

STRATEGY TRAINING AND INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES
IN L2 LISTENING COMPREHENSION:
EVIDENCE FROM AN EFL CLASSROOM-BASED STUDY

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Saime Kara Duman, certify that

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- this is a true copy of the thesis approved by my advisor and thesis committee at Boğaziçi University, including final revisions required by them.

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ABSTRACT

Strategy training and individual differences in L2 Listening Comprehension: Evidence from an EFL classroom-based study

This present study examines whether explicit strategy-based listening instruction makes a difference on L2 academic listening skill of the participants in EFL context. This study also explores the respective contributions of strategy training, listening strategies awareness, working memory and aptitude on listening comprehension. The participants were 40 EFL students mainly speaking Turkish (21 experimental, 19 control). The experimental group received strategy-based listening instruction for 12 hours in 4 weeks. This study differentiates itself from the previous research in that several measures were used to measure learners' gain in L2 listening. The participants completed pre- and post- listening comprehension tests in English, and they completed Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (Vandergrift et al., 2006). In order to explore individual learner factors, a computerized working memory test (Foster et al., 2005) a pen and paper aptitude test (Peter Skehan, personal communication) were administered. Lastly, focus group interviews were conducted to learn about opinions of the participants related to the effectiveness of the treatment. The results revealed that even though learners started similarly, the experimental group benefitted from the instruction more than the control group. Regression analysis indicated that strategy training significantly predicted L2 listening comprehension more than awareness, working memory and aptitude. Interviews revealed that their listening skill improved mostly due to the strategy instruction and more exposure to the listening activities and tasks in the class.

ÖZET

Yabancı dil dinleme yetisinde strateji eğitimi ve bireysel farklılıklar: Sınıf tabanlı çalışmadan kanıt

Bu çalışma, yabancı dil öğrenme bağlamında, katılımcıların yabancı dil akademik dinleme becerisi üzerinde açık strateji tabanlı dinleme eğitiminin bir fark yaratıp yaratmadığını incelemektedir. Ayrıca, bu çalışma strateji eğitiminin, dinleme farkındalığı (öğrenme stratejileri), işler bellek ve yabancı dil öğrenme yatkınlığı gibi bireysel farklılıklarının yabancı dil dinleme ve anlama yeteneğine katkısını araştırmaktadır. Katılımcılar, 4 hafta içinde 12 saat boyunca strateji tabanlı dinleme eğitimi alan 40 EFL öğrencisi (21 deney, 19 kontrol) idi. Bu çalışma, yabancı dil dinleme ve anlama yetisinin kazançlarını ölçmek için çeşitli değerlendirmeler kullandığı ve bireysel farklılıkları da dikkate aldığı için önceki araştırmalardan kendini ayırmaktadır. Katılımcılar, öncesi ve sonrası olarak, İngilizce dinleme anlama testlerini tamamladı ve aynı zamanda Metakognitif Farkındalık Dinleme Anketi'ni (Vandergrift ve diğerleri, 2006) tamamladı. Bireysel öğrenci faktörlerini keşfetmek için, işler bellek testi (Foster ve ark., 2005) ve dil öğrenme yatkınlık testi (Peter Skehan, kişisel iletişim) uygulandı. Son olarak, odak grup görüşmeleri yabancı dil dinleme eğitimin etkinliği ile ilgili katılımcıların görüşleri hakkında bilgi edinmek için yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar, öğrencilerin benzer şekilde başlamasına rağmen, deneysel grubun kontrol grubundan daha fazla yararlandığını ortaya koydu. Regresyon analizi, strateji eğitiminin İngilizce dinlemeye önemli katkı sağladığı ortaya konmuştur. Grup odaklı sözlü görüşmeler ise, yabancı dil dinleme becerilerinin çoğunlukla strateji eğitimi, sınıftaki dinleme faaliyetlerine ve amaçlarına daha fazla maruz kalması sayesinde geliştiğini ortaya koydu.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CALLA:	Cognitive Academic Language Approach
CST:	Complex Span Tasks
ID:	Individual Differences
MALQ:	Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire
WM:	Working Memory



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Listening is a skill surrounding us in every part of our lives such as communication, learning new information, songs, people, lectures, Youtube, podcasts, vlogs, or academic lectures. We need listening skill not only to be an effective individual in our native language; but also, to be a second language learner and a speaker.

Vandergrift (2007) considers listening the heart of language learning.

Purdy (1997) defines listening as “the active and dynamic process of attending, perceiving, interpreting, remembering, and responding to the expressed (verbal and nonverbal) needs, concerns, and information offered by other human beings” (p.4). Even though Purdy limits the listening definition with human beings, it is obvious that listening is beyond human beings; for example, the technological developments and devices such as smart phones and smart machines make people use their listening skill. Many scholars argue that listening skill has an important role in our daily lives; however, it does not take much attention as it should in teaching research (Vandergrift, 2004; 2007; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Listening is also quite crucial in instructed language contexts, where the learners have limited chance of practice of English outside the classroom.

Listening skill is considered the most important but least understood and least researched skill by Vandergrift (2007) and Buck (2001). Bodie and Graham consider listening research as “fertile” because there is not much research in the field; and Vandergrift (2006) claims that this lack of research in listening skill might be

because the temporary and the inherent nature of speech signals need during listening process. One of the most comprehensive theory how listening is processed is proposed by Anderson (1990). His Three-Phase Model consists of Perceptual Processing, Parsing, Utilization. During perception processing, the listener translates sounds to word representations. In parsing phase, the listener segments the words and constructs meaning of words. The last stage is the utilization phase, in which the listener utilizes the meaning with their schemata. The second theory of listening comprehension is bottom-up and top-down processing (O'Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1989). In bottom-up processing the listeners first hear the sounds, then construct words. As the next stage, the listeners get the linguistic meaning of the words and lastly, the listeners try to understand literal meanings of words from their schemata and the context. In top-down processing, the listeners first try to understand the context and then, they resort to their schemata. From highest level to lowest level, they understand the meanings, sentences, words and finally the sounds. Both processing is not strictly in order; processing can occur randomly.

Since there is almost no practice of listening skill outside classroom especially in EFL setting, instructed EFL learners might have the only chance of listening practice in the class. This practice is generally carried out by just testing listening skill in the classroom, which is not enough for listening to academic lectures. Academic listening differs from conversational listening because it needs the listener to concentrate on and understand long stretches of talk, to understand the difference between what is relevant and what is irrelevant (Flowerdew, 1994). Now, the question is how a teacher can enhance students' listening skills in a limited time. Many researchers support that there is a need for systematic L2 listening skill instruction. (Mendelsohn, 1994; Wenden, 1983; Macaro, 2006; Vandergrift 2004;

Oxford, 1990). This systematic instruction of listening skill can be in the form of teaching learning strategies (Coşkun, 2010; Nga Thi Hang Ngo, 2016; Chen, 2009; Odacı, 2006; Seo, 2005; Chou, 2017; Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Rahimi & Katal, 2013; Lofti et al., 2016; Moradi, 2013).

In addition to listening instruction, there can be individual differences (ID) which might affect the listening comprehension processes. Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) categorize individual differences into two groups: Cognitive and Socio/Affective Individual Differences. Cognitive IDs are learner strategies, working memory, aptitude, learner styles and socio/affective IDs are anxiety, motivation and self-efficacy. As this research is based on the cognitive aspects of listening skill, only cognitive IDs will be adopted such as learner strategies, working memory and aptitude. According to O'Malley & Chamot (1990), language learning strategies are "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p.1) and they make a categorization of learning strategies as cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies. Cognitive strategies are the ones which manipulate the information directly to improve learning such as rehearsal, classification, summarization, elaboration, inferencing, deduction, imagery, transfer. Metacognitive strategies are the higher order executive skills such as evaluation, monitoring and planning. The last category is social/affective strategies that need some interaction or the affective control on the learner. These can be cooperation, questioning for clarification and self-talk.

In addition to learning strategies, recently, working memory (WM) has been considered as a cognitive individual variable which affects learning and L2 listening comprehension among learners in the classrooms. Working memory is a limited

memory system which has the mission of encoding, storage, and the retrieval. The most common framework of WM, Multiple Component System, was proposed by Baddeley & Hitch (1974). The system has three domain specific subcomponents such as phonological loop, visuo-spatial sketchpad and episodic buffer; and, it has one control system, the central executive. Phonological loop processes phonological and verbal information, while visuo-sketchpad is responsible for visual, spatial and kinesthetic information. The episodic buffer combines visual, verbal and other types of information with the information retrieved from long term memory; then, it turns them into unitary multidimensional codes. It is a limited storage component like phonological loop and visuo-spatial sketchpad. The central executive controls the selective attention and it connects the information as a meaningful unit by coordinating different storages. The literature reports that the learners who have a larger WM have advantages on academic achievement (Baddeley, 2003; Gathercole & Pickering, 2000) such as language learning, noticing and pattern recognition, corrective feedback (Skehan, 2016), L1 listening and reading comprehension (Juffs & Harrington, 2011). Since L2 listening processing needs to encode, storage and retrieve the knowledge in a stream of speech, it is closely connected to working memory. Only few studies have examined the relationship between working memory and L2 listening comprehension (Gu & Wang, 2007; Kormos & Sáfár, 2008, Brunfaut & Revezs, 2015) and there is no consensus about the relationship between working memory and L2 listening comprehension among the studies. Therefore, the relationship between working memory and L2 listening comprehension needs to be investigated more to understand their nature.

The last cognitive individual variable which might affect L2 listening comprehension is the foreign language aptitude. Dörnyei & Skehan (2003) defines it

“specific talent for learning foreign languages that exhibits considerable variation between learners” (p.590). The most prominent theory “Four component model of aptitude” comes from Carroll (1981). Those components are Phonemic Coding Ability, Grammatical sensitivity, Inductive Language Learning Ability and Associative Memory. Phonemic coding ability is to retain, retrieve and reorganize the unfamiliar sounds in a stream of a speech and grammatical sensitivity is to identify the grammar structures in sentences. Inductive language learning ability is to be able to deduce the patterns in a speech and to transfer them to the new sentences, and lastly, associative memory is to be able to make a connection between sounds and meaning. Recently, Skehan (1998a) has reconceptualized what the aptitude is with SLA in three different modularity such as auditory processing (phonemic coding ability), language processing (grammatical sensitivity and inductive language learning) and the memory (retrieval). Aptitude has been tested with some studies such as instructional treatments (Welsche, 1991; Robinson, 1995; Erlam, 2005), focus on form (Yalçın & Spada, 2016) and complex skills (Ellis et al., 1999, Ranta, 2002; Sáfár & Kormos, 2008). However, no aforementioned study has thoroughly examined its mediating role on L2 listening comprehension specifically, so far.

1.2 Purpose of the study

Because listening practices in the classrooms are not enough for listening to academic lectures in instructed EFL contexts, there is a need for systematic instruction of listening skill. The literature review has suggested the instruction of learning strategies to improve listening skill. Therefore, this present study first aims to show whether explicit L2 listening instruction based on learning strategies makes a difference on students’ L2 academic listening skill or not. O’ Malley & Chamot’s

(1990) categorization of learning strategies will be adopted as the categorization is based on Anderson's (1990) Three Phase Model of Listening Process. In addition to lack of instruction, individual differences might affect the listening comprehension. That's why, this study attempts to investigate to what extent strategy training and cognitive individual differences, namely, learning strategies (listening awareness), working memory and aptitude can explain L2 listening skill. This exploration of instruction on L2 academic listening skill in the light of individual differences will provide insights into how explicit L2 listening instruction affects listening comprehension, and to what degree individual differences matter in EFL contexts. This study also explores the participants' perceptions related to the effectiveness of the L2 listening instruction, which will help the researcher to get more insight into how well the instruction has worked or not.

What makes this study different from the previous research which focused on strategy training is firstly that L2 listening strategy instruction has been planned and conducted according to Cognitive Academic Language Approach (CALLA; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), because this method of instruction is based on Anderson's (1990) Skill Acquisition Theory. The instructional plans of the intervention have been written and checked by the researcher according to the CALLA Instructional Plans. In addition to method of instruction, this current study will contribute to the literature by exploring the role of cognitive IDs in L2 listening skill.

1.3 Organization of the thesis

The remaining chapters are organized as follows. Chapter 2 will show the literature review of listening definitions, listening processes, cognitive IDs, learning strategies, working memory (WM) and aptitude, and the relevant studies conducted so far.

Chapter 3 will explain the methodology and the design of this current study. Chapter 4 will report the findings of all tests and instruments administered during the study.

Chapter 5 will discuss the results of the study with relevant theories and hypotheses.

Chapter 6 will summarize the study, and presents pedagogical implications, limitations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section tries to set up theoretical and conceptual framework in the literature review part, and it aims to connect the theories with the methods that are applied in this study. Thus, this chapter first aims to give a brief definition and description of listening skill with prominent theories. Secondly, listening process theories will be discussed and the chapter will continue with cognitive IDs, learning strategies, working memory and the foreign language aptitude. After giving a brief explanation of learning strategies, the chapter aims to explore the relationship between listening strategies and instruction in the classrooms by showing an overview of the studies. Finally, working memory based on Baddeley and Hitch's Multicomponent Model (1974; Baddeley, 2000), and the foreign language aptitude based on Carroll's Four Components Model (1959) and Skehan's reconceptualization of aptitude (1998a) will be explained, and lastly studies conducted in relation to listening skill related to this study will be presented.

2.1 Definitions of listening skill

Bodie and Worthington (2018) state a warning related to definitions of listening skill; that is, the definitions should be according to the appropriate theoretical framework (p.22) and the definitions should follow the theories, not the vice versa (p.10). As every definition comes from its theory, my goal is to show many definitions rather than only one to understand the listening skill better.

In a daily talk, hearing and listening are used interchangeably; nevertheless, there are significant differences between them. Hearing is "the perception of the

sound and faculties of the ear”, while listening requires “attention and silent obedience” (Bodie & Worthington, 2018; p.3). In other words, most sounds we hear are not actually effectively listened to; to be able to listen, we need more of cognitive, affective and behavioral attention. Rost (2011) also defines hearing as “the primary physiological system that allows for reception and conversion of sound waves” (p.11). Hearing might be a basis for listening; however, it is just a “precursor” for listening; the biggest difference between them is “the degree of intention” (p.12).

According to Rost (2011), listening is “the selective process of attending to, hearing, understanding and remembering aural symbols” (p.3), or “the process by which oral language is received, critically and purposefully attended to, recognized and interpreted in terms of past experiences and future expectancies” (p.4).

Due to the focus of this study, I will employ Flowerdew’s (1994) description of academic listening. Flowerdew (1994) lists the distinctive features of academic listening than conversational listening:

- type of background knowledge required
- ability to distinguish between what is relevant and what is not relevant
- amount of implied meaning or number of indirect speech acts
- ability to concentrate on and understand long stretches of talk without the opportunity of engaging in the facilitating functions of interactive discourse
- note-taking.

2.2 Listening processes

In the “definitions” part, I tried to show the difference between hearing and listening and give different definitions of listening skill. Listening is a very complex process, and to come up with only one theory is almost impossible because there is not a consensus on its constructs and subskills. Therefore, I will present the most prominent listening comprehension theories and models to understand its system and the nature.

In the system of listening, there are two types of knowledge: linguistic and nonlinguistic knowledge (Buck, 2001; p.1). Linguistic knowledge consists of phonemes, lexis, syntax, semantics, and discourse, while nonlinguistic knowledge is comprised of world knowledge such as topic, context, culture and soon. (p.2). Many researchers provide some explanations, models, and theories to explain how the listeners come to those knowledges. Two Stage View is a very early model of listening processing. In the model, the first stage is to take out the linguistic information from the speech and, then, the second stage is to utilize this information for communication (Buck, 2001; p.51). Different researchers call these two stages different terms; but almost with the same conceptualization of listening comprehension. For example, Rivers (1966) calls these two stages as “recognition and selection” (cited in Buck, 2001; p.52). The listener recognizes the words and syntax from the structure of the speech, and then selects the appropriate gist of the content from the message. Clark and Clark (1977) categorize listening process into two: “construction and utilization process” (cited in Buck, 2001; p.52). In construction process, the listener constructs the meaning from the words of the speaker, and then utilizes this interpretation to communicate with the speaker in the utilization process. These scholars emphasize on the fact that this order is not

sequential; the listener will use his or her own processing according to the feedback from the speaker.

