. 10). Since children have innate abilities to hear and speak, they progressively work through the rules of the language on their own. Development of the language rules takes place as children hear and practice correct spoken language used in their environment (Nyman, 2009).

In this sense, speaking fluency appears to develop with increased exposure to language input. In spite of the generally agreed belief that input is very crucial for language acquisition, it is not sufficient unless it is not followed by interaction and output, because the processing of comprehension differs from the processing of production. That is, mere ability to understand the meaning conveyed by sentences does not make it possible to express it. When input is negotiated and children produce output in interaction, they find the right way in a linguistic system to express themselves (Swain, 1985 as cited in Zhang, 2009).

With regard to foreign language learning, communication is a challenge for young learners because they have limited lexical and grammatical knowledge. The reason behind this is that they rarely encounter target language in or outside school in EFL settings (Cameron, 2001). They frequently rely on adults to manage conversation for them (Scarcella & Higa, 1981). If they are away from an adult partner, they have problems in the process of communication both as a speaker and listener. The ability to take full responsibility to

communicate independently requires both understanding and expressing utterances, and grows with age gradually. However, it does not mean that such growth will automatically lead to perfection in performance and skills. Excellence in this field may need some more efforts. As Zhang and Kortner, (1995) indicated speaking can be more effective with particular attention and continual practice.

The nature of children's interactional patterns in second or foreign languages have been examined by the studies in different contexts (e.g., Ellis & Heimbach, 1997; Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Mackey et.al., 2003; Oliver, 1998; 2000; 2002; Van den Branden, 1997 as cited in Pinter, 2007) so as to understand their ability to manage interactional processes that contribute to acquisition. Generally, the findings from these studies indicate that the way children manage their interactions is partially different from the way adults do. For instance, Oliver (1998; 2002) reached the conclusion that there were considerable differences between children (8-13 year of age) and adults in their application of negotiation strategies, i.e. children are rather behind adults in using comprehension checks. She also found that although the same sort of strategies is used by children and adults, they differ from each other in rates. Oliver's view over this is that "possibly because of their level of development and their purported egocentric nature, primary school children tend to focus on constructing their own meaning, and less on facilitating their partners' construction of meaning" (Oliver, 1998: 379).

Of the conclusions about children between the ages 8-13 point out that despite some resemblance in patterns of thinking and talking in many ways, they may "share some of the vulnerabilities of younger children" (Garbarino & Scott, 1992, p. 65). Research studies conducted by (Clark, 1978; Halliday, 1975; Karmiloff-Smith, 1992; Romaine, 1984) suggest that "10-11-year-old children still show some weaknesses as conversational partners. ….. For example, 10-year-olds' ability to talk coherently and explicitly without the immediate support of the context is still developing" (Pinter, 2006, p. 617). Menyuk and Brisk (2005, p. 120)

suggest that 9-10-year-old children's "conversational interaction is still far from being lengthy or fully responsive to what has been said previously".

Besides such developmental reasons, there are certainly many variables that cause difficulty in speaking such as children's affective states, their parental attitudes, curriculum, teaching environment, language context, and impractical teaching methods, materials, techniques etc. As one of these factors that contributes to the existence of such difficulties, teaching methods and materials need careful consideration, because classroom environment is a place where the development of strategies is mediated in effective ways (Coyle, 2007; Donato & McCormic, 1994). Although spoken form of the language in young learners' classroom acts as a prime source of language learning, communicative use of the language has been almost neglected.

In consideration of the 2005 curriculum revision which adopts a communicative view to ELT, there have been many objectives which must be recognized in practice including various types of syllabi, selection of appropriate teaching materials, principles of a constructivist approach with a learner and learning centered classroom, and process oriented instructional approach with a number of interactional activities (Ministry of National Education [MoNE], 2006). Even the curriculum provided opportunities to involve learners in speaking the central examination system left teachers no choice but to miss speaking opportunities and to teach the form of the language through grammar and vocabulary-oriented tasks focusing mostly on reading and writing skills.

However, with the latest English language teaching programme (ELTP, 2013) many changes are strongly based on the development of communicative competence in English. The main emphasis is given to listening and speaking skills over reading and writing skills, which are introduced at the third grade. The well-recognized fact that directs the curriculum designers to put emphasis on oral skills is that most students in Turkey graduate from schools

without the ability to engage in successful communication in the target language. For this reason, it has become necessary to focus on how LLSs can help them learn language more effectively, which would lead them to take charge of their own learning and become autonomous. That is, such developmental sequence brings into question Rivers' (1983, p. 134) idea of "any learning is an active process". Since the behaviour and the thought process of the learner is the key to success (Rubin & Tamson, 1982), the learning environment acts as important instance to get them closer to develop strategic behaviors. As stated by Coyle (2007, p. 65) the students' strategic behavior develops through "the classroom culture, scaffolded learning and the creation of learning opportunities".

2.4. The Development of Strategic Behavior

Providing a context where effective language teaching and learning can take place requires taking into consideration the psychological background of language learning. The idea that learning is an active process may be best explained through the cognitive view of learning.

According to the cognitive model, the learners are not seen as empty vessels to be filled with knowledge any more, instead they are active participants in the learning process, whose roles are to interact with the input and reconstruct it for themselves. In relation to the Anderson's framework (1976; 1983; 1985), Chamot and O'Malley states that "learners select information from the environment, organize the information, relate it to what they already know, retain what they consider to be important and use the information in appropriate context, and reflect on the success of their learning efforts" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994, p. 13). Therefore, learning is now supposed to rely on both the presented input as well as the learners' own processing of that input. In this model, learning strategies are considered to be special thoughts or behaviours of a learner intending to influence how the learner processes information.

In his Adaptive Control of Thought Model (ACT), Anderson (1976; 1983; 1985) introduced the concept of two types of knowledge: declarative knowledge - with the question of what we know about and procedural knowledge - with the question of how to do. The former one is acquired most effectively by linking new information to existing one, the latter is learned more effectively through ample practice. Further, in relation to the procedural knowledge, learning strategies are represented within Anderson's model as complex cognitive skills, which go through cognitive, associative and autonomous stages of learning and results in acquisition.

Anderson's model also provided a theoretical impetus for the roles of learning strategies in language learning. For example, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) discussed the contribution of learning strategies to L2 acquisition within a theoretical framework underpinned by ACT model and other cognitive theories. They suggest that strategies have a prominent role in the cognitive processes as they represent the dynamic mechanisms underlying thinking and learning processes. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), strategy knowledge moves from *being declarative* through formal instruction to *being procedural* through practice. Moreover, they illustrate LSSs not only as mental processes but also as socio-affective processes by putting stress on learner interaction with the language to foster acquisition. In this sense, it will be reasonable to assume that learning cannot only be realized through cognitive learning theory. Why strategies work and how they are taught can be explained by also social-interactionist perspective.

Social interactionists claim the existence of a link between learning and social interaction, and they argue that what goes on in the course of learning process cannot be explained only by an understanding of how human mind works itself. It is because "all learning is seen as first social, then individual" (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2013, p. 248-249).

An important representative of this approach is Lev Vygotsky. The core of his theory is the concept of mediation which refers to the part played by physical or symbolic tools and other significant people in the course of shared processes (Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2013). From this point of view, "language is seen as the prime symbolic tool available for the mediation", through which learning can take place (Li, 2017, p. 20). Within the mediational concept, scaffolding is used to explain the role of adults in the developmental process and often associated with the key construct of 'Zone of Proximal Development' (ZPD). According to the theory, the ZPD "represents the difference between what a child can do with assistance and what he or she is able to do without it" (Levine, 1996, p. 306).

> Vygotsky (1978) has argued powerfully that the social process by which learning occurs creates a bridge that spans the learners' ZPD. …the presence of an 'expert knower', such as a parent or a teacher, is vital to helping the learner develop his or her own ZPD. One cannot be capable of independent functioning but can achieve the desired outcome given the relevant 'scaffolded help' offered by other people (Li, 1997, p. 20).

From his point of view, learning, instruction and development are inseparably connected. Vygotsky advocates that ZPD is jointly determined by the child's level of development and the form of instruction involved. Good instruction should proceed within the ZPD by taking into account not only what already has been achieved developmentally but also what is in the course of maturing. In this regard, providing a learning environment is important in which the instruction aims at mainly developing functions instead of developed ones (Shayer, 2002 as cited in Turuk, 2008).

Following the line of Vygotsky, as strategies are both related to individual cognitive processes and socially-mediated activities, this study is also grounded on sociocultural learning theory which suggests that learners can reach a level of maturity in their thinking via

observing how teachers and other experts manage learning tasks, and by practicing expert processes with the aid of coaching from teachers.

2.5. Language Learning Strategy Training

Research regarding LLSs had a big didactic direction from its very beginning because through the studies identifying the characteristics, appropriate approaches and techniques which are valid for good language learners were somehow found transferable for the less successful learners. In this way, they are able to make progress in the target language. It was connected with pedagogy because conclusions of LLSs were ostensibly fruitful for both teachers and learners and they provided them with a steppingstone in teaching and learning the target language to accelerate their learning process. In spite of all confusing points regarding theoretical basis and classification of strategies, strategy training always keeps its importance.

Bearing in mind Nunan's recommendation that "…language classrooms should have a dual focus, not only teaching language content but also developing learning processes as well" (1996, p. 41), a number of methodological issues arising from strategy training research is needed to be taken into consideration to have better insights about the concept of strategy training: Teachability issue, the explicitness of training, its integration in the language curriculum, the language of instruction, factors affecting strategy training and models for LLSs instruction.

2.5.1. The rationale for teaching language learning strategies. LLSs play a key role in language learning because "they provide means by which students can facilitate the acquisition of language material" (Gardner & Maclntyre, 1992, p. 219). The use of LLSs not only facilitates learning but also accelerates it, when the learners discover how and when to apply them appropriately with the tasks. "If learners have a well-functioning repertoire, then these strategies will facilitate the language learning process by promoting successful and

efficient completion of language learning tasks, as well as by allowing the learners to develop their own individualized approaches to learning" (Cohen, 2003, p. 280). According to Kinoshita (2003, p. 1), it is important "to raise learner awareness of learning strategies and provide learners with systematic practice, reinforcement and self-monitoring of their strategy use while attending to language learning activities", which is possible by instruction.

The underlying assumption of strategy instruction shows how important LLSs are: If learners become aware of the ways in which they know 'how', 'when' and 'why' to use language learning strategies, and the ways in which they can evaluate and monitor their own learning (Cohen, 1996), then they can take a more active role in their language learning processes. In becoming more active agents in the learning process, they can become "more responsible for their efforts in learning and using the target language" (Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1996, p. 4). This reactive approach may provide "a positive backwash effect on motivation levels, self-efficacy, learner autonomy, transfer skills and language proficiency" (Kinoshita, 2003, p. 1). Çakıcı (2015, p. 32) highlights the importance of being active agents in the learning process in this way:

> Learner autonomy grows out of the individual learner's acceptance of responsibility for his/her own learning. This means that learner autonomy is a matter of explicit or conscious intention: one cannot accept responsibility for her/his own learning unless s/he has some idea of what, why, and how s/he tries to learn.

Such rationale requires a level of awareness on the part of the learner, which can be promoted through training by which the focus can be shifted from teaching to learning, thus from teacher to the learner. In that sense, LLSs and their training appear as a way to foster learner autonomy, as such training provides learners with a ground where they may decide on their learning goals, actively take part in their learning processes and reflect on their own

weaknesses and strengths, and select and use learning strategies appropriately for the sake of their own learning.

The benefits of supporting language learners in being more strategic learners have been widely recognized among scholars (Chamot & Rubin, 1994; Cohen, 2003; Goh, 2008; Goh & Taib, 2006; Cohen et.al., 1996; Oxford, 1990; Macaro, 2006). Many claims have been made about the benefits of strategy training and the most frequently reported ones have included skill-specific improvements, increased metacognitive awareness as well as increased frequency and variety of strategy use (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, Carbonaro, Robbins, 1993; Cohen et al., 1996; Dadour & Robbins, 1996; Koşar & Bedir, 2014; Nakatani, 2005; Nunan, 1996, 1997; Sarafianou & Gavriilidou, 2015; Thompson & Rubin, 1996). Although there is a general consensus that it can be effective under the right conditions and form, there have been cases questioning the possibility and the effectiveness of strategy training (Dörnyei, 2005; Rees-Miller, 1993; Vann & Abraham, 1990). Therefore, discussions on LLS 'teachability' and the 'proper approach' to its introduction have been generated.

2.5.2. Teachability of language learning strategies. From the view point of cognitive language learning, although LLSs are considered as teachable (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), there have been several concerns regarding its possibility (Rees-Miller, 1993, 1994). Regarding the previous research results concerning possible benefits of strategy training, a major claim has come up that they can be taught (see, Chamot & Rubin, 1994; Cohen, 1996; Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Grifiiths & Par, 2001; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990), even though there have been unfavourable results (O'Malley et al., 1985a, 1985b; O'Malley, 1987; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985 as cited in Oxford & Leaver, 1996).

Oxford (1990) claims that strategy instruction should be an integral part of daily lessons as it help students become better learners. She also cites growing evidence that strategy instruction can be valuable to many language learners as it helps to enhance students'

language learning outcomes. Similarly, Chamot and Kupper (1989), Chamot and O'Malley (1994) pointed out the fact that strategy instruction helps learners become better learners, independent and confident learners, and more motivated as they begin to understand the relationship between their use of strategies and success in learning languages. Cohen (1998) stresses the need for strategy training and emphasizes the fact that strategy instruction empowers students by allowing them to take the control of their learning process. By referring to the ample evidence existing in literature, Chen (2007, p. 20) points out "the need for strategy training in response to the lack of students' awareness of the cognitive tools and strategies available to them."

However, despite relatively greater interest in the applicability of strategy training, others have expressed dissatisfaction with research in strategy training evaluation. Rees-Miller (1993, p. 679), for instance, associates all practical attempts to train learners on LLSs to only a limited success, and claims that "success in language learning may be more complex than such an approach would suggest". By giving details of less than totally successful attempts at learner training to support her claim through the studies (O'Malley et.al., 1985; O' Malley, 1987; Wenden, 1987c as cited in Rees-Miller, 1993), she supports the need for longitudinal empirical research to determine the relative effects of multiple variables "e.g., cultural differences, age, educational background of students, students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning, varying cognitive styles" rather than focusing on a single variable or aspect of strategy training (Rees- Miller, 1993, p. 679). This view is also supported by Gu (1996) who criticizes the studies involving the frequency of strategy use. Gu (1996) regards this narrow focus as inadequate and advocates the idea of "focusing on specific aspects of language learning task and their corresponding strategies along contextual and cultursal dimensions" (p. 23).

To clarify the issue for the scope of this study, there is also a need for the consideration in teaching of communication strategies. The next section deals with the issue of the teachability of the CSs.

2.5.3. Teachability of communication strategies. The teachability of CSs has been a controversial issue in the field which includes different arguments for or against CS instruction. Two distinct positions can be recognized on the bases of studies dealing with CS instruction. The researchers who hold the view against teaching of CSs claim that CSs can be acquired through experience of using a language (Bialystok, 1990; Bialystok & Kellerman, 1987; Kellerman, 1991). They have questioned the effectiveness of such training by supporting the view that L2 speakers have already developed their strategic competence in their L1 and they will gradually transfer them into their L2 with meaningful practice. For example, Bialystok (1990) claimed that:

> The more language the learners know, the more possibilities exist for the system to be flexible and to adjust itself to meet the demands of the learner. What one must teach students of a language is not strategy, but language (p. 147).

Furthermore, Kallerman (1991, p. 158) pointed out that "There is no justification for providing training of compensatory strategies in the classroom… Teach the learners more language and let the strategies look for themselves". According to Faucette (2001) these ideas arise from the studies that focus on the cognitive processes involved in CS rather than performance.

On the other hand, some researchers have explicitly favoured CS training by putting forward arguments for the reasons of training students in the use of CS. The following arguments from the point of their views clearly explain why classroom practice should include CS training.

1. CS training is important for the development of strategic competence which is part of the learner´s communicative competence. Dörnyei and Thurrell (1991), Tarone (1983) and Willems (1987) strongly support the importance of strategic competence with the claim that the development of CS use should be aimed in L2 teaching so that the learners can become more aware of how to use such strategies for more successful communication. According to Tarone (1983, p. 123), each component of communicative competence should have a place in foreign language teaching because "a student who has failed to develop competence in any of these components cannot truly be said to be proficient in the foreign language". The prime hypothesis in language teaching is that even if the strategies are very well known and implemented, good results are not obtained unless the learner's attention is drawn to this special component of his/her communicative competence. As cited by Tarone (1983, p. 124) "Students not only need instruction and practice in the overall skill of conveying information using the target language; they also need instruction and practice in the use of communication strategies to solve problems encountered in the process of conveying information". Therefore, learners should be trained in the use of CSs.

2. CS training help learners become more aware of the strategies that they already use in L1, thus transfer L1 skills. This issue is based on the ground that "even if learners already have communication strategies in L1 or the target language, they may not use them often enough, appropriately, efficiently, and spontaneously in the L2" (Faucette, 2001, p. 5). No doubt that certain strategies used by an L2 speaker can be transferred from his/her L1; however, learners' tendency to transfer can be affected by how they think that their mother tongue is similar to the target language, according to Paribakht (1985). She takes the perceived distance between L1 and L2 into account to explain the learners CS use and states that "learners' awareness of the large distance between L1 and L2 may reduce their tendency to depend on L1-based CS simply because they assume that these will not work (Paribakht,

1985, p. 140). Willems (1987, p. 351), even though he accepts that L2 speakers have a tendency to use Cs that they have naturally developed in their L1, favours CS training by pointing out the existence of important individual differences because "not every learner is equally adept in using CmS or, for that matter, commands the same range of CmS". Therefore, learners' attention should be brought to strategies they may already make use of in the L1 so that they become aware of this strategy use and utilize them in L2.

     3. CSs bridge the gap between classroom and real-life communication. Faerch and Kasper (1986) point out the existence of "an inevitable gap between what learners are taught and what they need in present and future non-educational situations" (Faerch & Kasper, 1986, p. 179). It seems right to say that their thought provides justification for CS instruction to help learners overcome their communication problems in real life situations. According to Faerch and Kasper ". . . by learning how to use communication strategies appropriately, learners will be more able to bridge the gap between pedagogic and non-pedagogic communicative situations" (1983, p. 56). Likewise, Willems (1987) explains such benefit in the following way:

> The learner will be in need of language to express himself as he would in non-pedagogic situations. He will need to be able to use his innate strategic and discourse competence. He will be in need of some basic awareness of what happens in face-to-face interaction and may benefit from instruction about communication strategies (p. 351).

     4. CSs are important for contributing to the student´s security, self-confidence and motivation to communicate. Another claim in support of CS instruction is that such training may contribute to the development of sense of security and self-confidence which also result in high level of motivation when attempting to communicate in the L2 (Schmitt, 2013;

Willems, 1987). By addressing the traditional foreign language teaching, CS instructional

practices have been suggested by Willems (1987). He contends that:

> Especially for those learners who in traditional teaching do not reach the so-called
> "threshold level" it is important to develop a strategic competence in order to "get by"
> later on. A side effect of introducing a certain amount of attention to CmS will be that
> weaker learners will derive some motivation for learning the L2 as they will develop a
> feeling of at least being able to do something with the language (Willems, 1987, p.
> 352)

Regarding the specific characteristics of EFL context that learners do not have many

opportunities to use language outside the classroom, classroom environment appears as a

place providing practices and chances for CS acquisition. Therefore, the role of classroom

should not be denied. Although the opportunities to use FL in the classrooms are generally

limited, and gaining proficiency or competence is a long and difficult process, good language

learners can make use of their classroom learning to develop their knowledge of CSs through

instruction. Teachers should make learners aware of their existing strategy behaviour and

teach them how to use it most appropriately and effectively.

2.5.4. Factors contributing to the existence of CS teachability controversy.

Regarding the contradictory views on teachability of the CSs, Dörnyei (1995) proposes three

reasons that may lead to arguments for and against the issue:

1. "Arguments based on indirect evidence,

2. Variation within CSs with regard to their teachability,

3. A variety of interpretations in the notion of teaching" (p. 61).

Dörnyei (1995) claims that there is little research investigating systematic strategy

training. He thinks that conclusions drawn from research based on CS training are subject to

criticism as they present 'indirect' or 'inconclusive' evidence either against, or in favour of

CS teachability. Furthermore, he does not consider these studies to be generalizable as they are too narrow in scope regarding strategy selection, or number of participants. Furthermore, the studies investigating the controversy that exists over the CS teachability often vary in the range of strategies included as a focus. In this regard, the studies involving the training of some strategies (e.g., message abondenment, topic avoidance) provide evidence against CS training, as they do not encourage learners to deal with difficulties in communication. On the other hand, the studies involving the training of some strategies (e.g., circumlocution or appeal for help) provide evidence in favour of CS training, as they encourage learners to communicate the intended message. According to Dörnyei (1995), the notion of teaching itself is too broad and "some of the teachability controversy stems from the different interpretations of what teaching involves" (p.63).

2.5.5. Related studies as evidence. Regarding the belief that LLSs can be taught and learners can benefit from it, various intervention studies have been conducted by the researchers to support the idea in one way or another. Therefore, as evidence, it is necessary to demonstrate some of the findings from strategy training studies which remain small in the literature.

The study conducted by Dörnyei (1995) revealed positive effects of strategy training on 109 Hungarian secondary students in using three compensatory CSs, namely, avoidance, circumlocution and pause fillers. The scores in post-test showed that the students in experimental group employed circumlocution more effectively in expressing their ideas and used a greater frequency of pause fillers and circumlocution than the control groups. His study made contribution to the view that instruction may alter students' frequency and quality of strategy use.

Dadour and Robbins (1996) investigated the effectiveness of strategy instruction in oral communication classes for Egyptian EFL university students with explicit instruction in

using strategies. The study showed a significant effect on the experimental group's speaking performance as well as their frequency of strategy use. Their results support the studies on the teachability issue.

Bejarano, Levine, Olshtain and Steiner's (1997) examined whether training in interaction strategies increased the quality of communication amongst foreign language learners working together in small groups. They indicated that although the training did not reveal a statistically significant effect on overall participation, the change in the quality of participation in the experimental group was significantly more interactive as a result of the training. Their results were significant particularly in regard to the increased use of both Modified-Interaction and Social-Interaction Strategies by students in the experimental group.

Cohen, Weaver and Li (1996) investigated the effectiveness of explicit strategy instruction in foreign language classroom. They attributed the superior results of the experimental group in overall speaking performance to the use of strategies, specifically on the city description task. Their study concluded that if strategies are introduced and reinforced systematically, strategy instruction helps students speak the target language more effectively with an increase in the use of certain strategies.

Nakatani (2005) focused on awareness-raising training in oral communication strategy (OCS) use and examined the participants' current patterns of OCS use, to what degree these strategies can be taught explicitly, and the extent to which strategy use can lead to improvements in oral communication ability. The findings revealed that the experimental group significantly improved their oral proficiency test scores and confirmed that the participants' success was partly due to an increased general awareness of OCSs and to the use of specific OCSs, such as maintenance of fluency and negotiation of meaning to solve interactional difficulties. With this study, Nakatani suggests that EFL learners should consciously use their interlanguage system to control their performance and to maintain

interaction, therefore; awareness-raising training is needed to develop learners' strategic competence and supervise specific strategy use.

In his study, Lam (2010) indicated that communication strategy instruction was associated with the low-proficiency students as they reported consistent increases in their frequency and variety of use of the target strategies and made greater improvements, especially in the English scores than the high-proficiency students. In general, his study indicates that strategy training seems to benefit low-proficiency students more than high-proficiency students. Regarding the findings pertinent to the low-proficiency students, his study sheds light on the implementation of strategy instruction in the junior secondary ESL oral classroom with the hope that it may help junior L2 learners to develop strategic competence as a compensatory function in the language-learning experience when their linguistic competence is inadequate.

Aykaç (2010) aimed to improve communication skills of young learners -6th graders-through LLSs (related to listening and speaking skill) and concluded that participants significantly improved their communication skills even though it was not valid for all participants. She stated the benefits of strategy training as making learners aware of specific strategies that they could use to improve their communication in English.

Teng (2012) investigated how CS instruction works in EFL classroom context. The study concluded that EFL college students employed significantly more strategies and communicated effectively after they received explicit instruction of CSs. With this study, the author has confirmed the facilitating effect of teaching CSs to EFL college students.

Koşar and Bedir (2014) examined whether explicit strategy training has an effect on improving speaking skills of adult EFL learners. After the intervention they concluded that the training group made a meaningful improvement in their speaking skill and increased their self-regulation in use of appropriate speaking strategies.

Gunning and Oxford (2014) conducted a study in the context of two 6th grade Quebec classrooms, where students study ESL by a prescribed curriculum integrating learning strategies. The aim of the study was to investigate the effects of strategy instruction and use, and the relationship between strategy use and oral interaction task success. The findings showed evidence of the positive effects of strategy instruction on the development of children's oral competency as well as enhanced awareness and strategy use.

Despite a number of studies yielding a positive impact of strategy training, there have been some studies depicting unfavourable results. For example, Salamone and Marsal (1997) provided two intermediate French classes with an experiment which aimed to investigate the effects of CS instruction. The treatment class received instruction in the use of circumlocution as well as strategies to cope with lexical difficulties. Both groups were given a written circumlocution task, and while the control group was asked to use the terms in context, the experimental group focused on explaining them. Throughout the study, the experimental group was asked to circumlocute when they did not know a lexical item, but the control group was given no such encouragement. Although learners improved the quality of their descriptions over time, the findings revealed no significant statistical differences between the two classes in written post-test. Since the tests administered in this study were written rather than oral, it threaded the validity of the study employing a written test to assess the impact of CSs for oral communication. Similar results to those of Salamone and Marsal (1997) were also provided by Scullen and Jourdain (2000).

The study conducted by Scullen and Jourdain (2000) aimed to investigate whether or not teaching specific circumlocution strategies would result in greater abilities to circumlocute. The study involved undergraduate learners studying French as a foreign language. The control group only received practice with circumlocution, while the experimental group was given explicit instruction on specific strategies to aid in

circumlocution. Though the experimental group appeared to have been more successful in circumlocution, both groups showed marked improvements in successful identification over time, which also means the experimental group did not make clear gains in the specific strategies targeted for practice.

The findings of the studies above broadly show positive effect of speaking/ communication strategy instruction on strategy use. Taking into consideration the scarcity of work on investigating the effect of oral communication strategy instruction, the brief review of studies involving adult and adolescent learners provides a good motive for studies involving young language learners. Gürsoy (2010) discusses that children learning a foreign or second language in classroom situations need learning opportunities and exposure provided by their teachers. Teachers can facilitate their learning process by learning about their current strategies and teaching new ones. Strategy use improves performance of the learners and leads them to regulate their own learning. This calls for research in strategy training involving young learners as well.

2.5.6. Proper approach for strategy instruction. In order to gain further insights into strategy instruction it is necessary to turn to a number of methodological issues before implementing a strategy-based instruction. From the early beginning of the strategy research, a good number of researchers developed models for language learning strategy instruction with the aim of helping less effective learners to enhance and control their learning. As cited by Oxford and Leaver (1996, p. 228) "one size just does not fit all". Strategy training can make LLSs available to L2 learners, however, it does not mean helping all students use the strategies instructed. Although the results of strategy training research in general show positive findings at the theoretical and practical levels, from time to time partly successful results can be recognized due to some variables affecting the quality and effectiveness of such training.

In general, the value of strategy training models lies in the fact that it provides teachers with instructional frameworks and teaching procedures as a guide through which they effectively select and teach strategies (Chamot et al., 1999). All models aim at raising learners' strategy awareness by offering a variety of LLS with their rationale, and encouraging learners to practice and evaluate strategy use (Dörnyei, 2005). Some recent strategy training models are considered in the following section.

2.5.6.1. Oxford's Model (1990). Oxford proposed an eight-step model for strategy training, which can be easily integrated to regular language learning. The first five steps of this model are used for planning and preparation, and the last three are used to involve students in conducting, evaluating and revising the training. The model is carried out in the following procedure:

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" (Oxford, 1990, p. 204)

The strategy trainer should take into consideration the learners' identity and needs as well as time available for strategy training so that the number of LLS and practice provided will be sufficient. Strategy selection should be made according to learners' determined characteristics. Strategies should be diverse, transferable to a variety of tasks, from easy to more difficult ones. The trainer should help learners to be aware of the general idea of LLSs and encourage them to choose what suits them. According to Oxford, training can be

integrated to language learning activities and integrated SBI may be preceded by a separate strategy course. Materials should be interesting, and available to practice the determined strategies as well as to discuss with the students their effectiveness, how they can be transferred to other tasks, and how to be evaluated. The overall evaluation of strategy instruction success is made by both learners and teachers in the form of self-evaluation, observation and assessment in order to follow the improvements in learning tasks, skills, attitudes, and strategy maintenance and transfer to other tasks. It would be a good idea for the trainer to revise the strategy training to have insights about the steps and learners' needs.

