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**UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON**

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

Modern Languages

**Exploring the Effects of Language Learning Strategy Instruction on Saudi EFL  
College Students' Strategy Awareness and Proficiency**

by

**Ibrahim Alzahrani**

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

October, 2017



UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

## **ABSTRACT**

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

Modern Languages

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

### **EXPLORING THE EFFECTS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY INSTRUCTION ON SAUDI EFL COLLEGE STUDENTS' STRATEGY AWARENESS AND PROFICIENCY**

Ibrahim Hanash Alzahrani

This study investigates the effects of language learning strategy (LLS) instruction on Saudi college students learning English as a foreign language (EFL). It explores the effects of strategy instruction on the students' strategy awareness and language proficiency.

A total of 197 college students in their first year participated in the study. They were divided into an experimental group, who received explicit strategy instruction in Arabic for two months, and a control group, who did not receive any explicit strategy instruction. To collect data, four research instruments were utilized, garnering both qualitative and quantitative data: a language strategy use survey (LSUS), a learning styles survey (LSS), pre- and post-tests of language proficiency, and structured interviews.

The results show that completing the LSUS contributed to raising students' strategy awareness in both groups; however, the intervention significantly raised strategy awareness in the 39 strategies taught only in the experimental group. The results also show that strategy instruction positively changed students' ways of learning through thinking of their learning and assisted some of them to orchestrate strategy implementation.

Although students in both groups improved their overall language proficiency to a similar degree, the difference in improvement was significant in writing, reading, and speaking where students in the experimental group outperformed their counterparts in the control group in these skills. This may indicate that although strategy instruction did have some effect on students' proficiency in all language skills, it was not effective enough to make a significant difference in the improvement in listening and vocabulary between the two groups.

The results show the dominance of visual, extroverted, and global learning styles among participants. There were a few neutral students under the three learning style categories. The results also show that there were no significant differences in language proficiency between visual,

auditory, kinaesthetic/tactile, and neutral learners under the sensory/perceptual learning style category. Similarly, there were no significant differences in language proficiency between extroverted, introverted, and neutral learners under the personality type category. The only difference in language proficiency was found between particular learners and global learners under the cognitive learning style category, where particular learners outperformed global learners.

The interview feedback gathered from the participating students indicates that the programme raised their strategy awareness, encouraged them to consider their ways of learning, contributed to improvement of specific language proficiencies, and taught them new and useful LLS related to different language skills. The teachers' feedback on the strategy instruction programme and the Teacher's Booklet was mostly positive.

This study has implications for language teachers in the Saudi context; it can help them discover the existence of LLS in their language textbooks and to adopt explicit strategy instruction in their language classes. There are also implications for educational establishments in Saudi Arabia that may help them train teachers intending to adopt the learning strategies approach and to encourage both teachers and students in future to employ surveys such as LSUS and LSS to learn more about themselves and their learning.

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# DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, Ibrahim Alzahrani

declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

Exploring the Effects of Language Learning Strategy Instruction on Saudi EFL College Students' Strategy Awareness and Proficiency

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. [Delete as appropriate] None of this work has been published before submission [or] Parts of this work have been published as: [please list references below]:

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Date: .....



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## Definitions and Abbreviations

CALLA	Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
CARLA	Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELC	English Language Centre
ESL	English as a Second Language
LL	Language Leader
LLS	Language Learning Strategies
LSS	Learning Styles Survey
LSUS	Language Strategy Use Survey
L1	First Language
L2	Second/Foreign Language
MCS	Metacognitive Strategy
NCLRC	National Capital Language Resource Center
SAS	Style Analysis Survey
SILL	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
SSBI	Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction
TB	Teacher's Booklet
TBS	Task-Based Strategy
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
VLS	Vocabulary Learning Strategies



# Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter first discusses the rationale for and significance of the prospective study, in the first section. In the second section, an overview of the study context is presented. The objectives of the study are displayed in the third section. The fourth section describes how the thesis is organized.