There is a widely accepted cognitive theory of listening comprehension: Anderson's Three-Phase Model (1990). The model includes Perceptual Processing, Parsing and Utilization. During perceptual process, the listener encodes the phonemes from the acoustic message; in other words, perception is "the translation from sound to a word representation" (p.358). After perceptual processing phase, the listener starts parsing phase, in which the words in the acoustic message become "mental representations of the combined meaning of the words" (p. 360). In other words, the listener segments the words and then, constructs and keeps the meanings in echoic memory. The last stage is utilization phase, in which the listener tries to interpret the meanings from their background knowledge. Anderson (1990) explains utilization phase with some examples: If the sentence the listener heard is an assertion, the listener may simply store its meaning in the memory; if it is a question, the listener may answer, and if it is an order, they may obey. Anderson's Three-Phase Model (1990) seems linear in order; however, they may overlap. In other words, they are interconnected, and when the listener tries to utilize the meaning, they may also perceive the later part (p.360).

Another theory related to listening process is the Top Down and Bottom Up Processing (O'Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1989). In bottom up processing, the listening processing starts from bottom to up. In other words, the listener first hears the phonemes and they use these phonemes to construct words; and then, the listener moves to the higher stage, syntactic level. After getting the linguistic meaning of the sentences, the listener tries to understand the literal meaning from the speaker and the context (Buck, 2001; p.3). Rost (2011) suggests that bottom-up processing should

not be aim of listening comprehension; but we should treat it like a tool for comprehension (p. 52). On the other hand, in top down processing, the listener firstly consults the context and prior knowledge (schemata) “to build a conceptual framework for comprehension” (Vandergrift, 2007; p. 193), and then they segment the meanings into the sentences, words and phonemes. However, these processes are not necessarily in a strict order; they can be in any random order, or they can be used simultaneously. The speed and the effectiveness of these processes and their interaction depend on the purpose of listening, the proficiency level of the learner, and the context in which the listening occurs (Vandergrift, 2007; p.193).

Furthermore, Rost (2011) puts forward another listening comprehension model, which consists of four different processing: neurological, linguistic, semantic and pragmatic processing (p.9). The neurological processing consists of hearing, consciousness and attention, and Rost (2011) claims that the listener goes through “complex electro-chemical circuitry” (p.24) to start the listening process. However, he adds that these processes are not just mechanic and robotic; human being is meaning-oriented species and thus, they try to identify the meaning not only from the external world, but also from their inner worlds. The second listening processing is linguistic processing, in which the listener differentiates the units of the spoken language such as phonemes, words, sentences, grammatical structure (Rost, 2011; p.25-52). Rost also integrates “non-verbal cues” to linguistic processing. These cues are visual signals such as exophoric and kinesics signals, exophoric signals such as writing some notes on the board, showing picture during a lecture and kinesics signals are hand and eye movements such as directional gaze, using thump for the main point. The third listening process is semantic processing, in which the listeners “activate and modify the concept in their minds” (Rost, 2011; p.57) and this activated

knowledge is called “schemata”. A schema is “a figurative description for any set of simultaneously activated connections (related nodes) in the vast frontal cortex of the brain” (p.58) and every time we listen, and we read, we update our existing schemas and construct new schemas. Sometimes the speaker and the listener may not share the same schemas, and this might cause some misunderstandings (mismatch between schemata), nonunderstanding. The aim of the listening should be complete understanding (schemas completely shared); however, there can occur plausible understanding (schemas partly shared) and acceptable understanding (schemas largely shared) as well. Listening might be cognitive in nature; however, the listener should be able to use social knowledge to understand the speaker’s intended meaning in the speech by looking at the context the listening event occurs (p.98). Therefore, after using the speech signals and activating the schema, the last listening process proposed by Rost (2011) is pragmatic processing.

To summarize, there are many theories to explain listening construct. It starts with Two Stage view and this theory was called with different names by some other researchers (Rivers, 1966; Clark and Clark, 1977; Buck, 2001) for a long time. The theory suggests that listening emerges in two stages: the first one is to take the information from the speech and the second one is to utilize that information. One of the most prominent listening theories is Anderson’s Three Phase Model. Anderson (1990) categorizes the listening process in three phases: perceptual processing, parsing and utilization. The listener first understands the words, then meaning and lastly the context. Another prominent listening theory is Top-Down and Bottom-Up Processes (O’Malley & Chamot & Kupper, 1989). In bottom-up process, the listener starts to process from the lowest level to highest level; sounds, phonemes, words, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic, while in top-down process, the listener starts by

activating their schemata and using background knowledge. The last listening theory is put forward by Rost (2011), and it has 4 different processes such as neurological, linguistic, semantic and pragmatic processing. All theories aforementioned suggest that the listening does not happen in one step, but it has different processes.

2.3 Individual differences and L2 listening

In the second part of the literature review Listening Process, I showed how different listening process theories try to explain listening skill. Overall, almost all the models have confirmed that listening is considered not only in cognitive framework, but also in social framework; in other words, all explanations are based on social-cognitive models of listening comprehension process. Now, this part of literature review will show how L2 listening process can be affected by cognitive IDs, specifically learning strategies, working memory and the foreign language aptitude.

Like fingerprints, our brain and cognition are different from one another, so learning process of every individual inherently varies. Due to the focus of this study, only cognitive IDs correlated to listening skill, namely learning strategies, working memory and the foreign language aptitude will be covered.

2.3.1 Learning Strategies

Stern (1983) makes a distinction between “strategies” and “techniques”; strategies are intentional and general approaches to learning, whereas techniques are observable forms of language learner behavior evident in particular areas of language. Ellis (1994) adds that some scholars use the term “strategies” with the meaning of “techniques”. Seliger (1984) makes a distinction between “strategies” and “tactics”; the former is “basic abstract categories of processing by which

information perceived in the outside world is organized and categorized into cognitive structures as part of a conceptual network” while “tactics” are “variable and idiosyncratic learning activities, which learners use to organize a learning situation, respond to the learning environment or cope with input and output demands” (Ellis, 1994; p.532). Schemeck (1988) considers strategies as “military term”, while the tactics as “non-military”; in other words, strategy is to implement the plan of a large-scale military operation; on the other hand, tactics are to implement a set of procedures to succeed something. However, the difference between tactics and strategies is not clear that much; we may see the definition of “tactics” in the form of “strategies” because scholars have not agreed on whether the strategies are conscious. Anderson (1990) defines tactics as “sequences of moves to solve subproblems”, whereas strategic learning as “how students organize their solutions to the overall problem” (p.272). Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) make a distinction between skills and strategies; the former one is “the things we can do”; the latter one is “the conscious decisions to implement these skills” (p.611). Ellis also separates language learning strategies and skill learning strategies but again, the difference seems not certain among the scholars. Different definitions will guide us what the learning strategies are and what they are used for. I will adopt the term “strategies” in study.

Learning strategies are “special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning or retention of the information” (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; p.1). Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) call language learning strategies as “the learners’ active and creative contribution to enhance the effectiveness of his or her own learning through the application of individualized learning techniques” (p.607-608). Researchers are not in consensus about whether the strategies are behavioral or

mental. Ellis (1994) talks about the main characteristics of learning strategies as follow (p.532-533):

- Strategies refer to both general approaches and specified actions or techniques used to learn an L2.
- Strategies are problem oriented.
- Learners are generally aware of the strategies they use.
- Strategies involve both linguistic and nonlinguistic behavior.
- Linguistic strategies can be performed in L1 and L2.
- Some strategies are behavioral while others are mental.
- In general, strategies contribute indirectly to learning; however, some strategies may also contribute directly.
- Strategy use varies considerably as a result of both the kind of task the learner is engaged in and individual learner preferences.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) categorize learning strategies according to Anderson's (1990) Three-Phase Model into three dimensions: cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies. Metacognitive strategies are higher order executive skills for planning, monitoring and evaluating (p.44):

1. Selective attention for special aspects of a learning task, as in planning to listen for key words or phrases;
2. Planning the organization of either written or spoken discourse;
3. Monitoring or reviewing attention to a task, monitoring comprehension for information that should be remembered, or monitoring production while it is occurring; and,
4. Evaluating or checking comprehension after completion of a receptive language activity or evaluating language production after it has taken place.

Cognitive strategies manipulate the information directly to enhance learning and they are (p.45):

1. Rehearsal or repeating the names of items or objects that have been heard;
2. Organization, or grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes;
3. Inferencing, or using information in oral text to guess meanings of new linguistic items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts;
4. Summarizing, or intermittently synthesizing what one has heard to ensure the information has been retained;
5. Deduction, or applying rules to understand language;
6. Imagery, or using visual images (either generated or actual) to understand and remember new verbal information;
7. Transfer, or using known linguistic information to facilitate a new learning task; and
8. Elaboration -linking ideas contained in new information or integrating new ideas with known information (elaboration may be a general category for other strategies, such as imagery, summarization, transfer, and deduction)

The last group, social/affective strategies need interaction with another person or ideational control over the affect. These strategies are:

1. Cooperation, or working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity;
2. Questioning for clarification or eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples; and
3. Self-talk or using mental control to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task.

I adopted O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) categorization of learning strategies in the intervention. The strategies were adapted to L2 listening skill when it was necessary.

2.3.1.1 Listening strategy instruction

First, with the focus of this present study, it might be better to start to explain how a skill can be acquired. Anderson (1990) makes a three-stage model of skill acquisition: cognitive, associative, autonomous stage (p.258-265). In cognitive stage, the information from the skill comes as declarative knowledge for the first time such as "how to do the tasks, observe an expert performing it, or attempt to study it (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; p.25)", and the learners can verbalize their knowledge. In associative stage, the learners connect the new information with the existing knowledge of that particular skill and the learners strengthen the connections among the elements of that skill. Their knowledge is between declarative and procedural knowledge; they are not expert in the skill and they can still make errors. The last stage is autonomous stage, in which the declarative knowledge of the skill becomes procedural knowledge and the skill becomes more rapid and more automated. In fact, Anderson (1990) states that there is not a strict distinction between autonomous and associative stage; the autonomous might be considered as "the extension stage of associative stage" (p.260). To sum up, Anderson's Skill Acquisition Theory proposes that the declarative knowledge of the skill results in procedural knowledge and automatization.

Even though Skill Acquisition Theory proposes the instruction stage first, the classroom practices of listening skill do not always follow the theory. The perspective towards listening practice has changed through the time. First, "listening

to repeat” was the common practice, and then “question and answer” took place in the classrooms. Listening as a skill was considered “passive” in the past; that’s why, listening practices did not take attention in the classrooms (Vandergrift, 2004; p.3). However, nowadays, the instruction in listening has transformed from “listening to learn” to “learning to listen”; in other words, from product-based instruction to process-based instruction thanks to the studies conducted in the literature. Many researchers argue that strategy instruction is effective to promote listening comprehension in the classrooms (Mendelsohn, 1994; Wenden, 1983; Macaro, 2006; Vandergrift 2004; Oxford, 1990). Vandergrift reports from a research that “ strategy-based approach to listening instruction with beginner level listeners builds confidence raises awareness of the process of listening and helps listeners learn to use effective combinations of metacognitive and cognitive strategies to understand texts in real time” (2004; p.10). Macaro (2006) reports that strategy instruction is effective when it is applied with length of time and a focus on metacognition (p.321).

2.3.1.2 Listening strategy instruction and classroom practices

Studies have confirmed that listening strategy instruction is effective in classrooms with all proficiency levels such as beginner (Coskun, 2010), pre-intermediate (Nga Thi Hang Ngo, 2016; Chen, 2009), intermediate (Odacı, 2006; Seo, 2005; Chou, 2017), upper-intermediate (Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Rahimi & Katal, 2013) and advanced (Lofti et al., 2016; Moradi, 2013) level students.

Thompson and Rubin (1996) investigated whether video-based listening instruction or audio-based listening instruction was more effective. The participants were intermediate level of Russian language learners in the U.S.A. In the beginning,

both groups took 2 different pre-tests (video comprehension and audio comprehension tests). As an additional measure, the researchers used the listening portion of the Comprehensive Russian Proficiency Test (Educational Testing Service 1990) and a standardized test designed for ACTFL Novice and Intermediate Level Listeners. After pre-tests, the participants joined the lessons three times a week for 50 minutes. The experimental group teacher was an expert in developing listening strategies, while the control group teacher had no familiarity to strategy use in listening. Both groups had the same course book, they watched the same videos in the same amount of time (15 hours in an academic year); however, their lesson plans were different. The experiment lasted for 2 years and at the end of the experiment, both group participants took the same tests as post-tests. The results revealed that the participants who took strategy instruction performed better than the control group participants, but there was not a significant difference between two groups about audio-based listening instruction; however, video-based instruction made a difference.

Another study of strategy training for L2 listening comprehension is by Rahimi and Katal (2013). The researchers compared conventional teaching of listening (pre, while, post activities) and metacognitive listening instruction. The participants were upper-intermediate level of EFL learners. At first, as a pre-test, the participants were given Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) to assess metacognitive awareness and perceived use of listening strategies (Vandergrift et al., 2006) and listening sections of TOEFL to assess students' listening comprehension as pre-tests. Strategy training for the experimental group lasted for 16 weeks in a semester with 35-40 minutes each session. At the end of the experiment, the students took the MALQ and listening section of TOEFL again as

post-tests. The intervention resulted in higher level of metacognitive awareness of listening strategies in comparison to control group in a significant way with MALQ results. However, when Rahimi and Katal (2013) analyzed the comparison of pre-test and post-test of listening section of TOEFL, it was reported that intervention did not improve their listening comprehension significantly.

Lotfi, Maftoon and Birjandi (2016) conducted a quasi-experimental study which investigated the effect of two listening strategy interventions on pre-intermediate and intermediate EFL learners' performance in unidirectional listening. The participants were randomly assigned two different groups: experimental (EG) and control group (CG). The experimental group was divided into two for each intervention (EG1, EG2). The students knew that they were involved in a study on listening in English, but they did not know which group they were in. First, all the students took the PET so as to check the proficiency levels of English in each group. Then, all participants took a specific listening comprehension pre-test to assess learners' listening performance before training. The researchers also conducted a pre-intervention semi-structured interviews with some of the students to determine the listening strategies according to the problems that students had. EG1 received strategy training based on Mendelsohn's (1994) model in which learners were involved in a short class discussion on the value of listening strategies. Examples were then provided to present them of the role of strategy use in comprehending L2 listening texts. EG2 received strategy training based on Macaro (2001) in which learners were initially required to discuss the strategies they use when involved in unidirectional listening in their L1. The learners were then asked to compare these strategies with those they use when doing similar tasks in an L2. This was followed by a class discussion on why the use of these strategies would help learners listen

more effectively. Participants in the EG2 were provided with explicit instruction on how to apply a particular strategy in combination with other strategies. This was facilitated by scaffolded practice of old and new strategies and by the teacher demonstrating how to apply a strategy in combination with others using a “think-aloud” procedure. Moreover, learners were assisted with deciding on the strategy combinations by reflecting on a ‘scaffolding sheet’. The CG did not get any training about listening strategies, but they listened to the same material, and did same tasks and homework. The results showed that both experimental groups outperformed the comparison group on a listening achievement test. In addition, the intermediate group performed better than the pre-intermediate group; however, this performance could not reach any significant difference.

Lastly, Chou (2017) carried out a study aiming to measure to what degree the task-based approach helps to develop intermediate Chinese EFL learners’ metacognitive awareness for listening strategy use. Both groups received different types of listening instruction: experimental group took strategy-embedded task-based instruction, following the framework by Norris (2011), while control group took strategy-based instruction on listening skill. In intervention, each topic of the lessons was designed according to four TBLT phases of task input, pedagogical task work, target task performance and task follow-up proposed by Norris (2011). The experimental group’s results revealed that the participants developed a growth of metacognitive awareness of strategy use for both one-way and two-way listening and they outperformed the control group on the post test. The application of TBLT to listening helped the learners to develop and practice metacognitive strategies such as evaluating, problem solving, linking schemata to information in the worksheet and

directing their attention to relevant or important parts before completing the listening task.

The studies above have confirmed that listening strategy instruction helps the learners improve their L2 listening skill in the classrooms with different levels of proficiency and different L1 speakers of learners, different instruction models. However, none of them has investigated the roles of cognitive individual differences on L2 listening comprehension and none of the aforementioned studies presented their nature of the intervention and instructional plans, which are quite important in strategy training.

Even though listening strategy instruction started to get attention in the field, Turkey has few studies which investigated the listening strategy instruction. Although there are some learning strategies studies, we see that those are generally related to other skills such as writing and reading but listening skill has got little attention.

Uzakgören and Seferoğlu (2004) conducted a study with prep school students in Turkey to see the effect of strategy training on L2 listening comprehension and the participants' proficiency level was beginner. The researchers collected qualitative data via a survey questionnaire and think aloud protocols. It was found that pronunciation and the accent of the speaker made the listening skill hard. The findings derived from think aloud protocols reported that the most common strategy that the students use is "making use of schemata" and the second one is "predicting or anticipating the content of the message"; and the third one is "selecting relevant and ignoring irrelevant messages." while the least common strategies are "making use of structure of the text" and "checking accuracy of comprehension." The results of the study revealed that only a few participants considered themselves good

listeners; most of the participants had no information about listening strategies and they claimed that training might help to use listening strategies.