2.5.6.2. Grenfell and Harris's Model (1999). The Grenfell and Harris (1999) developed a model of LLSs instruction which leads the students through a cycle of six steps.

1. "Consciousness/Awareness Rising

2. Modelling

3. General Practice

4. Action Planning

5. Focused Practice

6. Evaluation" (Grenfell & Harris, 1999, p. 81)

Students are asked to complete a 'cold' task and discuss what strategies they use, and then they are encouraged to reflect on their learning. After the class discussion, the focus is directed on other strategies which still they do not know and should be introduced, modeled by the teacher. Newly introduced strategy is practiced by different tasks and activities to make it automatized. Then the students create their own action plan by setting their personal goals and deciding appropriate strategies that would work for them in various tasks. The students are provided opportunities to practice strategies to help them achieve their action plan removing teacher's explicit reminders of strategy use after a multiple and controlled practice. The students reflect on their learning, strategy acquisition and use to decide whether they

achieve their goals or not. If they do not, they try to find out why and what should be done, and plan for further action to solve the problem.

2.5.6.3. Cohen's Model-SSBI (1998). The Strategies-Based Instruction Model is a learner-centered model and combines both style stretching and strategy training in a complementary manner by making learners aware of the strategies that fit within their learning styles in order to produce more effective learners (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). In the SSBI model, the role of teacher is identified as follows:

1. "Describe, model, and give examples of potentially useful strategies

2. Elicit additional examples from students based on their own learning experiences

3. Lead small-group/whole-class discussions about strategies (e.g., reflecting on the rationale behind strategy use, planning an approach to a specific activity, and evaluating the effectiveness of chosen strategies)

4. Encourage students to experiment with a broad range of strategies

5. Integrate strategies into everyday class materials, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice" (Cohen, 2000, p. 16).

In this model, the aim is to "help learners become more responsible for their efforts to learn and use the target language. It also aims to help them become more effective learners by allowing them to individualize the language learning experience" (Cohen, 2000, p. 17).

2.5.6.4. O'Malley and Chamot's Model (1990). The CALLA (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) model is based on the Cognitive Learning Theory and focuses on explicit strategy instruction integrating content, language skills and learning strategies. It is also considered as a social-cognitive model in which;

- "The learning process is mentally active and strategic.

- Learning involves higher level thinking, not just memory.

- Social context and interaction are critical.

- Students learn content by relating it to their prior knowledge.

- Students learn processes through integrative practice individually and with peers.

- Learning strategies can be taught and learned" (Chamot & Robbins, 2006, p.7).

The sequence of instruction in the CALLA is recursive and flexible in that teachers and students can revisit the previous phases as the need arises (Chamot, 2001). The phases are as follows: (Chamot & Robbins, 2006).

1. Preparation: Teacher activates students' prior knowledge of the topic and knows learning strategies they use and their language proficiency.

2. Presentation: Teacher presents new information by using techniques which make the input comprehensible, and models, names, explains new strategy with the rationale for strategy use.

3. Practice: Teacher provides ample opportunities in which students' apply learning strategies, often in cooperative small-group sessions and encourages them in using strategies.

4. Evaluation: Students evaluate their own learning by summarizing or giving a self-talk to identify any deficiencies in their learning.

5. Expansion: Students apply what they have learned to other classes and even to activities outside class.

In summary, although the models mentioned above share differences in their instructional frameworks, they all emphasize the importance of developing metacognitive understanding of learning strategies; - facilitated by teacher's demonstration and modeling, - internalized and automatized through multiple practice, - and then being transferred to new tasks.

As for the current study, the comparison of presented models shows that the most appropriate one to be used for the purpose of this study is that of O'Malley and Chamot

(1990), as it leads itself to be more suitable for young learners. They are less experienced learners and have difficulty in being encountered with a massive attack of knowledge and competences provided only by limited instruction hours. In addition, they are not "fully aware of their own thinking and learning processes" (Hacker 1998 as cited in Rubin et.al., 2007, para. 37). Therefore, they need excessive practice opportunities and support in order to internalize LLSs which are part of procedural knowledge. In this sense, the CALLA model favouring highly explicit strategy instruction and integrating more flexibility into instructional stages allows for the alteration in accordance with students' prior knowledge and present needs.

The following chapter will present the methodology of the current study providing information in terms of research design, context, participants and research instruments of the study. The procedural steps followed during the instructional process will be provided as well.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1. Introduction

In this study, it is aimed to question the extent to which strategy instruction augmented the frequency of speaking strategy use of the 5th graders as well as their oral L2 production. Therefore, this chapter provides a methodological framework beginning with the aim of the study and research questions, followed by a detailed account of the children as research participants and the research design of the study. The description of the context where the study took place is provided with regard to the data gathered from the students' English language teacher and the students themselves and the researcher's observations, along with the demographic information about the participants. The instruments, data collection and analysis procedures together with strategy instruction procedure are also laid out in order to reason how the study was conducted and how the strategy instruction was carried out.

3.2. Aim of the Study and Research Questions

As the review of literature in Chapter 2 shows, research involving children's speaking strategies and even training of these strategies is sparse. In this sense, this study attempts to provide empirical data to make a contribution to the literature. As children are not yet fully developed cognitively and meta-cognitively as adults, their strategy use is very limited. They need to be directed and instructed for the effective and appropriate use of strategies which would aid them in learning and using the language as well as in becoming successful and autonomous language learners. This study, therefore, aims to assess the effect of speaking strategy training on the students' speaking strategy use. In order to achieve this aim, the following research questions are addressed:

1. What are the speaking strategies of 5th grade students?

a) Which speaking strategies are mostly used by 5th grade students?

b) Which speaking strategies are the least used by 5th grade students?

2. Are there any differences between the experimental group and control group in their use of speaking strategies after strategy training?

3. Is there an increase in participants' L2 production due to the use of strategies they learned?

4. What are the students' perceptions on the instructed strategies after strategy training?

3.3. Children as Research Participants

Over the past 15 years, there has been a significant interest in involving children and young people directly in social research, with many examples of research reporting their views and experiences (Morrow, 2008). Although their competence to be involved in research and to express their opinions was doubted for a long time, there is a growing concern over the research with children, which indicates that children can be competent participants in the research process by the recognition of the ways in which they communicate and facilitate their participation (Mauthner, 1997; Thomas & O'Kane, 1998). "Children, just like adults, hold their own views and perspectives, have the right to be heard, and are able to speak for themselves if the right methods are used" (Einarsdóttir, 2007, p. 199).

The research (e.g., Christensen & James, 2000; Lewis & Lindsay, 2000; Mandell, 1991; Shaw, 1996 as cited in Punch, 2002) has also brought light to debates on the extent to which research with children differs from research with adults. Although many methodological and ethical concerns that arise in doing research with children are also present when conducting research with adults, there are important differences in which such concerns present themselves more sharply when the research participants are children. The differences depend, to some extent, on children's understanding and experience of the world being different to adults, and on the different ways in which they communicate, but mostly on unequal power relationships existing between adult researcher and child participants

(Mauthner, 1997; Thomas & O'Kane, 1998). Children's limited and sometimes different use of vocabulary and making sense of words, relatively less experience of the world affect the way they see the world, different from the adults (Boyden & Ennew, 1997).

When children are involved in a research project, it is important to recognize their relationsip with the researcher regarding the differences in "age, status, competency and experience" (Einarsdottir, 2007, p. 204). They may perceive the adult as an authority figure, and consequently (Balen et al., 2000; Coyne, 1998; Einarsdottir, 2007; Flewitt, 2005; Hill, 2005; Punch, 2002; Robinson & Kellett, 2004) may be biased in their responses to please the researchers. They may avoid talking about a painful subject, say what the researcher wants to hear in order to create a favourable impression, or avoid adults' reactions to what they say through fear or shame (Ennew, 1994; Gersch, 1996; Hill, 2005; Richman, 1993). Even though "Children's accounts have their own validity in terms of being their own perspectives and the way the world seems to them, like any respondent, some of the 'facts' of their accounts may be wrong" (Punch, 2002, p. 325). However, Ennew recognizes that "Lies and evasions are less likely when a researcher has built up a relationship of trust with children" (1994, p. 57). Building rapport is one way of establishing validity and reliability in research work with children as suggested by Punch (2002) and Morrow (1999). Consequently, as claimed by Punch "ways of seeing children affect ways of listening to children" (2002, p. 322). How the researcher perceives childhood would affect the choice of methods.

In this regard the study was based on the belief that children are different from adults as research participants; therefore, methodological triangulation was implemented to address their competence and knowledge in order to gain insight into their perspectives.

3.4. Research Design

A mixed methods research design was utilized in the current study. Mixed methods research takes advantage of using multiple ways to address the research questions by

involving the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. Integration of the two approaches at one or more stages of the research process gives the researcher the opportunity of highlighting "the reality in a different, yet complementary way" as cited by (De Costa, Valmori & Choi, 2017, p. 528). The rationale for using mix methods design is grounded in the fact that researchers can bring out the best of both paradigm characteristics as it makes possible to eliminate the weakness of one method by utilizing the strengths of another used in the study. Furthermore, the design suggests a way in which the researcher "gains a better understanding of a complex phenomenon by converging numeric trends from quantitative data and specific details from qualitative data". In this design, researcher obtains data about the individual and the context, along with improved validity which is an ultimate goal (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 45).

Embedded mixed methods quasi-experimental design was used in this study as one of the four mixed methods designs - convergent, explanatory, exploratory or embedded. The experimental group - class A and the control group - class D were selected to the quasi-experiment as they were intact groups taught by the same English teacher. Both groups took a pre-test and post-test and followed the standard curriculum. The difference for the experimental group was being subjected to strategy instruction embedded within their standard language teaching programme.

As a mixed methods design, the embedded design includes one data type providing a supportive, secondary role in a study based primarily on the other type of data (Creswell, Plano Clark, et. al., 2003). The design is based on the premises that

> a single data set is not sufficient, that different questions need to be answered, and that each type of question requires different types of data. This design is particularly useful when a researcher needs to embed a qualitative component within a quantitative

design, as in the case of an experimental design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 67).

The embedded experimental model (figure 1) "is defined by having qualitative data embedded within an experimental design (such as a true experiment or quasi-experiment)" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 69). Quantitative and qualitative data sets may be collected at the same time or sequentially, that is the design may be one-phase of two-phase. For example, "in a one-phase approach, qualitative data can be embedded during the intervention phase, such as when a researcher wants to qualitatively examine the process of the intervention in addition to the quantitative outcomes" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 69). In an example of the embedded mixed methods quasi-experimental design Chan (2014) collected qualitative data to provide in-depth data to assess the effectiveness of strategy instruction on students' LLS use, English achievement and learning processes.

Figure 1

Embedded Design: Embedded Experimental Model
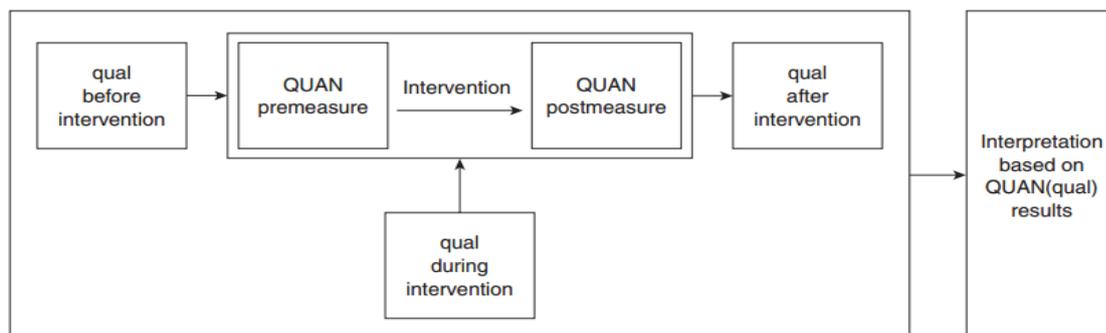
In the current study, quantitative results are elaborated with different sources of data like field-notes, observation check lists and minute papers by using embedded mixed methods quasi-experimental design in order to address multitude ways in which children communicate as research participants.

3.5. The Context

The study is conducted at a state school located in Osmangazi district in Bursa, Turkey. In this state school English language is included in the curriculum as a compulsory subject by Ministry of National Education [MoNE] as in all primary and secondary schools.

With the latest regulation taken place in 2012 by MoNE starting age for foreign language education has been lowered to second grade. According to the regulation, second and third graders receive two hours, and fourth, fifth and sixth graders receive three hours' compulsory foreign language course weekly.

In the new foreign language programme, many changes are based on the development of communicative competence in English and the main emphasis is given to listening and speaking skills over reading and writing skills which are introduced at the third grade only at a word level. Accordingly, at the 5th and 6th grades exposure to reading is limited with 25 words, and writing is limited with 10 words, which is upgraded to sentence level as the students continue to develop their language skills.

In the primary education, the development of listening and speaking skills appears as the primary concern, as supported by Cameron's (2001, p.18) assertion that "for young learners, spoken language is the medium through which the new language is encountered, understood, practiced and learned". The well-recognized fact that directs the curriculum designers to put emphasis on oral skills is that most students in Turkey graduate from schools without the ability to engage in successful communication in the target language (MoNE, 2013; Turkey National Needs Assessment of State School English Language Teaching, 2013 – TEPAV Project). Therefore, it is known that the curricula which emphasize grammar, reading and vocabulary do not meet the needs of the current language learners (Damar et al., 2013) as they focus on expressing meaning rather than language form while learning a language (Belchamber, 2007; Harmer, 2001; Moon, 2000; Richards & Theodore, 2001).

Adaptation to the features of the new language programme might be difficult especially for those who have a tendency in their beliefs and practices towards traditional teaching methods. In her study, Kırkgöz (2008) revealed a gap between curriculum objectives and the teachers' instructional practices, which is also similar to some other countries (See, Hui, 1997; Holliday, 1996; Karavas-Doukas, 1995; Penner, 1995). As stated by Borg and Burns (2008), teachers derive their personal theories from their own teaching experiences, their understandings of their own teaching contexts and their training courses, which result in serious discrepancies and contradictions among teachers' beliefs and their in-class implementations. For this reason, it is important to bear in mind contextual factors to have a better understanding of the relationship of these factors with research questions in mind and the interpretation of the results. Variation in the teachers' in-class practices, methods, personal teaching styles regarding TEYLs and action-oriented, activity-based methodology to teach children showed itself strong at the beginning of the current research process. Description of teacher and students will make the picture clearer in this sense.

3.5.1. The participating teacher. The participants' current English teacher (hereafter, participating teacher) has been teaching for 11 years. For 7 years, she taught at a high school and 4 years at a secondary school. However, this year, she taught 5th graders for the first time. She is not used to meet the needs of YLs in her teaching practices because of the tendency to use the methods addressing central examination system. However, as far as it is observed she has an effort to create a warm atmosphere by her positive attitudes towards the children. Upon classroom observation it is identified that she is using a combination of grammar-translation method and total physical response. Generally, she prefers to conduct her lessons with the support of smart board software. As a result of her regular teaching experiences so far, she generally puts emphasis on form-focused teaching including lecturing and practice exercises with repetitive explanations in L1 by focusing mainly on listening, speaking and less on

reading skills. The teaching of English is supported by worksheets including the practice of the rules of the language when it is needed. The language of instruction is mainly Turkish. Although the participating teacher indicates that she wants to use the target language all the time in her lessons, she does not; because she states that the students have limited language knowledge and skills to understand the subject taught. She strongly emphasizes her aim at teaching as helping the students develop positive attitudes towards English language.

      3.5.2. The students. Based on the field notes taken during the observation process, it can be said that children were mostly active and talkative in the classroom due to their characteristics, which required a huge effort to overcome during the research process. It is observed that they have a strong desire to communicate with their peers and teacher. However, their limited L2 proficiency and classroom activities affect the way they communicate as they hear English mostly at word level from their teacher and get necessary explanation about the rules of the language in L1. Therefore, they are not used to speak English as they are not exposed to the language at the discourse level, which is the result of direct form of instruction. During their regular instruction or practice times, they respond to their teachers often by using L1 or using one/two word utterances in L2 in order to meet the expectations of their teacher. Since they do not encounter vocabulary and structures in a contextualized way they have difficulty in developing a deeper understanding of meaning as a whole. For example, when the teacher gives them a worksheet in the form of pen and paper test it is difficult for them to make sense out of the situations despite the visuals located in the texts. They need constant assistance in making use of the structures and vocabulary to make necessary connections for a given situation within the worksheets or tests. Limited exposure to L2, form-focused instruction, and lack of effective ways and activities to support oral language seem to cause students less eager to produce L2. They have difficulty in generating utterances related to what they have learned previously as a result of the fact that they learn

slowly and forget easily as they have a short memory span (Gürsoy, 2010; Halliwel, 1992). According to the participating teacher, being in an EFL context limits the students' practice opportunities outside of the classroom. She puts the case in this way: "The students do not use the language in their everyday life. Since the pronunciation of words appears to them different and difficult, and they do not know the meaning of the words, they do not want to speak in English" (from the interview with the participating teacher prior to the intervention process).

The students' speaking performances do not contain any interactional features; instead they take place in the form of responding to a question from the participating teacher at a word level. What becomes apparent after the observations is that they need multiple opportunities to hear and use the language. It is important to give attention to what the teacher says about the classroom and the students' very limited language knowledge. The participating teacher noted:

> The children generally love English, but at the beginning of the last term [she is talking about the first school term of the year] they came to the class with a bunch of negative thoughts and attitudes towards the English lesson due to their experiences with their previous language teachers. Children told me that when they mispronounced the words, their previous teachers, mostly with an angry manner, have them write these words for hundreds of time. So, they were doubtful about me as well and they tried to understand the way I communicate and approach to them. My first two or three weeks passed by my effort to break their negativity towards the lesson and English. With time they felt themselves comfortable with me, they began to love the language as well. This was what I wanted to do most of the time (from the researchers' interview with the teacher prior to the intervention process).

As reported by (Moon, 2000) children mostly like English If they like their teachers and teaching methods. Building a rapport with the students helps them develop positive attitudes towards the lesson. Thus, her general philosophy in her lessons was to create a positive atmosphere to develop positive attitudes.

3.6. Participants

In order to have a general idea about the speaking strategy use of the students 127 5th grade secondary school students were involved in this study, in the second term of the 2015-2016 academic years. Of the 127 students, 59 were female and 68 were male. The study was conducted in two phases: In the first phase, quantitative data was collected from 127 students to identify their speaking strategy use with a questionnaire prepared by the researcher via an extensive literature review. The questionnaire was used as pre-test and post-test instrument. In the second phase, strategy instruction was conducted with a subset of participants from phase I including an experimental group with 21 students and a control group with 18 students. The experimental group included 13 male and 8 female students aged 11, except one female student aged 12. The control group included 6 female and 10 male students aged 11, and 2 male students aged 12. In their selection "convenience sampling" was used by taking into account the teacher's willingness to participate in this study, which is stated by Dörnyei (2007) as one of redeeming features of this sampling method. The two groups – experimental and control - have been taught by the same English teacher. At the planning stage of the study it was designed that the strategy training would be provided by their teacher, however it was changed after the study put into practice. Although all lesson plans and materials were provided by the researcher it was difficult for the teacher to make adaptation to what the study involves in terms of research background in theoretical and practical sense. Therefore, the plan was changed and the implementation of the strategy training was conducted by the researcher herself. During the whole process the students received their regular training by

their teacher. The researcher and the teacher supported each other during the intervention period.

3.7. Instruments and Data Collection Processes

As the requirements of the mixed methods research design this study was built on both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. The quantitative data set represents the values for pre- and post-test results collected through a survey as well as the values for pre- and post-treatment observation results obtained by observation checklists. The qualitative data represents the verbal data including opinions both from the researcher through field notes and from the participants through minute papers. All those techniques and their collection procedures are described in the following sections.

3.7.1. Quantitative data set

3.7.1.1. Survey. Over the past two decades of investigation in LLSs, various ways have been used by the researchers to have insight about the mental processes used by learners as they work on a new language. Thus self-reporting has gained importance in LLS research, which has been made through various techniques (Chamot, 2014). As one of those techniques, "student-completed, summative rating scales" (survey methods) have gained significant popularity in LLS research (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995) and are being used in a variety of studies to provide information about learners' own learning processes.

By its nature, not all LLSs are observable (Chamot, 2004). A particular strategy as a mental procedure can also be paired with another learning strategy as a behaviour. For example, a learner can use selective attention (unobservable) with the purpose of understanding, storing or retrieving information during a listening activity and may want to take notes (observable) in order to remember the information. Therefore, surveys are used as a way to represent a portrait of these strategies held by learners.

Surveys are cost-effective and provide a quick understanding of language learners' strategy use (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Along with their ease of administration, they are very handy not only for indicating whether a particular strategy is used, but also for rating their frequency. However, it is possible that students may not figure out the intent of a question, thus, they may provide the answer according to what they perceive as the right answer (Chamot, 2014). They may also be not aware of which strategies they have used or claim to use strategies; in fact, they do not use (Chamot, 2004). In addition, another weak point of the survey is that it may not capture all the dimensions of learners' strategy use which would allow deep insights into what they do (Gao, 2004). For this reason, it would be more valid to support surveys by qualitative and context-sensitive measurements to break over-reliance on them (Oxford 2003; Yamamori et al., 2003). In this study, as a first step to identify strategies "Children's Speaking Strategy Use Survey" was developed to find out children's strategy use in speaking skill.

3.7.1.1.1. Children's speaking strategy use survey. After reviewing the relevant literature, the survey used in the present study was developed by the researcher and adapted from the three instruments in order to provide its suitability to the age and level of the participants. The modified versions included in the study were "Young Learners' Language Strategy Use Survey" by Cohen and Oxford (2002); "Children's Inventory for Language Learning Strategies - CHILLS" by Gürsoy (2003); "Taiwanese Children Strategy Inventory for Language Learning" by Lan and Oxford (2003). According to their own design these taxonomies investigate LLS use partially or wholly in different skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and some other language features (vocabulary or translation).

Regarding the framework of this study, 23 items that would reflect LLSs used for speaking skill were identified. The 23 items were designed as a reduced three-point likert scale with short responses in the form of 'yes, sometimes and no' by taking into account

students' cognitive and metacognitive development. As these children are still in the period of concrete operations, it might have been difficult for them to distinguish slight differences like usually and sometimes.

They were also translated into Turkish (children's L1) with an attention to simplicity and comprehensibility issues regarding the age, language, and world knowledge of our participants. The 23-item survey was given to 5 experts so that the content and face validity of the instrument could be tested based on their opinion. Experts were chosen from the English Language Teaching Department and examined the same questions individually by using content and face validity forms developed by the researcher.

The content validity of the items was provided by asking the experts to rate the appropriateness of each item as essential, useful but not essential or not necessary. After calculating the Content Validity Ratio (CVR) for individual test items by using Lawshe's technique, the value for each item was compared to minimum values of CVR for significance at p=.05 level noted for the appropriate number of the experts. As the number of experts was 5, CVR value was required to be .99 at the $\alpha = .05$ level of significance. Therefore, item 16 was combined with item 18 and then four items (item 3, 5, 10, 21) with CVR<.99 were removed from the instrument. Some structural modifications were provided for the items (2, 12, 16, 19, 23) as well. After calculation of the content validity index (CVI) for the whole instrument (Lawshe, 1975) the final version of the instrument had 18 items along with some changes or modifications in the instruction and the structure of the item statements in order to make them more comprehensible to the students (see Appendix 3). Then, it was given to a class of students (n=23) who were 5th graders in a different school to see whether there was a comprehensibility problem. All items were filled by the students one-by one with the researcher's presence to check the comprehensibility of the items. Only two students had a problem with the meaning of the words ("sounds" in item 2 and "pronunciation" in item 11)

because of their limited word knowledge even though they were presented in L1. Further explanations on these items were provided for these students and the case was taken into consideration for the actual application process. A reliability check for this present study was also calculated as .77. Besides, a demographic information part was included, involving questions about the students' number, age, gender, grade, and their report card notes.

After obtaining official permission from Bursa Provincial Directorate of National Education (see Appendix 4), the survey was implemented at the beginning of the study to all 5th graders including experimental and control groups as pre-test application. The same survey was utilized at the end of the study again to all 5th graders as post-test application. The purpose of pre- and post-test applications to all 5th graders was just to trace variations in their speaking strategy use across time. Before its application children were informed about the intent of the questions. They were told that it was not an exam and there were no right or wrong answers, so that they could report truthfully. They were also informed that all information they provided would remain confidential. When they needed, unclear points were clarified by the researcher as well.

3.7.1.2. Observation. This technique is considered as one of the basic data sources for empirical research in that it provides direct and more objective information than second-hand self-report data. It is offered usually with two distinctions: "participant versus nonparticipant observation" and "structured versus unstructured observation" (Dörnyei, 2007). As a supportive and supplementary data collection method, observation may play a role in complementing or putting in perspective the data obtained by other data collection tools. As suggested by Gürsoy (2010, p. 168) observations enable us to see "what children actually do while learning". Therefore, observation techniques were used to provide a kind of support to see whether the reported data gathered from the survey was connected to the students' strategic behaviours occurring in a given context.

In this study, the students who completed the survey were observed after pre- and post-survey applications during their lessons. Observations were carried out by the "participant observation" method that is the researcher became a full member of the group, being involved in the setting during all the teaching hours. The researcher spent enough time with the children in order to minimize one of the possible drawbacks of the observation process- the Hawthorne effect- to prevent children from altering their behaviours. However, it should be taken into consideration that observer effect cannot be eliminated completely as stated by Alder and Alder (1987).

Observations were taken place in the "structured" form with a specific focus, concerning with the frequency of speaking strategy use (Dörnyei, 2007). As an observation scheme, "Children's Speaking Strategy Use Survey" was redesigned in the form of check list (see Appendix 5). 15 observable items were chosen and used to establish whether the strategies reported by the children in the pre- and post-test surveys were used within the classroom environment. Under "event sampling" method, tally marks were entered by the researcher every time when the use of speaking strategy occurs in order to provide the total frequency of the strategy use (Dörnyei, 2007).

The observations were taken place in two phases before and after the intervention. The experimental group was observed for 11 classroom hours before the intervention and 11 hours following the intervention. Each observed lesson was audio-recorded and later transcribed to prevent loss of information during observation.

Regarding a serious concern with structured observation that highly structured protocols as quantitative measures are not seen sensitive to context specific information and "may easily miss the insights that could be provided by participants themselves" as stated by Allwright and Bailey (1991 as cited in Dörnyei, 2007, p. 179), observations were combined

with another data collection form -field notes- in order to take a satisfactory view of observed phenomenon as recommended by Dörnyei (2007).

3.7.2. Qualitative data set

Qualitative data which were composed of field-notes and minute papers played a great role so as to support the interpretation of the findings obtained from the 'Children's Speaking Strategy Use Survey' as well as to have a detailed account of what the students think and do in their language learning processes.

3.7.2.1. Field-notes. Field-notes often have a role in interpreting the results of the observations emerging in the actual setting. Field notes give a detailed account of the description of people, their context and activities, and also include three kinds of writing: "(1) direct quotations from the participants taken by the researcher, (2) the researchers' comments taken at the research setting that are explanatory or theory-based in nature, (3) reflections made immediately after the observations" (Merriam, 2001 as cited in Calabrese, 2009, p.106). As recommended strategy for field-note taking, detailed field-notes were taken during and after the participant observations, in which the students' strategy use along with their salient conversational patterns either in L2 or L1 were jotted down regarding the scope of the study.

In his work Clifford (1990, p. 61) referred to Michael Silverstein's thoughts in which field notes were likened to photographs in the texts as "they are 'reality-close' and have a 'you are there' quality". As part of this view, the comments were documented in the form of direct quotations and descriptions during and/or after the events, as well as reflections were made during the intervention process to enhance our understanding of the children's actual experiences in the classroom.