## 1.1 Statement of the Problem

This thesis looks at language learning strategies (LLS) among Saudi learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at the college level. It will examine the effects of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness and language proficiency. Although little research has been done on the nature of the influence of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness, more understanding is needed particularly in the Saudi context, where studies on this matter are completely absent. Strategy awareness has a significant main effect on strategy use (Lee and Oxford, 2008). Research suggests that LLS, defined as 'activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning' (Griffiths, 2013, p. 50) have an impact on language learners' success learning their foreign/second language (L2) (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Cohen, 2011; Oxford, 2011). Moreover, researchers in the field consistently affirm that not all language learners use strategies effectively. In particular, learners with low language proficiency face significant difficulties matching strategies to tasks. This results in ineffective usage of strategies and disappointing outcomes (Chamot *et al.*, 1999; Oxford, 2003). This ineffective use of strategies is plausibly related to lack of strategy awareness, and so increasing strategy awareness among these students may assist them use strategies effectively.

Considerable research has been done on the relationship between strategy instruction and language proficiency. Many studies have found that strategy instruction had a positive effect on language proficiency (Cohen, 1998, 2011; Grenfell and Harris, 1999; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, 1996). However, there are also studies that have questioned the benefit of strategy instruction in language classrooms (Dörnyei, 2005; Rees-Miller, 1993; Rossiter, 2003). The controversy regarding the effectiveness of strategy instruction has resulted in frequent calls in the field (Cohen and Griffiths, 2015; Cohen and Macaro, 2007; Griffiths, 2015; Griffiths and Oxford, 2014; Oxford, *et al.* 2014b) for more studies to investigate the effect of strategy instruction on language proficiency, and this remains an open question, although it is now more than 30 years since the first study on strategy instruction was conducted.

The present researcher, who taught English for seven years to college students in Saudi Arabia, observed that many of these students struggled with their English language learning. This observation is corroborated by Khan (2011) who says that English language learners' achievements

in Saudi Arabia are below expectations in comparison to other countries. In addition, Alqahtani (2011) stresses that in a teacher-centred environment, students depend on their teachers while learning English. This implies that a greater responsibility for students' language learning lies with teachers rather than students. The researcher opines that it is perhaps time to start changing this situation in the Saudi context. By providing strategy instruction to students, their strategy awareness can be raised; this in turn should increase their strategy use and thereby hopefully improve their language learning. Also, initiating strategy instruction in the Saudi context would have the benefit of moving a substantial responsibility for learning onto students, by empowering them to conduct active learning themselves, allowing the emergence of a learner-centred classroom environment.

The present study is meaningful for the following reasons:

1. Strategy instruction as conceptualized in this study is an attempt to respond to calls by scholars such as Macaro (2009, p. 31) who called for a 'transition to practice' whereby strategy instruction could be done in language classrooms, in addition to investigation of teachers' awareness of and attitudes toward LLS and LLS research. The lack of focus on strategy instruction in language classrooms is also mentioned by Griffiths (2015, p. 425), who stresses that the term 'strategy' is 'not commonly employed by language teachers'.
2. By embedding strategy instruction in daily language teaching, teachers will be encouraged to refresh their teaching styles.
3. This study teaches strategies through Cohen and Weaver's (2006) Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI) framework; thus, students participating in this study will be made aware not only of their strategies but also of their learning styles. This is a rare opportunity for Saudi students to identify their learning styles; the researcher himself didn't know his learning styles until he embarked on this study.
4. This study may contribute to the literature on strategy instruction, which is still in its infancy in the Saudi context (McMullen, 2009), as well as help illuminate the nature of learning and teaching situations in the context and try to provide a little assistance to English language learning and teaching in Saudi Arabia.
5. This study is one of the few attempts to explore students' strategy awareness before versus after an experimental intervention, that is, to use a pre/post design. Although there are other studies that have designed their own strategy awareness questionnaires, those questionnaires were only employed after intervention in almost all these studies. Students' strategy awareness is more accurately assessed in a pre/post design than in only a pre or post design.
6. The majority of studies in the field have focused only on a single language skill (Macaro, 2009). This study is unique in that it tries to look at all of the 'four language skills' (reading, writing, speaking, and listening), plus vocabulary. This approach hopefully may inspire students to consider ways of effecting strategy transfer between different language skills.