Another listening strategy instruction study by Odacı (2006) investigated whether explicit listening comprehension strategy training other than implicit training resulted in any increase in learners' use of those strategies and whether this explicit training on listening strategies affected students' listening comprehension proficiency level (intermediate). Experimental group students took listening strategy training explicitly and the control group implicitly. All the lesson plans and materials were the same with both groups; however, in the experimental group, the names of the strategies were covered in the class, how to apply them were told to the students, and the students discussed whether those strategies helped them to understand listening text. On the other hand, in the control group, none of them was mentioned to make sure the treatment was implicit. They did not learn the names of the strategies and they did not discuss those strategies' effectiveness in the class. The experiment lasted for 7 weeks. The results of post tests showed that the experimental group used more strategies than the control group.

Coşkun (2010) conducted a study to find out whether metacognitive listening strategy training affects listening performance of beginner level learners in a language preparatory school in Turkey context. The research is designed as quasi experimental, in which one group (experimental) received listening strategy instruction treatment, but the other group (control) did not take any treatment during the study. For 5 weeks, experimental group took metacognitive strategy training as a component of their standard listening course book, while no metacognitive strategy was mentioned in the control group. In this training, the researcher used CALLA Approach (Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) by Chamot and

O'Malley (1990). With CALLA, the students learned some specific strategy training phases, such as preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation and expansion in their standard listening course curriculum. Another tool used in the research is Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) by Vandergrift et al. (2006). After five weeks, the analysis of the post-test revealed that the experimental group outperformed better than the control group in terms of their listening performance level. This confirms that teaching metacognitive strategies using CALLA Approach and MALQ as embedded in listening classes has a positive impact on students' listening performance level.

Studies conducted in Turkey have revealed positive effect of strategy instruction in foreign language classrooms. Even though all studies presented above focused on strategy training, there are some key issues that need to be addressed. For example, no studies above presented their method of intervention, their instructional plans except Coşkun (2010) because there is no information how the participants were trained. All of studies in Turkey ignored IDs, especially cognitive ones such as working memory and aptitude, which might be closely connected to L2 listening comprehension. In addition, the studies above used either quantitative or qualitative measurement; none of the studies used both at the same time. In this study, instructional plans will be presented, cognitive IDs related to L2 listening comprehension will be explored, both quantitative and qualitative data will be collected and the L2 listening comprehension will be triangulated to make the results stronger.

2.3.2 Working Memory

There was a neglected area in all those studies mentioned above related to listening strategies instruction; that is, there was no study which focused on other cognitive IDs other than learning strategies. Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) relate the reason to the idea that the other areas seem more promising than individual differences (p.889-890). Among the cognitive factors affecting individual differences research, working memory is considered as an important learner variable. Robinson (2003) claims that especially the memory processes and capacities in individual differences is underrepresented, little searched and sometimes misconceptualized in SLA research (p.664).

There are three kinds of memory systems: Short term Memory (STM), Long Term Memory (LTM) and the lastly, Working Memory (WM). The history of the memory goes back to James (1890; cited in Wen, 2016). According to James (1890), there are two types of working memory: Primary Memory and Secondary Memory. The former is responsible for short term information storage. This information is replaced with another information or it is transferred to long term memory. The latter has unlimited storage capacity. According to Hebb (1949; cited in Wen, 2016), short term memory activates the temporary neural connection among cells while long term memory makes permanent changes in synapses. Short term memory is the system which keeps a limited amount of information and holds it for a matter of seconds before it is lost (Juffs & Harrington, 2011). The best characteristic features of short-term memory are temporality and limited capacity. In addition, Cowan (1993) considers short term memory as “the interface between everything we know and everything we can see or do” (p.66). Hence, when we hear something, our short-term

memory tries to activate the neurons immediately, and then it retrieves the meaning from the long-term memory.

Over the past two decades, working memory has attracted attention of L2 researchers who want to study individual differences because the variance in working memory capacity results in different rate of language learning and use. Wen (2016) proposes that working memory might have a greater role than we think of it on especially L2 rather than L1. So, what is this working memory? It is not seen as memory per se, but a part of cognition because of the “interaction of a complex web of neural and cognitive processes” (Juffs & Harrington, 2011; p.138). Baddeley and Hitch (1974) found the prima facie evidence for the existence of a memory system that has an important role in human information processing. This memory system which shows a control system with a limitation on its storage and processing capacity is called Working Memory (WM). It is not about short or long-term storage; however, it is cognitive process functioning “to enhance capacity of encoding, storage, and retrieval” which are quite vital in learning and cognitive activities (Dehn, 2008; p.58). WM is different from short term memory with its feature of maintenance in addition to storage. According to Wen (2016), WM is the interface between short term memory and long-term memory and between cognition and real-world action (p.25), it is also “a gateway” for long term memory. WM manipulates the necessary information during performing higher order cognitively complex tasks such as academic learning, speech, comprehension, prospection, future planning, and reasoning (Baddeley, 2000).

The most prominent theory of working memory is Baddeley and Hitch (1974)’s Multiple Component System, WM has two different storage domains, Phonological Loop, Visuo-Spatial Sketchpad, and one control system, Central

Executive. Phonological loop is the temporary storage system which is responsible for processing familiar and new verbal and phonological information whereas, visuo-spatial sketchpad temporarily stores and manipulates spatial, visual and kinesthetic information. The central executive functions as “the attentional control of working memory” (Baddeley, 2003; p.200). It makes many shifts between the immediate task performance and later processes needed for the success of the task. The central executive also controls the selective attention to be able to focus or inhibit information which may interfere with carrying out the task successfully; in addition, it connects many different sources to meaningful parts by coordinating the other storages (Baddeley 2000; p.140).

After 1990s, Baddeley and Hitch’s (1974) model of WM confronted two problems: one was that there was a need for a system which helped visual and verbal codes to be combined and linked to multidimensional representations in long term memory, and the other one was that there was a need for a temporary storage which has enough capacity for the information that exceeds from phonological and visuo-spatial sketchpad storages (Baddeley, 2000; p.295). Thereupon, Baddeley has drawn attention to another system: The Episodic Buffer. It is a limited capacity system where many types of information integrated from different modalities regarding location, smell, color, movement, or tactile features of objects, and information retrieved from long-term memory are temporarily stored and turned into a temporary unitary-multidimensional representation. Its different feature from the central executive is its role of storage information rather than attention control.

WM is an important factor which might affect the educational achievement, because it is responsible for storing and managing information simultaneously. The

next section will present the summary of the studies which explored the relationship between working memory and classroom practices.

2.3.2.1 Working memory and classroom practices

The literature review supports that a larger WM can be advantageous on educational achievement (Baddeley, 2003; Gathercole & Pickering, 2000; Jarvis & Gathercole, 2003) such as language learning, noticing and pattern recognition since it helps the learner to analyze the incoming material better (Skehan, 2016; p.61), uptake in corrective feedback (ibid.), L1 listening and reading comprehension (Juffs & Harrington, 2011), L2 reading comprehension (Alptekin & Erçetin, 2009, 2010), L2 speech production (Weissheimer, 2008), vocabulary learning (Atkins & Baddeley, 1998; French, 2006), scholastic and intellectual task performance (Thompson, 2007), aptitude (Miyake & Friedman, 1998; Sáfár & Kormos, 2008), L2 writing (Abu-Rabia, 2001), L2 pronunciation (Trude & Tokowic, 2011), study abroad (O' Brien et al., 2006), multitasking, higher SAT scores, learning new programming languages (Foster et al., 2005) and General Fluid Intelligence (*Gf*, Conway et al., 2005).

Even though there is a bunch of studies which investigated the relationship between working memory and classroom, there are few studies which focused on specifically the effect of WM on L2 listening skill. Gu & Wang (2007) investigated the effect of working memory on EFL listening comprehension and explored the relationship between WM and listening comprehension. Chinese EFL students ($n=59$) whose English levels were proficient participated the study. They used a modified listening span test developed by Daneman and Carpenter (1980) both in Chinese (L1) and English (L2). As a listening test, they used CET-4 (College English Test Band 4) which was officially conducted in China. The study revealed that the

participants who had higher working memory capacities had better listening comprehension ability. In addition, although working memory capacity in L1 and L2 was significantly correlated with each other, L2 working memory seemed to predict more L2 listening comprehension.

Kormos & Sáfár (2008) explored the relationship between working memory capacity and performance in reading, writing, listening, speaking and use of English test at the end of a year. Secondary school students aged 15-16 ($n=50$), who study in their first intensive bilingual education program in Hungary participated the study. They used Cambridge Certificate Exam and backward digit span test. The findings reported that the working memory test was highly correlated with use of English and skills such as reading, listening and speaking.

Andringa et al. (2012) investigated the effect of WM in both L1 and L2 listening comprehension. 113 non-native and 121 native speakers of Dutch participated the study and the participants were tested by forward and backward auditory digit span, forward and backward visual digit span and a non-word recognition task as working memory test and Dutch State Exam of Listening Proficiency. The results showed that working memory could not explain the variance in L2 listening task.

Lastly, Brunfaut and Revesz (2015) explored the relationship between working memory and listening anxiety scales and listening performance. The participants ($n=93$) took two working memory tasks (forward and backward digit span tests) and 20 multiple choice listening comprehension questions (Academic listening section of Pearson test) and English proficiency test and finally, listening anxiety questionnaire. The results revealed that there was a positive relationship between working memory, anxiety and L2 listening performance. In other words, the

participants who had higher working memory capacity and were less anxious performed better in L2 listening comprehension test.

As Wen (2016) also mentions in his book, there is relatively few researches related to working memory and L2 listening comprehension and there is almost no consensus; that's why, he calls for research in this area (p.100). Other than the research above, this current study differentiates itself with the perspective of task type (open-ended), working memory tests (Foster et al.), context and participants profile and proficiency. Gathercole (2008) states that some learning difficulties the learners have encountered are because they cannot handle the memory demands of the activities and overload of the memory. Therefore, the learners should be guided when their memory gets overloaded during the activity and suggests a classroom-based training and support to find some solutions for preventing low learning progress and memory overload such as strategies, memory aids, change in curriculum in the classrooms (p.384). Thus, this study includes L2 listening instruction with listening strategies. Lastly, the empirical studies investigating the role of WM in relation to listening skill are scarce in number; especially, in Turkey contexts, there is no other study to explore the relationship between working memory and L2 listening skill; thus, this present study aims to contribute in this respect.

2.3.3 Aptitude

One of the most consistent predictors of second language learning success is aptitude as an individual difference. The concept of aptitude derives from question: Is there any specific innate talent in language learning? The modern approach to aptitude emerges with the most prominent researcher in this area, the American psychologist J.B.Carroll (1950s). Carrol and Sapon (1954) defines it as the basic abilities that are

essential to facilitate learning and Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) define it as “specific talent for learning foreign languages that exhibits considerable variation between learners” (p.613).

The discussion of aptitude starts with Carroll and Sapon’s first aptitude test battery, Modern Language Aptitude Test, MLAT (1959). Carroll first listed potential predictors of foreign language learning and then, administered over 40 tests to the learners and collected data on the achievement scores of each test. At the end of the tests, they came up with the best clusters “Carroll’s four component model of aptitude” (1981): Phonemic Coding Ability, Grammatical sensitivity, Inductive Language Learning Ability and Associative Memory”. Phonemic Coding ability is the capacity to identify the unfamiliar sounds that can be retained, retrieved and reorganized on a few seconds; the grammatical sensitivity is the capacity to identify the grammatical functions of the words in sentences; inductive language learning ability is the capacity to infer syntactic and morphological patterns of the language material and to be able to transfer that knowledge to new sentences and lastly, associative memory is the capacity to form association in memory between sounds and meaning. Even though MLAT seems like monolithic construct since it gives a general score, these four components show that aptitude is multifaceted (Skehan, 2002).

The first attempt of aptitude research decreased by 1970s because there was a common idea that aptitude was anti-egalitarian and there was no hope and way to come with low aptitude learners. Secondly, outmoded methodologies such as audiolingual damaged the concept of aptitude because there was much research done within that context and thus, aptitude was associated with audiolingual instruction and its prediction. However, with the rise of communicative approach and impact of

SLA research after 1970s, aptitude started to be questioned again. Krashen (1981), Gardner (1985), Spolsky (1989) and Cook (1996) put forward the idea that aptitude might be important within context of learning; but not in acquisition, which caused aptitude to be seen relevant to old fashioned methods in instructed classrooms.

Although there were some discouraging attempts for aptitude research, there has been "a steady flow" of aptitude research within the framework of Carroll (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003). For example, Pimsler (1966) produced PLAB, which was an alternative for MLAT with more focus on auditory factors but less on memory. The other aptitude test battery was produced by Petersen and Al-Haik (1976), Defense Language Aptitude Battery (DLAB) aimed for the US Military. Its focus was on more high-aptitude learners because MLAT was thought of not discriminating at top end of language aptitude level. Another test battery produced by Parry & Child (1990) was VORD, which was used an artificial language like Turkish; but it could not prove its advantage on MLAT. The more recent one, CANAL-F has been developed by Grigerinko (2002) and Grigerinko, Sternberg and Ehrman (2000) for the government use. In addition, the LLAMA designed by Meara (2005) is one of the recent aptitude tests. LLAMA is a computerized test, which has the same theoretical dimension of MLAT. It consists of vocabulary learning task, grammatical inferencing task, sound-symbol correspondence task and last, sound recognition task. Finally, Hi-LAB is the most recent aptitude test designed to predict very high levels of L2 proficiency (Linck et al., 2013).

Besides exploring new aptitude test batteries, there has been a focus on theorizing aptitude construct itself or aptitude on different contexts. For different contexts, Reves (1983) explored how aptitude predicts language learning success in both second language and foreign language contexts with a group of Arabic L1

learners of Hebrew in second language context and English in foreign language context. The results reported that aptitude was successful in both contexts to predict the language learning success. This finding contrasts Krashen's idea that aptitude is only predictive in instructed contexts. In addition, other researchers investigated the relationship between age and aptitude: For example, Johnson and Newport (1989; cited in Skehan, 2002) investigated the effects of age on learning ultimate attainment. The results showed that there was a gradual decline in language learning abilities from around 3 to 17. Dekeyser (2000) replicated the study with aptitude test. His research reported that there was not a significant relationship between the age of arrival before age of onset and the aptitude test; however, there was a significant relationship between the aptitude test and the age of arrival after the age of onset and the participants who have higher proficiency levels performed better in aptitude tests. Also, Sasaki (1996; cited in Skehan, 2002) explored the relationship between aptitude and intelligence and it was reported that there were moderate correlations between two constructs.

Until 1990s, aptitude was seen self-sustained area as shown above, unrelated to broader SLA areas; however, this is about to change. Skehan (1998a) proposed an aptitude model with three different modularity such as auditory processing, language processing and the memory; and connected them to aptitude components such as phonemic coding ability, grammatical sensitivity and inductive language learning, memory and retrieval respectively. Skehan (2002) argues that the research related to foreign language aptitude had more practical orientation, which aims to predict how well foreign languages are learned; however, the research so far has had little theoretical dimension (p.69). That's why, Skehan (2002) attempted to reconceptualize of aptitude consistent with SLA research (p.88-92). In addition, he

claimed of three different modules appropriate for different stages of information processing such as input, central representations and output; these three modules are related to three aptitude components such as auditory processing, language processing, and memory respectively. Skehan (2002) also added two new components to aptitude components related to SLA processing stage: working memory and retrieval processes (p.90). Skehan's framework needs some "operational updating" (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; p.599); in other words, the relationship between aptitude and SLA needs to be explored with more research within under SLA areas which are underrepresented right now. Now, I will present some research which has already investigated the relationship between aptitude and instructional treatments, and grammatical structures and L2 listening comprehension.

Welsche (1981) investigated the relationship between instructional treatments and aptitude. She divided the participants into two groups based on their aptitude profiles such as language analytic vs memory contrast. She analyzed the results of matching and mismatching students with different instructional treatments which were an audiovisual, inductive approach and analytical, more deductive approach. The results reported that if the participants matched with their appropriate aptitude profiles, they achieved equally; in other words, there were not any significant difference between the participants in match condition. In addition, the participants reported much more satisfaction in the matched conditions. However, in mismatched treatment, the participants performed more poorly, and they reported dissatisfaction with the mismatched profiles.

Robinson (1995) explored the relationship between aptitude measures such as grammatical sensitivity and memory, and performance for an easy and hard rule in four conditions: instructed, rule-search, implicit, and incidental. The results reported

that there were significant correlations between all conditions except the incidental one both for easy and hard rules.