3.7.2.2. Minute papers – "One-minute" papers. "One-minute paper" was popularized by Cross and Angelo in 1988 (as cited in Ashakiran & Deepthi, 2013). It is used as a technique to provide a quick, simple and effective feedback on student learning, and taken

place usually few minutes before ending the session. A respond to an instructor-posed question serves two purposes: to prompt reflection by students as well as to provide feedback to teachers. As a tool encouraging active learning, it is recognized as the best teaching practice.

Based on the premise that student participation is a key component for active learning, it is important for instructors to facilitate it by embedding opportunities for student participation in order to develop their intellectual independence (Holtzman, 2007). As part of fostering intellectual independence, reflection is seen as a primary element in increasing learners' ability to perform independently (Cotterall, 2003). According to her, reflection opportunities are important due to their potential in fostering learner independence. The potential for learner autonomy increases as the learners' insight into their learning processes grows. She also considers 'choice element' in learner autonomy as one of the ways of supporting the responsibility transfer from the teacher to the learner. She explains this in reference to the notion that "at the heart of learner autonomy lies the concept of choice", and puts emphasis on the importance of teachers' role as "to extending the choice of strategic behaviours available to learners, and to expanding their conceptual understanding of the contribution which strategies can make to their learning" (Cotterall, 2000, p. 111).

Considering the fact that "reflection led to insights which, in turn, led to action" (Cotterall, 2003, p. 5), the experimental group was charged with writing minute papers at the end of each strategy training session in order to help them identify and develop their own insights into their learning processes. It was crucial for this study, because they are the ones who decide what action to take and why. As their learning awareness grows, they will have the ability to make decisions on their own learning behaviours. With this aim in mind, students were employed with the below three-question sets given in Turkish in the form of sentence completion which guides them in writing (see Appendix 6):

1) The strategy you have learned is useful for you, because ………...……………………

   The strategy you have learned is not useful for you, because …………..………………

2) It is easy for you to use the strategy you have learned, because …………..…..……..…

   It is difficult for you to use the strategy you have learned, because ………..………..…….

3) Since I did not know about this strategy before, I ……………………………………

   Since I know about this strategy now, I ………..…………..…………………………

3.8. Instruction Procedure

After identifying speaking strategies used by students through pre-test application, a short-term strategy training course was applied to the experimental group with the primary objective of creating strategy-based situations which make students familiar with the speaking strategies as well as communication. Depending on what is desired, the design also included the following purposes: (1) raising awareness with respect to students' views of language learning; their understanding of speaking strategies; their use of strategies; sharing responsibility in their own learning; (2) enabling students to have a repertoire of speaking strategies; (3) building up confidence and willingness as a consequence of experimenting with the language. It was based on the integration of explicit strategy instruction in the foreign language programme and carried out by the researcher. On the other hand, while both groups were taught within the framework of the English language programme on a weekly basis, the differences appeared in the teaching approach, activities and materials for the experimental group only as a result of the integration of strategy training sessions. The experimental group received strategy training in a different classroom allotted particularly to this group which we called "strategy classroom". All teaching and strategy training experiences were provided in this classroom throughout the study. The intervention including instruction and practice sessions took for two hours a week, which adds up to 7-week training sessions in total. Bearing in mind the classroom reality which revealed the gap between the curriculum

objectives and the teacher's instructional practices strongly at the beginning of the term, the students' age, proficiency level, skills and needs were taken into consideration in the preparation of the weekly plans. The activities were designed with regard to speaking skill, and the strategies to be taught were structured around the related units/themes in the ELTP (2013) (see Appendix 1 for the example lesson plan). Besides, the lesson plans were prepared in advance on the grounds of CALLA- "Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach" by the researcher and checked by the supervisor of the study. The intervention included the instruction of the following speaking strategies which were chosen from the strategy set on the "Children's Speaking Strategy Use Survey" according to their teachability particularly by taking into account the children's characteristics, the context and what appeared in pre-treatment observation processes. Depending on the strategy type and the subject of the week some of the strategies' instructions were provided together in one teaching session, which can be seen in the study schedule (see Appendix 2).

1. I often review newly learned vocabulary or expressions by repeatedly mouthing.

2. I use a new vocabulary in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly.

3. I produce the sounds of the language until I can say them well.

4. When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture.

5. When I have trouble in explaining meaning of things in English, I use my body language or gestures.

6. When I can't find an expression or a word in English, I ask for help.

7. While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help.

8. Whenever I am stressed by the idea of speaking English, I try to relax myself.

9. I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom.

In this study, the strategy instruction followed the stages of CALLA instructional design developed by Chamot and O'Malley (1994), which composed of a five-step cycle for preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, expansion, as it is shown in Figure 2. The stages of CALLA design are not always required to be followed in a strict sequence but stages are often used recursively as the need arises (Chamot, 2001).

• Preparation: This stage was used by the researcher as a way of raising awareness with regard to what students already know and which strategies they already use. This stage was important for a smooth transition to the next stage. It is because students' preparation for the activity ahead was provided by activating their prior knowledge along with previewing the pre-determined strategy to be introduced in the lesson. This stage was also used as a way to make them interested in the lesson.

• Presentation: This stage was to develop students' knowledge about the strategies. The new strategy was introduced/modeled through an activity in a contextualized way and some questions were asked to activate the students' selective attention, inference and/or imagery strategies so that they were able to identify the embedded strategy used by the researcher. Then, the researcher explicitly named the strategy and provided rationale for strategy use by explaining how, when and where to use this strategy. Visual aids related to the instructed strategy and its written forms for the strategies in the form of chunks were also presented to the students.

As visual aids contribute to the creation of context in the classroom (Wright, 1989), they were provided in the form of wall pictures and wall charts associated with the targeted strategies. The reason for using the visual aids was to make the strategic components more comprehensive, memorable as well as more interesting to the students as recommended by Porter and Margaret (1992). Based on the cognitive theory that language learning is a complex process, the contribution of visual aids for stimulating this processes seems

undeniable. Such benefit is also valid for "formulaic units", in other name "chunks". Formulaic units which stored and extracted as a whole are used as a means to meet the communication needs when language learners are short in linguistic competence (Wei & Ying, 2011). According to Wei and Ying (2011) what make children enter into communication with language beyond their current linguistic knowledge are the formulaic units. Considering the fact that children in our study have insufficient linguistic sources and practice opportunities, we made use of chunks to provide support for them in learning the language.

• The practice stage. Developing students' skill in use of presented strategy was aimed in this stage. Therefore, students were provided ample opportunities to practice the newly learned strategies through communication-based activities. They were encouraged both linguistically and affectively to complete the activities prepared for the use of relevant strategy, which often included pair work.

• The evaluation stage. In this stage, students were asked to evaluate their own learning, based on their use of newly learned strategy just after the training session. To that end, minute papers were used to let them write their thoughts about the strategies in L1 although they were not willing so much to do this. In my opinion, this stage was the heart of training, because fostering their self-monitoring was important for the sake of opening doors to their independence. I would say that every opportunity for their reflectivity was rather like "a fishhook catching insights like a fish".

• The expansion stage: This stage is used to develop the transfer of strategies to new tasks or different conditions. Since it was difficult for us to monitor how they apply these strategies across different environments or school subjects, this stage was not resorted often in terms of strategy transfer among different contexts. However, there were some recorded moments or occasions in which some students were able to transfer their strategy use outside the

classroom, which gave us some clues about the effectiveness of strategy learning as claimed by Oxford (1990). Therefore, this stage was used mainly to trace the employment of speaking strategies till the end of the training programme. For this reason, additional activities were provided, through which the students strengthen the repertoire of strategies based on their preferences. Students were continuously motivated and supported to make use of the strategies from their repertoire.

Figure 2

CALLA-FL Instructional Sequence (Chamot & Robbins, 2006, p. 14)
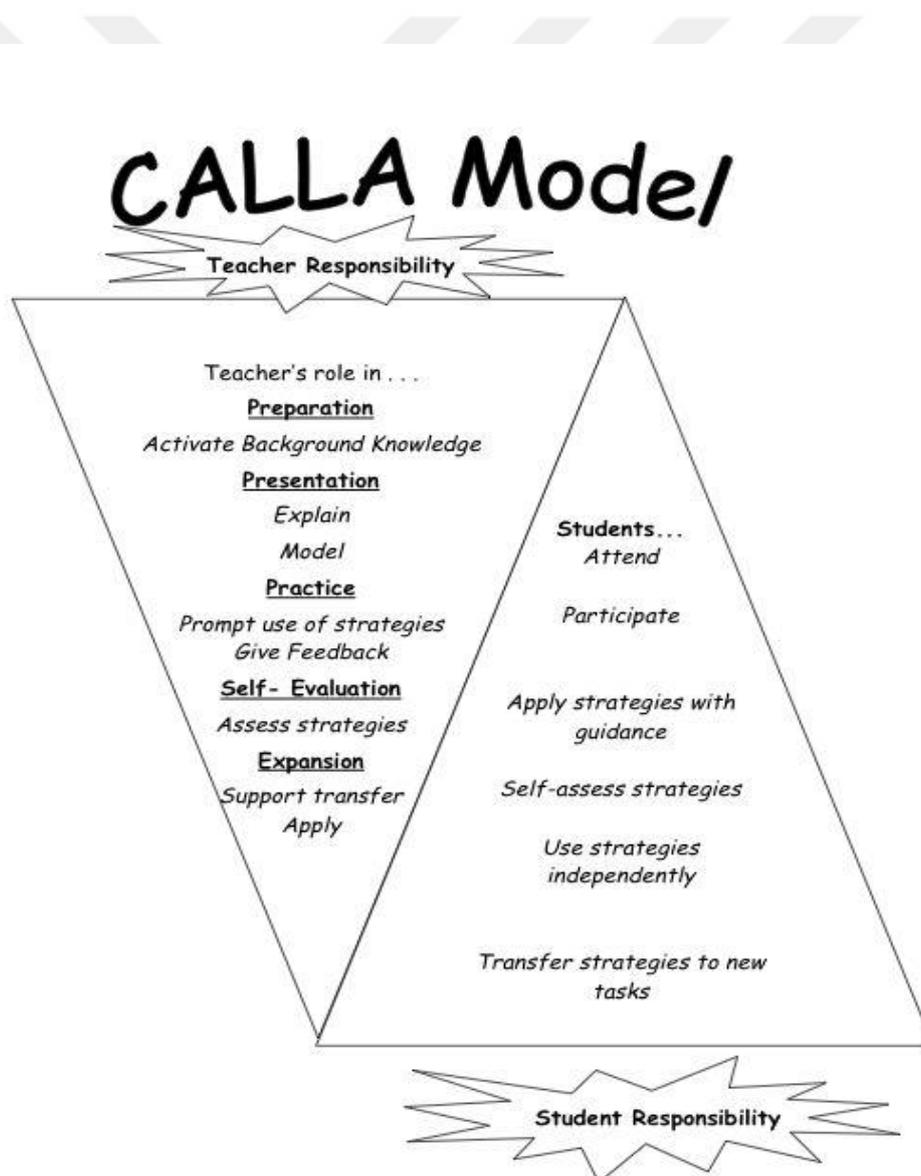
3.9. Data Analysis Procedure

As stated in section 3.4 about the mixed methods research design, quantitative and qualitative instruments were used in data collection process and analyzed separately. The data collected through "Children's Speaking Strategy Use Survey" and administered to all 5th graders in the school through pre- and post-test applications were analyzed by SPSS 21 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). These analyses including descriptive statistics with frequencies and means were computed to identify overall patterns of students' speaking strategy use by pre-test as well as to trace any variation in their strategy preferences by the post-test. Then, the values within the same collected data which belong to both experimental and control groups were analyzed separately by SPSS 21 statistics with regard to relevant methods including non-parametric tests. Although the two populations are normally distributed, non-parametric tests were utilized because of the unequal variances and small sample size.

Observation data was first transcribed and then analyzed carefully with the review of field-notes by the researcher for multiple times by looking for patterns considering the students' reported strategy use in the classroom environment. The frequency of students' strategic behaviors as well as their interactional patterns was examined in this way.

The data collected from the experimental group through "minute papers" which composed of responses to the guided-questions were analyzed by a specific attention as the requirements of qualitative data collection procedure. The qualitative data was analyzed inductively, "by which categories emerge from the data through careful examination and constant comparison" (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2016) in reference to the approach by Graneheim and Lundman (2004). The following concepts were considered important to conduct the analysis: unit of analysis, meaning unit, open codes, sub-categories and categories. The unit of analysis was the "minute papers" as a context for the meaning units for the analysis process.

Each statement on the minute papers was recorded by the researcher on a page to become acquainted with the data and to make way for systematic analysis. Then, the statements extracted directly from the "minute papers" were broken down into meaning units which consist of sentences containing aspects related to a particular concept and the students' identity numbers like S13 (student 13). Here, the focus was on the specific aspect of meaning with regard to the directed questions on the minute papers. Although some statements containing almost exactly the similar expressions were regarded as the same and counted accordingly, some responses uttered carelessly were found irrelevant and eliminated from the analysis. The step of condensation of the meaning units was skipped because there was no need to shorten the statements as they were already clear cut and limited with the students' developmental features. Therefore, the meaning units were labeled with the codes taking into consideration both manifest content (coding the visible and surface content of text) and latent content (coding the underlying meaning of the text) (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Then they were abstracted into sub-categories and categories, each describing a specific type of knowledge needed. An example of content analysis process can be seen in Table 2. All the expressions provided by the students were evaluated for multiple times to provide an indepth understanding. Multiple statements which belong to a single participant's response were also coded into different categories or subcategories.

When it comes to the trustworthiness of the study Guba's (1981, p. 80) a criterion was regarded to address four issues: "credibility (internal validity); transferability (external validity); dependability (reliability); confirmability (objectivity)". The trustworthiness was ensured by checking the data for accuracy with multiple involvements. The process involved going back-and-forth till providing satisfaction with the final forms of the first coding of the data. Intra-rater coding consistency was provided through a second coding of the data following the first coding after two weeks. The information about the students which was

already provided in the section 3.5.2 was regarded as well to bear in mind their developmental characteristics in language and cognition. Therefore, it was crucial to immerse oneself in the data long enough to achieve depth of understanding when the children are in question as research subjects. Moreover, supervisor revision was obtained to reach consensus on the data analysis through frequent sessions. The results of the content analysis were presented with regard to the strategies instructed as well as the answers related to the guided questions.

As for the presentation of the findings, the results will be given in separate tables for each strategy focused. The number of times that a particular aspect of the data was assigned to a *subcategory* (subcategory frequency) will be presented for the data which provides information about the taught strategies' usefulness and easiness. Again, the number of times that a particular aspect of the data was assigned to a *category* (category frequency) will be presented for the data which provides information about the linguistic and non-linguistic areas that the students had difficulties before learning the focused strategies as well as made improvements after learning these strategies.

At this point, it is important to note that the frequency of the responses do not correspond to the number of students in the experimental group, which can be explained by the following reasons: Some students found writing a tedious task and did not want to put their energy on expressing their thoughts and reflecting upon them; some irrelevant information that did not interact with the aim of the question, which was in the form of yes-no answer or exact repetition of the question stems was eliminated from the data; some of the responses given by a single participant and composed of more than one statements were placed into different categories/subcategories depending on the codes which represent related aspect of the data by taking into consideration the categories or subcategories' mutual exclusiveness, for example; two different codes were created for the statement "I couldn't say the words and make a sentence" given by (Student-13, hereafter S13). The first part of the

statement was placed into the code *difficulty in pronunciation,* and the second part was placed
into the code *difficulty in building sentences*. As a last step, the sample sentences provided by
the students in their L1 were translated into English with considerable attention, and shown
under the example meaning units' column. Table 2 shows an example of content analysis
procedure.

Table 2

Example of content analysis process

Category	Sub-category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Units
Needs/ goals	Immediate/ future needs (n=2)	Need to transfer the str. outside the classroom to meet comm. needs	"When I am abroad, I can use these strategies. I can use them with my friends (S4). While playing games, I can chat with English speaking friends (S19)."
Autonomy	Self- reflection (n=17)	Having awareness about the strengths	"I improved my English thanks to these strategies (S11-S3). I speak English more easily (S20). I can pronounce the words better than I used to (S16)."
		Having awareness about facilitative function of the strategy	"The words become even more memorable (S20-S15). Strategies help me pronounce the words correctly and use them in a sentence (S12)."
Affect	Motivation (n=2)	Motivation to succeed in L2	"I want to learn more about English (S21). I can speak English in the future and I can be very good at it (S14)."

In this chapter, the nature of the research in methodological perspective was introduced in detail. The next chapter is going to be presenting the results from quantitative and qualitative data.

Chapter 4

Results

4.1. Introduction

This chapter will present both quantitative and qualitative results of the study to provide explanation for the research questions under the investigation of the study. In the first part of this chapter, quantitative results obtained by "Children's Speaking Strategy Use Survey" which were administrated to all 5th graders at the beginning and end of the school term are provided. The results of the survey are presented in separate tables descriptively for all 5th graders as well as the Experimental and Control Groups. The analysis of "Observation Checklists" is presented to support the findings of survey data obtained from the experimental group.

In the second part, qualitative results obtained by the "Minute Papers" which were filled by the students in the Experimental Group and interpreted by the qualitative content analysis are presented and explained in line with the research question of the study. The results of both quantitative and qualitative data are shown in tables to give access to a more comprehensive understanding.

4.2. Quantitative Results

The aim of this phase is to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the speaking strategies of 5th grade students?

a) What are the most frequently used speaking strategies?

b) What are the least frequently used speaking strategies?

2. Are there any differences between the experimental group and control group in their use of speaking strategies after strategy training?

3. Is there an increase in participants' L2 production due to the use of strategies they learned?

It is important to note that the data was gathered from all the 5th graders at the school both at the beginning and end of the term, but it was used depending on the objectives pursued by the researcher during the analysis process. As all the data was collected both at the beginning and end of the term, this process was coded as pre-and post-test application for all segments of the study.

For the research question 1 the results of the data obtained through pre- and post-test applications are provided descriptively within the following rationale; the data will be explored (a) to identify overall speaking strategy use of the entire group of 5^{the} grade students, the Control and Experimental Groups, (b) to identify the most and the least used strategy items by the entire group of 5th grade students, the Control and Experimental groups.

For the research question 2 the data will be explored to identify whether there is any significant difference in speaking strategy use of the students especially in the Experimental Group (within group), and to compare post-test results of the Experimental and Control Groups (between groups).

4.2.1. Results of the children's speaking strategy use survey

4.2.1.1. Speaking strategy use of the students for the entire group of students

4.2.1.1.1. Overall strategy use. Speaking strategy use of all 5th graders in the school was identified at the beginning of the term through pre-test application of speaking strategy use survey. The reason for collecting the data from all 5th graders was to see the overall picture of their speaking strategy use. The same procedure was repeated at the end of the term as post-test applications to find out any changes in speaking strategy use of the students across time. The results were presented descriptively including frequencies, percentages and means of the items. In the 3-point Likert scale, the mean frequency score of $1,00 - 1,66$ is defined as low use; $1,67 - 2,33$ as medium use; and $2,34 - 3,00$ as high use based on the assigned values to the options (no=1, sometimes=2, yes=3).

Table 3 shows the results for the measurement of the entire group of 5th grade students' strategy use which includes the students in the experimental and control groups as well. The overall mean was calculated as $M = 2,32$ (SD = ,30) for pre-test scores and as $M = 2,30$ (SD = ,36) for post-test scores on the 3-point Likert scale, which indicates that the children reported moderate strategy use overall.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics of pre- and post-test measurements for the entire group of students (N=127)

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Pre-test	127	2,3233	,30737
Post-test	127	2,3001	,36959

4.2.1.1.2. The most and the least used strategy items. After calculating the overall mean score of the entire group of students, descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations were employed to identify the most and the least frequently used speaking strategies. The results of descriptive analysis are presented in Table 4 for both pre- and post-test measurements.

The findings of pre-test application revealed that the strategy "When I say something in English, I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic"- item 5 was reported as the most frequently used one with a mean score of ($M = 2,68$) followed by "I plan what I am going to say beforehand" - item 17 ($M = 2,61$) and "I study my errors I have made after speaking activities" - item 15 ($M = 2,57$).

The findings of post-test application revealed the strategy "When I say something in English, I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic"- item 5 ($M = 2,59$) as the most frequently used one followed by "I plan what I am going to say

beforehand" - item 17 ($M = 2,57$) and "I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes" - item 14 ($M = 2,54$).

When it comes to the least frequently used strategies, the results presented in Table 4 shows that "When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture"- item 6 ($M = 1,76$); "When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using words or phrases that I already know, like using big cat for the word tiger)"- item 10 ($M = 1,98$); "I try to find opportunities outside of school to practice my English (e.g., Talking to tourists or my parents)" - item 13 ($M = 2,05$) were determined as the least frequently used speaking strategies from the pre-test measurement.

As for the post-test measurement for the least frequently used strategies, item 6 and 10 remained to be the first two least used strategies. According to the results "When I have trouble in explaining the meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture" - item 6 ($M = 1,85$); "When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using words or phrases that I already know, like using big cat for the word tiger)"- item 10 ($M = 1,96$); "When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people in order to pronounce the words correctly."- item 4 ($M = 2,00$) were reported as the least frequently used ones in the post-test measurement.

Table 4

Frequecies, percents and means of the speaking strategy use of the whole sample (N=127)

		Pre-test			Post-test		
Item Statements	Likert scale	Frequency	Percent	Mean	Frequency	Percent	Mean
1. I often review newly learned vocabulary or expressions by repeatedly mouthing.	No	9	7,1	2,3543	5	3,9	2,3780
	Sometimes	64	50,4		69	54,3	
	Yes	54	42,5		53	41,7	
2. I use a new vocabulary in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly.	No	18	14,2	2,2520	18	14,2	2,3465
	Sometimes	59	46,5		47	37,0	
	Yes	50	39,4		62	48,8	
3. I produce the sounds of the language until I can say them well.	No	10	7,9	2,4882	7	5,5	2,4725
	Sometimes	45	35,4		53	41,7	
	Yes	72	56,7		67	52,8	
4. When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people in order to pronounce the words correctly.	No	27	21,3	2,1890	38	29,9	2,0079
	Sometimes	49	38,6		50	39,4	
	Yes	51	40,2		39	30,7	
5. When I say something in English I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic.	No	7	5,5	2,6850	10	7,9	2,5906
	Sometimes	26	20,5		31	25,2	
	Yes	94	74,0		86	66,9	
6. When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture.	No	57	44,9	1,7638	51	40,2	1,8583
	Sometimes	43	33,9		43	33,9	
	Yes	27	21,3		33	26,0	
7. When I have trouble in explaining meanings of things in English, I use my body language or gestures.	No	25	19,7	2,1890	32	25,2	2,1260
	Sometimes	53	41,7		47	37,0	
	Yes	49	38,6		48	37,8	
8. When I can't find an expression or a word in English, I ask for help.	No	19	15,0	2,4331	21	16,5	2,3937
	Sometimes	34	26,8		35	27,6	
	Yes	74	58,3		71	55,9	

9. While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help.	No	21	16,5	2,4252	20	15,7	2,4724
	Sometimes	31	24,4		27	21,3	
	Yes	75	59,1		80	63,0	
10. When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using big cat for the word tiger).	No	45	35,4	1,9843	37	29,1	1,9685
	Sometimes	39	30,7		57	44,9	
	Yes	43	33,9		33	26,0	
11. Whenever I am stressed by the idea of speaking English, I try to relax myself.	No	21	16,5	2,4488	24	18,9	2,3543
	Sometimes	28	22,0		34	26,8	
	Yes	78	61,4		69	54,3	
12. I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom.	No	31	24,4	2,0945	25	19,7	2,1890
	Sometimes	53	41,7		53	41,7	
	Yes	43	33,9		49	38,6	
13. I try to find opportunities outside of school to practice my English (e.g., Talking to tourists or my parents).	No	28	22,0	2,0551	31	34,4	2,1417
	Sometimes	64	50,4		47	37,0	
	Yes	35	27,6		49	38,6	
14. I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes.	No	16	12,6	2,5118	15	11,8	2,5433
	Sometimes	30	23,6		28	22,0	
	Yes	81	63,8		84	66,1	
15. I study my errors I have made after speaking activities.	No	10	7,9	2,5748	8	6,3	2,5039
	Sometimes	34	26,8		47	37,0	
	Yes	83	65,4		72	56,7	
16. While speaking if I do not know the meaning of a word I say its Turkish and keep on talking.	No	25	19,7	2,2520	32	25,2	2,2283
	Sometimes	45	35,4		34	26,8	
	Yes	57	44,9		61	48,0	
17. I plan what I am going to say beforehand.	No	5	3,9	2,6142	8	6,3	2,5748
	Sometimes	39	30,7		38	29,9	
	Yes	83	65,4		81	63,8	
18. I ask the other person to correct me when I talk.	No	12	9,4	2,5039	24	18,9	2,2520
	Sometimes	39	30,7		47	37,0	
	Yes	76	59,8		56	44,1	

4.2.1.2. Speaking strategy use of the students in the control group

4.2.1.2.1. Overall strategy use. Descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations were employed to investigate the control group students' perceived speaking strategy use. The mean scores for the measurement of pre- and post-test applications are shown in Table 5 below. The findings revealed the mean score for speaking strategy use in the pre-test measurement as $M = 2,33$ (SD = ,169), which means the participants were moderate strategy users at the beginning of the term. The findings also revealed the mean score for speaking strategy use in the post-test measurement as $M = 2,26$ (SD = ,333), which falls within the range of medium use of speaking strategies at the end of the term.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics of pre- and post-test measurements for the control group

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Pre-test	18	2,3333	,16937
Post-test	18	2,2654	,33364

4.2.1.2.2. The most and the least used strategy items. Regarding the first research question of the study which investigates the most and the least frequently used speaking strategies descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations were employed. The results of descriptive analysis are presented in Table 6 for both pre- and post-test measurements.

The findings of pre-test application revealed that the strategies "While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help"- item 9 ($M = 2,72$); "When I say something in English, I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic" - item 5 ($M = 2,66$); "When I can't find an expression or a word in English, I ask for help" - item 8 ($M = 2,55$) and "I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes" - item 14 ($M = 2,55$) as the most frequently used ones.

The findings of the post-test application revealed the strategies "When I say something in English, I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic" - item 5 ($M = 2,72$); "While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help" - item 9 ($M = 2,61$); "I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes" - item 14 ($M = 2,55$) as the most frequently used strategy items.

As for the least frequently used strategies, the results shown in Table 6 revealed that "When I have trouble in explaining the meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture" - item 6 ($M = 1,77$); "I try to find opportunities outside of school to practice my English (e.g., Talking to tourists or my parents) " - item 13 ($M = 2,05$) and "I use a new vocabulary in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly" - item 2 ($M = 2,05$) were determined as the least frequently used speaking strategies from the pre-test measurement.

The results of the post-test measurement revealed the least frequently used speaking strategy as "When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture" - item 6 ($M = 1,72$) followed by "I try to find opportunities outside of school to practice my English (e.g., Talking to tourists or my parents)" - item 13 ($M = 2,00$) "When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using words or phrases that I already know, like using big cat for the word tiger)" - item 10 ($M = 2,05$).