## 1.2 Context of the Study

An industrial college, which is in the eastern part of Saudi Arabia, has an English Language Centre (ELC), in which this study was carried out. This industrial college is one of a group of technical establishments administered by the Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu. The purpose of building these technical establishments was to support the Saudi petrochemical industry with appropriately skilled personnel. After passing the core preparatory year, students can join different specializations, such as Electrical and Electronics Engineering Technology, Mechanical and Manufacturing Engineering Technology, Management and Information Technology, Chemical and Process Engineering Technology, and Non-Destructive Testing. When they have completed their studies at this industrial college, most of them join petrochemical companies/factories as processing operators, maintenance technicians, lab technicians, engineering technicians, assistant managers, or accountants.

The ELC is the first contact for students with academic life at the college. The main objective of the ELC is to establish a strong basis of English among students to enable them to communicate in the classroom and later on in the work environment. In their preparatory year in the ELC, students are prepared for specialization by improving their communication skills in English as it is the language of instruction in specialization. Preparatory year students spend four hours a day, five days a week in ELC classrooms studying English. One class a day is assigned to writing, another to grammar, and two classes a day to cover reading, speaking, listening and vocabulary. It is this programme structure that encouraged the researcher to include all language skills plus vocabulary in this study rather than focusing only on a single skill. The policy of the ELC is to change its curriculum every five or six years to be updated in terms of English language education curriculum. At the time this study was conducted, students were using a commercial language learning textbook product from Pearson, called '*Language Leader, Elementary*' (Lebeau and Rees, 2008) to support their learning in reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary; they were also using '*Focus on Grammar 2*' (Schoenberg, 2005), another Pearson textbook product, for their grammar class. Teachers in the ELC come from different cultures and backgrounds, and have had experiences. Many of them are native speakers of English from the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, or Australia; some come from India and Pakistan, and the rest come from different Arab countries, including Algeria, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Syria, and the Sudan.

The population of the study are preparatory year students who had just entered the college after completing secondary school. They came to the college after studying English for seven years, since their last year of primary school. However, despite these seven years of study, it was rare to find proficient English speakers among them. There are many reasons for this, but the main one is that English learning and teaching in Saudi Arabia are not taken seriously in pre-university

education (Alnufaie, 2013). In their preparatory year, students are required to pass two English levels if they want to continue their studies at the college, where English is the medium of instruction. The eastern province is one of the best places in Saudi Arabia to find opportunities to practice English outside the classroom, although still only to a limited extent in international context. This advantage is due to the oil industry, petrochemical and related companies based in that area, which employ workers from different parts of the world, most whom can speak English. Students can simply meet those people in shopping malls, beaches, cafes, hospitals, parks and deserts where opportunities to practice English are available.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Research**

Considering the dearth of research on strategy instruction in the Saudi context, and the fact that Saudi students struggle in their English language learning, the present study aims to address the following objectives:

Through the first research question, the researcher is interested in exploring students' strategy awareness before they are involved in a strategy instruction programme as opposed to after it through a Language Strategy Use Survey (LSUS), designed by Cohen *et al.* (2002a). The aim of using this survey here is to assess students' strategy awareness and look at their strategy use in order to reflect on them and changes in them.

By investigating the second research question, the researcher is interested in checking students' language proficiency before the intervention (a strategy instruction programme) and again after the intervention. Language proficiency here includes reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary.

With the third research question, the aim of the researcher is to 1) identify students' learning styles in terms of three main categories listed in Cohen *et al.* (2002b), as follows: a) sensory/perceptual learning style, b) psychological/personality type, and c) cognitive learning style; 2) to compare proficiency of students with different learning styles to see if there are any interesting similarities or differences; and 3) to look at strategies preferred by students with different learning styles and see if some students are able to stretch their styles to draw on new strategies beyond their learning style zones.

Finally, by investigating the fourth research question, the researcher is interested in getting students' as well as teachers' feedback on the strategy instruction programme. The aim is to hear students voices especially regarding the effects of the programme on their strategy awareness, learning process, proficiency, and learning styles, and those of the teachers on teaching of learning strategies through a language textbook, the Teacher's Booklet (TB) used in teaching strategies, the

framework utilized for strategy instruction, and the effectiveness of the strategy instruction programme in general.