Erlam (2005) explored the correlation between language aptitude (phonemic-coding ability and language analytic ability) and three different instructional treatments such as deductive instruction, inductive instruction, structured-input instruction, whose goal was to teach French direct object pronouns. The study showed that there was not any significant difference among instructional treatments with the aspect of phonemic-coding ability. However, language analytic ability made a difference in inductive and structured-input groups, but not in deductive instruction group.

Yalçın & Spada (2016) examined the relationship between aptitude and two grammatical structures which were defined easy (past progressive) and difficult (passive) structures in English. The outcomes were based on the scores derived from a written grammaticality judgment and an oral production task. The findings reported that on written task, grammatical inferencing ability helped participants to perform better on the difficult structure (passive), but not in the easy one (past progressive); on the other hand, associative memory contributed to the participants on the oral measure of past progressive.

Nagota, Aline and Ellis (1999) examined which components of the foreign language aptitude are related to the comprehension of oral directions in a non-reciprocal listening task, in which the participants were required to listen to and carry out the instructions which involved new L2 words. The participants were 177 students who registered in Language Laboratory English Listening Class aged 18-22 in Tokyo, Japan. The results revealed that the foreign language aptitude had moderate but statistically significant correlation with premodified input they took in

one-way information gap task. However, the memory component of the foreign language aptitude was systematically correlated with acquisition of new words.

Ranta (2002) explored the relationship between language analytic ability and scores on language tests in a five months of intensive ESL classroom with Grade 6. The instruction of the participants involved communication activities such as discussions, surveys, interviews and games. In 10 months-period of instruction, the participants were tested by vocabulary, listening, L1 and L2 metalinguistic tests and cloze tests. She found that there was a weak but significant relationship between language analytic ability and the scores on the language tests; not in listening test though. However, if the test required more focus on form, the relationship got stronger with the language analytic ability and the scores.

Sáfár & Kormos (2008) investigated the role of foreign language aptitude in the communicative language classrooms in a Hungarian-English bilingual secondary school in Budapest. In the study, the participants were taught with mainly communicative methods in addition to focus on form. The foreign language aptitude was measured by HUNLAT (The Standard Hungarian Language Aptitude Test; Otto, 2002) and their English was measured by Cambridge First Certificate Exam. In this exam, there were reading and listening comprehension texts which included multiple choice items and short answers, and composition, and a vocabulary and grammar-based Use of English test, and oral exam which included an interview, a picture description task and a problem-solving task in pairs. The results revealed that the aptitude test had small predictive power on complex skills reading, listening, speaking and writing, and moderate power in predicting success in language learning. They claimed that the foreign language aptitude is limited only with acquisition of grammar and vocabulary; but not complex skills.

All the studies mentioned above focused on either instruction type, or use of English such as grammar or vocabulary, or complex skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking. Any assumptions deducted from these studies must be tentative as there are few studies examining L2 listening comprehension and the foreign language aptitude and the studies have adopted different methods of measuring both aptitude and learning. This present study is the first research study which aims to explore any relationship between strategy training and foreign language aptitude.

Overall, under individual differences title, I presented the literature review of three cognitive IDs: Learning strategies, working memory and the foreign language aptitude. The studies conducted so far have shown a positive effect of strategy training on L2 listening comprehension. Therefore, in this current study, L2 listening instruction is based on listening strategies. This study will try to show to what extent listening strategies awareness can explain L2 listening comprehension. With the role of encoding, storage and retrieval, working memory has been considered an individual difference in L2 listening skill; however, there is no consensus on to what degree it explains L2 listening comprehension skill. Thus, working memory has been added to this study as a cognitive individual difference. Last, the foreign language aptitude, which has been regarded as innate capacity to learn a language has been explored with different focuses such as instructional treatments, focus on form, vocabulary, complex skills; however, no other study so far specifically focused on L2 listening. Thus, this study might contribute to that area. What makes this present study different from the studies in the literature, no other study to my knowledge has explored the L2 listening instruction within the light of cognitive individual differences with multimethod assessments in an EFL academic context.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will describe the methodology of this current study. It will start with research questions and related hypotheses, and then continue with the information of participants, instruments and procedures of data collection and analysis.

3.1 The research questions and the hypotheses

This experimental study aims to explore the role of explicit L2 listening instruction based on listening strategies on students' L2 academic listening comprehension level, and to investigate the role of individual differences such as learning strategies (listening strategies awareness), working memory and the foreign aptitude on L2 academic listening comprehension skill. With these aims in mind, the research questions are generated below:

1. Does L2 listening instruction based on listening strategies instruction improve L2 academic listening skill of the participants in instructed language contexts?

The participants taking strategy-based L2 listening instruction will outperform those who will not take any kind of listening instruction in instructed language contexts (Hypothesis 1), based on the given research findings (Mendelsohn, 1994; Wenden, 1983; Macaro, 2006; Vandergrift 2004; Oxford, 1990; Nga Thi Hang Ngo, 2016; Chen, 2009; Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Rahimi & Katal, 2013; Odacı, 2006; Seo, 2005; Chou, 2017; Lofti et al., 2016; Moradi, 2013). All the studies above confirmed that L2 listening strategy instruction is effective to increase L2 listening skill level of the participants.

2. To what degree strategy training and cognitive individual differences such as learning strategies (listening strategies awareness), working memory and the foreign language aptitude contribute to L2 listening comprehension ability?

Listening strategies awareness, working memory and the foreign language aptitude are expected to contribute significantly to L2 listening comprehension (Hypothesis 2). The previous research which explored the mediating role of listening strategies awareness showed that listening strategies awareness significantly contributed to L2 listening comprehension (Chou, 2017; Coşkun, 2010) while another study conducted by Rahimi and Katal (2013) reported that it could not contribute to L2 listening comprehension significantly; thus, there is no consensus on how listening strategies awareness contribute to L2 listening comprehension skill. Working memory with its responsibility of encoding, storing and retrieval might be quite effective during listening process because listening itself needs encoding, storing and retrieval at the same time. The participants who have higher working memory capacity will perform better than those who have lower working memory capacity on listening skill based on the listening research findings which have been reported (Juffs & Harrington, 2011; Gu & Wang, 2017) and will be advantageous on academic achievement (Baddeley, 2003; Gathercole & Pickering, 2000; Jarvis & Gathercole, 2003). The foreign language aptitude can be hypnotized in a way that phonemic coding ability may contribute to the learners to segment the words in a speech, and linguistic ability may help them to understand grammatical structures if it is the key to understand, and lastly, memory may contribute to store and retrieve the knowledge they need during listening comprehension and to keep the meaning in their minds to be able to write the answers of listening comprehension questions, thus it will significantly predict L2 listening comprehension skill.

3. What are the participants' perceptions related to the effectiveness of listening instruction based on listening strategies?

The students' perceptions and ideas related to L2 listening skill and the effectiveness of listening instruction will shed a light on some parts of the instruction, which might not be noticed by the researcher during the intervention period.

3.2 The participants

The participants of the current study are 40 young adult learners of English as a foreign language at a language preparatory school of an English-medium university in Istanbul, Turkey. They will start their departmental courses next year and they will take English-medium instruction. All students get 28 hours of English a week; while they get 18 hours of general English, they attend 6 hours of listening and speaking class and, 4 hours of reading and writing class. Every 7 week, they take a module exam which consists of grammar, vocabulary, listening, speaking, writing and reading skills. The proficiency level of the participants is A2; I chose A2 level to conduct my study because they have 3 hours listening class a week. Table 1 gives the general profile of the participants.

Table 1. Participants

Groups	Experimental	Control
Number (pre)	23	21
Gender	M (15), F (8)	M (11), F (10)
L1 background	Turkish (18), Thai (1), Uighur-Chinese Bilingual (1), Turkman (1), Indonesian (2)	Turkish (12), Uzbek-Russian (1), Uzbek-Tajik (1), Indonesian (2), Uighur (1), Arabic (2), Bengali (1)
Drop	2	2
Number (post)	21	19

23 of the participants were randomly assigned to experimental group, while 21 of them were to control group. The average age in both groups is 18.5. The native languages of the participants are from different L1 backgrounds. During intervention period, 1 Turkish and 1 Thai participant from experimental group and 1 Arabic and 1 Bangladeshi student from control group dropped the study, so 21 participants from experimental group and 19 participants from control group completed the study.

3.3 Materials and Instruments

3.3.1 Cambridge Placement Test

First, English proficiency level of the participants was determined with Cambridge Placement Test (CPT), which is adopted by the institution the study was conducted in. The test assesses linguistic knowledge (vocabulary and grammar) of the learners as well as their reading and listening skills. CPT uses also international English to make sure that there is a variety of English with different accents and tests. The test results are measured according to Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). It includes 5 vocabulary questions, 5 grammar questions, 8 listening and 7 reading questions (25 questions in total). The results of the tests are scored by Cambridge, and the English proficiency level of the participants in this study was scored as A2 level.

3.3.2 Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)

Self-rating has been proved an important and effective pedagogical tool (Aryadoust et al., 2012), and it allows the learners to appraise their own skills and abilities. With self-ratings, learners can see their own weaknesses and strengths, while the educators can see the perceptions of the learners' related to their abilities. That's why, in this

study, Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire was adopted as a self-assessment instrument (see Appendix D) to explore the metacognitive awareness of the participants. The questionnaire was conducted as a pre and posttest to investigate the awareness score between two tests.

Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) developed by Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal and Tafaghodtari (2006). MALQ is a six-point Likert scale with 21 items, which is used to explore to what extent the learners are aware of the strategies they use and whether they can regulate their comprehension of L2 listening. The theoretical base of this questionnaire is Flavell's model of metacognitive knowledge (1979). Flavell suggests three different categories of metacognitive knowledge: person knowledge such as judgements about one's learning ability, task knowledge such as the ability to understand the purpose, demands and nature of the tasks, and the strategy knowledge such as the ability to know and use the strategies appropriate for the learning (p.907). Based on Flavell's theory and the findings derived from the previous research, Vandergrift et al. (2006) carried out a confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis with two, large and different samples of learners and they found out five significant factors among more than ten factors; and these five important factors are problem-solving, planning and evaluation, translation, person knowledge, and directed attention (p.449).

3.3.3 English Listening Comprehension Test

In order to examine whether the self-reports of the participants matched the actual listening performance of the students, an English listening comprehension test was carried out in the classroom. The test consisted of a recording (Silent Languages) with 11 open-ended questions, adopted from Bogazici University Preparatory School

Websource (see Appendix E). The participants had no background knowledge related to the topic. The audio-recording lasts almost 7 minutes.

3.3.4 Working Memory Tests

The tasks require the participants to engage in both processing and storage tasks at the same time to measure WM capacity. Baddeley & Hitch (1974) states that WM task performance is determined by both storage and processing needs and the ability to coordinate the two of them. According to General Capacity Hypothesis, individual differences in WM task performances show the individual characteristic of that participant unrelated to the specific tasks being performed (Turley & Ames, 2003; p.447). In WM tasks, the capacity is thought to show the total activation available in memory; thus, the capacity is closely connected to the processing (ibid.). Engle (2001) states that capacity is not about limitation in the number of items; but, is “the limitation in the ability to use controlled processing to maintain information in an active, retrievable state” (p.301-302). Engle also puts forward that working memory is not about only storage, processing and memory; but it is about attention and retention. Thus, to measure working memory capacity, the complex span tasks have become common in cognitive psychology (Conway et al., 2005) The reason why complex span tasks (CSTs) were chosen for this study is that they naturally measure dynamic working memory system, which includes storage and processing of the information; however, simple span tasks only measure a short-term memory capacity, which includes only storage (Redick et al., 2012). In addition, there is a distractor component in CSTs. In addition, CSTs have high reliability of partial span scores, and they have higher predictive validity in predicting cognitively complex abilities. Using only one single complex task is not enough to measure WMC

construct, and it may create some “problems in differentiating between task and construct variance” (Foster et al., 2015). In the light of these concerns, I decided to use complex span task, not a simple span task; in addition, more than one complex span task. Therefore, Foster et al. (2015)’s shortened complex span tasks (WMC; e.g., Operation Span, Symmetry Span, Rotation Span) were administered to both groups. Moreover, the reason why shortened tasks were chosen is the length of time the original tasks need (about 1.5 hour), and it’s difficult to make some conclusions by using only one single complex span task (p.2). Since a lot of time is needed for the tasks, Foster et al. (2015) conducted a research about how shortened version of these complex span tasks would measure WMC without decreasing their reliability and predictive utility (p.7). They divided the tasks into three blocks and analyzed each block’s contribution to what they measured. They found that “cutting the number of trials by 67 % in a battery of these tasks still accounted for 90 % of the variance in their measurement of Gf (General Fluid Intelligence)” (p.1). Foster et al. (2015) reported that even though the tasks were shortened, using multiple tasks was more effective to measure WMC rather than using all blocks of one single task. In this current study, only 1 block of Operation Span, 2 blocks of Symmetry Span, and 3 blocks of Rotation Span tasks were decided on to conduct, as this combination predicted 97.8 % of Gf accurately out of 39 models with combinations of tasks and blocks.

In Operation Span Task, the participants are first expected to remember a sequence of letters and, at the same time, they are given a distractor task such as solving a math problem. The number of to be remembered letters and distractor tasks are unpredictably varied in every trial. After each letter and math match, the subjects are expected to remember the sequence.

In Symmetry Span, the to-be-remembered items are locations of red squares in a 4×4 grid of potential locations, while the distractor task is to decide on whether a shown shape is symmetrical with its vertical axis.

Lastly, in Rotation Span, the to-be-remembered items are short or long arrows pointing in one of eight different directions; whereas, the distractor task is to be able to decide whether a rotated letter is presented correctly or not.

All tasks were downloaded from the Georgia Tech Attention and Working Memory Lab website (<http://englelab.gatech.edu>) with the permission of the authors. The participants completed all tasks in approximately 50 minutes. Figure 1 is the sample of working memory tasks used in the current study.

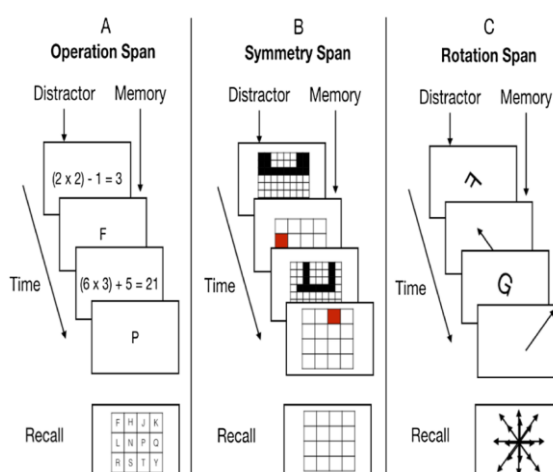


Fig. 1 Working memory tests sample
Source: [Foster et al., 2015]

3.3.5 The foreign language aptitude test

To measure foreign language aptitude, Skehan's aptitude test (personal communication) was adopted in this study. The test is based on Pienemann's developmental stages to explore inductive language learning ability. The test consists of five levels and in every level, the items are easier at first, then they become progressively more difficult. When the next level starts, the items at first are a little

easier than the ending items from the previous level; however, more difficult than the first items in the previous level. The studies on the validation of this test are still on progress.

The test is based on an artificial language, Latejami Interlingua, and it consists of 5 different procedures in 4 parts. Processing Procedure I is based on words/lemma, in which the participants are required to generalize the meanings of classifiers and modifiers. Processing Procedure II is based on category procedure such as word order and plural marking, in which the participants are required to generalize about the word order and the rules for plural marking. Processing Procedure III is the phrasal Procedure, based on agreement marking. In this part, the participants try to generalize the rules for agreement marking. The last part of the test is Processing Procedure V, called as S procedure. This part of the test is about generalizing the rules for subject verb agreement. The test also includes colorful pictures to show the meanings of the words. The rest is still under construction, so it will not be presented in Appendix part, but it is open to request.

3.3.6 Focus group Interviews

In addition to quantitative data, using qualitative method can give a detailed picture of the current study. Dörnyei (2007) suggests interviews as they are effective for the new and unexplored areas. In addition, direct observation or only quantitative data is sometimes not enough for the gains because we do not know the participants' beliefs and opinions (Siegel, 2015). To explore different ideas, experiences and perspectives of the participants related to the research subject other than deciding on a consensus help the researcher discuss and analyze the findings of the study. In addition, focus group interviews may show which points are required to more focus on the study,

sometimes may explain why study failed or succeeded. Therefore, focus group interviews were conducted with the participants in experimental group about the effectiveness of strategy based L2 listening instruction. What is often meant by focus group is “a group of individual selected and assembled by researchers to discuss and comment on, from personal experience, the topic that is the subject of the research” (Powell & Single, 1996; p. 499). Carrey (1994) argues that focus groups include “a semi structured group session, moderated by a group leader, held in an informal setting, with the purpose of collecting information on a designated topic” (p. 187).