Table 6

Frequencies, percents and means of the speaking strategy use of the control group (N=18)

Item Statements	Likert Scale	Pre-test Frequency	Pre-test Percent	Pre-test Mean	Post-test Frequency	Post-test Percent	Post-test Mean
1. I often review newly learned vocabulary or expressions by repeatedly mouthing.	No	0	0,0	2,2778	0	0,00	2,2778
	Sometimes	13	72,2		13	72,2	
	Yes	5	27,8		5	27,8	
2. I use a new vocabulary in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly.	No	3	16,7	2,0556	4	22,2	2,1667
	Sometimes	11	61,1		7	38,9	
	Yes	4	22,2		7	38,9	
3. I produce the sounds of the language until I can say them well.	No	2	11,1	2,4444	0	0,00	2,3889
	Sometimes	6	33,3		11	61,1	
	Yes	10	55,6		7	38,9	
4. When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people in order to pronounce the words correctly.	No	4	22,2	2,1111	5	27,8	2,1111
	Sometimes	8	44,4		6	33,3	
	Yes	6	33,3		7	38,9	
5. When I say something in English I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic.	No	2	11,1	2,6667	2	11,1	2,7222
	Sometimes	2	11,1		1	5,6	
	Yes	14	77,8		15	83,3	
6. When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture.	No	8	44,4	1,7778	8	44,4	1,7222
	Sometimes	6	33,3		7	38,9	
	Yes	4	22,2		3	16,7	
7. When I have trouble in explaining meanings of things in English, I use my body language or gestures.	No	2	11,1	2,3889	3	16,7	2,1667
	Sometimes	7	38,9		9	50,0	
	Yes	9	50,0		6	33,3	
8. When I can't find an expression or a word in English, I ask for help.	No	1	5,6	2,5556	3	16,7	2,4444
	Sometimes	6	33,3		4	22,2	
	Yes	11	61,1		11	61,1	
9. While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help.	No	0,0	0,0	2,7222	0	0,00	2,6111
	Sometimes	5	27,8		7	38,9	
	Yes	13	72,2		11	61,1	

10. When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using big cat for the word tiger).	No	4	22,2	2,2222	4	22,2	2,0556
	Sometimes	6	33,3		9	50,0	
	Yes	8	44,4		5	27,8	
11. Whenever I am stressed by the idea of speaking English, I try to relax myself.	No	3	16,7	2,3889	5	27,8	2,1667
	Sometimes	5	27,8		5	27,8	
	Yes	10	55,6		8	44,4	
12. I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom.	No	3	16,7	2,1111	2	11,0	2,1111
	Sometimes	10	55,6		12	66,7	
	Yes	5	27,8		4	22,2	
13. I try to find opportunities outside of school to practice my English (e.g., Talking to tourists or my parents).	No	5	27,8	2,0556	6	33,3	2,0000
	Sometimes	7	38,9		6	33,3	
	Yes	6	33,3		6	33,3	
14. I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes.	No	1	5,6	2,5556	2	11,1	2,5556
	Sometimes	6	33,3		4	22,2	
	Yes	11	61,1		12	66,7	
15. I study my errors I have made after speaking activities.	No	2	11,1	2,5000	1	5,6	2,4444
	Sometimes	5	27,8		8	44,4	
	Yes	11	61,1		9	50,0	
16. While speaking if I do not know the meaning of a word I say its Turkish and keep on talking.	No	1	5,6	2,3889	5	27,8	2,1667
	Sometimes	9	50,0		5	27,8	
	Yes	8	44,4		8	44,4	
17. I plan what I am going to say beforehand.	No	2	11,1	2,4444	4	22,2	2,2778
	Sometimes	6	33,3		5	27,8	
	Yes	10	55,6		9	50,0	
18. I ask the other person to correct me when I talk.	No	2	11,1	2,3333	2	11,1	2,3889
	Sometimes	8	44,4		7	38,9	
	Yes	8	44,4		9	50,0	

4.2.1.3. Speaking strategy use of the students in the experimental group

4.2.1.3.1. Overall strategy use. Descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations were employed to investigate the students' perceived speaking strategy use. The mean scores for the measurement of pre- and post-test applications are presented in Table 7 below. The findings revealed the mean score for speaking strategy use in the pre-test measurement as $M = 2,46$ (SD = ,256), which means the participants were just over the threshold for high use of speaking strategies at the beginning of the term. The findings also revealed the mean score for speaking strategy use in the post-test measurement as $M = 2,70$ (SD = ,206), which means the participants were moderately over the threshold for high use of speaking strategies at the end of the term.

Table 7

Descriptive statistics of pre- and post-test measurements for the experimental group

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Pre-test	21	2,4630	,256
Post-test	21	2,7088	,211

4.2.1.3.2. The most and the least used strategy items. Regarding the first research question of the study which investigates the most and the least frequently used speaking strategies descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations were employed. The results of descriptive analysis are presented in Table 8 for both pre- and post-test measurements.

The findings of the pre-test application revealed that the strategy "I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes"- item 14 was reported to be the most frequently used speaking strategy with a mean score ($M = 2,90$) followed by "I plan what I am going to say beforehand" - item 17 ($M = 2,80$) and "I ask the other person to correct me when I talk" - item 18 ($M = 2,80$).

The findings of post-test application revealed the strategy "While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help" - item 9 ($M = 3,00$) as the most frequently used one followed by "I produce the sounds of the language until I can say them well" - item 3 ($M = 2,95$); "I use a new vocabulary in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly" - item 2 ($M = 2,85$); "I plan what I am going to say beforehand" - item 17 ($M = 2,85$) and "When I say something in English, I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic" - item 5 ($M = 2,85$).

When it comes to the least frequently used strategies, the results shown in Table 8 revealed that " When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture" - item 6 ($M = 1,85$); " When I have trouble in explaining meanings of things in English, I use my body language or gestures " - item 7 ($M = 2,00$); "I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom"- item 12 ($M = 2,14$) were determined as the least frequently used speaking strategies from the pre-test measurement.

The results of the post-test measurement revealed the least frequently used speaking strategy as "When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using words or phrases that I already know, like using big cat for the word tiger)" - item 10 ($M = 2,23$) followed by "When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people in order to pronounce the words correctly" - item 4 ($M = 2,42$); "I try to find opportunities outside of school to practice my English (e.g., Talking to tourists or my parents)" - item 13 ($M = 2,57$).

Table 8

Frequecies, percents and means of the speaking strategy use of the experimental group (N=21)

Item Statements	Likert Scale	Pre-test Frequency	Pre-test Percent	Pre-test Mean	Post-test Frequency	Post-test Percent	Post-test Mean
1. I often review newly learned vocabulary or expressions by repeatedly mouthing.	No	0	0,0	2,4286	0	0,0	2,7619
	Sometimes	12	57,1		5	23,8	
	Yes	9	42,9		16	76,2	
2. I use a new vocabulary in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly.	No	2	9,5	2,3333	0	0,0	2,8571
	Sometimes	10	47,6		3	14,3	
	Yes	9	42,9		18	85,7	
3. I produce the sounds of the language until I can say them well.	No	0	0,0	2,7619	0	0,0	2,9524
	Sometimes	5	23,8		1	4,8	
	Yes	16	76,2		20	95,2	
4. When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people in order to pronounce the words correctly.	No	4	19,0	2,3810	1	4,8	2,4286
	Sometimes	5	23,8		10	47,6	
	Yes	12	57,1		10	47,6	
5. When I say something in English I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic.	No	3	14,3	2,5714	0	0,0	2,8571
	Sometimes	3	14,3		2	14,3	
	Yes	15	71,4		19	85,7	
6. When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture.	No	7	33,3	1,8571	1	4,8	2,7143
	Sometimes	10	47,6		4	19,0	
	Yes	4	19,0		16	76,2	
7. When I have trouble in explaining meanings of things in English, I use my body language or gestures.	No	8	38,1	2,0000	0	0,0	2,7143
	Sometimes	5	23,8		6	28,6	
	Yes	8	38,1		15	71,4	
8. When I can't find an expression or a word in English, I ask for help.	No	1	4,8	2,5714	0	0,0	2,8095
	Sometimes	7	33,3		4	19,0	
	Yes	13	61,9		17	81,0	
9. While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help.	No	0	0,0	2,5714	0	0,0	3,000
	Sometimes	9	42,9		0	0,0	
	Yes	12	57,1		21	100,0	

10. When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using big cat for the word tiger).	No	3	14,3	2,4286	3	14,3	2,2381
	Sometimes	6	28,6		10	47,6	
	Yes	12	57,1		8	38,1	
11. Whenever I am stressed by the idea of speaking English, I try to relax myself.	No	3	14,3	2,4762	0	0,0	2,6667
	Sometimes	5	23,8		7	33,3	
	Yes	13	61,9		14	66,7	
12. I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom.	No	4	19,0	2,1429	0	0,0	2,7143
	Sometimes	10	47,6		6	28,6	
	Yes	7	33,3		15	71,4	
13. I try to find opportunities outside of school to practice my English (e.g., Talking to tourists or my parents).	No	1	4,8	2,1905	2	9,5	2,5714
	Sometimes	15	71,4		5	23,8	
	Yes	5	23,8		14	66,7	
14. I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes.	No	0	0,0	2,9048	1	4,8	2,6667
	Sometimes	2	9,5		5	23,8	
	Yes	19	90,5		15	71,4	
15. I study my errors I have made after speaking activities.	No	0	0,0	2,7619	0	0,0	2,7619
	Sometimes	5	23,8		5	23,8	
	Yes	16	76,2		16	76,2	
16. While speaking if I do not know the meaning of a word I say its Turkish and keep on talking.	No	3	14,3	2,3333	3	14,3	2,6190
	Sometimes	8	38,1		2	9,5	
	Yes	10	47,6		16	76,2	
17. I plan what I am going to say beforehand.	No	0	0,0	2,8095	0	0,0	2,8571
	Sometimes	4	19,0		3	14,3	
	Yes	17	81,0		18	85,7	
18. I ask the other person to correct me when I talk.	No	0	0,0	2,8095	0	0,0	2,5714
	Sometimes	4	19,0		9	42,9	
	Yes	17	81,0		12	57,1	

4.2.2. The analysis of the pre-test and post-test applications for the experimental and control groups. In this part of the study, the pre- and post-test results of the experimental and control group are presented and explained to see if there is any significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores regarding within groups and between groups comparisons. Although the two populations are normally distributed, nonparametric tests were utilized because of the unequal variances and small sample size.

First Mann-Whitney U test was used to analyze and describe the students' perceived speaking strategy use between groups before the treatment (Experimental Pre-test and Control Pre-test). Second Wilcoxon Signed-ranks test was used to analyze and describe the students' perceived speaking strategy use within groups before and after the intervention (Experimental Pre-test, Post-test and Control Pre-test, Post-test). Third Mann-Whitney U test was used to analyze and describe the students' perceived speaking strategy use between groups after the treatment (Experimental Post-test and Control Post-test).

4.2.2.1. The analysis of the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups. The Mann-Whitney U test is used to find out whether there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test scores of the groups. The results of the pre-tests analysis between groups are as follows:

Table 9

The results of Mann-Whitney U Test for the pre-tests between the experimental and control group

		Pre-test			
Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
Experimental	21	23,05	484,00		
Group	18	16,44	296,00	125,000	0,70
Control Group					

As it is seen in Table 9, while the mean rank of the experimental group is calculated as 23,05, the mean rank of the control group is 16,44. The sum of the ranks of the experimental group is 484,00, the sum for the control group is 296,00. The results of the test indicate that there is not a statistically significant difference between two groups (U = 125,000; p > ,05). When the mean ranks of the two groups were analyzed, it was clearly seen that the students in the experimental group scored much higher than the students in the control group, which means that the students in the experimental group reported more frequent speaking strategy use before intervention was carried out. However, this difference was not significant.

4.2.2.2. The analysis of the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental and control group.
The experimental and control groups were compared within each group through Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks test to find out whether there is a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and the post-tests scores. The result of experimental and control groups' pre-test and post-test scores are shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Results of Wilcoxon Signed-ranks test within the experimental and control groups' pre- and post-tests scores

Group	Pre-Post-test	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	U
Experimental Group	Negative Ranks	1	3,00	3,00	-3,604*	,000
	Positive Ranks	17	9,88	168,00		
	Equal	3				
Control Group	Negative Ranks	9	9,83	88,50	-1,062*	,288
	Positive Ranks	7	6,79	47,50		
	Equal	2				

*Based on negative ranks for experimental group.

*Based on positive ranks for control group.

As it is seen in table 10 the mean rank of the negative ranks is 3,00 and 9,88 for positive ranks. Sum of the negative ranks was found to be 3,00 while sum of the positive ranks was 168,00. The result of the analysis shows that there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test speaking strategy use scores of the students in the experimental group (z = -3,604; p = ,000 < ,05). Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores, the observed difference is in favour of negative rank, that is, the post-test scores of the experimental group, which means experimental group have showed a significant improvement in their speaking strategy use after the treatment period.

Table 10 also reveals the findings for the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group that is to say there is not a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the control group (z = -1,062; p = ,288 > ,05). The mean rank of the negative ranks is 9,83 and 6,79 for positive ranks. The sum of the negative ranks for the control group students' speaking strategy use is 88,5, while their sum of positive ranks is 47,5. Given the sum of ranks for the difference scores as a result of the analysis, the observed difference is in favour of positive ranks, which means control group have not showed any significant improvement during their regular instruction outlined in MoNE.

4.2.2.3. The analysis of the post-test scores of the experimental and control groups.
The experimental and control groups were compared through the Mann-Whitney U test in terms of their post-test results to see whether there is a statistically significant difference between the groups. The results of experimental and control groups' post-test scores are shown in Table 11 while the mean rank of the experimental group is calculated as 26,76 the mean rank of the control group is 12,11. The sum of the ranks of the experimental group is 562,00, the sum for the control group is 218,00. It can be seen from the table that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of post-test scores (U = 47,000; p = ,000 < ,05). When the mean ranks of the groups were analyzed, it was clearly

seen that the students in the experimental group scored significantly higher on the post-test than the students in the control group, which means the students in the experimental group showed significant improvement in their speaking strategy use as a result of the intervention.

Table 11

Results of the Mann Whitney-U Test between the experimental and control groups' post-tests scores

		Post-test			
Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	᾽ P
Experimental Group	21	26,76	562,00		
Control Group	18	12,11	218,00	47,000	,000

4.2.3. Observation results. As explained in the section 3.7.1.2., the students in the experimental group were observed through observation checklists for 11 hours before and 11 hours after the intervention. The observation checklists were scored in order to support the self-report data obtained by the survey as pre-test-post-test applications and to provide direct and more objective information. Table 12 demonstrates the tally marks recorded every time on the instruments when observable speaking strategies occurred. The observation results of the experimental group were suprising when compared to the survey results. The results supported the negative expectation for the quality of data obtained from children at this age via survey. Accordingly, children's limited cognitive skills have a negative impact on the reliability of the question-answer process. In addition, the effect of their limited awareness about the speaking strategies, especially before the intervention, shows that *there is no exact correspondence* between the survey and observation scores. However, the results of the two kinds of measurements, especially after the intervention, show a parallel rise on the students' speaking strategy use. Therefore, it would be more logical to interpret the results in terms of the changes in the students' strategy use, which refers to the extent to which the intervention

produced the expected results. When we look at the changes in the scores on observed items especially for the instructed ones, the table 12 shows cleary what children actually do in the learning environment. A positive change in their scores with a momentum can be seen for the items 12 (f = 74) and interchangeably used items 9 (f = 19) and 8 (f = 38). The items 4, 6, 7 and 10 were measured as (f = 3). The item 18 supported the expectation with its score (f = 1). The items 2 (f = 6) and 5 (f = 6) were measured as the least frequently used items. The item 14 with (f = 35) was included in the observation checklists with special attention because it shows the increased participation of the specific students who were quiet and hesitant, and did not show any participation to the lessons during the pre-treatment observation period. As can be seen, the students reported a change in the profile of their usage of speaking strategies.

Table 12

Summary of the experimental group's classroom observation tally results before and after the intervention

	Tallies Before Intervention	Tallies After Intervention
2. I use a new vocabulary in sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly.	25	6
4. When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people to pronounce the words (correctly).	4	3
5. When I say something in English I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned.	12	6
6. When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture.	-	3
7. When I have trouble in explaining meanings of things in English, I use my body language /gestures.	2	3
8. When I can't find an expression or a word in English, I ask for help.	11 (in L1)	38 (in L2)
9. While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help.	6 (in L1)	19 (in L2)
10. When I can't find an expression, I try to say it by using words/phrases I already know	1	3
12. I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom.	-	74
14. I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes.	-	35[1]
18. I ask the other person to correct me when I talk.	1	1

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[1] This item was scored specifically for the students (s2-s4-s6-s7-s14-s15) whose participations to the lessons during the pre-treatment observation period were not observed.

4.3. Qualitative Results

In the second part of the results section, qualitative results obtained by the "Minute Papers" which were filled by the students in the Experimental Group and interpreted by the qualitative content analysis are presented and explained in line with the 4th research question of the study.

The aim of this phase is to answer the research question of the study: "What are the students' perceptions on the instructed strategies after strategy training?" It is important to note that the minute papers were filled by the students for each instructed strategy during the intervention process. After the qualitative analysis process, the components representing relevant aspects of the data were represented in the categories, subcategories and codes. Due to the space problem it was impossible to present all meaning units in the tables. Therefore, some of the examples were provided.

The results for each strategy item were presented in separate tables by categorizing them according to their usefulness and easiness. Another categorization was also provided for the areas that the students had difficulty before learning the strategies and the areas that they improved after learning the strategies.

As there exist many tables representing opinions on the usefulness and easiness of the instructed strategies, and the areas that the students had difficulties before the instruction and the areas they made improvements after the instruction of each strategy, the results were summarized within four separate tables to give access to a more comprehensive understanding about what appeared from the content analysis. The interpretation of the qualitative results will be provided based on these four summary tables later in the discussion section.

4.3.1. Students' perceptions about the strategies related to pronunciation:
"I often review newly learned vocabulary or expressions by repeatedly mouthing."
"I use a new vocabulary in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly."
"I produce the sounds of the language until I can say them well."

4.3.1.1. The usefulness of the strategies. When the students were asked to state whether above mentioned strategies they have learned are useful for them, three categories have emerged including *needs/goals, autonomy* and *affect.* The category *needs/goals* is comprised of the subcategory *immediate / future needs* (n=2). The code in the *immediate/future needs* includes the need to transfer the strategy outside the classroom to meet communicative needs. The category *autonomy* is the largest one containing the subcategory *self-reflection* (n=17) with the most frequency counts. Codes within this subcategory are related to having awareness about the strengths and the benefits of the taught strategy. The subcategory *motivation* (n=2) reveals the students' desire to succeed in L2. Table 13 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on whether these strategies are useful for them.

4.3.1.2. The easiness of the strategies. When they were asked about whether it is easy for them to use these strategies, two categories *autonomy* and *affect* are derived from the data. Under the category autonomy *self-reflection* (n=8) emerged as a subcategory. Statements coded into *self-reflection* include the students' increased awareness about the needs, awareness about the strengths and awareness about the facilitative function of the taught strategies. The other category *affect* includes the subcategory *attitude* (n=1) and represents the students' developing positive attitude toward the language. Table 14 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on whether these strategies are easy to use for them.

Table 13

Summary of the categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategies' usefulness

	Category	Sub-category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is useful	Needs/goals	Immediate/ future needs (n=2)	Need to transfer the str. outside the classroom to meet comm. needs	"When I am abroad, I can use these strategies. I can use them with my friends (S4). While playing games, I can chat with English-speaking friends (S19).
	Autonomy	Self-reflection (n=17)	Having awareness about the strengths	"I improved my English more thanks to these strategies (S11-S3). I speak English more easily now (S20). I can pronounce the words better than I used to (s16)."
			Having awareness about facilitative function of the strategy	"The words become even more memorable (S20-S15). Strategies are necessary to learn and pronounce the words (S13-S19). Strategies help me pronounce the words correctly and use them in a sentence (S12). They are necessary to use (S10) and pronounce the words more properly (S8)."
	Affect	Motivation (n=2)	Motivation to succeed in L2	"I want to learn more about English (S21). I can speak English in the future and I can be very good at it (S14)."

Table 14

Summary of the categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategies' easiness to use

	Category	Sub-category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is easy	Autonomy	Self-reflection (n=8)	Having awareness about the needs	"It only requires will and wish (S11)."
			Having awareness about the strengths	"I can make sentences better (S16). My English is getting better (S3)."
			Having awareness about the facilitative function of the strategy	"It is easy thanks to the repetion of the words both visually and verbally (S10). As I use the words in my daily life, they become memorable in time. So, I can say them easily (S13). I can pronounce English words better now by repeating them (S20). I repeat the words and I can speak better (S4)."
	Affect	Attitude (n=1)	Developing positive attitude	"I love speaking English (S8)."

4.3.1.3. The problems experienced before learning the strategies. The students were asked to state the problems they experienced before learning these strategies. Their reported thoughts were gathered under two categories: *linguistic* and *non-linguistic difficulties*. While the category *linguistic difficulties* (n=19) includes the difficulties in pronunciation and building sentences, the category *non-linguistic difficulties* (n=5) includes anxiety, confidence problems and lacking the ability to make independent efforts in learning. Table 15 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on the difficulties they experienced before strategy learning.

4.3.1.4. The areas improved after learning the strategies. When they were asked to state the improved areas that they noticed after learning these strategies, their thoughts were coded into again l*inguistic* and *non-linguistic improvements* in speaking. Responses coded into the category *linguistic improvements* (n=20) are corresponding to improvements in pronunciation, speaking and language learning. Responses coded into the category *non-linguistic improvements* (n=6) are corresponding to increased participation, increased confidence, increased pleasure in learning and increased dependence on self. Table 16 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on the areas facilitated through strategy learning.

Table 15

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding problems experienced before learning the strategies

	Category/Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The problems experienced in speaking before learning the strategy	Linguistic difficulties (n=19)	Difficulty in pronunciation	"I couldn't say the words correctly (S11-S15-S12-S13)."
		Difficulty in building sentences	"I couldn't use the words in a sentence (S9). I couldn't make a sentence (S13-16). As I did not repeat the newly learned words and sounds, I couldn't use them while speaking English (S1). I couldn't speak English well (S7-15-8-18-6). I did not know how to speak English (S19)."
	Non-linguistic difficulties (n=5)	Confidence problems	"I used to be embarrassed when I mispronounced the words (S10). I used to think that I would be ashamed (S7). I used to be shy while speaking English (S9)."
		Anxiety problems	"I used to hesitate to say the words, so I did not use them (s10)."
		Lacking the ability to make independent efforts	"I used to ask for help from others (S17)."

Table 16

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the improved areas after learning the strategies

	Category/Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The areas facilitated through strategy learning	Linguistic improvements in speaking (n=20)	Improvements in pronunciation and speaking	"I say the words better/more properly (S6-12-15-11-13), as if I speak Turkish (S11). I repeat words and speak English better (S4-S16-S19-S15-S8-S18). I can say the words (S13) and make a sentence (S13-S9). While speaking, I do not have any difficulty (S3-S20)."
		Improvement in language learning	"I understand what is happening in games (S19). I can understand English words (S16). I think of more English words (S21)."
		Increased participation(WTC)	"I look for opportunities to speak English thanks to this strategy (S10)."
	Non-linguistic improvements in speaking (n=6)	Increased confidence	"I can talk to someone speaking English now (S6). I can speak English easily (S9)."
		Increased pleasure in learning	"I am very happy now (S5). I am pleased (S21)."
		Increased dependence on self	"I make an effort myself now (S17)."

4.3.2. Students' perceptions about the strategy of "When I have trouble in explaining meanings of things in English, I use my body language or gestures."

4.3.2.1. The usefulness of the strategy. When the students were asked to state whether the strategy they have learned is useful for them, three categories *appeals to children's characteristics*, *needs/goals, autonomy* emerged from the data. The category *children's characteristics* includes the sub-category *being kinesthetic and visual learners* (n=2) with the corresponding code - learning through preferred learning styles. The category needs/goals contains the subcategory *future needs* (n=2) with the code corresponding to the need to transfer the strategy outside the classroom. The category *autonomy* appears as the most coded one with two subcategories *self-awareness* (n=9) and *self-reflection* (n=3). While self-awareness breaks out the code of fulfillment of the communicative needs, self-reflection breaks out the code of having awareness about one's own learning. Table 17 shows the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units regarding the strategy's usefulness.

4.3.2.2. The easiness of the strategy. When they were asked about whether it is easy for them to use the strategy they have learned, two categories *children's characteristics,* and *needs/goals* are derived from the data, see Table 18. *Being kinesthetic and visual learners* (n=5) and *having an instinct for fun* (n=1) emerged as subcategories under the category appeals to children characteristics. Statements coded into *being kinesthetic and visual learners* include learning through concrete experiences requiring them to see and act. Statements coded into *having instinct for fun* include being fond of fun elements with the language. The second category needs/goals include the subcategory *immediate communicative needs* (n=1) with the coding which is about the need to transfer the strategy outside of the classroom.

Table 17

Summary of the categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding its usefulness

	Category	Sub-category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is useful	Children's charact.	Kinesthetic, visual learners (n=2)	Learning through preferred learning styles	"I like this strategy very much (S8). Expressing something by using body language and gestures helps us understand the words more quickly (S14)."
	Needs/ goals	Future needs (n=2)	Need to transfer the str.	"I can use this strategy when I meet an English person (S5). I can use this strategy when I travel to other countries (S12)."
	Autonomy	Self-awareness (n=9)	Fulfillment of comm. needs	"I can speak easily by using my body language because I know few words (S21). When I have difficulty in speaking English, I can express whatever I want by using this strategy (S11.) I can ask about information by pointing out something (S19)."
		Self-reflection (n=3)	Having awareness about one's own learning	"I express easily what I mean by using my mimics and it helps me learn English better (S7). When I am stressed about saying the words incorrectly, it is better to use this strategy (S17). The ways to express myself increase (S15)."

Table 18

Summary of the categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding its easiness to use

	Category	Sub-category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is easy	Children charact.	Kinesthetic/ visual learners(n=5)	Learning through concrete experiences requiring to see, act etc.	"I just move. That's it (S5-S9-S12). My friend understands me better (S4). It is easy for me to ask about something by pointing it out (S21)."
		Have an instinct for fun (n=1)	Being fond of fun elements with the language	"It is easy and fun for me to tell the words that I do not know in this way (S20)."
	Needs/ Goals	Immediate communicative needs (n=1)	Need to transfer the strategy outside the classroom	"I can also use this strategy at home (S13)."

4.3.2.3. The problems experienced before learning the strategy.

The students were asked to state the problems they experienced before strategy learning. Their reported thoughts were gathered under the categories *linguistic* and *non-linguistic difficulties*. While the category *linguistic difficulties* (n=12) include having tendency to use mother tongue and the difficulty in expressing oneself due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skills, the category *non-linguistic difficulties* (n=3) include anxiety and confidence problems. Table 19 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts regarding the problems experienced before strategy learning.

4.3.2.4. The areas improved after learning the strategy.

When they were asked to state the improved areas that they noticed after strategy learning, their thoughts were coded into again l*inguistic* and *non-linguistic improvements* in speaking. Responses coded into the category *linguistic improvements* (n=7) are corresponding to increased performance in communication. Responses coded into the category *non-linguistic improvements* (n=8) are corresponding to increased awareness about strengths and increased awareness about one's own learning. Table 20 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts regarding improved areas after strategy learning.

Table 19

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding problems experienced before learning the strategy

	Category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The problems experienced in speaking before learning the strategy	Linguistic difficulties (n=12)	Having tendency to use mother tongue	"I used to interrupt the flow of an English sentence by adding any Turkish word (S11)."
		Difficulty in expressing oneself due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skills	"I used to have difficulty in telling the words that I did not know (S7-S8-S15-S3). I couldn't make a sentence (S16). This strategy did not use to come to my mind when I tried to tell the words that I did not know (S12). My friend couldn't understand what I meant (S4). I couldn't tell the words that I was not able to pronounce correctly. For example, the word 'you' (S17)."
	Non-linguistic difficulties (n=3)	Anxiety problems(n=1)	"I used to hesistate to speak up in the class (S10)."
		Confidence problems (n=2)	"I used to be shy to speak up in the class (S10). I used to be shy to tell the words that I did not know (S7)."

Table 20

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding improved areas after learning the strategy

	Category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The areas facilitated through strategy learning	Linguistic improvements in speaking (n=7)	Increased performance in communication	"I can easily tell the words that I do not know now (S3-S8-S15-S20). I can tell the words that I am unable to pronounce by using my body language (S17)."
	Non-linguistic improvements in speaking (n=8)	Increased awareness about strengths	"I can make English sentences better (S11-S16). I can use my body language easily now (S7-S12-S21). Even though I do not know the words, it is not a problem because I use my body langauge and mimics (S10)."
		Increased awareness about one's own learning	"It is a better way of telling the words for me (S1)."

4.3.3. Students' perceptions about the strategy of "When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture".

4.3.3.1. The usefulness and easiness of the strategy. When the students were asked to state whether the strategy they have learned is useful for them, two categories *children's characteristics* and *autonomy* are obtained from the data. The category *children's characteristics* emerged with its subcategories including *being kinesthetic, visual learners* (n=3) and *having an instinct for fun* (n=1). Responses coded into being kinesthetic and visual learners are related to learning through their preferred learning styles. Responses coded into having an instinct for fun represent their characteristics (Moon, 2000). The category *autonomy* contains the subcategory *self-awareness* (n=10) with the most frequency counts and the codes corresponding to having awareness about overcoming the communicative needs. Table 21 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on whether the strategy is useful for them.