## 1.4 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into seven chapters. The first chapter presents a statement of the problem and outlines the significance of the study, gives a brief description of the context of the study, and sets objectives of the study through the four research questions. Next, the literature review is divided into two chapters. Chapter 2 introduces the historical background of LLS, including the birth of the concepts of LLS and ‘good language learners’ (GLL). It also presents the theoretical background upon which LLS research is based, including general cognitive theory, Macaro’s cognitive framework, Oxford’s both schema theory and cognitive information processing theory, and the sociocultural perspective. Additionally, this chapter focuses on issues related to LLS such as their definition, purpose and importance and classification; strategy awareness-raising; strategy use and learning success; and strategy orchestration (when a strategy is ‘combined with other strategies either simultaneously in *strategy clusters* or in sequence, in *strategy chains*’ (Cohen, 2007, p. 35)). Chapter 3 focuses on strategy instruction, in particular on its definition, purpose, importance, and methods. It compares the frameworks and justifies the language used in strategy instruction. It also reviews research studies related to strategy instruction, learning styles, including definition, identified learning styles, the relationship between styles and strategies, and Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI). Chapter 4 provides the methodology used in this study. It describes the participants and the instruments employed in data gathering. It also explains how students’ textbook (*Language Leader, Elementary* (LL)) was examined as a strategy teaching material. Moreover, the process of strategy instruction in all four language skills plus vocabulary is also exemplified in this chapter. Chapter 5 presents the results of the study, gained through the pre- and post-strategy survey and style survey, students’ scores on the pre- and post-tests in all language skills plus vocabulary, and students’ and teachers’ structured interviews. There is interpretation and discussion of these findings in Chapter 6, done by combining quantitative and qualitative findings (a mixed-methods approach). Finally, Chapter 7 summarizes the findings of the study, presents some implications and recommendations for practice, looks at the limitations of the study, suggests further future research in the field of LLS, and states the contributions of the study to the field.



## **Chapter 2: Language Learning Strategies**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The current study aims to explicitly instruct Saudi college students in language learning strategies (LLS) using authentic language learning materials in regular language classrooms through a Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI) learning programme. To support and justify this approach, this and the following chapter will review the literature on topics relevant to LLS and strategy instruction. First, in this chapter, a historical overview of the concept of ‘learning strategy’ will be presented, including the birth of the ‘good language learners’ concept. Next, theoretical background will be reviewed, with a major focus on cognitive theory as a base for strategy research. Also, Macaro’s (2006) cognitive framework and Oxford’s (2011) theories on learning strategies, which are rooted in cognitive theory, will be briefly described in this section. A sociocultural perspective, as another theoretical underpinning will also be presented. After that, issues related to LLS will be reviewed, such as attempts to define LLS and criticism of those definitions; the purpose and importance of LLS; a review of LLS classification schemes and criticism of them; a review of strategy awareness-raising as an essential issue in the field; the relationship between strategy use and successful learning; and strategy orchestration.

### **2.2 LLS: Historical Background**

Language learning was basically considered an entirely psychological phenomenon until the 1970s, (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007). According to them, behaviourist theories in the mid-20th century saw the problem of learning a language as a question of manipulating the psychology of the learner using a large amount of drill to effect learning through repetition and stimulus-response. This resulted in a view of learning grammar as a discrete habit, isolated from social context. The Universal Grammar of Chomsky, beginning in the 1950s, altered this context by adopting the concepts of an ideal speaker and a perfect competence (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007). Hymes (1972) came up with the concept of ‘communicative competence’, or the ability of the speaker to use language to deliver and understand meaning. In this context, the concept of ‘strategy’ attained its initial theoretical prominence in second language learning as a concept capturing learners’ linguistic behaviour (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007). Canale and Swain (1980, p. 30) divided Hymes’s communicative competence into grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence; according to them, strategic competence consists of ‘verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence’. Færch and Kasper (1983) investigated communication strategies and considered them as potentially

conscious plans for solving problems in reaching a particular communicative goal. Following up Canale and Swain's (1980, 1983) work, Krashen (1984) pointed out that adult language learners can use some common strategies to learn a second language. Subsequently, Bachman (1990) placed strategic competence within linguistic competence, making strategic linguistic behaviours an integral part of language learning.