In this present study, focus group interviews with groups of five were preferred because of convenient sampling. The experimental group participants ($n = 21$) joined the interviews and focus groups. The interviews were conducted in lecture hall after the end of all classes. Each one lasted at least 20 to 30 minutes according to the dynamics and the effectiveness of the interaction among participants. Before each session, consents of the participants were received about the recordings of the sessions, and the participants were expected to speak either in English or in Turkish according to how comfortable they felt during the interviews, and most of the participants preferred to speak in Turkish. The focus group interviews centered on the interview questions adapted from Siegel (2015; see Appendix F) because he conducted an action research which was based on Listening Strategy Instruction in Japan and the interview questions were based on the questionnaire items, direct observation and other measurements. These questions were prepared to explore students’ reactions to the modifications and methodological changes in listening instruction.

3.3.7 Intervention

How intervention is conducted is quite important in strategy training studies.

Providing the strategies and the teaching methods which are adopted/adapted for the study and giving reasons why they are chosen to guide the readers and the teachers in the field. However, most of the strategy training studies do not provide any specific details about the intervention, which sometimes makes the effectiveness of the study difficult to interpret. Therefore, a detailed explanation of the intervention will be provided in this present study.

There are four conditions that should be fulfilled for an effective strategy training according to Rubin et al. (2007):

- The teacher should raise the awareness about strategies the learners are already using to create an effective metacognition.
- The teacher should firstly present and be the model of the target strategies.
- Students should be given extensive practice opportunities until they get enough autonomy to be able to use the target strategies.
- The teacher should assess the effectiveness of the strategies that learners use.

According to the task type and the learners' needs, different strategies were implemented during the training. Instead of focusing on specific type of strategies, all type of strategies, namely metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective strategies (O' Malley and Chamot, 1990) were chosen; however, some specific strategies such as translation and repetition were given with caution to the participants, because those strategies may make the learners be ineffective during learning. The training was conducted in L2 English because the experimental group was a mixed group of

participants with different language backgrounds. As O' Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) suggest, direct training of strategies was adopted; in other words, the students were aware of the learning process, that is, the process was not incidental or accidental because direct instruction helps the students to become more autonomous and when they are being involved and engaged in their learning process, the learning becomes fast and more effective for the gains; thus, Listening Strategies Handout (see Appendix G) was given to each participant in the intervention group to make the training more effective and direct.

For the intensity of the training, Oxford (1990) differentiated two types of training: one-time and long-term training (p.203). In one-time training, learners focus on different strategies on a task, in which they find opportunity to practice a limited number of strategies while in long-term training, learners are given a great number of strategies with regular classroom activities. The intervention in this current study includes long time training, and the duration of the intervention was for 12 hours in 4 weeks, and the learners were trained with almost all listening strategies.

Following the conditions above, Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach method (CALLA) was adopted in the intervention and five steps were followed: Preparation, Presentation, Practice, Evaluation, and Expansion. While teaching learning strategies, it is important to use proven methods for strategy instruction. In this present study, Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) method will be used because it has been implemented extensively with a number of students in 30 school districts in the United States (Chamot & Robbins, 2005; p.5) and several other countries (Coskun, 2010; Nga Thi Hang Ngo, 2016). This framework was put forward by Chamot & O'Malley (1994). The CALLA method integrates learning strategies and instruction in academic language and

context with the main idea that learners will acquire academic language and context more effectively by using learning strategies. According to CALLA, with the help of learning strategies, learners will have an important role and perspective on their own learning process more effectively and they will become more autonomous as a learner (p.58). The theoretical background of this method is based on Anderson's skill acquisition theory explained above. The CALLA method has five-steps procedure: Preparation, Presentation, Practice, Evaluation, and Expansion. In the first Preparation Stage, the teacher tries to develop students' awareness about the strategy, the task and the activity itself. The teacher makes brainstorming about all the strategies repertoires, and s/he prepares the students for the incoming strategy and the task. In Presentation Stage, the teacher explicitly instructs the particular strategy and provides guidance on the use of that strategy. While teaching, the teacher shows how the strategy is used with a particular task and the material; in addition, s/he explains why this strategy is important for their learning. In this way, students can develop a metacognitive awareness of the specific strategy and the task. The teacher can name the strategy or students can give a name for it. The specific strategy is explained with more than one task and activity; thus, students can learn that they can use it with different tasks. The next stage is Practice Stage, in which students are given an individual or group task and activity to be able to use the target strategy. In Evaluation stage, the teacher starts a discussion and students make comment on whether they could use the target strategy or not; if yes, how they applied it; what difficulties they came across and how they solved the problem. In the last, Expansion stage, the teacher provides different tasks, contexts through activities for the transfer of strategies or students make a discussion about which strategies are the most useful ones for some specific tasks. Overall, with the help of CALLA method, teachers can

observe the process and the progress of strategy use of the students, and they can diagnose the problems and focus on more on them to overcome. Thus, providing the details of the intervention is necessary to discuss to the findings derived from this current study. All criteria above were applied in the lesson plans (see Appendix H) and the researcher was double-checked whether she conducted the intervention according to the lesson plans by the Evaluation Checklist of CALLA Instruction (see Appendix I).

The Ethics Committee for Master and Ph.D. Theses in Social Sciences and Humanities of Boğaziçi University approved both informed consent form, materials and the instrumentation procedures that were applied in this study (see Appendix B).

3.4 Procedures

To divide the participants into the experimental and control groups, Cambridge Placement Test (CPT) was conducted in an English preparatory school, and after identifying their level of English as A2, the participants were randomly assigned to two different classrooms. The experimental group had 22 participants, while there were 21 participants in control group. First, the abstract of the study was introduced to the participants, and they were given “Consent Form” (see Appendix A) about their participation in the study. Secondly, the researcher gave a Language Background Sheet (see Appendix C) to the participants to get information about their language learning story. The sheet asked them to write how many foreign languages they knew, where and when they learned; also, whether or not they had been to abroad before. Language Background Sheet was preferred to be able to discuss the findings derived from this present study because language background might be quite effective during learning period. In the second data collection session, the

participants took Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ), and the English Listening Test was administered. Even though there was an instruction section in questions sheet, the researcher explained the task one more time, and to explain unknown words in the questions, she explained some of the words' meanings. The participants listened to the recording twice. Both control and experimental group were given fake numbers on their answer sheet to avoid bias by the researcher.

After administering pre-tests, the researcher gave a Listening Strategies Handout to the experimental group and started the instruction, which lasted 4 weeks (12 hours in total). The participants had 3 hours Listening lessons in their weekly schedule, so the researcher followed their own classroom book, Q Skills for Success: Listening and Speaking. The instructions were based on CALLA Instructional Plan (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; p.100) for every specific lesson and the instruction were checked by the teacher according to Checklist for Evaluating CALLA Instruction (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; p.101).

After the intervention, the researcher conducted Complex Span Tasks (Operation, Symmetry, Rotation Span Tasks) to each participant one by one in one hour. The tasks were both Turkish and English; hence, Turkish speaking participants completed the tasks in Turkish, while non-Turkish speaking students completed the tasks in English. Even though there were instructions related to each task in the beginning, to avoid mis- and non-understanding, the researcher explained what they needed to do during the tasks. It took each participant to complete tests in approximately 50 minutes. In addition, a pen and paper aptitude test was administered, which took participants to complete in approximately 1 hour.

After 4 weeks of intervention, the researcher administered post-tests, MALQ and English Listening Comprehension Test both experimental and control group. At the end of strategy training, the researcher conducted focus groups interviews from the experimental group. Table 2 shows the process of data collection.

Table 2. Process of Data Collection

Phase	Length of Time	Place	Participants
Session 1 CPT	1 hour	Computer lab	Experimental group Control group
Session 2 1.Consent form 2.Language Background 3.MALQ 4.Eng.Compr.Test	30 minutes	Lecture hall	Experimental group Control group
Session 3 Intervention	4 weeks (12 hours)	Lecture hall	Experimental Group
Session 4 1.MALQ (post) 2.Eng.Compr.Test	2 hours	Computer lab	Experimental Group Control group
Session 5 Focus group interviews	25-30 minutes	Lecture hall	Experimental group
Session 6 WM tests Aptitude test	50 minutes	Lecture Hall	Experimental Group Control group

3.5 Data analysis

First, the participants' L2 academic listening skill was measured by a listening comprehension test (see Appendix B), and the response types required the participants to write short answers for the questions. To calculate the scores, the researcher got advice from Aylin Ünalı (PhD, personal communication) who is a testing expert, and the responses were scored according to the criteria listed below:

Spelling/response is penalized if

- a. the answer is spelled like a word in Turkish,
- b. a syllable is missing or a new one has been added,
- c. the misspelled word has another meaning in English,
- d. misspelling the word has changed its pronunciation,
- e. the meaning of the answer changes in any way,
- f. the test taker wrote two answers instead of one, but one of them is incorrect.
- g. the response includes an irrelevant word or phrase that changes/distorts the semantic/syntactic structure of the expected answer.

The spelling/response is *not* penalized if

- a. the test taker wrote two answers instead of one, and both of them are correct,
- b. the errors in singularity/plurality/articles do not create a change in meaning.
- c. spelling mistakes are minor and there is no change in meaning (see above).
- d. grammar mistakes are minor and there is no change in meaning.

Following the criteria, the participants' responses were scored by the researcher and a second rater, who is a researcher in the same department as well. When there was no consensus about any response whether the answer should be penalized or not, two raters analyzed the response together and came up with a common decision.

For the first research question, since there are two different groups and one repeated test, two-way mixed ANOVA with instruction (experimental and control

groups) and the L2 listening comprehension tests (pre and post-tests) was conducted in a 2 X 2 repeated measures design. First, we needed to learn whether the data violated the assumption of sphericity or not. Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity had not been violated for the main effects of time because there are only 2 levels of repeated measures, and there is only one set of difference scores and nothing to compare those difference scores against to indicate a violation of sphericity. What to report in the results part was decided upon Field (2009)'s suggestions and Field (2009) emphasizes that effect sizes are quite useful when they summarize a focused effect (p.531) and if your factorial design includes 1 degree of freedom, it shows a focused interpretable comparison. At this point, Plonsky & Oswald (2014) advises that effect sizes are best interpreted within a specific discipline or domain (p.1). In the current study, the specific domain is L2 listening. They also indicate that Cohen's scale of effect sizes does not show the real effectiveness in L2 research areas. To be able to interpret the practical significance of L2 research effects more certainly, Plonsky & Oswald (2014) suggest adopting a new scale of r , "small (.25), medium (.40), and large (.60)" instead of adopting Cohen's scale of Pearson r . The effect size was calculated according to the formula given by Field (2009; p.532).

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{F(1, df_R)}{F(1, df_R) + df_R}}$$

Regression analysis was chosen for our second research question in this current study because it's a kind of analysis which measures the predictor variables of an outcome. Field (2009) states that there must be theoretical reasons for choosing those predictors related to the outcome and these reasons were explained in literature review part of this thesis. Listening strategies awareness, working memory and the

foreign language aptitude was discussed in Literature Review and hypothesized in Research Questions part. There are some regression methods to adopt for each particular study, which is a crucial component because the wrong method of regression analysis might result in incorrect interpretations. Firstly, to be able to make sure those predictors are completely uncorrelated, firstly Pearson correlations were obtained among the predictors and the results reported that there were no significant relationships among the components; thus, it is safe to go on with regression analysis. For this study, a hierarchical multiple regression was adopted because independent variables were allowed to explain much variability in the dependent variable as they could. By this method, each variable (strategy training, listening strategies awareness, WM and aptitude) was entered at each step to see whether they could contribute to the dependent variable (L2 listening comprehension).

For the missing data in present study, Field (2009) suggests that missing data does not mean that we have to ignore the data we have and in the present study, there were some missing data in MALQ questionnaire because it is a long questionnaire and the participants might accidentally have missed out the questions. Not to ignore the data, missing values were given the mean as a method of missing data. In addition, there were some items which contained reverse wording; to be able to get an increasing numeric value as the implication of a higher level of awareness, those reverse wording were re-coded in the reverse. To conduct regression analysis of listening awareness level, all scores of pre and post MALQ were summed up and the difference was written as the awareness score in data.

Working memory test was conducted on a computer. The partial score of operational span task was calculated by summing the number of letters correctly

recalled in the correct order. For symmetry span task, summing the number of red square locations correctly recalled in the correct order gave the scores. We got the score by summing the number of arrows correctly recalled in the correct order in rotation span task. All scores were calculated by the computer automatically. The foreign language aptitude test was conducted with a pen and paper. Even though the test included 4 different parts, scores of each part were summed up to get a total score.

The last research question was the participants' perceptions related to the effectiveness of the listening strategy instruction. The focus group interviews were first transcribed, and then coded by the researcher according to Siegel (2015). Only the questions centered on listening strategy-based instruction and the research objectives were included, and the participants' perceptions were thematically analyzed. The codes "L2 listening history, the effectiveness of L2 listening instruction, the strategies they use, the classroom practices, transferring the strategies and suggestions for L2 listening instruction" from Siegel (2015) was adopted for this study. Last, there could be researcher-bias while analyzing the focus group interviews because I had two identities in the classroom: Teacher and Researcher. This might have affected the reporting of the participants and analyzing and interpreting process of the qualitative data.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This current chapter will report the results of data analysis and first interpretations to answer research questions mentioned in previous chapter.

RQ1: Does L2 listening instruction based on listening strategies instruction improve L2 academic listening skill of the participants in instructed language contexts?

Before conducting the analysis of the data, to see whether the data was normally distributed or not, Shapiro Wilk test was conducted. The reason why Shapiro-Wilk test was conducted was that the number of the participants was not so many, and the Shapiro-Wilk test is more powerful to detect differences from the normality (Field, 2016; p.148). In addition, Field (2016) warns that if we have two comparing groups' data, we should conduct the normality test separately to different groups. The data coming from the experimental and control group are normally distributed. The pre-test scores of experimental and control groups, respectively, $W(40) = 0.16$ and 0.88 , $p > .05$ and the post test scores of experimental and control groups, respectively, $W(40) = 0.151$ and 0.256 , $p > .05$, were both significantly normal distributed. Before exploring the main effect of instruction, Field (2009) warns about checking at the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. In this study, variances were homogeneous for all levels of the repeated measures variables because all significance values were greater than .05. The initial diagnostic descriptive statistics of pre and post-tests of L2 listening comprehension tests are provided in Table 3. In order to answer the first research question, I conducted mixed ANOVA. There is main effect of time $F(1,38) = 62,887$, $p < 0.001$, which means that time is significantly effective even though we ignore from which groups the scores come

and its effect size is large, $r = .79$. There is also a main effect of intervention, $F(1,38) = 14,696$, $p < 0.001$, which means that although the test scores were increased by the time for both groups, the way in which the test scores were affected by time was different in experimental and control groups. The effect size of this main effect is medium, $r = .53$.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Pre and Post Tests of L2 Listening Comprehension Test Scores

		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Eng_Listen. (Pre)	experimental	4,28	2,83	21
	control	4,10	2,44	19
	Total	4,20	2,62	40
Eng_Listen. (Post)	experimental	7,76	2,66	21
	control	5,31	2,64	19
	Total	6,60	2,89	40

I used the estimated marginal means to understand the nature of this interaction between the intervention and the groups. The figure 2 of this interaction clearly suggests that even though test scores were almost similar for both groups in pre-test, the increase in experimental group was affected by the intervention more than the control group was.

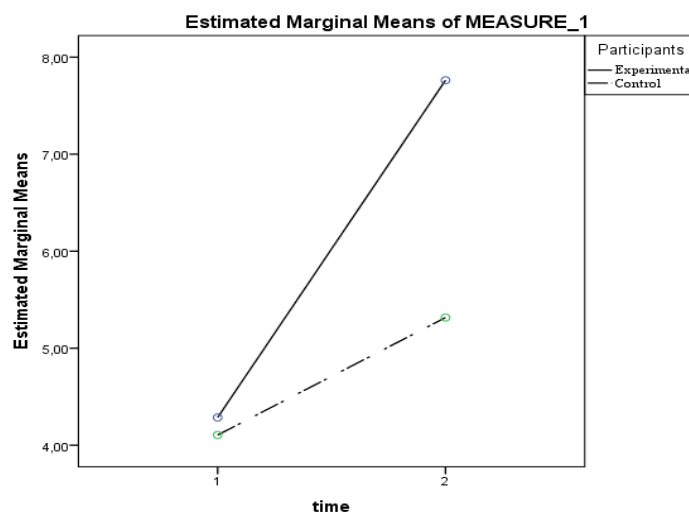


Fig. 2 The interaction between time and groups

RQ2: To what extent cognitive individual differences such as learning strategies, working memory capacity and aptitude explain L2 academic listening comprehension?