4.3.3.2. The easiness of the strategy. When they were asked about whether it is easy for them to use the strategy they have learned, again the two categories *children's characteristics* and *autonomy* emerged. *Being kinesthetic, visual learners* (n=7) and *having an instinct for fun* (n=1) are illustrative subcategories for the category *children's characteristics*. Coding within 'being kinesthetic and visual learners' is about learning through preferred learning styles and coding within 'having instinct for fun' is about being fond of fun elements with the language. Under the category autonomy, *self-awareness* (n=5) emerged as a subcategory with the codes about having awareness about one's own learning. Table 22 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on whether it is easy for them to use.

Table 21

The categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategy's usefulness

	Category	Subcategory/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is useful	Children's charact.	Being kinesthetic, visual learners (n=3)	Learning through preferred learning styles	"I understand and tell the words more easily (S6). When we tell a word by drawing its picture, it becomes more memorable (S13)."
		Having an instinct for fun (n=1)	Being fond of fun elements with the language	"Speaking English is fun (S8)."
	Autonomy	Self-awareness (n=10)	Having awareness about overcoming the communicative needs	"If I do not know a word and can't express it by my mimics, I tell it by drawing its picture (S5-S7-S20-S16-S10). I can tell the words in several ways (S15). I can express whatever I want when I have difficulty in speakig English (S11)."

Table 22

The categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategy's easiness to use

	Category	Subcategory/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is easy	Children's charact.	Being kinesthetic, visual learners (n=7)	Learning through concrete experiences requiring to see, act etc.	"I drew the picture of a skateboard the other day and my friends understood me easily (S6). I can express myself easily by drawing picture (S7-S21-S5-S12-S9)."
		Having an instinct for fun (n=1)	Being fond of fun elements with the language	"I love this strategy because it is fun (S8)."
	Autonomy	Self-awareness (n=5)	Having awareness about one's own learning	"It might be useful when speaking with a foreigner (S12). The only thing you need is having the ability to draw. I can express whatever I want if I draw its picture (S11). Even though I do not know the words, it is easy for me to tell them by drawing their pictures (S10-S1-S16)."

4.3.3.3. The problems experienced before learning the strategy. The students were asked to state the problems they experienced before strategy learning. Their reported thoughts were gathered under the categories: *linguistic* and *non-linguistic difficulties*. While the category *linguistic difficulties* (n=12) includes the difficulty in meeting communicative needs due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill, the category *non-linguistic difficulties* (n=2) includes confidence problems. Table 23 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts regarding the problems experienced before learning the strategy.

4.3.3.4. The areas improved after learning the strategy. When they were asked to state the improved areas that they noticed after learning the strategy, their thoughts were coded into again in *linguistic improvements* in speaking. Responses coded into the category *linguistic improvements* (n=13) are related to increased performance in communication with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function. Table 23 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts regarding the improved areas after strategy learning.

Table 23

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding problems and improved areas before and after learning the strategy

	Category/Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The problems experienced in speaking before learning the strategy	Linguistic difficulties (n=12)	Difficulty in meeting comm. needs due to inadequate voc. repertoire and weak sentence building skill	"There were few ways to tell the words, so I couldn't tell them well (S15). I couldn't tell something (S3), I did not know how to tell it (S6). I couldn't express what I meant, so I fell behind in the class (S10). I couldn't tell the English words (S16-S20-S1)."
	Non-Linguistic difficulties (n=2)	Confidence problems	"I used to hesitate to participate in the lesson (S10). I used to express myself by using my mimics, but I used to feel shy and have difficulties (S7)."
The areas facilitated through strategy learning	Linguistic improvements in speaking (n=13)	Increased performance in communication with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function	"I have a new option now (S11). I can tell the words either I do not know or I do not remember (S16-S21). It is easy for me to use this strategy now; I used it in the lesson (S1). I can tell something easily now (S6-S15-S8). I can tell English words without any hesitation by drawing their pictures (S20)."

4.3.4. Students' perceptions about the strategy of "While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean I ask for help"- "Can you help me? / I need help!"

4.3.4.1. The usefulness of the strategy. When the students were asked to state whether the strategy they have learned is useful for them, two categories are provided, including *needs/goals* and *autonomy.* The most coded category *autonomy* includes the subcategories *self-awareness* (n=13) with the code representing fulfillment of the communicative and learning needs by chunks, and self-*reflection* (n=2) with the code representing having awareness about strengths. The category *affect* includes two subcategories of anxiety (n=3) and motivation (n=1). While the coding in anxiety reveals speaking without anxiety, the coding in motivation reveals the students' desire to succeed in L2. Table 24 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts regarding its usefulness.

4.3.4.2. The easiness of the strategy. When they were asked about whether it is easy for them to use the strategy they have learned, three categories *children's characteristics*, *autonomy* and *affect* are derived from the data. Under the category children characteristics, *learn the language through chunks* (n=5) with the coding- having a need to know phrases with complete meaning to meet communicative and linguistic needs, *have an instinct for fun* (n=1) with the coding being fond of fun elements with the language emerged from the data. The category *affect* includes the subcategory *anxiety* (n=2) with the coding speaking without anxiety. Under the category *autonomy, self-awareness* (n=3) emerges as a subcategory. Statements coded into *self-awareness* include awareness about overcoming the communicative needs. Table 25 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts regarding the strategy's easiness.

Table 24

The categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategy's usefulness

	Category	Subcategory/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is useful	Autonomy	Self-awareness (n=13)	Fulfillment of the comm. and learning needs by chunks	"I can get help from my teacher by using this strategy when I do not remember the words (S19-S12-S20-S10). I have two more sentences in my English repertoire, so I can express my needs in English (S11). I used to get stuck before learning this strategy, but I can keep on talking by asking for help now (S15). It is beneficial for me to ask for help in English rather than Turkish (S13)."
		Self-reflection (n=2)	Awareness about strengths	"I can speak English better (S2). I can make a dialogue better (S18)."
	Affect	Anxiety (n=3)	Speaking without anxiety	"I can say the words without hesitation now (S1). I can ask for help without hesitation (S18). I can speak up and I have no hesitation (S10)."
		Motivation (n=1)	Having desire to succeed in L2	"I want to learn more sentence patterns in English (S21)."

Table 25

The categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategy's easiness to use

	Category	Subcategory/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is easy	Children's charact.	Learn the language through chunks (n=5)	Having a need to know phrases with complete meaning to meet comm./ linguistic needs	"It is easy to memorise, only one sentence. It is okey for me to keep it in my memory (S11). What I need is just to say 'I need help!' (S18). I repeat these sentences with my teacher, so I keep them in my mind (S12). I have a good memeory, so I can keep these structures in my mind (S21)."
		Have an instinct for fun (n=1)	Being fond of fun elements with the language	"It is easy because speaking English is fun and nice (s8)."
	Affect	Anxiety (n=2)	Speaking without anxiety	"I can use these structures as I manage my excitement (S1). I can ask about the things that I do not know without hesitation (S20)."
	Autonomy	Self-awareness (n=3)	Awareness about overcoming the comm. needs	"I can learn the things that I do not know (S10). I can use these sentences when I need help (S13-6)."

4.3.4.3. The problems experienced before learning the strategy. The students were asked to state the problems they experienced before learning the strategy. Their reported thoughts were gathered under the categories *linguistic* and *on-linguistic difficulties*. The category *linguistic difficulties* (n=16) represents having a tendency to use the mother tongue, difficulty in meeting communicative needs due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill, difficulties in vocabulary learning and difficulties in pronunciation. The category *non-linguistic difficulties* (n=4) represents anxiety and confidence problems. Table 26 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts regarding the problems experienced before strategy learning.

4.3.4.4. The areas improved after learning the strategy. When they were asked to state the improved areas that they noticed after learning the strategy, their thoughts were coded into again *linguistic improvements* in speaking. Responses coded into the category *linguistic improvements* (n=15) are related to increased L2 use with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function, improvement in vocabulary learning and improvement in pronunciation. Responses coded into the category *non-linguistic improvements* (n=4) are related to reduced anxiety when speaking. Table 27 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts regarding the improved areas through strategy learning.

Table 26

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the problems experienced before learning the strategy

	Category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The problems experienced in speaking before learning the strategy	Linguistic difficulties (n=16)	Having tendency to use the mother tongue	"I had to say it in Turkish (S11-S13- S21). We used to speak Turkish in our English lessons (S17)."
		Difficulty in meeting comm. needs due to inadequate voc. repertoire and weak sentence building skill	"I used to get stuck when speaking and I couldn't keep on talking (S15). It was difficult for me to speak English (S3), I couldn't ask for help from my teacher (S3-S6-S7-S8-S20). I did not know the verb that is used to ask for help, so I couldn't ask for help (S12)."
		Difficulties in vocab. learning	"I couldn't learn the words (S18-S19)."
		Difficulties in pronunciation	"I couldn't pronounce the words that I did not know (S16). I used to mispronunce the words as I did not get help from my teacher (S1)."
	Non-Linguistic difficulties (n=3)	Anxiety problems	"I used to hesitate to speak up (S10). I used to hesitate to ask for help (S18)."
		Confidence problems	"I used to be shy to ask for help (S7)."

Table 27

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the imroved areas after learning the strategy

	Category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The areas facilitated through strategy learning	Linguistic improvements in speaking (n=15)	Increased L2 use with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function	"I can keep on talking by asking for help when I get stuck (S15). I can ask for help now (S6-S8-S12- S20). Our English lessons became English (S17). I can say something in English now (S11-S13-S21) I can speak English well (S2)."
		Improvement in vocab. learning	"I can learn the words easily (S18). I learned the words that I do not know (S19)."
		Improvement in pronunciation	"I can pronounce the new words (S16). I can pronunce the words correctly by asking for help (S1)."
	Non-linguistic improvements in speaking (n=4)	Reduced anxiety	"I say the words without hesitation (S1). I can ask for help easily without hesitation (S18-S3). I can speak up without hesitation (S10)."

4.3.5. Students' perceptions about the strategy of "When I can't find an expression or a word in English, I ask for help": "How do you say x in English?"

4.3.5.1. The usefulness of the strategy. When the students were asked to state whether the strategy they have learned is useful for them, two categories are provided, including *children's characteristics* and *autonomy.* The category *appeals to children's characteristics* includes the subcategory *learning through chunks* (n=2). The responses coded into learning through chunks are related to having a need to know ready-made phrases with complete meaning to meet communicative needs. The category *autonomy* includes the subcategory of *self-awareness* (n=13) with the codes representing having awareness about the facilitative function of the strategy and fulfillment of the communicative needs by chunks. Table 28 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on whether the strategy is useful.

4.3.5.2. The easiness of the strategy. When they were asked about whether it is easy for them to use the strategy, three categories *children's characteristics*, *affect* and *autonomy* are derived from the data. Under the category *children's characteristics*, *learning through chunks* (n=11) with the coding- having a need to know phrases with complete meaning to meet communicative and linguistic needs- emerged from the data. The category *affect* includes the subcategory *attitude* (n=1) with the code representing having a positive attitude towards the language. Under the category *autonomy*, *self-reflection* (n=1) emerges as a subcategory with the code about awareness about the strengths. Table 29 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on whether the strategy is easy to use.

Table 28

The categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategy's usefulness

	Category	Subcategory/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is useful	Children's charact. Autonomy	Learning through chunks (n=2) Self-awareness (n=4/8)	Having a need to know ready-made phrases to meet comm. needs	"I have two more sentences in my English repertoire (S11). Using these sentence patterns can improve my English (S17)."
			Having awareness about the facilitative function of the strategy	"It is useful for me to ask for help in English rather than Turkish when I don't know the meaning of the words (S13). These sentence patterns teach us how to pronounce the words (S11). My English knowledge improved (S6)."
			Fulfillment of the communicative needs by chunks	"I can ask about the unknown words by using this strategy (S10-S12-S19-S20-S21). I can ask about Tuskish and English equivalents of the words and learn them easily (S15-S18-S3)."

Table 29

The categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategy's easiness to use

	Category	Subcategory/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is easy	Children's charact.	Learning through chunks (n=11)	Having a need to know ready-made phrases to meet communicative and linguistic needs	"We always use this strategy, so it is in my mind all the time (S12). I have to say the meaning of unknown words in English, so I can ask these questions easily (S13). Only one sentence! (S5). Just memorize it, in fact you don't need it. Just say it in a rush (S11). It is enough to say only these sentence patterns (S18)."
	Affect	Attitude (n=1)	Having a positive attitude towards the language	"I love English (S8)."
	Autonomy	Self-reflection (n=1)	Awareness about strengths	"I can speak English more now (S6)."

4.3.5.3. The problems experienced before learning the strategy. The students were asked to state the problems they experienced before strategy learning. Their reported thoughts were gathered under the category *linguistic difficulties* (n=14). Under this category their reported thoughts represent having tendency to use the mother tongue, difficulty in meeting learning needs due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill and difficulties in pronunciation. Table 30 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on the problems they experienced before learning the strategy.

4.3.5.4. The areas improved after learning the strategy. When they were asked to state the improved areas that they noticed after learning the strategy, their thoughts were coded into *linguistic improvements* in speaking. Responses coded into the category *linguistic improvements* (n=13) are related to increased performance in learning with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function, improvement in vocabulary learning and pronunciation, and increased L2 use. Table 31 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on the improved areas after learning the strategy.

Table 30

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the problems experienced before learning the strategy

	Category/Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The problems experienced in speaking before learning the strategy	Linguistic difficulties (n=14)	Having a tendency to use the mother tongue	"I used to ask for help in Turkish (S11-S21). When I wanted to know how to say a word, I used to ask about it in Turkish. For example, I used to say "Kelebeğin İngilizce'si ne öğretmenim?" (S17)."
		Difficulty in meeting learning needs due to inadequate voc. repertoire and weak sentence building skill	"I couldn't ask about Turkish - English equiavelentsof the words (S8-S18). I did not know the words (S16-S19). I had difficulty in figuring out the meaning of the words (S13). As I did not know the words and did not speak out, I used to get low grades (S10). I couldn't ask about how to say the words in English and Turkish (S15)."
		Difficulties in pronunciation	"I used to mispronounce the words which I intended to say (S1-S3)."

Table 31

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the improved areas after learning the strategy

	Category/Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The areas facilitated through strategy learning	Linguistic improvements in speaking (n=13)	Increased performance in learning with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function	"I think of the words first, and then ask for help from my teacher (S20). I learn the words that I do not know by asking to my teacher (S10-S12-S13)."
		Improvement in vocabulary learning and pronunciation	"I can pronounce the words (S1-S16). I know the meaning of the words (S19). I learn and say the words more easily (S3). I can translate the words from English to Turkish and vice versa now, and I can learn them (S15-S18)."
		Increased L2 use	"I say "How do you say 'kelebek' in English?" now (S17). I learned two more English sentence patterns, so I can speak English better (S11)."

4.3.6. Students' perceptions about the strategy "I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom."

4.3.6.1. The usefulness of the strategy. When the students were asked to state whether the strategy they have learned is useful for them, two categories *needs/goals* and *autonomy* are obtained from the data. The category needs/goals emerged with its subcategory *immediate needs* (n=1). Responses coded into this subcategory are related to the need to transfer the strategy outside the classroom. The category *autonomy* contains the subcategory *self-awareness* (n=14) with the most frequency counts and the code representing having awareness about the benefits of the strategy. Table 32 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on whether the strategy is useful for them.

4.3.6.2. The easiness of the strategy. When they were asked about whether it is easy for them to use this strategy, the two categories *autonomy and affect* emerged from the data. *Self-awareness* (n=3) and *self-reflection* (n=1) are illustrative subcategories for the category autonomy. Coding within self-awareness is about having self-awareness about the benefits of the strategy and coding within self-reflection is about having awareness about strengths. Under the category affect *attitude* (n=6) emerges as a subcategory with the codes about having positive attitude towards the language. Table 33 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on whether the strategy is easy for them to use.

Table 32

The categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategy's usefulness

	Category	Subcategory/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is useful	Needs/goals	Immediate needs (n=1)	Need to transfer the str. outside the class	"I use this strategy not only in the classroom, but also at home (S21)."
	Autonomy	Self-awareness (n=14)	Having awareness about facilitative function of the strategy	"If I look for opportunities, I speak English more (S18). The classroom is the best place for me to speak English (S20). I speak English better (S5-S15). This strategy makes speaking English easy (S8). I improve my English by speaking in the classroom (S3-8-11-13-17). I look for opportunities and raise up my hand to speak (S6). I can say English words (S10)."

Table 33

The categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategy's easiness to use

	Category	Subcategory/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is easy	Autonomy	Self-awareness (n=3)	Having awareness about facilitative function of the strategy	"I pronounce the words correctly by looking for opportunities to speak (S10). I only use the words that I learned, so it is easy. (S19). When you look for opportunities, it becomes easy to speak (S20)."
		Self-reflection (n=1)	Having awareness about the strengths	"I know more about English now (S21)."
	Affect	Attitude (n=6)	Having a positive attitude towards the language	"I love English, so it is easy for me to speak (S8-S13). I like looking for opportunuties to speak (S7). Speaking English in English lesson makes me happy (S17)."

4.3.6.3. The problems experienced before learning the strategy. The students were asked to state the problems they experienced before learning the strategy. Their reported thoughts were gathered under the category *linguistic difficulties* (n=13). Under this category the students 'reported thoughts represent difficulty in meeting communicative needs due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill, difficulty in meeting learning needs due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill and difficulties in pronunciation. Table 34 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on the problems they experienced before learning the strategy.

4.3.6.4. The areas improved after learning the strategy. When they were asked to state the improved areas that they noticed after learning this strategy, their thoughts were coded into again *linguistic improvements* in speaking. Responses coded into the category *linguistic improvements* (n=12) are related to increased performance in learning with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function, improvement in vocabulary learning and pronunciation and increased performance in speaking with the increased L2 use. Table 35 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on the improved areas facilitated through the strategy learning.

Table 34

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the analysis of the data regarding the problems experienced before learning the strategy

	Category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The problems experienced in speaking before learning the strategy	Linguistic difficulties (n=13)	Difficulty in meeting communicative needs due to inadequate voc. repertoire and weak sentence building skill	"I couldn't look for opportunities to speak English (S6-S15). I used to try to speak to myself (S1). I couldn't speak English (S13-S20). I couldn't speak English well (S8-S15-S2). I used to speak English only in English lessons (S21)."
		Difficulty in meeting learning needs due to inadequate voc. repertoire and weak sentence building skill	"I used to mix up the words as I couldn't keep them in my mind (S11). I couldn't improve my English (S3)."
		Difficulties in pronunciation	"I couldn't say the words well (S10)."

Table 35

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the analysis of the data regarding the improved areas after learning the strategy

	Category/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The areas facilitated through strategy learning	Linguistic improvements in speaking (n=12)	Increased performance in learning with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function	"I improved my memory skill more (S11). My English is getting better (S17)."
		Improvement in vocabulary learning and pronunciation	"I can say the words in a correct and understandable way (S10)."
		Increased performance in speaking with the increased L2 use	"I paricipate in the lesson more (S12). I look for opportunities to speak English (S6-S15-S20-S21). I can speak with my friends in the classroom (S3-S1). I speak English easily (S13)."

4.3.7. Students' perceptions about the strategy "Whenever I am stressed by the idea of speaking English, I try to relax myself."

4.3.7.1. The usefulness of the strategy. When the students were asked to state whether this strategy they have learned is useful for them, two categories *needs/goals* and *affect* are derived from the data. The category *needs/goals* emerges with its subcategory *immediate needs* (n=1) with the codes about the need to transfer the strategy outside the classroom. The category *affect* includes the subcategories *anxiety* (n=10) and *monitoring feelings* (n=5). While responses coded into anxiety are about having a sense of control over learning outcomes with a need for emotional security, the responses coded into monitoring feelings are about recognizing potential symptoms and releasing them by benefitting from the strategy when speaking. Table 36 shows the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units about whether the strategy is useful.

4.3.7.2. The easiness of the strategy. When they were asked about whether it is easy for them to use the strategy, two categories *children's characteristics* and *affect* emerged from the data. The category *appeals to children's characteristics* includes the subcategory *have an instinct for fun* (n=1) with the code being fond of fun elements with the language. The second category affect includes three subcategories - *anxiety* (n=3) with the code representing having a sense of control over learning outcomes with a need for emotional security when speaking, *monitoring feelings* (n=5) with the code about recognizing potential symptoms and releasing them by benefitting from the strategy when speaking, and *attitude* (n=1) with the code about having positive attitudes towards the language. Table 37 illustrates the categories, subcategories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on whether the strategy is easy for them to use.

Table 36

The categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategy's usefulness

	Category	Subcategory/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is useful	Needs/ goals	Immediate needs (n=1)	Need to transfer the str.	"If I want, I can use this strategy in other areas in my life (S11).
	Affect	Anxiety (n=10)	Having a sense of control over learning outcomes with a need for emotional security when speaking	"If I don't feel myself comfortable, I make myself relaxed by using this strategy and then I say the words correctly (S10). I am a stressfull person, so the idea of speakig English makes me feel stressed and nervous. That's why it is useful for me (S13). If I make myself feel relaxed, I speak English more easily (S6-17-19) without feeling of shy (S20)."
		Monitoring feelings (n=5)	Recognizing potential symptoms and releasing them by benefitting from the strategy when speaking	"Otherwise I would have a headache (S5). When I feel myself stressed, I can make myself relaxed if I remember this strategy (S3-S15). While you are stressed, it is good to make yourself relaxed (S1). I get very nervous while speaking English (S10)."

Table 37

The categories, subcategories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the strategy's easiness to use

	Category	Subcategory/ Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
This strategy is easy	Children's charact.	Have an instinct for fun (n=1)	Being fond of fun elements with the language	"I am not stressed because we learn the language by having fun (S12)."
	Affect	Anxiety (n=3)	Having a sense of control over learning outcomes with a need for emotional security when speaking	"I speak English without any hesitation now (S6). I can tell the words that I do not know now (S16). I can speak English easily thanks to this strategy (S20)."
		Monitoring feelings (n=5)	Recognizing potential symptoms and releasing them by benefitting from the strategy when speaking	"I make myself relaxed just by thinking positively (S18). I make myself relaxed just by bringing the strategy to my mind (S15). I know how to make myself relaxed (S19). When I want to make myself relaxed, I can do it easily (S10-S21)."
		Attitude (n=1)	Having positive attitudes towards the language	"I love English (S8)."

4.3.7.3. The problems experienced before learning the strategy. The students were asked to state the problems they experienced before learning the strategy. Their reported thoughts were gathered under the categories *linguistic difficulties* (n=8) and *non-linguistic difficulties* (n=6). Under the category *linguistic difficulties,* the students 'reported thoughts represent difficulty in meeting communicative needs due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill. Under the category *non-linguistic difficulties* their reported thoughts represent anxiety and confidence problems. Table 38 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on the problems they experienced before strategy learning.

4.3.7.4. The areas improved after learning the strategy. When they were asked to state the improved areas that they noticed after strategy learning, their thoughts were coded into *linguistic* and *non-linguistic improvements* in speaking. Responses coded into the category *linguistic improvements* (n=10) are related to increased performance in communication with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function. Responses coded into the category *non-linguistic improvements* (n=4) are related to controlling the level of emotional insecurity when speaking. Table 39 illustrates the categories, codes and some examples of meaning units from the students' reported thoughts on the improved areas facilitated through the strategy learning.

Table 38

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the problems experienced before learning the strategy

	Category/Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The problems experienced in speaking before learning the strategy	Linguistic difficulties (n=8)	Difficulty in meeting communicative needs due to inadequate voc. repertoire and weak sentence building skill	"I couldn't speak English (S2-S20). I did not want to speak English because I was getting stressed (S10). I couldn't express myself as I did not use this strategy before (S7). I couldn't speak as I felt nervous (S17). As I was afraid to speak English, I used to hesitate to participate in the lesson (S13-S12). I was so in panic. That's why I had difficulty in speaking (S11)."
	Non-linguistic difficulties (n=6)	Anxiety problems	"I used to be afraid to speak (S6). I couldn't make myself relaxed (S1). I couldn't speak English easily (S8). I felt overhelmed by my anxiety (S21) When I was stressed I couldn't get rid of it because I did not know about this strategy (S15)."
		Confidence problems	"I was embarrassed because of the stress I felt (S3)."

Table 39

The categories and corresponding codes emerged from the data regarding the areas improved after learning the strategy

	Category/Frequency	Code	Example Meaning Unit
The areas facilitated through strategy learning	Linguistic improvements in speaking (n=10)	Increased performance in communication with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function	"I can speak English without any difficulty (S6-S11-S8-S20-S7-S17). I make myslef relaxed and participate in the lesson (S13). I can speak English by making myself relaxed (S21). I do not feel any hesitation, so I say the words correctly (S10)."
	Non-linguistic improvements in speaking (n=4)	Controlling the level of emotional insecurity	"I immediately make myself relaxed when I get stressed (S15). I can make myself relaxed even a little (S1). I am so relaxed (S12). I do not get stressed (S3)."

In reference to qualitative results of the study, as there exist many tables representing the students' opinion on the usefulness and easiness of the instructed strategies the results were summarized in Table 40 and 41 to give access to a more comprehensive understanding about the findings. For the students' opinion about the problems experienced before strategy learning and the areas improved through the instruction of each strategy items, summary of the findings were presented in Table 42 and 43.

4.3.8. Summary of the data emerged from the content analysis for all the instructed strategies

4.3.8.1. Summary of the students' thoughts on the usefulness of the all instructed strategies. When the students' thoughts on the usefulness of the instructed strategies were summarized, the categories emerged from the data were gathered around "*Children's characteristics; Needs/goals; Autonomy; Affect*". The category '*children's characteristics*' emerges with its subcategories *being kinesthetic/visual learners* (n=5) with the code about learning through preferred learning styles, *having instinct for fun* (n=1) with the code about being fond of fun elements with the language and *learning through chunks* (n=2) with the code about having a need to know ready-made phrases to meet communicative needs. The second category '*needs/goals*' includes the subcategory *immediate/ future needs* (n=6) with the code about having a need to transfer the strategy outside the classroom to meet communicative needs. The third category '*autonomy*' appears with the subcategories *self-awareness* (n=58) and *self-reflection* (n=22). The responses coded into self-awareness and self-reflection are about fulfillment of the communicative needs, having awareness about the strengths, having awareness about one's own learning, having awareness about overcoming the communicative needs and having awareness about the facilitative function of the strategy. The last category 'affect' emerges with its three subcategories - anxiety (n=13) with the code about speaking without anxiety; *monitoring feelings* (n=5) with the code representing having

a sense of control over learning outcomes with a need for emotional security when speaking, and recognizing potential symptoms and releasing them by benefitting from the strategy when speaking; and *motivation* (n=3) with the code about having a desire to succeed in L2 and motivation to succeed in L2. Table 40 illustrates summary of the categories, subcategories and codes regarding all instructed strategies' usefulness.

   4.3.8.2. Summary of the students' thoughts on the easiness of the all instructed strategies. When the students' thoughts on the easiness of the instructed strategies were summarized, the categories emerged from the data were gathered around "*Children's characteristics; Needs/goals; Autonomy; Affect*". The first category '*children's characteristics*' includes the subcategories *being kinesthetic/visual learners* (n=12) with the codes about learning through preferred learning styles and learning through concrete experiences requiring to see, act etc.; *having an instinct for fun* (n=4) with the code about being fond of fun elements with the language; *learning through chunks* (n=16) with the code about having a need to know phrases with complete meaning to meet communicative needs. The second category '*needs/goals*' contains the subcategory *immediate communicative needs* (n=1) with the code representing their need to transfer the strategy outside the classroom. The third category '*autonomy*' appears as the most coded one with its two subcategories *self-awareness* (n=11) and *self-reflection* (n=10). Statements coded into these subcategories are about awareness about the needs, awareness about the strengths , awareness about the facilitative function of the strategy, awareness about overcoming the communicative needs and awareness about one's own learning. The last category '*affect*' appears with three subcategories *anxiety* (5); *monitoring feelings* (n=5) and *attitude* (n=9). The subcategory anxiety breaks out the code of speaking without anxiety. Monitoring feelings includes the codes about having a sense of control over learning outcomes with a need for emotional security when speaking and recognizing potential symptoms and releasing them by

benefitting from the strategy when speaking. Attitude emerges with the code about developing

positive attitude towards the language. Table 41 illustrates summary of the categories,

subcategories and codes regarding all instructed strategies' easiness.