### **2.2.1 The Birth of LLS and 'Good Language Learners'**

The birth of the LLS concept came with Joan Rubin's article of 1975, 'What the "Good Language Learner" Can Teach Us' (Oxford, *et al.* 2014b; Griffiths, 2013). Rubin's article attracted the attention of researchers to the question of what 'good' (meaning basically successful) language learners do while learning a language, and whether poor or less successful language learners can be taught more effectively based on that knowledge. Rubin set out some specific strategies that good language learners employ while learning a language:

- 1) The good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser.
  - 2) The good language learner has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from a communication.
  - 3) The good language learner is often not inhibited. He is willing to appear foolish if reasonable communication results. He is willing to make mistakes in order to learn and to communicate. He is willing to live with a certain amount of vagueness.
  - 4) In addition to focusing on communication, the good language learner is prepared to attend to form.
  - 5) The good language learner practices.
  - 6) The good language learner monitors his own [speech] and the speech of others.
  - 7) The good language learner attends to meaning.
- (Rubin, 1975, pp. 45-47)

Around the same time, in his study, Stern (1975) drew up a list of ten strategies used by good language learners: 1) Planning strategy; 2) Active strategy; 3) Empathetic strategy; 4) Formal strategy; 5) Experimental strategy; 6) Semantic strategy; 7) Practice strategy; 8) Communication strategy; 9) Monitoring strategy; and 10) Internalisation strategy. A couple of years later, Naiman *et al.* (1978; also 1996) proposed some tricks employed by good language learners and looked at how they could be taught to poor language learners. These tricks included being active in responding to a learning situation; realizing language as a system through reference to their mother tongue; making comparisons, guessing and inferences; realizing language as a means of communication; realizing that language learning involves emotional responses; and monitoring their performance in the target language. Wong-Fillmore (1979, cited in Grenfell and Macaro, 2007) worked on communication strategies under the social side of language learning. She also thought that cognitive strategies could supplement these social strategies, such as the use of stock phrases or formulaic language to get a conversation started and keep it going (Grenfell and Macaro,

2007). Both the psychological and the social dimensions of language learning, in the next section, are taken as bases for a more articulated discussion of the theoretical background of LLS.

## **2.3 Theoretical Background of LLS**

Strategy research like that cited above has been harshly criticised in terms of its theoretical underpinnings. Dörnyei and Skehan (2003, p. 610) state that strategy research has been conducted in a ‘theoretical muddle’, and argue that a strategy cannot be solely cognitive, emotional, or behavioural, but should also be considered in neurological terms, (and) as a behavioural act that involves motor skills (see 2.4.1). Dörnyei (2005) went further, questioning the very existence of LLS due to the inability of researchers to explain the difference between engaging in an ordinary learning activity and a strategic learning activity. McDonough (in Archibald, 2006) states, scholars in the field are mainly relying on cognitive theory and, more recently, on sociocultural theory and eclectic theoretical underpinnings (Griffiths and İnceçay, 2016; see just below). The sociocultural tendency in strategy research has been supported in particular by Oxford and Schramm (2007) as we will see in 2.3.4 below. Supplementing the cognitive and sociocultural perspectives, Griffiths (2013, pp. 39-40) advocates a recognition of the role of ‘audiolingual/behaviourist elements’ when language learners learn by repeating things to remember them.

Thus, a complex theoretical scenario exists for anyone trying to ensure consistent theoretical rigour for their strategy research. In this section, we spend the most time on the cognitive theory, which is still the main one applied to strategy research, and in particular to Macaro’s cognitive framework and Oxford’s theories; then, we discuss the sociocultural perspective, which has become another major underpinning of strategy research theory.

### **2.3.1 Cognitive Theory**

LLS research is strongly linked to theory of cognition. This theory deals with how knowledge about language is stored in our memories and how information is processed in our brains. It came from Anderson’s (1983, 1985) work, which distinguishes between ‘static information’ (what we know about) and ‘dynamic information’ (what we know how to do) in memory. On this basis, Anderson drew a distinction between ‘declarative knowledge’, which refers to facts we know, and ‘procedural knowledge’ which refers to how we perform actions.