First, for our all models, the VIF values are all well below 10 and the tolerance statistics all well above 0.2; therefore, we can safely conclude that there is no collinearity within our data. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to analyze the relative importance of intervention, listening strategies awareness, WM and aptitude in predicting L2 listening comprehension. I included the intervention (strategy training) that was potentially and theoretically related to dependent variable (L2 listening comprehension), so the intervention was entered on the first step of the multiple regression. Listening strategies awareness was entered on the second step and working memory on the third step and lastly, aptitude on the fourth step. The results of multiple regression analysis were presented in Table 4. In the first model, strategy training accounted for 18 % of the variation in L2 listening comprehension and this value increased to 24 % variation in L2 listening comprehension in the second model where strategy training and listening strategies awareness were entered together. The third model with the entry of WM could explain 27 % of the variance in L2 listening comprehension. However, in the last model, this value stayed the same (27 %), so with the entry of aptitude score, the model did not explain L2 listening comprehension more. The change in R^2 also indicated that the degree to the models explained L2 listening comprehension decreased in each step. The positive value of B scores showed that there was a positive relationship between independent variables (strategy training, listening strategies awareness, WM and aptitude) and dependent variable (L2 listening comprehension).

Table 4. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting L2 Listening Comprehension

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1 Strategy training	2.45	0.84	0.43*	0.18	0.18
Step 2 Strategy training	2.04	0.85	0.36*	0.24	0.06
Awareness	0.10	0.06	0.26		
Step 3 Strategy training	2.18	0.86	0.38*	0.27	0.02
Awareness	0.09	0.06	0.25		
WM	0.04	0.03	0.16		
Step 4 Strategy training	2.19	0.87	0.38*	0.27	0.00
Awareness	0.10	0.06	0.24		
WM	0.04	.03	0.16		
Aptitude	0.02	0.10	0.03		

* $p < .05$ Δ : the change in

Standardized *BE* values for awareness, WM and aptitude were approximately close to one another indicating that all variables had a comparable degree of importance in the final model. T-tests measures of whether the predictor makes a significant contribution to the model. Therefore, if the t-test associated with β value is significant (if the value in the column labelled Sig. is less than .05), then the predictor is making a significant contribution to the model. The smaller the value of Sig. (and the larger the value of *t*), the greater the contribution of that predictor. For this model, strategy training ($t(39) = 2.51, p < .05$), listening strategies awareness (t

(39) = 1.60, $p > .05$), WM ($t(39) = 1.12$, $p > .05$) and aptitude ($t(39) = .20$, $p > .05$).

Thus, these results indicated that only strategy training in each step was the significant predictor of L2 listening comprehension, and listening strategies awareness, WM and aptitude were not powerful predictors of L2 listening comprehension.

RQ3: What are the participants' perceptions related to the effectiveness of listening instruction based on listening strategies?

All the participants ($n = 21$) in the experimental group were interviewed to explore their reactions to the listening practices and their beliefs on the effectiveness of the L2 listening strategy-focused instruction provided. The results of the analysis were discussed under the following themes such as their L2 listening instruction history, the effectiveness of the L2 listening strategy-focused instruction, the strategies the participants use, their listening practice choice, transferring classroom practices and lastly, suggestions for the L2 listening instruction, which were derived from the codes of Siegel's study (2015). The interviews were in either Turkish or English, and sometimes both; therefore, I translated all transcriptions into English.

3.1 Participants' L2 listening instruction history

First, the participants were asked whether they had taken any listening instruction before or not. Most of the participants reported that was their first one; however, the ones who had taken the listening instruction before mentioned that that instruction was for TOEFL exam; not for daily life or academic lectures. When the participants were requested to give some examples from their previous listening lessons, they mostly indicated that they were just being tested, but not taught or they just watched a movie or Tv series for a listening activity in the class. In addition, I asked which

aspects of the listening instruction they took was different from their previous listening classes, and they reported that this instruction was more focused on listening strategies and they found a chance to practice listening activities in the class more because they do not practice any listening activities outside the classroom.

I remember that I think in the 3rd year of high school, we had listening quizzes only. They were just testing us. It was one or two times when we listened to conversation between two people and we had to fill in the blank. That was just the exam. (S1: Translated by the researcher)

When I was in high school, our English teacher was telling us some words and to repeat after her, this is all my previous listening history. (S2: Translated by the researcher)

We hadn't taken any listening instruction in middle or high school. A teacher just opened a movie or Tv series; if we call it listening... (S6: Translated by the researcher)

There have been many differences in this class such as a variety of recordings and some of which are easy and some of which are difficult, and I learned how to take notes... We used to do this stuff just for the sake of doing before, but now we have a goal... (S7: Translated by the researcher)

3.2 Effectiveness of the current L2 listening strategy-focused instruction

For the effectiveness of the L2 listening instruction, I first asked whether they thought their listening skill developed or stayed the same thanks to the instruction. Discussions whether the L2 listening strategy instruction was effective or not showed that most of the participants reported that it was effective thanks to the strategy instruction and also teaching listening in a separate class as Listening & Speaking class and exposure more on listening practices in the class. The ones who indicated their listening skill stayed the same had different perspectives stemming from individual problem: For example;

The most beautiful thing our class is the strategies of listening comprehension strategies that I have never met in my other English classes. (S3: Translated by the researcher)

... we had only classes called English; but now we have separate classes for every different skill to be able to focus more. So, the instruction is effective for the sake of listening. (S4: Translated by the researcher)

My listening skill has stayed the same because I have a concentration problem; this is the same case as in Turkish. For example, somebody tells me something and I want the person to repeat again. I don't do it intentionally; I can't concentrate on something. (S11: Translated by the researcher)

I think my listening skill has stayed same because I have already learnt English by listening and watching; that's why, nothing has changed. (S9: Translated by the researcher)

I think the instruction was effective; the main logic of this lesson is to focus on the listening skill. We have much exposure to the listening with the recordings; that's why, it was effective. (S6: Translated by the researcher)

However, some of the participants reported that the instruction did not help them to develop listening skill without any reason; some of them thought because of the strategies which were a lot in the list.

... I think you gave us many strategies and we couldn't focus on much; also, we couldn't understand to use each strategy because there were many details. That's why, it was not so effective. (S7: Translated by the researcher)

3.3 The strategies the participants use

The participants were supposed to give the most effective and the least effective strategies they used during L2 listening comprehension. The participants reported that the most common effective strategies were metacognitive strategies such as selected and directed attention because these strategies help them to focus on the main points and the keywords, cognitive strategies such as summarization and elaboration because they help the participants to widen their perspective and to get the main picture of the listening recording, and lastly socio/affective strategies such as self-talk because they reported that they needed some motivation to focus on listening. The least effective strategies they adopted were translation because they considered it time consuming, and self-talk because it might cause the participants to

miss the points in listening. It was unexpected to see the strategy “self-talk” in both the most effective ones and the least effective ones, which shows that adopting strategies is an individual difference.

I used self-talk a lot because my listening skill is quite poor, and I always motivate myself during listening. I think the most unnecessary strategy is translation because..., it takes time and we miss the rest of the listening. We should listen to the recording as a whole; not focused on different parts. (S20: Translated by the researcher)

...talking to yourself during listening might cause you to miss the main points and the keywords... (S10: Grammatically corrected by the researcher)

I think the most effective strategy is directed attention because we are supposed to focus only on the main idea... There are so many different things to focus during listening, thus when I use directed attention strategy, I don't care the details which distracts me. Overall, I just care about the main idea and the keywords. (S8: Grammatically corrected by the researcher)

I used two effective strategies: The first one is question elaboration and selective attention. I always focused on understanding the questions and catching the keywords. I think translation was the least effective strategy because I missed the main points and the connections while translating. (S16: Translated by the researcher)

3.4 The participants' listening practice choice

The participants were asked whether the listening practice in the class or outside the classroom such as watching TV or TV series was more effective. Most of the participants reported that the listening practice in the class was more effective because they could get feedback provided by the teacher, the classroom practices prepared them for the real academic courses, and the classroom allowed the participants to use academic language more in the class. In addition, they emphasized that the classroom practice was better especially with the early proficiency levels. The ones who supported the practice outside for listening mostly indicated that the classroom was not enough for the listening outside the classroom, because they hear more authentic dialogues in the movies or TV series:

I think that listening outside the class is better for me because the language between the listening inside the class and outside the class is quite different. I think we can listen to formal language more in the class... (S8: Translated by the researcher)

I support listening practice outside because I have listened to music with the lyrics since my childhood and it helps me to improve my listening skill. What we do in the class stays in the class (he means they can't transfer what they have learned in the class to the outside) and we will not learn English forever. (S9: Translated by the researcher)

Everything related to the language is better outside because sometimes we may find some ways to speak Turkish when we cannot communicate; however, outside you don't have a chance to hesitate; thus, you learn better. The outside gives more opportunities to learn. (S10: Translated by the researcher)

3.5 Transferring classroom practices to real-life contexts

It is obvious that this strategy focused L2 listening instruction was provided to the participants to prepare them for their real-life contexts. Therefore, they were requested to report in which areas they could use the listening strategies in the future. The participants reported that they could use the listening strategies they learnt in academic lectures in their departments in the university, in their job interviews, in a daily conversation, and to communicate abroad.

I think for me, it will really help a lot in our future or in our career because...we have to focus on if we want to improve our English, so if we have to communicate with some foreigners, it is very important that strategies will help us to have a good conversation with others. (S15: Translated by the researcher)

...trying to stay in the conversation with the next person, to persuade somebody, or to be more effective speaker, we use those strategies...We get benefit from them in our daily life. Other than this, we will use them a lot wherever we go. We, Turkish people, cannot do the listening thing; but these strategies are the keys for effective communication...Listening is the beginning of everything; if you want to learn, you have to listen. (S16: Translated by the researcher)

We use it most when we are in a dialogue with our lecturers in the department. We will use the strategies more while listening to our lectures. (S17: Grammatically corrected by the researcher)

3.6 Suggestions for Strategy Instruction

Last, the participants were asked to give some suggestions referring to the L2 listening strategy focused instruction. The comments of the participants pointed that there were too many strategies in one paper and their explanations were too complicated for them to understand; thus, there is a need for making the list fewer. In addition, they recommended me to teach not only academic listening but also daily conversation with a variety of accents around the world.

...but of course you are the teacher, you know these stuff better than us; I have to say that maybe you can decrease the number of these strategies and which one is the better for the students because there are a lot of strategies and the students are just looking and some students do not care and... (S20: Grammatically corrected by the researcher)

Too many strategies... They need to be clearer because the students like us will not read all of them and understand. Probably, there are some specific strategies attracting us; however, we generally skip the rest. The English explanations next to the listening strategies make us bored... (S10: Translated by the researcher)

4.1 Summary of the chapter

The results revealed that the interaction between time and intervention helped the experimental group outperform in English Listening Comprehension test. Strategy training significantly predicted L2 listening comprehension more than listening strategies awareness, WM and aptitude. Lastly, focus group interviews indicated that there was no systematic instruction in participants' previous L2 listening classes before the intervention, and the participants felt their L2 listening skill improved thanks to the strategy training they were provided and more exposure to the listening activities and tasks. In addition, the participants offered some suggestions related to the handout and the activities for a better strategy training. The next chapter will continue with the discussion of these results.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter will provide discussion of the research findings in relation to previous studies. First of all, the purpose of this study was to (1) explore whether explicit strategy instruction made a difference in participants' gain in academic listening skill, (2) investigate to what extent individual differences, namely, working memory, aptitude and listening strategies awareness predicts L2 listening skill, and (3) explore what participants' opinions and beliefs are about L2 listening instruction and the effectiveness/ineffectiveness of the treatment.

The findings revealed that four weeks of explicit listening strategy instruction was helpful to improve participants' academic listening skills. This finding corroborates the results of previous research (Mendelsohn, 1994; Wenden, 1983; Macaro, 2006; Vandergrift 2004; Oxford, 1990; Coşkun, 2010; Nga Thi Hang Ngo, 2016; Chen, 2009; Odacı, 2006; Seo, 2005; Chou, 2017; Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Rahimi & Katal, 2013; Lofti et al., 2016; Moradi, 2013). Similar to Oxford (2002)'s point of view, the traditional belief that learners could develop their listening skill automatically only with exposure to the spoken language was refuted with this present study.

Several reasons could be listed for the effectiveness of the instruction. First, this effectiveness could be related to the proficiency level. Following the studies which included pre-intermediate learners, that proficiency level was expected to benefit from the instruction (Chen, 2009; Nga Thi Hang Ngo, 2016) in contrast to advanced level of learners, because advanced level of learners could compensate this lack of strategy with their higher linguistic knowledge, which might have a bigger

effect on L2 listening comprehension, and this explanation proves the commonly held beliefs about the greater role of linguistic knowledge in L2 listening (Vandergrift, 2007; Andringa et al., 2012). Our study confirmed that listening strategy instruction was effective with lower proficiency levels like pre-intermediate. Secondly, another reason could be the intervention which was based on the model of the strategy training “CALLA”. The model’s steps “Preparation, Presentation, Practice, Evaluation, and Expansion”, which are based on Skill Acquisition Theory (Anderson, 1990) could be an effective model of listening strategy instruction (Chamot & O’Malley, 1994), as it combines learning strategies and instruction in academic language; this finding is in line with the previous research (Coşkun, 2010; Nga Thi Hang Ngo, 2016). In addition, the instruction was explicit rather than implicit. For example, the participants were informed about training and they were involved in their learning process, and the participants were provided “Listening Strategies Handout”. According to Anderson’s Skill Acquisition Theory, explicit learning is the first step of acquiring skills. This might be the reason why the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group. instruction worked well in experimental group.

The second research question results revealed that strategy training explained 18 % of the variation in L2 listening comprehension in the first level and this value increased to 24 % variation in L2 listening comprehension in the second model with the entry of listening strategies awareness. The third model with the entry of WM accounted for 27 % of the variance in L2 listening comprehension, but with the entry of aptitude score, the final model did not explain L2 listening comprehension more than the third level. The results also indicated that only strategy training was the significant predictor of L2 listening comprehension, but listening strategies

awareness, WM and aptitude were not significantly powerful predictors of L2 listening comprehension. This finding can be interpreted in many ways: The learners who can control their own learning process, adopt and adapt the strategies in order to complete the task are better listeners; in addition, these listeners are “better at processing and storing new information, finding the best ways to practice and reinforce what they have learned” (Vandergrift et al., 2006; p. 435). Furthermore, the learners who take strategy training outperform those who do not take, and this is in line with previous research supporting strategy training is quite crucial in L2 listening comprehension (Mendelsohn, 1994; Wenden, 1983; Macaro, 2006; Vandergrift 2004; Oxford, 1990; Coşkun, 2010; Nga Thi Hang Ngo, 2016; Chen, 2009; Odacı, 2006; Seo, 2005; Chou, 2017; Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Rahimi & Katal, 2013; Lofti et al., 2016; Moradi, 2013). On the other hand, listening strategies awareness was found that it contributed to L2 listening comprehension, but this contribution did not affect L2 listening comprehension significantly. This finding does not support the research which found awareness as a strong predictor of L2 listening comprehension (Goh, 2000, 2002b; Vandergrift, 2003a; Bolitho et al., 2003; Coşkun, 2010). This present finding might be because of MALQ used for measuring the awareness score, and the test might not show the actual awareness scores of the learners. In addition, the listening strategies awareness might need much more time to be able to reflect better scores in L2 listening comprehension. The other individual difference factor, working memory is used of encoding, storage and retrieval and it manipulates the information while doing higher order cognitively complex tasks (Baddeley, 2000). Skehan (1998) argues that working memory and cognitive processing are interrelated especially in the contexts of L2 learning and teaching, and Wen (2016) claims that working memory may have a greater role in L2 than L1 more

than we thought. With the light of theoretical discussion above, the finding of our study casts doubts upon the argument that working memory has a great role in predicting L2 listening comprehension skill. Moreover, our findings revealed that working memory as an individual difference did not significantly predict L2 listening performance and the result does not corroborate with the findings by Gu and Wang (2007), Kormos and Sáfár (2008) and Brunfaut and Revezs (2015); however, it supported the study by Andringa et al. (2012), in which the findings indicated that working memory did not predict L2 listening comprehension because Andringa et al. (2012) also measured L2 listening comprehension as a complex skill the same in this current study.

There can be possible interpretations for this finding: The first but most important interpretation is that none of the studies above had any strategical intervention in their study, so this might be the reason why our findings were different from the others. The listening strategies instruction the participants took in this current study might have helped them during the listening task and this might explain the conflicts among the studies. The listening strategies in the intervention might have helped the participants to overcome the burden on their memories (Saywer & Ranta, 2001). Another reason of the difference between the studies might be the nature of the task. It is vital to highlight the listening task and response item differences between different studies; while the only academic listening recording was in Brunfaut and Revezs (2015)'s study, none of the studies above included academic listening recording, but only short-time conversational recordings. Furthermore, response items had multiple choice items in listening comprehension test in all studies mentioned above; this current study had only open-ended listening comprehension questions requiring short answers as response items.