Table 40

Summary of the categories, subcategories and codes regarding usefulness of all the instructed strategies

Category	Subcategory	Code
Children's charact.	Being kinesthetic/visual learners (n=5)	Learning through preferred learning styles
	Having an instinct for fun (n=1)	Being fon of fun elements with the language
Needs/ goals	Learning through chunks (n=2)	Having a need to know ready-made phrases to meet comm. needs
	Immediate/ future needs (n=6)	Need to transfer the str. outside the classroom to meet comm. needs
Autonomy	Self-awareness (n=58)	Fulfillment of the comm. needs
	Self-reflection (n=22)	Having awareness about the strengths and one's own learning
		Having awareness about overcoming the comm. needs and about the facilitative function of the strategy
Affect	Anxiety (n=13)	Speaking without anxiety
	Monitoring feelings (n=5)	Having a sense of control over learing outcomes with a need for emotional security when speaking
		Recognizing potential symptoms and releasing them by benefitting from the strategy
	Motivation (n=3)	Having desire to succeed in L2

Table 41

Summary of the categories, subcategories and codes regarding easiness of all the instructed strategies

Category	Sub-category	Code
Children's charact.	Being kinesthetic/visual learners (n=12)	Learning through preferred learning styles
		Learning through concrete experiences requiring to see, act etc.
	Having an instinct for fun (n=4)	Being fond of fun elements with the language
Needs/ goals	Learning through chunks (n=16)	Having a need to know ready-made phrases to meet comm. needs
	Immediate comm. needs (n=1)	Need to transfer the strategy outside the classroom
Autonomy	Self-reflection (n=10)	Awareness about the needs
	Self-awareness (n=11)	Awareness about the strengths
		Awareness about the facilitative function of the strategy
		Awareness about overcoming the comm. needs
		Awareness about one's own learning
Affect	Anxiety (n=5)	Speaking without anxiety
		Having a sense of control over learning outcomes with a need for emotional security when speaking
	Monitoring feelings (n=5)	Recognizing potential symptoms and releasing them by benefitting from the strategy
	Attitude (n=9)	Developing a positive attitude

4.3.8.3. Summary of the students' thoughts on the problems experienced before the instruction of all the strategies. When the students' thoughts on the difficulties experienced before strategy learning were summarized, the categories emerged from the data were gathered around two main categories *linguistic difficulties* (n=94) and *non-linguistic difficulties* (n=19). The responses coded into the category 'linguistic difficulties' are about difficulty in meeting communicative needs due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill, difficulty in meeting learning needs due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill, difficulty in expressing oneself due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill, difficulties in pronunciation, difficulties in building sentences, difficulties in vocabulary learning, having tendency to use the mother tongue. The category 'non-linguistic difficulties' includes the codes referring to confidence problems, anxiety problems, lacking the ability to make independent efforts. Table 42 illustrates the summary of the categories and codes regarding the problems they experienced before learning the strategies.

4.3.8.4. Summary of the students' thoughts on the areas improved after the instruction of all the strategies. When the students' thoughts on the areas improved after strategy learning were summarized, the categories emerged from the data were gathered around two main categories *linguistic improvements* (n=90) and *non-linguistic improvements* (n=22). Responses coded into the category *'linguistic improvements'* are related to increased performance in learning with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function, increased performance in communication with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function, increased L2 use with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function, increased performance in communication, improvement in vocabulary learning, improvement in pronunciation, improvement in speaking, improvement in language learning, increased performance in speaking with the increased L2 use. The category *'non-linguistic improvements'* includes the

codes about increased participation, increased confidence, increased pleasure in learning, increased dependence on self, increased awareness about strengths, increased awareness about one's own learning, reduced anxiety, controlling the level of emotional insecurity. Table 43 illustrates the summary of the categories and codes regarding the areas improved after learning the strategies.

Table 42

Summary of the categories and codes emerged from the data regarding the difficulties experienced before learning the strategies

Category/frequency	Code
Linguistic difficulties (n=94)	Difficulty in meeting communicative needs due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill
	Difficulty in meeting learning needs due to inadequate voc. repertoire and weak sentence building skill
	Difficulty in expressing oneself due to inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill
	Difficulties in pronunciation
	Difficulties in building sentences
	Difficulties in covabulary learning
	Having tendency to use the mother tongue
Non-linguistic difficulties (n=19)	Confidence problems
	Anxiety problems
	Lacking the ability to make independent efforts

Table 43

Summary of the categories and codes emerged from the data regarding the areas improved after learning the strategies

Category/frequency	Code
Linguistic improvements (n=90)	Increased performance in learning with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function
	Increased performance in communication with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function
	Increased L2 use with the awareness of strategy's facilitative function
	Increased performance in communication
	Improvement in vocabulary learning
	Improvement in pronunciation
	Improvement in speaking
	Improvement in language learning
	Increased performance in speaking with the increased L2 use
	Increased participation
Non-linguistic improvements (n=22)	Increased confidence
	Increased pleasure in learning
	Increased dependence on self
	Increased awareness about strengths
	Increased awareness about one's own learning
	Reduced anxiety
	Controlling the level of emotional insecurity

The next chapter will provide discussion of the findings in the light of the relevant literature.

Chapter 5

Discussion

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the discussion of the findings, conclusions drawn from the study, and implications for the future practices will be provided. All the quantitative and qualitative results obtained from the data will be addressed in relation to the study's research questions.

The survey results obtained from the entire group of students, control group and experimental group students will be addressed with regard to the first research question. The interpretation of the results will be provided in relation to the relevant literature.

The relationship between the instruction of speaking strategies and the students' strategy use addressed by the second and third research questions will be discussed regarding to the survey and observation results in order to show the effect of strategy training on the students' speaking strategy use. In addition, the effect of such instruction on the students' perception of instructed strategies will be addressed with regard to the fourth research question of this study. Responses to the following research questions were investigated in the current study:

1. What are the speaking strategies of 5th grade students?

a) Which speaking strategies are mostly used by 5th grade students?

b) Which speaking strategies are the least used by 5th grade students?

2. Are there any differences between the experimental group and control groups in their use of speaking strategies after strategy training?

3. Is there an increase in participants' L2 production due to the use of strategies they learned?

4. What are the students' perceptions on the instructed strategies after strategy training?

5.2. Speaking Strategies of 5th Grade Students

The first question of this study aimed to identify the speaking strategies used by 5th grade students in a state school. For the entire group of students and the control group students it was found that they reported moderate speaking strategy use. This result is not optimistic even if we assume that they find opportunities to practice oral language in their classes in line with the successful implementation of the new ELTP, in which many changes are based on the development of communicative competence in English, and the main emphasis is given to listening and speaking skills over reading and writing skills which are introduced at this grade limitedly. Therefore, it would be better to take a skeptical approach when evaluating the results because of the ongoing reality which shows itself in the very challenging nature of speaking skill. The issue has two folds: finding opportunities to speak in classroom and having awareness about the use of the strategies.

As mentioned in section 2.3., even the curriculum suggests and describes opportunities to involve learners in speaking; it is neglected in most of the EFL classes especially in state schools (Al-Hosni, 2014; Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013; Sakale, 2012). The central examination system left teachers no choice but to skip speaking opportunities and to teach the form of the language through grammar, focusing mostly on reading and writing skills. The literature includes studies reporting such kind of gap between policy and practice referring to the innovations in Turkey's foreign language education policy in 1997 and 2006 (see, Kırkgöz, 2007; 2007b; 2008a; 2008b).

Another reason which may well explain the moderate use of the strategies is the language teaching programme in which systematic strategy instruction is not provided. As it is clearly seen, students are not adequately familiar with the strategies; although the new ELTP has an objective to help pupils develop appropriate strategies. Educational context appears to be an ideal space (Strakova, 2013) to make it possible for students to develop their

LLS repertoire. However, it seems that there is no space to increase students' awareness of strategy use. It might be demanding for teachers due to limited instructional time allowing to the creation of an effective and supportive environment in which children are involved actively in practice of the language. To transfer the requirements of the programme into practice, teachers are supposed to be aware of the students' strategy preferences and to incorporate LLSs into their teaching practices so that the intuitive use of these strategies as shown by the more effective learners could be extended to all children and become automatized at an early age (Coyle & Valcárcel, 2002). As stated by Coyle (2007) the students' strategic behaviors develop through "the classroom culture, scaffolded learning and the creation of learning opportunities" (p. 65). This issue so far needs further investigation in terms of main objectives of the new ELTP launched in 2013 by focusing on specifically the use of communication strategies in L2 teaching as a way of improving their communicative competence as supported by the scholars like Dörnyei and Thurrell (1991), Tarone (1983) and Willems (1987).

The third reason can be explained by the students' proficiency level, as they do not have any competency in the language they might come up with moderate use of strategies. The literature reveals a linear relationship between the strategy use and proficiency level (Chen, 1990; Lan & Oxford, 2003; O'Malley et al., 1985; Park, 1997; Rahimi et al., 2008; Salahshour, Sharifi & Salahshour, 2013).

As the experimental group of this study had a specific attention it would be more logical to evaluate their results separately. The experimental group reported high level of speaking strategy use which is just over the threshold for moderate use of speaking strategies at the beginning of the term. As the focus group of this study is children at the age of 11, triangulation was needed to elicit more reliable data regarding the fact that they might have limited awareness about the concept of speaking strategies. Therefore, they might not

contribute to the process by responding in ways in contact with the reality. That might be the reason for their reported high level of speaking strategy use in pre-test, which is different from what is observed by the researcher. In addition, an increase in their speaking strategy use was observed in their scores at the end of the term as an expected outcome of the intervention. This result provides a support on behalf of the communication strategy instruction which is regarded by Faerch & Kasper (1986, p. 180) as a way of "bridging the gap between learners' linguistic and pragmatic knowledge in the L2 and the specific communicative means needed to cope with unforeseen situations". This can be traced in their survey results, classroom observations as well as in their reflective products. More striking improvements can be seen in their effort to use the language to communicate with their friends and the teacher. How strategy development was provided will be explained and exemplified in the following sections later.

5.2.1. The most and least used strategy items

5.2.1.1. The most used strategy items for the entire group of students and the control group students. When it comes to the students' most frequently used strategy preferences their reported items show similarities both in pre- and post-test applications both for the entire group of students and control group students. Therefore, the results will be interpreted for these two groups of students concurrently. The overlapped most used items for the entire group of students in pre- and post-tests are "When I say something in English I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic" and "I plan what I am going to say beforehand". The overlapped most used items for the control group students in pre-and post-tests are "When I say something in English I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic", "While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help", "I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes".

The item "When I say something in English I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic" appeared among the most frequently used ones both in the pre- and post-test applications, which reminds us the fact that they are still at the period of concrete operations, according to Piaget. This means that their capacity for mastering the language forms consciously is still relatively undeveloped. As their understanding is mainly semantic (Lopez, 2003), they learn language better if the focus is on meaning not on the language itself (Faust & Smidt, 2003). Zanon (1992) puts emphasis on the use of meaningful learning in language teaching with the claim that meaningful learning enables the new knowledge to be stored in the long term memory (as cited in Gómez, 2010, p.36). The students' preferences on this item show that many students do not store what they have learned in their long term memory. Their difficulty in remembering the vocabulary or grammar might be due to the learning experiences taken place in an isolated way.

The second mostly used strategy item "I plan what I am going to say beforehand" (by the entire group of students both in the pre- and post-test) show that they have no control over their L2 language production yet as they do in their L1. Speaking in L2 is cognitively a demanding process and requires great efforts on the part of the learner. Foster and Skehan (1999) put emphasis on the human's limited attention capacity claiming that learners are unable to pay concurrent attention to multiple aspects of the language (e.g., meaning and form) during the processing, which is not the case for native speakers who are capable of paying attention to both aspects simultaneously, as their language knowledge has already been proceduralized.

According to Levelt (1989), the natural speaking process includes conceptualization, formulation, articulation and self-monitoring. In the conceptualization stage we plan our message by activating our background knowledge and then find out appropriate words and structures to formulate it before using the articulatory organs to speak. If the need arises we

listen to ourselves and modify our message. While all these happen in L1 automatically, it becomes a far more conscious process when carried out in another language.

Focusing on the children at this age if we think of this process in relation to their limited attention and concentration span as well as limited language and world knowledge, it can be understood that it is not easy for them to conceptualize, formulize and articulate what they want to say. That's the reason why they use this strategy when speaking before saying what they want to say.

Another mostly used strategy item (by the entire group of students in the post-test and the control group students in the pre- and post-tests) "I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes" is related to their typical characteristics that they generally tend to show "an enthusiasm for learning and a curiosity about the world around them" (Harmer, 2012, p. 82). They have lower affective filters, thus are less anxious (Gürsoy & Akın, 2013; Moon, 2000). They show eagerness to participate due to their talkative nature. When they feel a need to communicate they find ways to use the target language which might result in using incorrect forms (Gürsoy, 2004). As they do not have inhibitions about learning, which older children often have, they find more opportunities to practice the language.

The strategy item "I study my errors I have made after speaking activities" reported among the most frequently used ones (by the entire group of students in the pre-test) seems interesting. Their reported use is contrary to the fact that their thinking is limited to concrete situations which is the main limitation of children in the concrete operation stage. They have limited cognitive abilities especially in L2 and lack meta-linguistic skills. For this reason, they learn the language for communication purposes only as stated by (Wood, 1998).

Their preferences on this item might be interpreted in a way that language learning is regarded as a product in this educational setting, where grammar-based activities rather than

the communicative ones heavily fill the educational needs because of the exam-oriented system. The item shows their fossilized study habits more likely due to the examination system, which consists of questions that assess the structural forms of the language and vocabulary knowledge through pen and paper tests.

The students also reported asking for help as the most frequently used strategy item as in "When I can't find an expression or a word in English, I ask for help." (reported by the control group in the pre-test application) and "While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean; I ask for help." (reported by the control group in the pre- and post-tests). Asking for help shows that they try to compensate their lack of knowledge when they face difficulties in expressing what they want to say in English. However, it is important to indicate that they are doing this in their L1 because they do not know how to get help in L2. In any learning context children rely on a skilled person's guidance. This behaviour is conceptualized as a help-seeking behaviour which is a self-regulated learning strategy in which learner is the one who determines when and how to resort to that help (Karabenick & Berger, 2013). Such ability requiring the involvement of an adult or peer appropriately into the situations where difficulties arise is considered by many scientists as one of the fundamental skills that children can built up (Anderson & Messick, 1974; Nelson-Le Gall, 1981; Nelson-Le Gall, Gumerman, & Scott-Jones, 1983; White & Watts, 1973 as cited in Nelson-Le Gall, 1985 as cited in Nelson-Le Gall, 1985)

5.2.1.2. The least used strategy items for the entire group of students and the control group students. The overlapped least used items for the entire group of students in pre- and post-tests are "When I have trouble in explaining the meanings of an unknown word, I draw its picture" and "When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using words or phrases that I already know, like using big cat for the word tiger)". The overlapped least used items for the control group students in the pre-

and post-tests are "When I have trouble in explaining the meanings of an unknown word, I draw its picture" and "I try to find opportunities outside the school to practice my English (e.g., talking to tourists or my parents)".

The items "I use a new vocabulary in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly" (by the control group in the pre-test) and "When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people in order to pronounce the words correctly" (by the entire group in the post-test) were among the least used strategies, which might be due to the quality and quantity of the input that the children are exposed. The abstract and complex nature of phonology might not be their concern. This might be related to their meaningful L2 use in the classroom and the teachers' use of L2 for exposure might be limited. It is because the use of these strategies requires awareness - sensitivity to the sounds of the language which involves the ability to pay attention to the sounds of the spoken language rather than meaning or other language aspects. This can be developed through exposure and experience with spoken language as well as with their increased ability to supply attentional focus on such elements of the language. However, this seems to be not the case for our students as L2 is often introduced mechanically in this context, which is not child-appropriate.

On the other hand, the discrimination of the sounds in spoken language involves the employment of discriminative listening according to Berko, Atiken and Wolvin (2010). "If one listens for a discriminative purpose one can, for instance, use one's skills in phonological awareness" (Adelmann, 2012, p. 520). That is to say, children are supposed to utilize such kind of listening as they improve their phonemic awareness, which requires great concentration on decoding the sounds of the language. This skill is cultivated when the learners become more competent with the new language and more coalesce with the sounds in the spoken words. The children in this study do not employ such kind of listening because it does not make sense for them as they are still at the period of Concrete Operational Stage.

Children at this age rely heavily on meaning, thus mostly are engaged with efferent listening to learn information, in this case, mostly from their teacher as they first need to be familiar with the meaning to comprehend it (Moon, 2000), thus, they may pay less attention to the sounds at this stage of their learning due to their limited exposure to L2.

Another least used strategy item is "I try to find opportunities outside the school to practice my English (e. g. talking to tourists or my parents)" (by the entire group in the pre-test and the control group in the pre- and post-tests). This seems to indicate the typical characteristics of EFL setting. As they do not have real opportunities to use the language outside and they are not equipped with the interactional skills to be transferred to the real life, they reported using this strategy as the least frequent one. They are mostly exposed to the language in school environment and they do not have a concern to extend its use beyond this context.

Another least used strategy is "When I have trouble in explaining the meanings of an unknown word, I draw its picture" (by the entire group and control group both in the pre- and post-tests). Although this strategy is a child-specific way used to overcome communication breakdowns, it is not included in their strategy preferences. It is more likely that they did not encounter such kind of usage before. For this reason, they might hesitate to use drawing for unknown words, although using simple drawing as a means for expressing thoughts can be enjoyable for them. As their desire to talk is great, they might resort to use their L1 instead of drawing its picture. In addition, drawing takes more time than saying it in L1. Children are not patient and they know that the teacher can understand them as this is not an ESL context.

Another least used strategy is "When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using words or phrases that I already know, like using big cat for the word tiger)" (by the entire group both in the pre- and post-tests, and the control group in the post-test). The students should be exposed to rich learning

experiences which increase their desire to get information from a variety of sources because of their very nature of implicit learning capacity (Harmer, 2012). However, it should be important to note that the nature of implicit learning shows itself in slow development and large amount of input and interaction (DeKeyser 2000; Munoz, 2006), which is not compatible with our typical language learning settings where children receive the input limited to a few hours per week. Munoz (2010, p. 46) explains the case by the sponge metaphor by which she makes connection with "the children's capacity for absorbing the language and the sponge's capacity for absorbing the water". She says that:

> We can compare the situation in which children do not have access to enough input to the situation in which the sponge does not have enough water: in the absence of water the sponge will not be able to exhibit its absorption capacity (Munoz, 2010, p. 46).

The metaphor clearly explains why children reported this strategy as the least frequently used one as they need plenty of experiences with the language. The ability to use the language requires much more than giving words and their meanings, and using these words in sentences, which is the one quite likely occurring in this setting. However, such ability involves the vocabulary learning without a specific intention through exposure to a wide variety of words, especially in various contexts (Zorba & Arıkan, 2012). Learners need appropriate strategies such as using context clues to discover the meaning of new words or to deal with unfamiliar items (Linse, 2005). When they have such learning opportunities, they can build up their vocabulary knowledge and become familiar with different types of information to infer the meaning (e.g. definitions, examples, and synonyms, etc.) (Fukkink, 2002).

5.2.1.3. The most used strategy items for the experimental group students.

5.2.1.3.1. The most used strategies reported in the pre-test application. When it comes to the speaking strategies used by the experimental group students their reported strategy

items are somehow showing similarities with strategies used by the entire group students and control group students in pre-test application. Their reported strategies will be interpreted with the support of observational data. The observation data will be addressed as pre-treatment observation data which were obtained before the intervention and post-treatment observation data which were obtained after the intervention.

In the pre-test application the students' most frequently used strategies were "I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes"; "I plan what I am going to say beforehand" and "I ask the other person to correct me when I talk". In the post-test application the students' most frequently used strategies were "While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help"; "I use a new word in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly"; "I produce the sounds of the language until I can say them well"; "When I say something in English I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic".

One of the most reported item was "I still encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid to make mistakes" (in the pre-test). Children come to the classroom with their well-constructed set of instincts, skills, and characteristics which help them when learning a new language. They are good at using their limited language creatively and have a holistic approach to meaning and enjoy talking (Halliwell, 1992; Cameron, 2001). They take the advantages of their uninhibited learning style and try to benefit from the opportunities to practice the language (Gomez, 2010). Based on the classroom observations it can be said that their talkative characteristic left its mark on the whole process with a difference that they mostly preferred using their L1 especially before the intervention. Although they have a tendency to benefit from their less anxious nature, this can take place when the interactional opportunities are provided. Their self-report on this item does not reflect the truth, as observed by the researcher. During the pre-treatment observation process, it was observed that

their attempts to use L2 were limited to one-word responses, which might be due to instructional practices and/or their readiness to produce L2. Some of their accounts may not be accurate due to their limited ability to make sense of the reality, which is the case for this item. "Young children below the age of 14 consider standardized questionnaires based on limited cognitive capacities as compared to juveniles and adults" (Borgers et al., 2000; Fuchs, 2005 as cited in Fuchs, 2009, para. 1). Therefore, a methodological triangulation was utilized in this study in order to enhance the trustworthiness of the data.

Based on the observations, it can be stated that they were inexperienced in using the language and their language productions were limited at the word level. They were eager to use their newly learned vocabulary with the most recycled structure 'I like… or I can….' when the opportunities are given through guessing activities or dialogues. At other times they were dealing with the language mostly by doing form-focused matching exercises run by a package programme on the smart board. It is important to note that while most of the students enjoy participating in the matching exercises, there was a decrease in classroom participation rate when it comes to production activities. It was observed that some of the students did not show any reaction to the activities involving them in speaking.

Another mostly used item was "I plan what I am going to say beforehand" (in the pre- and post-tests). It might be a sign that they try to focus on form, or think the answer in L1, and then translate it to L2, as they are used to form-focused instruction. Most of the time what is expected from them is just producing a short sentence in L2 by using the focused structure and appropriate vocabulary via drilling. When we look at their productions it can be clearly seen that speaking in L2 is a demanding process due to their unproceduralized language knowledge. As they go through the natural speaking processes stated by Levelt (1989), they mostly resort to their background knowledge in their L1 and experience struggle

when finding L1 equivalents of a word in L2, and then they try to put this word into the relevant structure.

During this process although they show active involvement to produce something, they sometimes become distracted and mostly produce incorrect forms. Therefore, it is not an easy task for them to conceptualize, formulize and articulate what they want to say at one go since "thinking in the mother tongue inhibits thinking directly in the target language" (Weschler, 1997, p. 88). That's the reason why they make planning before saying it, and also because they are meaning focused. They are good at learning chunks, but bad at formulating structures.

The teachers' over reliance on L1 use during the learning/teaching process can also make contribution to this planning process, which can be counter-productive (Khati, 2011). It was observed during the whole observation process that word and sentence translation was used dominantly in the lessons to enable instant comprehension of the reviewed material, to foster grammar and vocabulary knowledge as echoed in the study conducted in a similar setting by (Salı, 2014). This is contrary to ELTP aims as they do not appreciate direct learning. Cameron (2001) claims that younger students are not able to grasp the abstract concepts. Therefore, language learning should not be in the form of abstract exercises, instead, it should incorporate a variety of meaningful tasks and activities which centered on authentic communication where they perceive learning as fun. According to ELTP this is the way which provides a reason for them to master the new material. In addition, it is important to note that the ability to use the language orally requires adequate amount of oral input provided by the teacher talk and audiovisual materials, which should be followed by opportunities engaging students in talk in which meaning is co-constructed (Sert, 2012).

Another strategy item reported as mostly used is "I ask another person to correct me when I talk" (in the pre-test), which only has one instance of occurrence observed during the

pre-treatment observation process. Their preference on this item might be related to their misinterpretation and limited metacognitive awareness that they might have interpreted it as "I can ask…" rather than "I ask….". Other than this, if we talk about any attentional or corrective efforts on their productions we need exchanging of utterances in talk. Since "communication is a process, knowledge of the forms of language is insufficient" for students. They also need to have the knowledge of meanings and functions. They should activate this knowledge in negotiating meaning, which can take place through the interaction between the interlocutors (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 128).

Interaction, according to Ellis (1984), supports the development of language because "it is the means by which the learner is able to crack the code. This takes place when the learner can infer what is said even through the message that contains linguistic items that are not yet part of this competence and when the learner can use the discourse to help him/her modify or supplement the linguistic knowledge already used in production (p. 95 as cited in Gass & Varonis, 1989).

What this means is that interaction is needed for the development of L2, therefore learners should try out the language to experience how it works and how meaning and form are interconnected.

Dunn (1984) classifies the periods that the children go through when learning a second language in the classroom context as "silent period, intermediate period and breakthrough period" (as cited in Monsalve & Correal, 2006, p. 133). The observational data gives us the clues that they are in the intermediate period during which the use of telegraphic and formulaic speech were observed as put forward by Dunn (1984). Children begin communication in L2 by imitation and repetition in the form of telegraphic speech, which refers to "the use of a few content words such as an entire utterance without function words or morphological markers" (Monsalve & Correal, 2006, p. 133). They frequently use these

single words followed by extension with the constant support of their teacher. The pre-treatment observation data reveals no use for this item as they are not ready to take control over the language developmentally in order to work simultaneously on content and form which may be caused by inadequate practice opportunities at the discourse level.

5.2.1.3.2. The most used strategies reported in the post-test application. The item "While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean; I ask for help" (in the post-test) was reported as the mostly used ones with the highest score. The students were instructed on this item in the intervention period with the structure of "Can you help me? I need help!" The observation data supports the increase in their use on this item between the pre- and post- test applications and shows parallelism with the survey results. They used this strategy when they cannot figure out how to make a sentence relevant to the topic of the lesson, but in observations before the intervention help was asked in L1 if ever asked.

With this strategy we aimed to take their attention to the fact that they can compensate their lack of knowledge when they have difficulties in the language. We encouraged the children to be involved in help-seeking behavior by which he/she determines when help is needed and how to receive that help (Karabenick & Berger, 2013). We also aimed to strengthen their ability to use their teacher or peer as a resource in L2. In order to support them to say what they want and to speed up the process of speaking, we provided children with useful prefabricated patterns helping to expand the children's repertoire of language knowledge and speaking strategies.

Almost a month after the beginning of the intervention, it was observed that children began to move beyond the telegraphic speech and to use the language chunks to meet their communicative needs. They went through the intermediate period where the use of telegraphic and formulaic speech takes place and began to communicate with the use of

formulaic speech as described in the study of Monsalve and Correal (2006, p. 133) in reference to the stages: "namely silent period, intermediate period and breakthrough period" proposed by (Dunn, 1984). As the formulaic speech is composed of short phrases involving frequent repetition of formulas, children often benefitted from these formulas to communicate in the foreign language with their teacher and peers around them. When they got familiarized with the structure orally they really enjoyed using them. By doing so, they began to develop their ability to take responsibility for their own learning, gradually gained confidence and increased their involvement, as stated by Oxford (1990).

The strategy items "I produce the sounds of the language until I can say them well" and "I use a new vocabulary in sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly" were among the most used ones according to the post-test results. In reference to vocabulary learning, it would be better to remember the old Chinese proverb "Give a man a fish and he eats for a day, teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime" which implies that

...If students are provided with answers, or taught vocabulary items in the ordinary way, only their immediate problem is solved. But if the students are taught vocabulary learning strategies, to work out the answers for themselves, they may be empowered to manage their own learning (Nemati, 2013, p. 8).

As stated in the section 2.5.1., if learners learn the ways in which they take more active roles in their learning, their efforts would be more fruitful both in learning and using the language (Cohen et al., 1996). With the focus on these strategies which help them in vocabulary retention and pronunciation we aimed to raise their awareness so that they can take control over their learning and maximize the benefits they get from learning opportunities. Our effort was different than reading a list of words followed by the teacher's translation where students were passive recipients of knowledge. They needed to cope with their vocabulary retention problems along with their pronunciation. Therefore, the strategy "I

produce the sounds of the language until I can say them well" made contribution to their preparation for language use because we directed them using online dictionary after each vocabulary teaching session. They checked the meaning and pronunciation of the words and recorded them, and then sent via mobile phones to the researcher and the teacher. It was a good way to keep their knowledge fresh and to make them familiarize with the words and sounds.