O’Malley and Chamot (1990) were the first to consider LLS under this cognitive theory, with its implication that the language learner should be ‘an active participant in the learning process’ (William and Burden, 1997, p. 13). There are two major principles underlying their version of cognitive theory: ‘(a) that behavior can best be explained by reference to how individuals perceive and interpret their experiences, and (b) that the way in which individuals think and reason has

parallels with the manner in which computers process information' (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 1). Thus, this theory is in favour of investigating mental processes and strategies in the language learner's brain. The role of LLS in this formulation is to explicitly formulate what might occur with or without the learner's awareness, either consistently or only inefficiently during early stages of learning. Learners may learn new information without consciously applying strategies, or may apply inappropriate strategies which result in ineffective learning or incomplete long-term retention (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). If strategies are actively applied by the learner's mental process, they should be more effective in supporting learning. These strategies may be automatic after frequent use or after acquiring a skill, although in this case, when mental processes are used without conscious awareness, they may no longer be strategic (Rabinowitz and Chi, 1987). According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), declarative knowledge may be acquired quickly, and procedural knowledge, including language acquisition, is acquired more gradually, requiring practice. Nevertheless, the presence of procedural knowledge in memory is essential in cognitive theory. Therefore, 'strategies begin as declarative knowledge that can become proceduralized with practice and, like complex cognitive skills, proceed through the cognitive, associative, and autonomous stages of learning' (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 85).

Thus, one of the purposes of strategy instruction in the present study is to raise learners' awareness of: a) strategies they use unconsciously, and b) new strategies they have never used before. Raising learners' awareness of their ways of learning using strategies is an attempt to enhance their mental processes, which may result in better and more active declarative knowledge. By consciously practicing strategies through a strategy instruction programme or in everyday language learning, this declarative knowledge may be expected to transfer into procedural knowledge, where language learners are understood to acquire new strategies and to keep using previous strategies, automatically. Hopefully, this will result in better language learning. To assess the effectiveness of the intervention, the current study will compare students' awareness of LLS at the beginning of the study with that at the end. Strategy instruction in the current study covered a list of metacognitive strategies (e.g. planning, managing, monitoring, evaluating) and task-based strategies (e.g. paying attention, inferencing, grouping), which were introduced explicitly to students in the classroom as declarative knowledge and then practiced in an attempt to convert them into automatic, procedural knowledge.

In summary, O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 217) emphasize the following assertions of cognitive theory:

- Learning is an active and dynamic process in which individuals make use of a variety of information and strategic modes of processing;
- Language is a complex cognitive skill that has properties in common with other complex skills in terms of how information is stored and learned;



- Learning a language entails a stagewise progression from initial awareness and active manipulation of information and learning processes to full automaticity in language use;
- Learning strategies parallel theoretically derived cognitive processes and have the potential to influence learning outcomes in a positive manner.

### **2.3.2 Macaro's Cognitive Framework**

Scholars' attempts to interpret strategic linguistic behaviour as those in 2.2 have implied that second language learning is inherently problematic when a strategy is a form of activity employed to respond to problems within discourse, within a social context or inside the head of the learner (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007). Furthermore, in the early stages of research into LLS, scholars referred to strategy as techniques, tactics, activities, thoughts, exercises and tricks that language learners use while learning a language. Because some strategies can be observable, such as 'using gestures to convey meaning' or 'writing new words in a notebook', and some other strategies can be unobservable or covert, such as 'guessing the meaning of new words' or 'predicting what will come in a text', the issue of strategy location has been raised. This has resulted in a continuous debate surrounding whether a strategy is a purely mental action or whether it can include motor activities.

A considerable number of scholars consider both mental actions and motor activities to be strategies. For example, Rubin (1975) was one of the scholars who stressed that strategy is active, describing strategy as that which learners do. Oxford (1990) included some physical activities in her well-known SILL, such as 'acting out new words' or 'writing in a notebook', and also some mental activities, such as 'guessing the meaning of new words' or 'making mental pictures to remember new words'. With some changes in terminology, Oxford (2011) built part of her Strategic Self-Regulation Model on activity theory, which is ultimately related to cognitive theory. Activity theory in Oxford's Strategic Self-Regulation Model contains 'action', which concerns strategy or strategy chains with which to meet goals or solve problems. She considered social strategies (motor activities) to be essential to learning through interaction with others, as explained in 2.3.4. Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) consider both mental activities and learners' behaviour to be strategies. Until recently, Cohen (2011) had insisted that strategies were both thoughts and actions.