The last cognitive individual difference in the study, foreign language aptitude is the individual ability which helps the learners show variation among their performances. In the beginning of the study, we hypothesized that aptitude could predict L2 listening performance because phonemic coding ability, linguistic ability and memory are crucial in L2 listening. For example, with phonemic coding ability, the learners may segment the words in the stream of speech, while with linguistic ability, they can understand key grammatical structures or memory can help them to remember what they have heard, and they can connect it with previous knowledge. However, the results revealed that foreign language aptitude is the least powerful predictor of L2 academic listening comprehension. Some interpretations can be proposed according to the results: Firstly, when we look at some of the studies, in which results reported that aptitude was significantly predictor, there are some specific target grammatical forms (Yalçın & Spada, 2016; Erlam, 2005; Robinson, 1995) or target vocabulary (Ellis et al., 1999). Thus, we conclude that if there is a target focus on structure or vocabulary, foreign language aptitude is more effective in predicting success rather than a skill (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003).

Another interpretation might be that strategy training provided in the present study might have helped the participants to manage their comprehension problems during listening. This result supports the claim that strategy training might have levelled out the role of aptitude (O'Malley et al., 1985). For example, listening strategies mainly aim overall comprehension and they help the learners sometimes ignore the unknown vocabulary or grammar structure to be able to focus on the gist; so, the listening strategies can help the learners overcome the problems with linguistic ability component of the foreign language aptitude. Moreover, some specific strategies such as imaginary, inferencing, deduction or elaboration might

help to overcome the burden on the memory component of the foreign language aptitude. However, there is an important issue to highlight, and that is the aptitude test (Peter Skehan, still in progress) used in this current study. It is different from all the studies aforementioned, and the test is mainly focused on Pienemann's language learning developmental stages. It is not clear whether this new test taps all the aptitude components required for L2 listening; for example, the test is mainly based on inductive language learning ability, but it does not include phonemic coding ability test, which is one of main components in listening construct. Because of the test used in the present study, we might have found the aptitude as the least powerful predictor of L2 listening comprehension. That's why, further research is certainly needed to enlighten how Skehan's aptitude test is correlated with L2 learning and listening skill. In addition, why aptitude is not a significant predictor of L2 academic listening comprehension is that listening comprehension demanded by the task in current study might not require learners to utilize their aptitude abilities. In other words, if the task is not listening to learn, but only listening for comprehension, the foreign language aptitude may not be predictive of the success; this explains why Ellis et al. (1999) found a relationship between listening and aptitude as there were some target vocabulary in the listening task while Safar and Kormos (2008), Ranta (2002) and this present study failed to find any significant relationship since these studies aimed to explore listening for comprehension as a complex skill. In addition, Yalçın et al. (2016) claims that task demands might lead to utilize different aptitude components and learners use "different aptitude components to response to different L2 interventions in the classrooms" (p.146). The results of this study can be interpreted in a way that the listening tasks and the aptitude test in this present study might not have helped to utilize some aspects of aptitude constructs.

In addition to discussion of working memory and the foreign language aptitude separately, there are some other issues many researchers caution related to the using total scores of working memory and aptitude tests instead of subtest scores might report misleading results (Yoshimora, 2001; Kormos, 2013; Yalçın et al., 2016). In this study, total scores of WM and aptitude tests were used, and this might be one of the reasons why they could not significantly predict L2 listening comprehension. Another issue to be taken into consideration is “the threshold” (Sawyer & Ranta, 2001; p.342). They claim that working memory and aptitude may not be vital if the learners are not challenged, and the tasks might not have triggered the threshold levels of the participants in this current study. That’s why, to explore “the threshold at which learners’ capacities are exceeded” could be an important step to understand the natures of working memory and aptitude.

For third research question, I used learners’ opinions to interpret the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the strategy instruction. As most of the students mentioned in the interviews, they had not taken any listening instruction before; what they reported is in line with the studies which focused on participants’ previous L2 listening instruction (Mendelsohn, 2001; Berne, 2004), that is, they were just being tested in listening classes. This might explain why students have L2 listening problems in the class; they neither hear any English outside, nor they are thought how to handle the listening problems. Most of the participants agreed on the effectiveness of the instruction and they believed that their listening skill had developed. The results of their post-tests supported their argument and commonly held belief (Oxford, 1990; Mendelsohn, 1994; Wenden, 1983; Macaro, 2006; Vandergrift, 2004). The participants related their improvement in L2 listening comprehension to the strategy training provided and their more exposure to L2

listening tasks and activities in the class. Directed and selected attention as metacognitive strategies, summarization and elaboration as cognitive strategies and self-talk as a socio/affective strategy were reported as the most effective listening strategies by the participants. The least effective strategies were translation and self-talk according to the participants' beliefs. Reporting a variety of listening strategies by the participants proves that adopting and adapting strategies are individual differences among learners. Most of the students underscore their expectations for in class listening as they have no chance to hear any English outside; which shows us that listening instruction is crucial especially in EFL contexts. Participants' suggestions to the listening strategies instruction implemented in the intervention may guide the future research. For instance, they suggested that listening strategies booklet was too long and complicated for them to comprehend all and this might be one of reasons for why not every participant reported their improvement in L2 listening comprehension. The participants also recommended to hear more authentic conversations or dialogues, and variety of accents even though they were trained about academic listening because academic listening requires more formal and standard English use in academic contexts.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

This study differentiates itself from previous research in that it explores the effects of explicit L2 listening strategies instruction on L2 academic listening comprehension with respect to individual differences: listening strategies awareness, working memory and the foreign language aptitude. The power of this study is to use multimethod assessment to collect data about L2 listening performance such as English listening comprehension tests (pre and post), and Metacognitive Awareness Language Questionnaire (pre and post) and focus-group interviews to understand the contribution of instruction to the L2 listening comprehension. As previous research revealed (Oxford, 1990; Mendelsohn, 1994; Wenden, 1983; Macaro, 2006; Vandergrift, 2004; Odaci, 2004), the participants benefitted from explicit L2 listening strategy instruction. Among the variables which may affect the L2 listening comprehension, strategy training is the one which significantly predicts L2 listening comprehension, and listening strategies awareness, WM and aptitude contribute less to L2 listening comprehension. The most possible interpretation of this results is that strategy training may overcome individual differences. Lastly, the participant interviews provide insights into their perceptions to L2 listening skill and strategy training and what they reported corroborated the research findings that the instruction was effective to improve their L2 academic listening skills (Oxford, 1990; Mendelsohn, 1994; Wenden, 1983; Macaro, 2006; Vandergrift, 2004, 2007; Odaci, 2004). Most of the participants value listening practice in classroom as they cannot hear English outside, which shows how crucial listening strategies instruction is in

EFL contexts. Participants also mentioned a need for more conversational dialogues with a variety of accents and they suggested to make the listening strategies list less.

For the pedagogical implications, L2 listening strategies instruction should definitely be in the curriculum of English language programs, because especially EFL learners do not have the chance to be exposed to English outside. The only exposure is in the classroom, and thus if they learn listening strategies in the class, they may apply them in their daily life, as the participants mentioned in their interviews. Teachers should be aware of the individual differences in the class; but this should not lead them to be worried about; on the contrary, classroom practices and instruction may overcome individual differences. To be able to teach L2 listening effectively, teachers should have an understanding of the listening processes (Vandergift, 2007) and individual differences related to listening skill.

This present study has some limitations. For example, the relatively small size number of the participants ($n = 21$ for experimental, $n = 19$ for control) might be one of the limitations of this current study. In addition, the intervention period lasted for 4 weeks, which might not be enough to explore the role of instruction in skill acquisition. In addition, this study included only one type of L2 academic listening and response items (open-ended questions), thus many different task types could be incorporated into a listening comprehension task. The current study only focused on pre-intermediate level of learners; different proficiency levels might give the picture of the effects of individual differences on L2 listening comprehension. In addition, the assessment type might be another limitation. There was pre and immediate post-test in the study and delayed post-test would have given the long-term effects of listening strategy instruction. Lastly, even though participants were randomly

sampled as experimental and control, convenience sampling of the participants in this study limits the generalizability of the findings and its representativeness.

For further research, one of the most important questions raised in this current study is why strategy training or listening instruction is missing in classrooms. To be able to find an answer for this question, the teachers in pre-service and in-service should be interviewed, and the curriculum program of L2 listening skills must be deeply investigated. For instance, are the teacher training programs which do not include listening skill instruction? or Are the teachers who do not involve it in their practices? Answers of these questions should be found by the research. There might be more variables affecting L2 listening performance such as vocabulary size, linguistic, world and cultural knowledge, compensatory mechanisms such as contextual, visual or paralinguistic information, discourse comprehension (Vandergrift, 2007), task difficulty, task complexity, item difficulty and complexity; moreover, other individual differences such as listening anxiety (Brunfaut & Revesz, 2015). Bi-directional listening should be investigated in the light of individual differences because it might need cognitive demands more. In addition to cognitive individual differences, affective dimensions of L2 listening such as motivation, anxiety, self-efficacy or self-confidence should be explored as well. This study was only in audio-mode; as Vandergrift (2007) mentioned suggested, the study should be replicated in multimedia environments and in different modes. In MALQ, there are five distinctive factors related to metacognitive awareness such as Problem-solving, Planning and Evaluation, Mental Translation, Person Knowledge and Directed Attention. These different factors should be separately explored about how L2 listening instruction helps them to improve and which one/s get benefit from instruction. Lastly, how aptitude and working memory subcomponents are

specifically related to L2 listening comprehension should be investigated; moreover, how learner profiles such as high-low working memory or high-low aptitude get benefit from instruction and how different types of tasks affect different learner profiles should be explored.

I would like to end my master thesis with a few remarks related to Listening Skill in Turkish Education context. There is a general belief that Turkish people are not good listeners; during my investigation, I always thought about this saying; maybe the reason for this might be not to have enough listening education. In schools, we are taught how to read, write and speak; but not how to listen. Learners encounter listening comprehension tests, during their language learning process. I, with my teacher and researcher identity in the classroom, observe that listening is an underrepresented skill, and a little educational value is given by the teachers and students. Learners consider listening tasks as only boring activities because they do not know how to handle their listening comprehension problems. My study focused only on L2 academic listening skill; however, it's difficult to generalize that they have enough L1 academic listening skill. In this current study, there was an L1 academic listening skill part as well, but the normality was not ensured in the data, thus I could not add the results into the thesis. Investigating L1 and L2 academic listening skill together will give a bigger picture of the nature of the listening. In my opinion, systematic and explicit listening instruction should be integrated into the curriculum from primary school to university. Maybe then, the listening skill can be transferred to the real-life tasks. What I hear from other teachers is that they feel also helpless during listening instruction, because they claim that they have never taken any instruction of it. There is a need to explore teacher education programs and their curriculum related to teaching L1 and L2 listening skills.

APPENDIX A
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Supporting research: Boğaziçi University

The study: The effect of strategy-oriented open learning method (Eng.) On listening skills

Thesis advisor: Assist. Prof. Şebnem Yalçın

E-mail address: sebnem.yalcin@boun.edu.tr

Phone: +90 212 359 4609

Researcher's name: Saime Kara Duman

E-mail address: saimekara@gmail.com

Phone: 0 505 645 37 87

Dear Student,

There is a master thesis ongoing in Boğaziçi University Department of Foreign Languages under the supervision of Assist. Prof. Dr. Şebnem Yalçın with the title of “The effect of strategy-focused instruction on L2 listening skill.

Thesis subject: The research aims to find out whether the strategy-focused listening instruction can improve listening skills. In addition, the roles of listening strategies awareness, working memory capacity and aptitude on listening skills in a foreign language will be investigated. Participants will receive listening comprehension tests and Cognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire in English as a pre-test to explore their listening skill levels. After 4 weeks (approximately 12 hours) listening skills training of the experimental group, the participants will take the pre-test as a post-test again. During the experimental period, the participants will be given a work memory test and a foreign language aptitude test, and at the end of the experiment, an oral

interview will be conducted with the experimental group on the effectiveness of listening skills training.

Consent: Whether the strategy-focused listening instruction in English as a second language improves listening skills; In addition, we invite you to investigate whether listening skills are related to listening strategies awareness, working memory, aptitude to learn a foreign language. At the end of this study, we hope to find that listening is a teachable skill and is also associated with working memory and listening strategies awareness and aptitude. If you agree to participate in the research, we will ask you to attend classes and take all the tests on the days of strategy-focused listening skills. You are expected to spend 30 minutes to complete the listening tests, 15 minutes for self-assessment, and 45 minutes for the memory test for extracurricular activities. Your name, test performance and records will be kept completely confidential. Your participation in the study is entirely optional. If you do not participate in the study, your course grade will not be adversely affected. We do not charge you and we will not pay you. Test performances from you may be used for further studies in the future. You can opt out of participating at any time. In this case, the test performances we have received from you will be destroyed.

The research we want to conduct is not expected to bring you any risk. On the contrary, with this research, participants will gain experience in using target language through listening skills training. The data to be obtained with this study can be used for writing more than one scientific article.

Before signing this form, please ask if you have any questions about the study. If you have any questions, you can contact Saime Kara Duman (saimekara@gmail.com) or her thesis supervisor, Boğaziçi University, Department of Foreign Language Education. Assist. Prof. Şebnem Yalçın (sebnem.yalcin@boun.edu.tr). You may

consult the Boğaziçi University Human Research Ethics Sub-Committee (INAREK)

or the INAREK / SBB Ethics Sub-Committee on your research rights.

If you change your address or phone number, please let us know.

I understood what I was told and what was written above. I have received / don't
want to get a copy of this form (in this case the researcher will keep this copy).

I agree to participate in the study.

Participant Name-Surname:

Signature:

Date (day / month / year): / /

APPENDIX B

ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

T.C.

BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Yüksek Lisans ve Doktora Tezleri Etik İnceleme Komisyonu

Sayı: 2018-50

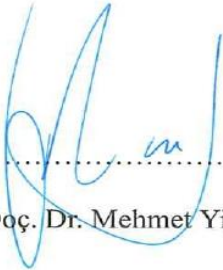
22 Kasım 2018

Saime Kara Duman

Yabancı Diller Eğitimi

Sayın Araştırmacı,

"Strateji odaklı açık öğretim metodunun (İng.) dinleme becerisine etkisi" başlıklı projeniz ile ilgili olarak yaptığımız SBB-EAK 2018/43 sayılı başvuru komisyonumuz tarafından 22 Kasım 2018 tarihli toplantıda incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.



Doç. Dr. Mehmet Yiğit Gürdal



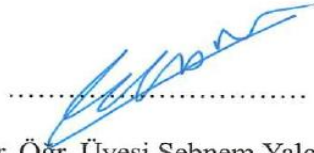
Doç. Dr. Gül Sosay



Doç. Dr. Ebru Kaya



Dr. Öğr. Üyesi İnci Ayhan



Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Şebnem Yalçın

APPENDIX C

LANGUAGE BACKGROUND SHEET

- 1) Department and grade:
- 2) Age:
- 3) GPA:
- 4) Mother language/s:
- 5) Please write down the proficiency level of the foreign languages you know (the lowest A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2 the highest), where (home, school, abroad, language course etc.) and when (state the age) you learnt them.

	Language	Proficiency level	Where	When
a.				
b.				
c.				
more:				

- 6) State your competence of the languages you know (Very good: 5 good: 4 normal: 3 bad: 2 very bad: 1)

	Language	Writing skill	Speaking skill	Listening skill	Reading skill
a.					
b.					
c.					
more:					

- 7) Where (school, home, dormitory etc.) and how often (state the hour per week) do you use the languages you know?

	Language	Where	How often
a.			
b.			
c.			
more:			

- 8) Have you ever been abroad? If yes, which country was it? How long did you stay?



APPENDIX D

METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS LISTENING QUESTIONNAIRE

The statements below describe some strategies for listening comprehension and how you feel about listening in the language you are learning. Do you agree with them?