Another vocabulary related strategy item "I use a new word in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly" shows the need to retain and consolidate their vocabulary knowledge via practice. In the post-test, the students reported high use of this strategy, whereas, it was not recorded in the observations after the intervention. The rise on their strategy use in survey scores shows their desire for better vocabulary knowledge and use, and their decision on how to learn them. However, we need to approach the result with caution that we cannot be sure whether they use the newly learned vocabulary for the purpose of pronunciation. Their actual purpose could also be just to use them in a sentence. Therefore, it is difficult to make a distinction in their intended uses. The reason for why the observational data gives contradictory results is that the instruction of the subjects in the curriculum and the intervention period were over simultaneously, hence, there was no opportunity to practice the newly learned words in sentences, which was recorded in the observations before the intervention. That is why their use of this strategy item shows decrease in the observations after the intervention. On any ground it is clearly seen that students became aware of a system for dealing with vocabulary study to regulate their learning.

Another mostly used item "When I say something in English I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned about the topic." (in the post-test) shows parallelism with the preferences of the other students in school. It is a very common characteristic of young learners that they learn indirectly rather than directly as their capacity for conscious

learning of forms is still relatively undeveloped (Halliwell, 1992). They possess an enormous instinct for indirect way of learning (Halliwell, 1992), in which their mind is engaged with a task rather than focusing on the language itself. That's why they may have difficulties in learning grammar and vocabulary taught explicitly. Their efforts in remembering the vocabulary or grammar might be due to their earlier learning experiences during which they learned by heart and in an isolated way. Within this line, it is a crucial need to present and use the language within 'meaningful contexts' reflecting real language use (Cameron, 2001; Halliwell, 1992). If the students are provided with the language in meaningful contexts holding rich input for language practice then it becomes not only comprehensible but also memorable (Bourke, 2006).

As we think of a child as "actively constructing his or her own thinking in interaction with physical and social environment" according to Piaget (Brewster, Ellis and Girard, 2002, p. 29), the caricature depicts the difference between the child who constructs knowledge experientially and the child who is engaged in the practice of 'teaching to the test'. (http://www.sfgate.com/news/article/Dismal-learning-is-not-the-path-to-success-2478676.php)

When turning back to the results, the observational data does not support their preferences on this item. It was seen that their use of this strategy showed decrease after the intervention which might indicate that they learned some other strategies to compensate their lacks during the intervention process. Especially the strategies taught in the formulaic patterns became popular among them as these patterns are very compatible with their talkative nature.

5.2.1.4. The least used strategy items for the experimental group students.

5.2.1.4.1. The least used strategy items for the experimental group students in the pre-test. The least used strategies by the experimental group students in the pre-test application were "When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture"; "When I have trouble in explaining meanings of things in English, I use my body language or gestures" and "I look for opportunites to speak English in the classroom".

Ogane (1998) made a classification system for compensation strategies and defined miming as the use of physical movements to express ideas. In the categorization, drawing pictures was included as a variation of miming as they are the ways of expressing ideas without using the verbal language. In reference to thinking process Stam (2006, p. 146) says

"By looking at gestures we can see learners' thought process in action". According to Stam (2014) co-speech gestures gives information about L2 learners' thinking along with their actual proficiency that speech alone does not. Although children learn "particular ways of thinking" in their L1 (Slobin, 1991, p. 12), they often need to learn different ways of thinking for speaking in L2 (Stam, 1998). Several studies investigating the effect of grammatical structures and semantic content of a particular language on the gestures of that language speaker (Brown & Gullberg, 2008; Choi & Lantolf, 2008; Kita &Özyürek, 2003; McNeill & Duncan, 2000; Stam, 2006 as cited in Fernandes, 2016) have revealed that "co-speech gestures are influenced by the linguistic patterns of a particular language" (Fernandes, 2016, p. 40).

When we look at the survey data, it is clearly seen that children scored the lowest on these items: "When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture" and "When I have trouble in explaining meanings of things in English, I use my body language or gestures" in the pre-test application. The increase on the scores of these items can be seen in the scores of the post-test application, which shows their increased awareness as a result of the intervention. However, the observational data provides a few instances of these strategies, which shows so little inclination to rise following the intervention.

Our children's low preferences on these strategies seems to indicate that although co-speech gestures "fill a speech gap or a grammatical slot in the sentence" (Stam, 2013, p. 2), using mimics may not be a good option for children under the pressure of 'immediate' nature of speaking as they engage in different forms of thinking while shuttling between L1 and L2.

Another least used strategy item "I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom" can be explained in reference to social interactionism mentioned in the section 2.4. According to Vygotsky, children's cognitive ability to learn the language through instruction is actualized with some contributions coming from the environment. That is to say,

a child's potential for language development is revealed better through the interaction with peers and/or experienced others. Vygostky takes this perspective as learning-leading-development and says "learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 90).

The role of interaction comes into existence in the concept of scaffolding by which learners move form their existing level of skill or knowledge (what they can do now) to a level of potential performance (what they will be able to do without assistance), which Vygotsky called the Zone of Approximal Development (ZPD) (Williams & Burden, 2007).

From his point of view, it can be said that each child's potential develops within their own ZPD. The fact that the experimental group students' little need to look for opportunities to speak in the classroom (based on the pre-test scores) can be explained by the learning context where children do not benefit from social interaction and cannot go beyond their current level of competence.

The survey data scores also well match with the observational data score providing no instances of this strategy, which mirror the argument as their experiences with the language increase, their outcomes will also increase. Accordingly, the students' post-test results and post-observation instances on this item justify this argument by the striking scores especially on the post-treatment observation data.

5.2.1.4.2. The least used strategy items for the experimental group students in the post-test. When it comes to the least used items based on the post-test results they were: "When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using words or phrases that I already know, like using big cat for the word tiger)"; "When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people in order to pronounce the

words correctly"; "I try to find opportunities outside of school to practice my English (e.g., Talking to tourists or my parents)" and "I ask the other person to correct me when I talk".

The item "When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (For example, using words or phrases that I already know, like using big cat for the word tiger) was reported as the least frequently used one. As stated before, children should be provided with a rich learning environment where their desire to get information from a variety of sources can be boosted as a result of their very nature of implicit learning capacity (Harmer, 2012). However, the reality in our typical classrooms appears to differ from the ideal conditions for implicit learning where massive amount of input and interaction exist. Remembering Munoz's (2010, p. 46) the sponge metaphor that compares children's capacity for absorbing the language to the sponge's capacity for absorbing the water", it can be easily deduced that they need plenty of experiences with the language through exposure to a wide variety of words, especially in various contexts (Zorba & Arıkan, 2012).

They also need appropriate strategies such as using context clues to discover the meaning of new words or to deal with unfamiliar items (Linse, 2005). Such learning opportunities help them build up their vocabulary knowledge and to become familiar with different types of information (e.g., definitions, examples, and synonyms) (Beck & McKeown, 1991).

In the observational data their very few efforts on this strategy is seen with a few instances. The examples include:

> *S19: Trashing box instead of trash can*
>
> *S18: Open purple instead of light purple/lilac*
>
> *S 5: Supermarket car instead of shopping cart*

The next least used strategy is "When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people in order to pronounce the words correctly". According to Slattery and Willis

(2001, p.4) children can generally "imitate the sounds they hear quite accurately and copy the way adults speak". Normally, a person perceives phonemes if he/she consciously pays attention to them during speaking. Phonological awareness refers to the ability to attend "the sound structure of spoken words and to consciously reflect upon elements of spoen language in a manner that is separate from word meaning" (Mattingly, 1972 as cited in Gillon, 2012, p. 37).

In the development of phonetic awareness, the quantity and quality of exposure to the target language is important. As stated by Krashen, learners need to be exposed to a large amount of perceptible input to the target language which let them acquire good pronunciation (Krashen, 1982). In EFL settings the students have very limited chances to access native speaker input outside the classroom, thus the burden is on teachers to compensate such deficiency providing students with an adequate model of the target language as much as possible (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin, 1996, p. 17). However, some elements of learning is not only the matter of exposure, but also the matter of "how the learner responds to the opportunities", according to Kenworthy (1987, p. 6). Learners 'phonetic coding ability' also plays a role in shaping up the development of their pronunciation skill. Some people might discriminate and imitate the sounds better. Other than exposure and coding ability there are also many factors affecting pronunciation skill such as "native language, age, attitude and identity, motivation and concern for good pronunciation ability" (Kenworthy, 1987, p. 4-8).

By taking the children's developmental characteristics into account, in connection to EFL setting, they may not put their efforts and attention to the sounds of the language while they are actively engaging in the construction of meaning first. Therefore, with the exception of a few highly motivated or talented students, the expectation of such ability seems unrealistic under these circumstances. Observational data also supports the case with only

three instances for the native-like pronunciation of the words such as 'now', 'please' and 'help' from the same student (S18).

The students also reported the strategy item "I try to find opportunities outside of school to practice my English (e.g., talking to tourists or my parents)." among the least used ones. The students have been learning English as a foreign language through formal instruction in the classroom. Thus, they treat English as one of the subjects in the education system. They have almost little chances to access English outside the classroom. As the setting does not provide communicative situations where English is used as a medium, they do not have a need to speak English outside the classroom. That's why they do not have a concern to extend the use of oral language beyond this context.

The last strategy item the students reported among the least used ones is "I ask the other person to correct me when I talk". They reported this strategy item in post-test contrary to the pre-test where they scored as the mostly used one. The decrease in their score in the post-test seems to be a good indicator which shows their increased awareness on the language and language learning processes. Since they are in early stages of their learning and heavily rely on meaning rather than form, conscious efforts are not expected from them even if the interactional conditions are provided where they negotiate meaning and try out the language.

Malakoff and Hakuta (1991, p. 147) defined metalinguistic awareness "as the awareness of the underlying linguistic nature of language use". They noted that "metalinguistic awareness allows the individual to step back from the comprehension or production of an utterance in order to consider the linguistic form and structure underlying the meaning of the utterance" (Malakoff, 1991, p. 147). Accordingly, the nature of metalinguistic performance where language is treated as an object rather than intended meaning seems to be not compatible with the children's nature. Although their attention is often directed to the language system in the classroom by their teacher, their intention seems not be dealing with

the language forms but to meaning during speaking. The observational data on this item also supports the survey data. The post-treatment observation data reveals no use for this item as they are not ready to take control over the language developmentally in order to work simultaneously on content and form which may be caused by inadequate practice opportunities at the discourse level.

5.3. Some Remarks on the Comparison of the Survey and Observational Data

When the inclination between the pre- and post-test scores is compared, it looks quite positive on behalf of the post-test scores as they became higher than the pre-test scores due to the effect of intervention. The survey data clearly shows the effect of intervention on their strategy preferences, such that a change in their strategy preferences before and after intervention can be seen clearly on an item base. In order to illustrate the case, it would be a good idea to put their most and least used strategy items into table 44 in order to follow the differences between the pre-and post-test applications.

Table 44

Summary of the most and least used strategy item preferences of the experimental group

Pre-test		Post-test	
The most	The least	The most	The least
Item 14	Item 6	Item 9	Item 10
Item 17	Item 7	Item 3	Item 4
Item 18	Item 12	Item 2-5-17	Item 13-18

However, the observable items' frequency of actual occurrences might show variety, which was explained together with the reasons for the most and least used strategy items. For some of the items although children showed high performance on the survey, they did not show the same in the observations. The classroom observations provide the data on the fact

that children's contribution to the process in the surveys might be different from the reality, which may be explained by the effects of respondents' skill-base characteristics. In relation to these characteristics "Children experience specific problems when responding. Not only their cognitive, but also their communicative and social skills are still developing, and this affects different stages of the question–answer process" (De Leeuv, Borgers & Smits, 2004, p. 417-418). Their cognitive functioning affects the quality of the question-answer process. Fuchs (2005) puts a positive correlation between the children's cognitive functioning and the quality of the question-answer process in this way:

> Children up to approximately age 14 still have a limited understanding of the questions. Limited cognitive skills of young respondents lead to a less complete understanding of a question. At the same time, because of their less developed cognitive skills, they also rely more heavily on the information provided in the questionnaire in order to produce an answer (p.720).

Although extra attention was paid to the question wording processes, the children might have over or underscored the questionnaire items because of their awareness about the concept. They might understand the concept 'speaking strategies' differently than the researcher. As stated by Holaday and Turner-Henson (1989, p. 248) "It is a common experience for investigators working with children to discover that a question elicits a different response than intended". A question-answer survey model requires going through four stages in terms of cognitive processes through which respondents "interpret the meaning of each question, search their memories extensively for all relevant information, integrate that information carefully into summary judgements, and report those summary judgements" (Tourangeau, 1984 cited in Krosnick (1991, p. 214). Krosnick (1991) calls these cognitive processes as "optimizing" (p.214). However, "When optimally answering, a survey question would require substantial cognitive effort, some respondents simply provide a satisfactory

answer instead" (Krosnick, 1991, p. 213). The respondent may want to please the researcher because of social and motivational factors. These possible drawbacks may explain their high level of speaking strategy use reported in pre-test and post-test as it is not exactly mathcing up with what was observed in pre- and post-treatment observations.

Apart from the strategy items discussed with the most and least used strategies part, it is necessary to talk about the items appeared with their salient results in post-treatment observations. For the decrease on the item 2 "I use a new vocabulary in sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly." in the post-test observation data it can be said that this result was not surprising. The reason for the decrease in this item is that the subjects in the curriculum were completed before the post-treatment observation. Therefore, there was not any occasion to observe their newly learned vocabulary in sentence. The decrease in the item 5 "When I say something in English, I check my book, notebook, etc. to see what we learned." can be explained by the desire to meet their communicative or learning needs with new ways such as asking for help by benefiting from the pleasure that the formulaic units gave them.

 In the instruction of some strategies, formulaic units were introduced for two reasons: to activate the students' help-seeking behaviors and to help them gain the sense of the ability to use the language. The students were provided with the formulaic units like "How do we say 'X' in English?" and "Can you help me? I need help!" so that they could resort to them when they encounter a problem during speaking. They were also provided with the units like "Can I open/close the window/door? Can you switch the light off/on? Can you give me that please? Can I go to the toilet? What does 'X' mean?" so that they could benefit from their triggering effects on their desire to use L2.

These formulaic patterns are stored as a whole in the long-term memory and relieve cognitive efforts in language processing as declared by Wood (2002, p. 1) that "they allow

language production to occur while bypassing controlled processing and the constraints of short-term memory capacity". As the formulas are fundamental in the early stages of L2 acquisition "learners use shortcuts in order to bypass the lengthy process of the acquisition of morphosyntax and processing skill", according to Myles (2004, p. 155). This is precisely what is apparent in the current study. By integrating the use of the formulas into the classroom language we aimed to benefit both from their form and functional aspects as suggested by Nattinger and De Carrico (1992). While students were putting their attention to the whole unit, they used these formulas in practical ways as a learning strategy which corresponds to their choices in the compensation of lacks of knowledge in their L2. The use of formulas helped them minimize their efforts on the structural form by contributing not only to fluency but also other aspects of language e.g., accuracy, creativity as well as the students' motivation (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992).

Considering the observational data it can clearly be seen from the number of occurrences that students put their attention to the use of formulas introduced with the item 8-"When I can't find an expression or a word in English, I ask for help.", item 9 -"While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help", and item 12 -"I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom". When they began to gain confidence in their ability to use them, some instances of their creative language productions were also observed as put forward by Hakuta (1974) and Wong-Fillmore (1976).

In regard to the item 12 "I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom", children were introduced some formulas which function as a permission or request in relation to the classroom language like 'Can I go to the toilet?', 'Can I open the window?', 'Can I turn the lights on/off?', 'Can I open/close the blinds, please?'. Use of these formulas was observed very often in the classroom. In addition, some of their recorded utterances showed that they began to modify some basic frames with various versions as similarly exemplified in the

study of Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992). Some examples of their use can be illustrated here as in the productions of S18: "*Close the light please?*", S19: "*Give me a paper/pencil please*?", S8: "*Give me one Turkish Lira, please*?".

Although they generally were able to produce the given form of permission or request correctly, their creative utterances sometimes showed the word order of declarative sentence without fronting. Another example belongs to the student - S18:

(Teacher makes a social talk with the other students in the classroom)

S18: "*Teacher! Let's play the lesson*."

The example of S18 shows that he has learned the frame "let's play ...." to make simple suggestions for sports activities, but he retrieves the frame from his lexicon and completes it with the new information and wants to say "*Let's begin the lesson*". Here, the formulaic utterances' well-formed feature contributes to his production. Even if such kind of usages occurs only occasionally, it appears as useful elements with regard to the developmental clues in their L2 productions.

The examples show that the basic pattern in a lexical unit gives the learners chances to use the language creatively. As they are retrieved from the memory at one go and enable learners to express functions creatively, they help them to gain confidence and interest in the language. Nattiner and DeCarrico (1992, p. 114) remark this quality of chunks by the quote: "lexical chunks allow for expressions that learners are yet unable to construct creatively, simply because they are stored and retrieved as whole chunks, a fact which should ease frustration and at the same time promote motivation".

In the pre-treatment observation period the students' minimal exchange included a question-answer pair where the teacher initiated the exchange and the students responded, and then the teacher gave feedback to the response or provided the exact repetition of the student's response most of the time. However, in the post-treatment observation period their exchange

patterns became more creative and began to include longer sequences. They also added phatic formulas into their utterances to establish interaction like *thank you, see you, good bye, good job*, which were not scored for the use on the item 12. They used other formulas "Can you help me? I need help!" and "How do we say "x" in English?" to compensate their problems in their language use. With respect to the triggering effect of formulas in language production it can be said that they enable learners to maximize their communicative ability as well (Ellis, 2005).

When it comes to the item 14 "I encourage myself to speak English even if I am afraid of making mistakes", the score on this item appears as the most remarkable one in the observational data. The score has specific value for us because it represents some specific students whose participation to the lessons during the pre-treatment observation period was not observed. The pre-treatment observation period seems to indicate that they were somehow embarrassed and inhibited or they felt themselves insecure in their knowledge, thus they did not take part in any activities requiring them to talk. During the lessons in pre-treatment observation period the students were provided with structured questions with one possible answer in the form of matching exercise or fill in the gaps most of the time. The aims of these activities were to check and/or consolidate what they have learned.

When they were provided with the simple dialogue activities or they were asked to make a single sentence, it was observed that these inhibited students never showed participation to these activities. However, their efforts in producing utterances were recorded in the post-treatment observation period. They also tried to use the formulaic units eagerly during the process. Some of their utterances are provided here to illustrate the situation better. It was interesting for us to include their speech patterns because they were silent throughout the pre-treatment observation period.

These examples come from an activity used to practice the structure "Can you…? I can/can't…" In the extracts S14, S6 and S4 represent the silent students recorded in the pre-treatment process. The first dialogue takes place between S14 and S8, and the second one takes place between S6 and S4:

S8: Can you play football?

S14: Yes, I can't.

S8: Can you (do) play roller skating?

S14: No I can't

S14: Can you () badminton?

S8: Yes, I can, can I of course.

S14: Can you play riding a horse?

S8: No I can't.

S6: Hello! S4: Hello!

S6: Can you do ()? Can you do archery?

S4: I am sorry, no I can't.

S6: Can you diving?

S4: I am sorry no I can't.

S4: Can you play tennis?

S6: Yes, I can.

S4: Can you riding a horse?

S6: Yes, I can.

Another example comes from a dialogue taken place during the practice of "present continuous tense" by means of a researcher-made material. It should be noted here that the students "S2 and S15" in the extracts were silent students in the pre-treatment process. They

were looking at a card with a picture and trying to make a sentence by using the relevant structure.

> *Teacher: What are you doing now, S2?*
>
> *S2: I am go tootache. T: Tootache is diş ağrısı dişçi neydi?*
>
> *S2: Can you help me?*
>
> *S11: Going dentist!*
>
> *S2: I am go (…) … T: Fiile ne ekliyoruz?*
>
> *S2: I am going (…) T: Dentist.*
>
>
> *S9: What are you doing (the) now?*
>
> *S15: I am watch……. T: Watching!!*
>
> *S15: Watching fish. T: very good.*
>
> *S15: What are you doing now?*
>
> *S9: I candle …… T: Lit the candles and then 'üffff!!!'*
>
> *Sx: Hocam ne ile başlıyor? T: B ile başlıyor.*
>
> *S5: Candles blow.   T: Candles blow olur mu?*
>
> *S5: Blow candles!!*
>
> *T: I am blowing the candles.*

As it is seen in the extracts, they do not keep themselves away from speaking although their utterances are full of pauses and incorrect forms. These examples appear to be very remarkable occurrences in the data. They signal the existence of some key factors that influence these children's involvement in speaking in spite of their incorrect performances. Such development can be evidenced by the speaking strategies training, stress-free environment, interactional activities and materials, supportive peer and teacher network provided in the classroom.

5.4. Effect of Strategy Instruction on Students' Speaking Strategy Use

The second research question of this study "Are there any differences between the experimental group and control group in their use of speaking strategies after strategy training?" aimed to investigate whether speaking strategy training has an effect on the experimental group students' speaking strategy use. It also aimed to reveal any possible differences on the students' speaking strategy use between the experimental and control group.

The results in "Children's Speaking Strategy Use" survey and classroom observation data indicated that the experimental group students' speaking strategy use significantly differed from their strategy use reported on the pre-test. That is, the students employed more strategies after receiving speaking strategy training.

In addition, the differences between the experimental group and the control group was significantly in favour of the experimental group, indicating that strategy training was effective in augmenting the students' strategy use, which means that experimental group students used many more speaking strategies while trying to communicate in English in contrast to the control group students.

The significant improvement in the experimental group students' speaking strategy use can be taken as an indicator of the effectiveness of strategy instruction where the students became aware of the speaking strategies and their value. With the adaptation of CALLA approcah students were explicitly taught how, when and why speaking strategies can be used and encouraged to take action in use of the strategies they learned to facilitate their language use. This finding also provides evidence for the claim that "Students should be encouraged to experiment with a great variety of strategies and to apply them to tasks which promote creative, communicative learning" (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989, p. 297). Oxford and Nyikos (1989) also pointed out the fact that the expectations imposed by the standard academic

practices which tend to rely more on testing the students' academic success undermine the use of communicatively oriented strategies. Therefore, the results of this study created evidence that the students' increased strategy use is an outcome of strategy instruction. They were exposed to a number of speaking strategies and each instance of strategy use gradually paved the way for their efforts in L2 use.

The effect of strategy training was not only seen on the students' speaking strategy use but also on their oral communication ability in relation to their increased WTC. In reference to the third research question of this study "Is there an increase in participants' L2 production due to the use of strategies they learned?" It is important to indicate that the students increased their L2 production as they got used to the appropriate use of the speaking strategies. They came to notice that they could manage to convey their messages through the use of the strategies they learned as they became more confident in their L2 productions after they received strategy training. Based on the classroom observation results, it can be noted that the strategy training gives notable effects on the students' WTC as they felt themselves more comfortable gradually in the environment where they developed their communication ability through purposeful ways. By the speaking strategy training they were involved in the process of understanding how to regulate their own learning, and how and why to use the strategies they learned. An example dialogue showing their WTC comes from the researcher's field notes. In one of the lessons after the intervention, S20 tells her discomfort about the noise in the classroom by whispering to the researcher:

S20: Teacher! I have a headache, please be quite friends. (She wants the researcher to keep the students silent). Another student S10 notices her case and asks the researcher this question:

S10: What's the matter with her, teacher?

Researcher: She has a headache, because the classroom is too noisy!! (S10 asks the same question to S20)

S10: What is the matter with you?

S20: I am headache.

Researcher: I have a headache.

Another example showing the students' WTC takes place between the researcher and S11 during the break time when the researcher warns them not to approach the table. Then S11 takes the turn and tries to converse with the researcher:

S11: Hocam, how do you say 'yasak' in English?

Researcher: Ban. It's banned.

S5: Hocam, Masaya yaklaşmak yasak!!

Researcher: Do not approach the table!

(After a few seconds S11 comes to the researcher and tries to say it)

S11: Teacher, banned to near table...banned to near table.

Researcher: Repeat it again, please.

S11: Banned to near table ...., banned to......... banned to .... ayy teacher!!

Researcher: What do you want to say? Tell me in Turkish.

S11: Masaya yaklaşmak yasak. (Do not approach the table)

Researcher: Do not approach the table.   S11: yaa teacher yaaa!!

As it is seen in these extracts the students are getting used to the use of English to meet their communicative needs. Their efforts in producing the L2 show their WTC as MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei and Noels (1998, p. 547) put it: "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2".

The findings of this study also support a number of previous research studies on communication strategy instruction. For example, Dörnyei's study (1995) revealed positive

effects of strategy instruction on Hungarian EFL learners in using three compensatory CSs, namely, avoidance, circumlocution and pause fillers and made contribution to the view that instruction may alter students' frequency and quality of strategy use. Cohen et al. (1996) provided positive evidence for the effectiveness of explicit strategy instruction on the learners' speaking ability and the use of certain strategies. In his study Lam (2010) revealed that communication strategy instruction in the secondary ESL oral classroom was successful in terms of both strategy use and task performance on behalf of the low-proficiency students. Morever, Aykaç (2010) concluded that 6th grade students benefitted from strategy instruction significantly by improving their strategy use. In another study, Gunning and Oxford (2014) provided evidence for the positive effects of strategy instruction on the development of children's oral competency as well as enhanced awareness and strategy use.

The findings of the current study also show consistency with other research studies on CS instruction in the literature (Dadour & Robbins, 1996; Koşar & Bedir, 2014; Nakatani, 2005; Teng, 2012) and provide new evidence on the teachability of the speaking strategies. However, it is important to note that strategy instruction does not mean that it will make all the instructed strategies available for all the students. As Oxford and Leaver (1996, p.228) put it: "One size just does not fit all". Strategy training can make LLSs available to L2 learners, however, it does not mean helping all students use the strategies instructed.

5.5. The Effect of Strategy Instruction on Students' Perceptions about the Instructed Strategies

The value of such instruction lies in the efforts to make learners aware of how important language learning strategies are. This involves to help learners become more aware of the ways in which they learn how, why and when to use strategies, and of the ways in which they can evaluate and monitor their own learning (Cohen, 1998). In other words, it involves helping learners take a more active role in their learning and become more

responsible for their efforts in learning and using L2. This reactive approach may provide a positive backwash effect on motivation levels, self-efficacy, learner autonomy, transfer skills and language proficiency (Kinoshita, 2003).

Bearing in mind Nyikos and Oxford's leitmotiv in LLS use "learning begins with the learner" (1993, p. 11), the study aimed to activate the students' learning mechanism on learning how to learn. Therefore, minute-papers provided a valuable insight as a reflection tool and enabled students to think of what they are doing; how and why instructed strategies contribute to their learning. They evaluated their own learning and identified their needs, strengths and weaknesses via such reflective practices. In addition, some of the activities led them to set their goals and monitor their own progress related to L2 speaking.

Cotterall (2003) finds learners' reflective participations in learning processes valuable as it fosters intellectual independence which, in turn, leads to the transfer of responsibility from teacher to the learner. The students' reflective practices were crucial in this study because they supported them to operate in a more independent way. As their learning awareness grew, they began to take actions gradually on their own learning behaviours.

Children's views on the instructed strategies' "usefulness" as well as "easiness" sum up the components involving their *"characteristics, needs and/or goals, affective domain and autonomy."*

Here, the component *"autonomy"* surpasses all other components, thus reflects the main goal of the strategy instruction. Making them aware about the nature and communicative potential of the strategies as suggested by Dörnyei (1995) was a conscious performance requiring them to realize whether these strategies could actually work. The role of conscious attention in learners' internalization process has been brought into focus with the view of Schmidt (2010, p. 30) that "Learning, establishing new or modified knowledge, memory,

skills, and routines is therefore largely, and perhaps exclusively, a side effect of attended processing".

Faerch and Kasper (1986, p. 187) also agreed on the need to increase learners' "metacognitive awareness" with respect to the strategy use. As in both the instruction phase where students were informed about the strategy to be used, how and when to use it, and the reflection phase where students were allowed to develop understanding of the role of strategies, we tried to help them to develop their awareness of themselves as a learner and, of the process of having control over their strategy knowledge and appropriate use.

What is apparent in the "autonomy" component is that they put their efforts in understanding the ways which help them fulfill their communicative needs; make informed choices; become aware of their strengths; have awareness about overcoming the communicative needs; and realize the facilitative function of the strategies. All can be considered as the signals pointing out the goal of a strategy instruction: "the ability to take charge of one's own directed learning" (Holec, 1981, p. 3).

With the inclusion of the part in the reflective process in which the students identified their difficulties they experienced while speaking before the strategy instruction and the areas facilitated through the instruction, we tried to increase their active involvement in their learning processes. As it is important to make them realize that they are responsible for their own learning, identification of their own strengths and weakness was a good step for them on the way to becoming more active learners. They identified their linguistic and non-linguistic difficulties they experience when speaking. Their inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skills along with the pronunciation problems seem to cause them have difficulties in expressing themselves, meeting their communicative and learning needs in L2. Such difficulties were accompanied also by their confidence and anxiety problems, which were regarded in the non-linguistic category. However, with the provision of a specific

condition in which the students benefitted from speaking strategy instruction, increased L2 use, communicative oriented activities, teacher and peer support, they reported improvements on the areas that they had difficulties. The improvements were in the areas like pronunciation, learning, and speaking boosted by the awareness of the facilitative function of the instructed strategies. As they got more chances to experiment with the language and with the support of the strategies, they began to show increased willingness to participate with a higher level of confidence and a lower level of anxiety, which also let them have insights about their own strengths.

Through reflection the students were allowed to make the invisible visible by revealing their strengths and weaknesses, as highlighted by Cohen (2003) that strategy instruction should enable learners to become aware of strengths and weaknesses in language learning, and of the range of strategies that they can resort to when learning the target language.

Children's views on the instructed strategies' "usefulness" as well as "easiness" revealed "*children's characteristics*" as a second dominant component following "*autonomy*". During the planning stage of strategy training the children's general characteristics had already been taken into account. As stated in the section 2.4., from the view point of cognitive theory, strategies are regarded as having a prominent role in the learning processes due to their dynamic mechanisms which consist of a set of thinking and learning processes. Learning strategies are regarded as part of the learning process, which is expressed by Cohen's (1998, p. 4) definition that "learning strategies are learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner". This means that no matter what the purpose of strategy use is for learning or using language, they require conscious mental activity on the part of the learner. Considering the fact that our students' development is still limited to the application of knowledge to concrete stimuli, the choice of strategies according to their nature was important to make their

learning successful. As they are active agents in creating a response to experiences with the language those characteristics seem to have a stronger effect on their strategy use: as they are kinesthetic / visual learners they learn through their preferred learning styles requiring them to see, act etc.; as they have an instinct for fun, they are fond of fun elements with the language; as they learn through chunks, they have a need to know phrases with complete meaning to meet their communicative needs. They explained why the instructed strategies were useful or easy to use for them as the instructed strategies provided them with the ways that are compatible with their nature. Their inner thoughts on their strategy preferences justify the fact that they need developmentally appropriate experiences. As Oxford (1990, p. 7) states "Strategies are especially important for language learning, because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Appropriate language learning strategies result in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence".

Moreover, according to Piaget (1962) "at no level, at no state, even in the adult, can we find a behaviour or a state which is purely cognitive without affect nor a purely affective state without a cognitive element involved" (as cited in Frasson & Heraz, 2011, p.1126). McKeachie (1976) approaches learning holistically that cognition and affect cannot be regarded as separate. In a similar manner, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) state that learning strategies are not only mental processes but also socio-affective processes. The students also offered components falling into *"affective domain"* which has a crucial role in shaping up their choice of strategy use. Students seem to need strategies for the following reasons: strategies motivate them in succeeding in L2; enable them speaking without anxiety; allow them monitor their feelings when speaking to recognize and release potential symptoms; help them develop positive attitudes towards the language; and enable them to have a sense of control over their learning outcomes with a need for emotional security. It is clearly seen that

the students make their choices in speaking strategy use not only according to their general learning characteristics but also their emotional needs.

"Needs/goals" appeared as the last component referring to the children's desire or need to transfer the strategies outside the classroom to meet their communicative needs, which is a really crucial aspect of strategy instruction. In line with the major goal of strategy instruction which is to bring students to the point where they are self-directed, the strategies seem to fulfill their role, although it was mentioned by some of the students. According to Faucette (2001, p. 9) "Autonomous learning seeks to equip learners with tools that will best serve them once they are on their own and to facilitate their self-directed learning outside the classroom".

As stated by Little (1991) autonomy can be measured not only by the way the learner learns, but also by the way he/she transfers this knowledge to wider contexts. Our students' desire to transfer their strategy usage outside the classroom seems to be an indicator of their self-regulation. What we have mentioned so far through the students' point of view clearly shows "why, when, how" they use these strategies. The rationale lying in the components appeared in the study seems to have a key role in their strategy intake and usage.

Referring to the connection between learner autonomy and communication strategies instruction, Faerch and Kasper (1983, p. 56) state that "by learning how to use communication strategies appropriately, learners will be more able to bridge that gap between pedagogic and non-pedagogic communicative situations". Here, as the requirements of self-directed learning learners are equipped with the tools that they are able to use on their own, and then they are expected to bridge that gap.

The gap bridged between the difficulties experienced before learning the strategies and the areas improved after learning the strategies revealed how the students tried to benefit from the strategy training. Based on the effect of the intervention, it can be claimed that CSs

increased the students' WTC. The following arguments support the contribution of the CSs to the students' L2 development based on the WTC domain. CSs help learners;

1. *'Have a control over their learning with an awareness of what they can do by using the strategies taught'*. The students' scores clearly proved that when they attained the ability to use the strategies taught to overcome the problems they have during speaking, they become more willing to produce L2. For example, their reported difficulties mostly were related to being unable to use L2 due to their inadequate vocabulary repertoire and weak sentence building skill depending on that feeling of emotional insecurity when using L2 . Their pre-treatment observation results for the interchangeably used items 8, 9 and the item 12 justify the case clearly. They did not have any other way than using L1 to meet their communicative and learning needs before learning the strategies. The item 12 "I look for opportunities to speak in the classroom" appeared on the checklist with a stunning score of zero instance of occurrence in the pre-treatment observation. Some extracts elicited in one of the strategy training lessons display the reasons why speaking English was difficult for them before the intervention. They explain the case by their own words in this way : "We did not know about the speaking strategies; We were not use to do such kind of practices; We were not used to speaking English; We were not use to get help too much; We used to get nervous while speaking; We used to know few English words; We used to be worried that we would make mistakes and that people would laugh at us; We used to be shy while speaking English in the first term of the school." It can be clearly seen that they were not ready to use the language because of the limitations they had in their knowledge. At this point, the use of formulaic units which let them both ask for help in L2 and use classroom language was essential, because the students became aware that whenever they wanted to speak, these units would be helpful. As far as the strategy of asking for help is concerned, the students encouraged not to hesistate to ask for help as it "gives the learners the assurance that in case of the very problem

occurring, seeking for direct help will prevent the interaction from coming to an end"
(Mesgarshahr & Abdollahzadeh, 2014, p.62). The post-treatment observation results show the
contribution of the use of these units to the students' efforts in using L2, which in return, lead
to higher levels of WTC which can be followed by the positive change in their post-treatment
observation scores as well as the increased performance in learning and communication with
the awareness of strategies' facilitative function.

    2. '*Achieve a higher perception of communicative competence*'. MacIntyre et al.,
(1998, p. 549) associate the use of L2 directly to the WTC and regard "perceived competence
and a lack of anxiety" as the "most immediate determiners of WTC", which highly influenced
by the situation as well as the previous L2 experience. Perceived communication competence
refers to "an individual's view of their own competence as a communicator" (Burroughs,
Marrie & McCroskey, 2003, p. 231), and "it is the perception of competence that will
ultimately determine the choice of whether to communicate", according to Clément, Baker &
MacIntyre (2003, p. 192). As the students experience success by overcoming communication
difficulties, they will have a higher perception of competence in their knowledge
(Mesgarshahr & Abdollahzadeh (2014). This is the CSs that give the students a feeling of
success in their L2 efforts, which results in increased participation. Similarly, Yousef, Jamil
and Razak (2013) reports on their study that CSs significantly affect the students' self-
perceived communication competence and WTC in the target language.

    3. '*Have less communication apprehension*'. Communication anxiety corresponds to
"an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated
communication with another person or persons" (Burroughs, Marrie & McCroskey, 2003,
p.231). According to MacIntyre et al., there is a non-linear relation between anxiety and
WTC, and "anything that increases the state of anxiety will reduce a person's self-confidence
and, with that, their WTC" (1998, p. 549).

According to Mesgarshahr & Abdollahzadeh (2014, p. 62), "the fear of engaging in interaction adversely affects one's WTC. This fear might be alleviated when a learner feels that he is equipped with some techniques or strategies by which he can resolve any communication problem with ease." Therefore, training the learners in CSs appears as a way to help them gain a sense of security (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1994).

The development in L2 use of the students in the current study showed that as they improved their awareness in using the CSs, their communication anxiety began to disappear and their perception of ability to communicate began to increase. The six students who were silent before the intervention, but did not keep themselves away participating to speaking activities through the intervention seem to be a good indicator of such development. This is consistent with Graham's view who "emphasized two purposes of learning communication strategies: to decrease students' anxiety and to increase students' willingness to participate in conversations" (1997 as cited in Yousef et al., 2013, p. 207).

4. 'Increase motivation'. Success in coping with communication difficulties by means of CSs fosters the learner's motivation. Yousef et al., (2013, p. 212) also revealed a significant relationship between CSs and motivation, and justified the premise that "the more students apply language learning communication strategies, the more they are motivated to learn English". This means that when the students begin to have the perception of the ability to speak L2 through the strategy instruction, he/she will be more motivated to learn and practice the language. This reflects the case in the current study that introduction of CSs help weaker learners "develop a feeling of being able to do something with the language" and thus stimulate their motivation, as cited by Willems (1987, p. 352).

In this study, the aim was fostering the students' ability to employ speaking strategies when a need arises to overcome breakdowns while speaking. Therefore, the students were provided with an array of strategies so that they could have more opportunities to be exposed

to L2 and be willing to produce more utterances. The results of the study may not be a clear indicator of a total development for all the students. However, as the focus was on the strategies' triggering effect on L2 use, the qualitative and quantitative results reveal the students' increased awareness about the strategies taught.

5.6. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of an intervention programme conducted in the form of explicit and integrated strategy training on the 5th grade students' speaking strategy use. The increased frequency of speaking strategy use of the students in the experimental group appears as a satisfactory sign of the training and makes contribution to the strategies' teachability issue.

This study is significant in that it is the first attempt on the instruction of speaking strategies especially with the students at age 11 due to their developmental characteristics and cognitive abilities. As they are operating in the Concrete Period according to the Piaget's developmental stages, the collection and interpretation of the data required specific attention while working with them. Most of the research on CS training included adults as research subjects because it is a complex process in nature to train children on strategies and providing evidence on the teachability issue. Therefore, investigation of the effect of the strategy instruction on children's speaking strategy use is valuable because it provides information about this age group's speaking strategy profile, their increased willingness to use the language, their thinking journey in learning how to learn.

This study is important because it appears as an attempt to address an ongoing problem in this context. It is a well-known fact that the current state of English teaching and learning shows itself differently in Turkish state schools despite the efforts to improve foreign language practices with policy changes. In a report prepared with the collaboration of the British Council and TEPAV in 2013, the current condition of English learning in Turkish

state schools within the 4+4+4 education system was analyzed. In this report, the failure of students to learn how to communicate and function independently was brought to the surface once more again. Of course, such outcome can have farreaching causes, but grammar-based approaches in teaching the language which take place under the notion of test-based assessment at the national level emerges as the main factor pressurizing all parts to focus on the knowledge of language rather than its communicative aspects. Taking the limited teaching hours into account which lead students have restricted linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge, the students appear often incapable of dealing with failure in all language skills especially in speaking. At this point compensation strategies can be used as a way to make better the students' accomplishment in the target language. The aim is to encourage students to take part in a conversation rather than avoid from it in spite of their inadequate language knowledge. Therefore, it is crucial to make the students aware of the ways in which they manage to repair the deficiencies which arise from the gap between what they want to say and their immediate language resources, which called as communication strategies by Faucette (2001).

The current study demonstrates a powerful effect of strategy instruction not only on students' speaking strategy use but also their willingness to communicate with the provision of successful implementation of language teaching programme despite the limited teaching hours. The students in this study also experienced pleasure with the use of target language and improved their self-confidence and risk taking behaviors in speaking in a communicative environment supported by the speaking strategies and teacher support. Therefore, the study reveals a need in the design of the language teaching programme in education with regard to the notion "learning begins with the learner" (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993, p. 11), which points out the importance of lifelong learning with the integration of strategy training. LLSs are important because they help learners construct their own learning zone in which they make

choices depending on their needs. They can decide which strategies to apply and when to apply them. In a typical language classroom, it should not be reasonable to expect "autonomous learners" to arise from a textbook. It has to do more with being part of the learning process rather than being a passive receiver of information. Therefore, the learners should be equipped with the lifelong learning skills and strategy training is the crucial way of achieving this.

In addition, this study makes contribution to the language teachers in the field by demonstrating that the more teachers are aware of the ways about "how to learn" rather than "what to learn", the more they can help their students become independent. As it is seen from what the study reveals, the issue of autonomy needs to be paid attention as one of the components of strategy instruction. Along with the integration of strategy training in language teaching, the teachers are needed to be aware of the strategies and their appropriate usages to facilitate learning and learner autonomy.

This study also revealed the fact that if the learners are provided with the opportunities to practice CSs, considerable improvements can be available. This result obviously points out the role of strategy training in a language classroom. In addition to the goals offered by language teaching programmes, it is the teachers' role to be aware of the benefits of such training, to provide a space in the classroom where the students are equipped with the tools to communicate their intended meaning. Such an approach requires training of the practicing teachers as well as prospective teachers so that they become knowledgeable about the role of the strategies and their explicit or implicit integration into the teaching. They should be equipped with the necessary skills and knowledge about the appropriate methodology and materials fitting the purpose of CS' instruction.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Lesson Plan

<u>**Lesson plan/5th week**</u>

The Name of School: Uludag Secondary School

Date: 25th March, 2016

Grade: 5th Grade

Level: Beginner

The Number of Students: 25

Unit: 7th Unit **Subject:** Party Time

Background Knowledge: The students are familiar with the simple present tense, party time vocabulary, dates and numbers, the structures "Can I have/throw a birthday party? Sure! What do you need for your birthday party? I need …", and the structure of expressing likes / dislikes. **Input:** Teacher talk, video, realias and related images.

Materials: A birthday video, images, smart-board **Activity Type:** Role-play

Duration: 80 minutes   **Skill:** Speaking

Standards: To expand Ss' repertoire of strategies that could be used to ask for help by using the structues _"Can you help me?" and "I need help!"_

Target vocabulary: (known): drinks, cake, candle, clown, guests **(unknown):** knife, spoon, fork, plate.

Teacher's Goals: → To introduce, model the name of the target strategy

  → To make them practice the strategy

  → To create a real desire to get them to speak English

Learners' Goal: →The students will participate in a fun activity.

Aim of the lesson: The students will be able to identify how, when and why the target strategy is used – _"Can you help me?" and "I need help!"._

Objectives: By the end of the lesson, the ss will be able to recognize lexical items related to birthday party context (at word level).

The ss will be able to produce the language to tell the dates on calendar (at sentence level).

The ss will be able to give and ask for information about the birthday concept by using the target chunks and vocabularies within a role-play (at discourse level).

Procedure:

1. Preperation

➔ Begin by introducing a new friend whose name is George to the SS. Show a calendar to the Ss and tell them that today is George's birthday. "Look! This is a calendar and today is George's birthday. George's birthday is in March. It is on the 26th of March."

➔ Teacher revises the moths of the year and ordinal numbers by using the strategy learned in the previous lesson "What does December mean? How do we say "ondokuzuncu" in English? How do we say "Ekim" in English?"

➔ Then the teacher asks Ss to tell their own birthdays. "For example: My birthday is in July. It is on the 12th of July. When is your birthday? Tell me your birthday." The teacher turns back to the calendar including each student's birthday. She asks for help from some of the students by pretending that she cannot read the dates on the calendar.

➔ "Look! This is our calendar. Everybody's birthday is on the calendar. *But I need help to read them. Can you help me to read the dates? For example, Melih's birthday is?..."* It goes on like this.

➔ The teacher again turns back to George's birthday. She asks for help from the Ss to throw a party and decorate the room. "Look! Today is George's birthday. Shall we throw a party for him? Ok. Then, *"can you help me to decorate the room*? Let's decorate the room for his birthday party. What do we need for his birthday party? We

need…." (Teacher holds a box in which there are some images/objects to decorate the room for his birthday party. She asks to the Ss what they need for the party. As they tell the items, the teacher sticks them on the picture of a room). Meanwhile, after Ss tell what they need one by one, teacher asks for their help to stick them on the picture of the room by saying "*Can you help me to stick it on the room. I need your help to stick it.*" (Choral repetition, scaffolding)

2. Presentation-modelling

➜ Teacher lets Ss think how she has asked for help from them in order to take their attention to the strategic elements that she uses when asking for help. "Can you help me? Or I need help." Then she highlights what they should say when they do not know how to make a sentence in English or when they need support from someone.

➜ Teacher sticks the target strategic statements on the board and asks Ss to repeat them by asking her some questions. Teacher explains that it is a kind of strategy.
Modelling & demonstration with the students

3.Practice

➜ Teacher shows a video about George's birthday. In this video, George's loved ones give him what he likes as a present. After watching video teacher asks some questions to the students:

 ➢ What is happening in the video? / What do you see in this video?

 ➢ What does Peppa give George?

 ➢ What do people buy him as a present?

 ➢ What is the thing that George likes most?

➜ Teacher asks Ss the question "What do you want to have as a birthday present?" to let them make sentence before they practice the dialogue (sentence level).

➔ Teacher lets Ss imagine that they are invited to 5/A class' birthday party and tells them that they are going to buy present for their friends.

➔ Teacher divides the class into two groups. One group will be "helper", the other group will be "goer". The teacher gives a stick with a card to each member of the "helper" group. The front of the card holds the name of each student. The back of the card holds the picture of what this student wants to have as a birthday present (the Ss drew the picture of the things that they wanted to have as a present in the previous lesson). Teacher asks them not to show the pictures to anybody.

➔ At the same time, the "goer" group students get a birthday invitation card of someone in the class. The card includes one of the students' name, his/her birthdate, party place and time.

➔ Two students from each group (the one with a name of a student and the other one with a birthday invitation card) come together at the shopping corner. They practise the dialogue at discourse level.

➔ The dialogue:

➔ ……………. *has a birthday party next week. I must buy him/her a present/gift.*

➢ <u>*Can you help me to buy a present? or I need help to buy a present.*</u>
(Practice for the newly learned strategic statements)

➢ *Sure!*

➢ *What does he/she like? (The one who has the invitation card looks at the name written on the card and asks what she/he likes)*

➢ *She /he likes…. (The one who has the name of that person looks at the picture on the back of the card and tells him/her what he/she likes).* The student takes the item from the shopping corner, puts it into a gift box and gives the box to the other student.

➤ *Thanks see you.*

Teacher gives the instruction:

➤ Let's the helper group take your stick.

➤ Show the name written on the card to your friends in the goer group.

➤ Goer group! Look at your birthday invitation card.

➤ Who is having the party?

➤ Find your partner in the helper group.

➤ Come to the shopping corner with your partner.

➤ Then, make the dialogue.

Kinaesthetic learning, Choral repetition, Scaffolding, adjacency pair

4. Evaluation

➜ The teacher asks students to write their opinion about the lesson and the strategy they have learned in this lesson on the minute papers.

Reflective thinking

Appendix 2: Study Schedule

Pre-treatment Observations	Intervention Process and the Strategy Items Instructed	Post-treatment Observations
04.01.2016 – 2 class hours	04.March.2016 I often review newly learned vocabulary or expressions by repeatedly mouthing. I use a new vocabulary in a sentence while speaking English to pronounce it correctly. I produce the sounds of the language until I can say them well.	06.05.2016 – 1 class hour
11.01.2016 – 2 class hours	11.March.2016 Whenever I am stressed by the idea of speaking English, I try to relax myself.	12.05.2016 – 2 class hours
12.02.2016 – 1 class hour	17.March.2016 When I can't find an expression or a word in English, I ask for help.	13.05.2016 – 2 class hours
18.02.2016 – 2 class hours	25. March. 2016 While speaking if I do not know how to make a sentence to express what I mean, I ask for help.	20.05.2016 – 2 class hours
19.02.2016 – 1 class hour	07.April.2016 When I have trouble in explaining meaning of an unknown word, I draw its picture. When I have trouble in explaining meaning of things in English, I use my body language or gestures	26.05.2016 – 1 class hour
25.02.2016 – 2 class hours	15.April.2016 I look for opportunities to speak English in the classroom.	27.05.2016 – 2 class hour
26.02.2016 – 1 class hour	22.April.2016 Revision of the strategies via **"s**trategy snake**"**	03.06.2016 – 1 class hour

Appendix 3: Children's Speaking Strategy Use Survey

ÇOCUKLARIN YABANCI DİL KONUŞMA STRATEJİLERİNİ BELİRLEME ANKETİ

(Cohen & Oxford, 2002; Gürsoy, 2003; Lan & Oxford, 2003)

Okul numarası: Okulu ve şubesi:

Doğum yılı: İngilizce dersinden en son aldığı karne notu:

Cinsiyeti: Kız/Erkek   İngilizce sınavından aldığı en son not:

Sevgili öğrenciler,

Bu anketin amacı sizin İngilizce konuşurken kullandığınız stratejileri (taktikleri) belirlemektir. Bu bir sınav değildir. Verilen cevapların doğrusu veya yanlışı yoktur. Lütfen aşağıdaki tüm maddeleri cevaplandırınız. Her bir ifadeyi okuduktan sonra sizin için uygun olan cevabı işaretleyiniz.

Örnek :

Aşağıdaki maddeyi okuyun ve sizin için doğru olan cevabın üzerine "X" işareti koyun.

İngilizce konuşmak için okul dışında fırsatlar bulmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

Örnek maddeyi cevapladıktan sonra diğerlerine geçebilirsiniz.

Lütfen sayfayı çeviriniz.   Teşekkür ederim.

1. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelime veya ifadeleri **sürekli söyleyerek tekrarlarım**.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
2. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için İngilizce **konuşurken kullanırım**.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
3. **İngilizce sesleri** düzgün söyleyinceye kadar **tekrar ederim**.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
4. İngilizce kelimeleri düzgün söyleyebilmek için İngilizce konuşan insanları taklit etmeye çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
5. İngilizce bir şey söylemek istediğimde defterden, kitaptan vs. konuyla ilgili derste neler yaptığımıza bakarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
6. Konuşurken İngilizce' sini bilmediğim bir kelimeyi onun **resmini çizerek anlatmaya çalışırım**.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
7. İngilizce konuşurken zorlandığımda, söylemek istediklerimi **vücut dilimi ve mimiklerimi kullanarak ifade ederim**.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
8. İngilizce bir kelimeyi veya ifadeyi doğru söyleyemediğimde **öğretmenimden yardım isterim**.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
9. İngilizce bir cümle kurmak istediğimde nasıl söyleyeceğimi bilemiyorsam **öğretmenimden yardım isterim.**	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
10. İngilizce bir kelimeyi bilmiyorsam **başka kelimelerle anlatmaya çalışırım**. (Örn; "Tiger" yerine "Big cat" gibi.)	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
11. İngilizce konuşma fikri beni ne zaman strese soksa, kendimi rahatlatmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
12. İngilizce konuşmak için **sınıfta** fırsat kollarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
13. İngilizce konuşmak için **okul dışında** fırsatlar bulmaya çalışırım. (örn; turistlerle, ailemle vs. konuşmak gibi)	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
14. Hata yapmaktan korksam bile İngilizce konuşmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
15. Derste yaptığımız İngilizce **konuşma aktivitelerinden** sonra yanlışlarımı düzeltmeye çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
16. Konuşurken İngilizce'sini bilmediğim bir kelimenin yerine, **Türkçe'sini söylerim ve İngilizce konuşmaya devam ederim**.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
17. İngilizce söylemek istediğim şeyi söylemeden önce aklımda planlarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
18. İngilizce konuşurken karşımdaki kişiden hatalarımı düzeltmesini isterim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

Appendix 4: Bursa Provincial Directorate of National Education Approval Letter
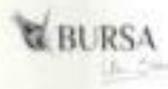
T.C.
BURSA VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 86896125.605.01.E.1244844   03.02.2016
Konu : Elif EKEN'in Araştırma İzni

VALİLİK MAKAMINA

İlgi   : M.E.B. Araştırma, Yarışma ve Sosyal Etkinlik İzinleri konulu 07/03/2012 tarihli ve 2012/13
sayılı Genelgesi

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Yabancı Dil Konuşma Becerilerinin Geliştirilmesi" başlıklı araştırma için talebi Uludağ Üniversitesi
Rektörlüğü Genel Sekreterlik'in 19/11/2015 36789 sayılı yazısı ile bildirilmiş ve 27/11/2015 tarihli ve
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Yabancı Dil Konuşma Becerilerinin Geliştirilmesi" başlıklı araştırma çalışması için verilen Osmangazi Atatürk
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olmadığı ve çalışmadan veri elde edilemeyeceği gerekçesiyle 15/01/2016 tarihli dilekçesinde uygulamasını
Osmangazi ilçesi Uludağ Ortaokulu olarak değiştirilmesini isteği, ilimizde oluşturulan "Araştırma
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Osmangazi Uludağ Ortaokulu'ndaki öğrencilere uygulama yapması, araştırma formları adı okul
müdürlüklerince görülerek, gönüllülük esası ile okul müdürlüğünün gözetim ve sorumluluğunda ilgi Genelge
çerçevesinde komisyonumuzca uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görülmesi halinde olurlarınıza arz ederim.

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İl Milli Eğitim Şube Müdürü

OLUR
03.02.2016

Necdet SEZER
Vali a.
İl Milli Eğitim Müdür V.

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Appendix 5: Classroom Observation Checklist

Gözlem Kontrol Listesi Sınıf: Tarih:	SAYI	TOPLAM
1. Yeni öğrendiği İngilizce kelime veya ifadeleri **sürekli söyleyerek tekrarlar.**		
2. Yeni öğrendiği bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için İngilizce **konuşurken kullanır.**		
3. **İngilizce sesleri** düzgün söyleyinceye kadar **tekrar eder.**		
4. İngilizce kelimeleri düzgün söyleyebilmek için İngilizce konuşan insanları taklit etmeye çalışır.		
5. İngilizce bir şey söylemek istediğinde defterden, kitaptan vs. konuyla ilgili derste neler yaptığına bakar.		
6. Konuşurken İngilizce' sini bilmediği bir kelimeyi onun **resmini çizerek anlatmaya çalışır.**		
7. İngilizce konuşurken zorlandığında, söylemek istediklerini **vücut dilini ve mimiklerini kullanarak ifade eder.**		
8. İngilizce bir kelimeyi veya ifadeyi doğru söyleyemediğinde **öğretmeninden yardım ister**.		
9. İngilizce bir cümle kurmak istediğinde nasıl söyleyeceğini bilemiyorsa **öğretmeninden yardım ister.**		

10. İngilizce bir kelimeyi bilmiyorsa **başka kelimelerle anlatmaya çalışır**. (Örn; "Tiger" yerine "Big cat" gibi.)		
11. İngilizce konuşmak için **sınıfta** fırsat kollar.		
12. Hata yapmaktan korksa bile İngilizce konuşmaya çalışır.		
13. Derste yapılan İngilizce **konuşma aktivitelerinden** sonra yanlışlarını düzeltmeye çalışır.		
14. Konuşurken İngilizce'sini bilmediği bir kelimenin yerine, **onun Türkçe'sini söyler ve İngilizce konuşmaya devam eder**.		
15. İngilizce konuşurken karşısındaki kişiden hatalarını düzeltmesini ister.		

Gözlem esnasında öğrencilerin strateji kullanımlarına dair sınıf içinde beliren ilave durumlar-tespitler:

Appendix 6: Minute Papers

Okul no:

Öğrendiğin strateji:

Öğrendiğin bu stratejinin senin için faydalı olduğunu düşünüyorsun, çünkü…......….....

………………………………………………………………………………………..

……………………………………..…….....

Öğrendiğin bu stratejinin senin için faydalı olmadığını düşünüyorsun, çünkü….....….

....

....

Öğrendiğin bu stratejiyi kullanmak senin için kolay, çünkü……….........................……

.........................…………………………………………….............……

Öğrendiğin bu stratejiyi kullanmak senin için zor, çünkü……......…..………………

………………………………………………………............……………...

Önceden bu stratejiyi bilmediğin için ……..………………………………………

.……………………………………………………………………………

Artık bildiğin için ...………………………………………………………....

………………………………........………………………………………..

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Publications

Gürsoy, E & Eken, E. (2018). Children's language learning strategies: Turkish example. *Porta Linguarum,* (in press)

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