This is not a test, so there are no “right” or “wrong” answers. By responding to these statements, you can help yourself and your teacher understand your progress in learning to listen. Please indicate your opinion after each statement. Circle the number which best shows your level of agreement with the statement. For example:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I like learning another language.	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. Before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

2. I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6
--	---	---	---	---	---	---

3. I find that listening is more difficult than reading, speaking, or writing in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

4. I translate in my head as I listen.	1	2	3	4	5	6
--	---	---	---	---	---	---

5. I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

6. When my mind wanders, I recover my concentration right away.	1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

7. As I listen, I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

8. I feel that listening comprehension in English is a challenge for me. 1 2 3 4 5 6

9. I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand. 1 2 3 4 5 6

10. Before listening, I think of similar texts that I may have listened to. 1 2 3 4 5 6

11. I translate key words as I listen. 1 2 3 4 5 6

12. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration. 1 2 3 4 5 6

13. As I listen, I quickly adjust my interpretation if I realize that it is not correct. 1 2 3 4 5 6

14. After listening, I think back to how I listened, and about what I might do differently next time. 1 2 3 4 5 6

15. I don't feel nervous when I listen to English. 1 2 3 4 5 6

16. When I have difficulty understanding what I hear, I give up and stop listening. 1 2 3 4 5 6

17. I use the general idea of the text to help me guess the meaning of the words that I don't understand. 1 2 3 4 5 6

18. I translate word by word, as I listen. 1 2 3 4 5 6

19. When I guess the meaning of a word, I think back to everything else that I have heard, to see if my guess makes sense. 1 2 3 4 5 6

20. As I listen, I periodically ask myself if I am satisfied with my level of comprehension. 1 2 3 4 5 6

21. I have a goal in mind as I listen. 1 2 3 4 5 6

APPENDIX E
ENGLISH COMPREHENSION TEST

SILENT LANGUAGES

You will hear a short talk about SILENT LANGUAGES. While you are listening to the talk, you must answer the questions below. The questions are in the order the information appears in the talk. Write short answers. Complete sentences are not necessary. Before the talk begins, you will be given three minutes in which to study the questions. Write only on the lines (_____). At the end of the talk you will be given three minutes to go over what you have written. Make sure everything you write is spelled correctly.

QUESTIONS:

1. What is one of the functions of silent languages?
2. Why are the effects of silent languages not readily noticed?
3. What determines how we express time?
4. If a person is late for an appointment, he may appear to communicate _____.
5. The color patterns we use are reflections of our _____ and _____.
6. According to behaviorists, how do warm colors make a person feel?
7. What affects the nature of the communication in terms of space?
8. What does the European practice of placing a desk in a central location enable a person to do?

9. What does the size of a person's office indicate?
10. What is territoriality?
11. As social creatures, why do we need responses from those around us?



APPENDIX F

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Is studying English important for you? Why or why not?
2. There are four main language skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening. In general, which one is the most important for you?
3. Do you feel your English skills improved during this semester? If yes, in which skills?
4. One of the skills this class focused on was listening. Did your listening skills stay the same/ go down/go up because of this class? Why?
5. Which is better, listening practice in class or outside of the class? Why?
6. Was the teacher's listening instruction in this class useful? Why or why not?
7. Did the listening activities help your listening skills? How?
8. How was listening taught in your previous English classes?
9. Was the teaching of listening in this class the same or different from other English classes you have taken?
10. Listening strategies were introduced and practiced in this class. What listening strategies can you remember?
11. In your class, you learned these strategies (the handout will be given). Which strategies do you think are the most useful? Why?
12. Which strategies do you think are the least useful? Why?
13. Will you be able to use these listening skills in the future? Why or why not? If yes, please give an example.
14. Would you give any suggestion for this class and strategy instruction?

APPENDIX G

LISTENING STRATEGIES HANDOUT

Social/Affective Strategies	
Cooperation	Working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity
Questioning for clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples.
Self-talk	Using mental redirection of thinking to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task.

COGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
INFERENCE	Using information within the text or conversational context to guess the meanings of unfamiliar language items associated with a listening task, or to fill in missing information.
Linguistic inferencing	Using known words in an utterance to guess the meaning of unknown words
Voice inferencing	Using tone of voice and/or paralinguistic to guess the meaning of unknown words in an utterance.
Extralinguistic inferencing	Using background sounds and relationships between speakers in an oral text, material in the response sheet, or concrete situational referents to guess the meaning of unknown words.
Between-parts inferencing	Using information beyond the local sentential level to guess at meaning.
ELABORATION	Using prior knowledge from outside the text or conversational context and relating it to knowledge gained from the text or conversation in order to fill in missing information.
Personal elaboration	Referring to prior experience personally.
World elaboration	Using knowledge gained from experience in the world.
Academic elaboration	Using knowledge gained in academic situations.
Questioning elaboration	Using a combination of questions and world knowledge to brainstorm logical possibilities.

Creative elaboration	Making up a storyline or adopting a clever perspective.
IMAGERY	Using mental or actual pictures or visuals to represent information.
SUMMARIZATION	Making a mental or written summary of language and information presented in a listening task.
TRANSLATION	Rendering ideas from one language in another in a relatively verbatim manner.
TRANSFER	Using knowledge of one language (e.g., cognates) to facilitate listening in another.
REPETITION	Repeating a chunk of language (a word or phrase) in the course of performing a listening task.

METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
PLANNING	Developing an awareness of what needs to be done to accomplish a listening task, developing an appropriate action plan and/or appropriate contingency plans to overcome difficulties that may interfere with successful completion of the task.
Advance organization	Clarifying the objectives of an anticipated listening task and/or proposing strategies for handling it.
Directed Attention	Deciding in advance to attend in general to the listening task and to ignore irrelevant distracters; maintaining attention while listening.
Selective Attention	Deciding to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that assist in understanding and/or task completion.
Self-Management	Understanding the conditions that help one successfully accomplish listening tasks and arranging for the presence of those conditions.
MONITORING	Checking, verifying, or correcting one's comprehension or performance in the course of a listening task
Comprehension monitoring	Checking, verifying, or correcting one's understanding at the local level.
Double Check Monitoring	Checking, verifying, or correcting one's understanding across the task or during the second time through the oral text
EVALUATION	Checking the outcomes of one's listening comprehension against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy.
PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION	Explicitly identifying the central point needing resolution in a task or identifying an aspect of the task that hinders its successful completion.

APPENDIX H
INSTRUCTIONAL PLANS

CALLA INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN 1

Task: Listening

Level: A2

Topic: How can you find a good job?

Target learning strategy/ies: Advance organization, Directed and Selective Attention

Material: Q Skills Listening and Speaking book, Unit 1

Procedures:

1. Preparation

- The teacher starts a small discussion about how they prepare themselves for the listening. “OK guys, tell me, before listening, do you have any plans, or you just start listening? Do you read the title or questions? What do you do?”
- The teacher elicits answer from the students.

2. Presentation:

The teacher starts to explain explicitly Advance Organization. “Before listening to the recordings, you should have a plan in your minds; but how? Firstly, look at the title: Looking for a job. What can be the topic of the recording?”

The teacher elicits answers from the students: “We have some guesses in our minds. Probably some people are trying to find a job. That’s true! Two students discuss summer jobs. So now let’s think about what the summer jobs can be?”

The teacher elicits answers from the students: “OK, as you can see, if you activate your background knowledge, you are using advance organization strategy and it will help you to understand the recording better. Now Let’s look at the task and the questions.”

“The task is True (T) and False (F) and correcting the false statement. Firstly, you will listen to the recording and try to understand what the topic is by ignoring the details. This strategy is called “directed attention”. Then, in the second listening, you are going to read the questions and try to focus on those questions during the recording. This strategy is called “selective attention”, in which you focus on the task and the details.”

3. Practice:

Students listen to the recording twice and try to do the task with their partners cooperatively.

4. Evaluation:

After eliciting the answers from the students, the teacher asks students: “Now tell me, were you able to use the strategies we learned? If yes, how did you feel? Was it easier now? For those who couldn’t use the strategies, what was the problem? How can we overcome them?”

5. Expansion:

Whether they can transfer the strategies they have learned, the teacher brings another recording with the same theme. “Now, we are going to listen to the manager of an advertising company. He is interviewing two people for a Web designer position. Remember the strategies we learnt in the first lesson and try to use them with this listening task. Look at the title with your advance organization title, in the first listening don’t forget to use directed attention and in the second listening, read the listening questions and decide on the details, people, number etc.”

CALLA INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN 2

Task: Listening

Level: A2

Topic: Why do we study other cultures?

Target learning strategy/ies: Imagery, Inferencing

Material: Q Skills Listening and Speaking book, Unit 2

Procedures:

1. Preparation

-The teacher starts a small discussion about what they do during listening. “OK guys, tell me, while listening, do you just listen, do you close your eyes, or do you just daydream? What do you do?”

-The teacher elicits answer from the students.

2. Presentation:

The teacher starts to explain explicitly Imagery. “While especially first listening, close your eyes and try to imagine what is going on in the recording in your mind. Think that you are watching the recording in your mind. Then it will be easier. This strategy is called Imagery.”

“Also, while imaging, focus on the background noises, the relationship among the speakers, if there is an unknown word, try to understand it from your imagery in your mind. This strategy is called Inferencing. So, you can get a bigger picture of the recording.”

3. Practice:

“Now, you are going to listen to a lecture from a business class at a university. The professor is talking about international advertising. As you listen, gather information and ideas about why we study other cultures”.

Students listen to the recording twice and try to do the task with their partners cooperatively.

4. Evaluation:

After eliciting the answers from the students, the teacher asks students:

“Now tell me, were you able to use the strategies we learned? If yes, how did you feel? Was it easier now? For those who couldn’t use the strategies, what was the problem? How can we overcome them?”

5. Expansion:

Whether they can transfer the strategies they have learned, the teacher brings another recording with the same theme. “Now, we are going to listen to three people talking about cultural problems. As you listen, imagine their stories and try to understand them better with inferencing strategies. You will study individually to see whether you can use the strategies or not. It is important to note not to forget the other strategies we learnt in previous lessons”.

CALLA INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN 3

Task: Listening

Level: A2

Topic: What is the best kind of vacation?

Target learning strategy/ies: Self-talk Strategy and Cooperation Strategy

Material: Q Skills Listening and Speaking book, Unit 3

Procedures:

1. Preparation

-The teacher starts a small discussion about their self-talk and their cooperation with partners.

“What do you do when you don’t understand the recording? Do you just stop and wait the end of the listening task, or do you continue?” The teacher elicits answer from the students.

“What about cooperating with your partner? Do you feel more comfortable while studying with your partner?” The teacher elicits answer from the students.

2. Presentation:

The teacher starts to explain explicitly Self-talk. “Let’s say, you couldn’t understand the first of the recording and you gave up listening. Don’t do it! When you understand you are giving up listening, tell yourself to focus one more time, or tell yourself to be relax and get into the recording. This is Self-talk strategy.”

“Practicing with your partner can take the burden from you in the first try. S/he might catch the things that you missed in the recording. So, you can check and compare your notes and do the task together. This is Cooperation strategy.”

3. Practice:

“Now, you are going to listen to a report from a travel program called Places in Danger. The program talks about the negative effects of tourists visiting three famous places. What problems do tourists cause at each place? Fill in the blanks with the missing information. If you need, don’t forget your Self-talk Strategy and Cooperation Strategy with your partner”.

Students listen to the recording twice and try to do the task with their partners cooperatively.

4. Evaluation:

After eliciting the answers from the students, the teacher asks students:

“Now tell me, were you able to use the strategies we learned? If yes, how did you feel? Was it easier now? For those who couldn’t use the strategies, what was the problem? How can we overcome them?”

5. Expansion:

Whether they can transfer the strategies they have learned, the teacher brings another recording with the same theme. “Now, we are going to listen to the owner of a travel company give a presentation about jobs volunteers in Cusco, Peru. Listen to the presentation and complete the student’s notes. It is important to note not to forget the other strategies we learnt in previous lessons”.

After eliciting answers from the students, the teacher asks students which strategy they have learnt so far is the most effective? And which one is the least useful?

CALLA INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN 4

Task: Listening

Level: A2

Topic: Who makes you laugh?

Target learning strategy/ies: Elaboration, Summarization

Material: Q Skills Listening and Speaking book, Unit 4

Procedures:

1. Preparation

-The teacher starts a small discussion about elaboration and summarization.

“What do you do understand when I say “elaboration”? How can we use elaboration as a strategy in listening tasks?”

“When can we use summarization as a strategy in listening tasks?”

The teacher elicits answer from the students.

2. Presentation:

The teacher starts to explain explicitly Elaboration:

“You can start the listening task by elaborating questions of the task; for example, you can brainstorm what the answers can be. Or, while listening, you can elaborate what you hear by referring to your personal and world experience, or by remembering the things you have learned from other lessons. Moreover, you can create a storyline while listening to it.”

“At the end of the recording, write down what you remember and summary of the recording you just listened to”. This summary strategy will help you to comprehend the overall meaning of the topic and you can elaborate it with other details.”

3. Practice:

“Now, you are going to listen to a radio show about the famous British author Charles Dickens. As you listen to the program, gather information and ideas about what makes you laugh. Look at the task questions and don’t forget to elaborate them, and during listening, please try to use your personal, world and academic experiences related to the recording. At the end of the listening, create a summary of the radio show.”

Students listen to the recording twice and try to do the task with their partners cooperatively.

4. Evaluation:

After eliciting the answers from the students, the teacher asks students:

“Now tell me, were you able to use the strategies we learned? If yes, how did you feel? Was it easier now? For those who couldn’t use the strategies, what was the problem? How can we overcome them?”

5. Expansion:

Whether they can transfer the strategies they have learned, the teacher brings another recording with the same theme. “Now, we are going to listen to a guest speaker in a university lecture. In the lecture, he talks with the professor about people’s sense of humor. As you listen to the lecture, gather information and ideas about who makes you laugh. Use all the strategies you have learnt so far and complete the student’s word web with definitions of the four types of humor the presenter talks about and choose the best answer that describes each type of humor.”

After eliciting answers from the students, the teacher asks students which strategy they have learnt so far is the most effective? And which one is the least useful?

CALLA INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN 5

Task: Listening

Level: A2

Topic: Why do we enjoy sports?

Target learning strategy/ies: Monitoring, Problem Identification, Questioning for clarification

Material: Q Skills Listening and Speaking book, Unit 5

Procedures:

1. Preparation

-The teacher starts a small discussion about Monitoring, Problem Identification, Questioning for clarification.

“During listening, how do you monitor your comprehension? Do you check your understanding at some points of the recording or at the end?”

“We always listen twice the recordings; after first listening what do you do? Do you identify your problems during listening, or do you take notes of your missing points? Or, do you ask questions to your partners for more clarification?

The teacher elicits answer from the students.

2. Presentation:

The teacher starts to explain explicitly strategies aforementioned in preparation:

“Monitoring your understanding during or after listening is quite crucial for general comprehension and problem identification. You can monitor it during listening recording, or after it. For example, you can check yourself whether you have understood the topic and the gist of the recording at the end and take some notes where you should focus on more; this strategy is called Monitoring and Problem Identification. When you couldn’t decide on the listening problems, you can get advice from your partner about clarification of the questions or the topic and the gist.”

3. Practice:

“Now, you are going to listen to a scientist giving a university lecture about the effects of doing sports and why exercise is good for people. As you listen to lecture, gather information and ideas about why we enjoy sports. While listening, don’t forget to monitor your understanding of the recording and after first listening, identify your missing points and problems. If you need help, you can ask me or your friends for clarification.”

Students listen to the recording twice and try to do the task with their partners cooperatively.

4. Evaluation:

After eliciting the answers from the students, the teacher asks students:

“Now tell me, were you able to use the strategies we learned? If yes, how did you feel? Was it easier now? For those who couldn’t use the strategies, what was the problem? How can we overcome them?”

5. Expansion:

Whether they can transfer the strategies they have learned, the teacher brings another recording with the same theme. “Now, we are going to listen to four people talk about the importance of sports in their lives. As you listen to the conversation, gather information and ideas about why we enjoy sports. Match the person with the appropriate information and complete the open-ended questions.”

After eliciting answers from the students, the teacher asks students which strategy they have learnt so far is the most effective? And which one is the least useful?

APPENDIX I

CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATING CALLA INSTRUCTION

Table 5.4
CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATING CALLA INSTRUCTION

1. _____ Objectives stated for content, language, and learning strategies.
2. _____ Content selected is essential for grade level(s) and is aligned with state framework/local curriculum.
3. _____ Activities develop vocabulary, listening, reading, speaking, and writing.
4. _____ One or two learning strategies directly taught and/or practiced.
5. _____ Teacher's language somewhat simplified, but not tightly controlled for grammatical structures or vocabulary.
6. _____ Students' prior knowledge elicited in Preparation phase.
7. _____ Context provided through visuals, graphic organizers, manipulatives, realia, hands-on, etc.
8. _____ Instruction includes cooperative learning activity and active practice with new information.
9. _____ Student self-evaluation activity included.
10. _____ Higher-level questions posed and discussed.
11. _____ Activity and/or discussion addresses real-life applications of content.
12. _____ Contributions of students' own culture(s) related to topic are identified and discussed.
13. _____ Student self-efficacy and motivation developed through learning strategy instruction and opportunities for success.

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