However, some scholars, such as Wenden (1987), have described strategy under the umbrella of cognitive science, which locates strategy within the brain, though she explained that strategies are language-learning behaviours in which language learners engage. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) located strategies within cognitive theory, as detailed in 2.3.1. Macaro (2006) stresses in his cognitive framework that strategies are mental activities, as we will see below. Despite disagreement between some scholars, there is still general agreement in literature as to the activity

dimension of strategies (Griffiths, 2013), and the belief that strategies can comprise both mental and motor behaviours is remarkably remaining (Macaro, 2009).

The main reason behind this disagreement among scholars can be easily reached when we look at the different emergences of different strategies. For instance, there are scholars who believe that 'guessing the meaning of new words' is a mental activity that is located within the brain; thus, they consequently link it to cognitive theory. In fact, cognitive and metacognitive strategies form the vast majority of identified LLS, as a result of which strategy theory is strongly connected to cognitive theory. There are some scholars who view 'taking notes while listening' as a physical action and consider it a strategy. Moreover, there are scholars who view 'repeating new expressions in the target language' as a strategy and link it to audiolingual/behaviourist theory. Furthermore, 'asking for help while speaking' is considered a social strategy to some scholars who link it to sociocultural theory. Unfortunately, this has led to rendering the theoretical basis of LLS research unavailable (Dornyei and Skehan, 2003). One of the solid attempts to solve this issue is Macaro's Cognitive Framework presented below, which considers strategies to be mental actions located within the working memory of the brain. If this initiative (cognitive framework) by Macaro is not adopted by other researchers so as to unite and bring about a kind of consensus on what a strategy is, it is going to be very difficult to assign strategies under a strong theoretical underpinning.

Macaro (2006) revised LLS theory to respond to criticism and to solve some problems related to its theoretical underpinnings. Among these problems are strategy location (in the brain), definition, strategy size and abstractness (whether actions are mental or behavioural), and strategies' relationships with skills and learning processes. He proposed a theoretical framework based on cognitive psychology and information processing. This framework stipulates that a strategy has the following three features:

- 1) Researchers should describe strategies in terms of a goal, a situation, and a mental action.
- 2) Strategies are the raw material of conscious cognitive processing, and their effectiveness or noneffectiveness derives from the way they are used and combined in tasks and processes.
- 3) Strategies need to be distinguished from subconscious activity, language learning processes, skills, learning plans, and learning styles. (Macaro 2006, p. 325)

This framework implies that in the brain, there should be a distinction between learning strategies and subconscious activity. According to Macaro, in the brain, interaction occurs between subconscious activity and other neurological processes such as abstraction of linguistic information and lexical storage. This interaction leads to change without conscious control or effort by the learner. Macaro assumed that a strategy deployed in working memory may affect neurological processes functioning there, but not those in long-term memory, as they are not under the control of the learner. Macaro explained that as long as the learner is unable to directly control his/her

subconscious activity, s/he can access long-term memory through working memory, as arrow *a* in Figure 1 shows. Declarative knowledge is proceduralized through this access conduit between working memory and long-term memory; and the framework posits that implicit learning is a result of direct contact with the L2 process, as arrow *b* shows, and that the L2 process seems to be an interaction between clusters of metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Language learning processes may be thought to be subconscious due to their quick operation in the brain, but are in fact conscious as Macaro assumed. As proposed by the framework, repeated activation of language processes in working memory leads to vocabulary and morphosyntactic changes (arrows *a* and *c*) in long-term memory, resulting in L2 skill development (arrow *h*). These L2 skills are then assumed to be measurable and observable products of L2 processes. The framework shows that clusters of strategies interact with L2 processes when strategies are applied to language tasks (arrow *c*), and that repetition of such an interaction may affect the learner's cognitive styles (arrow *f*). The framework also shows that through motivation, learner strategies may interact with strategic plans (plans with broader learning objectives than strategies) (arrows *d* and *e*). According to Macaro, social strategies are proposed to be clusters of cognitive and metacognitive strategies that lead to strategic plans. The framework suggests that the combination of motivation and cognitive styles leads to wider learning styles (arrow *g*).

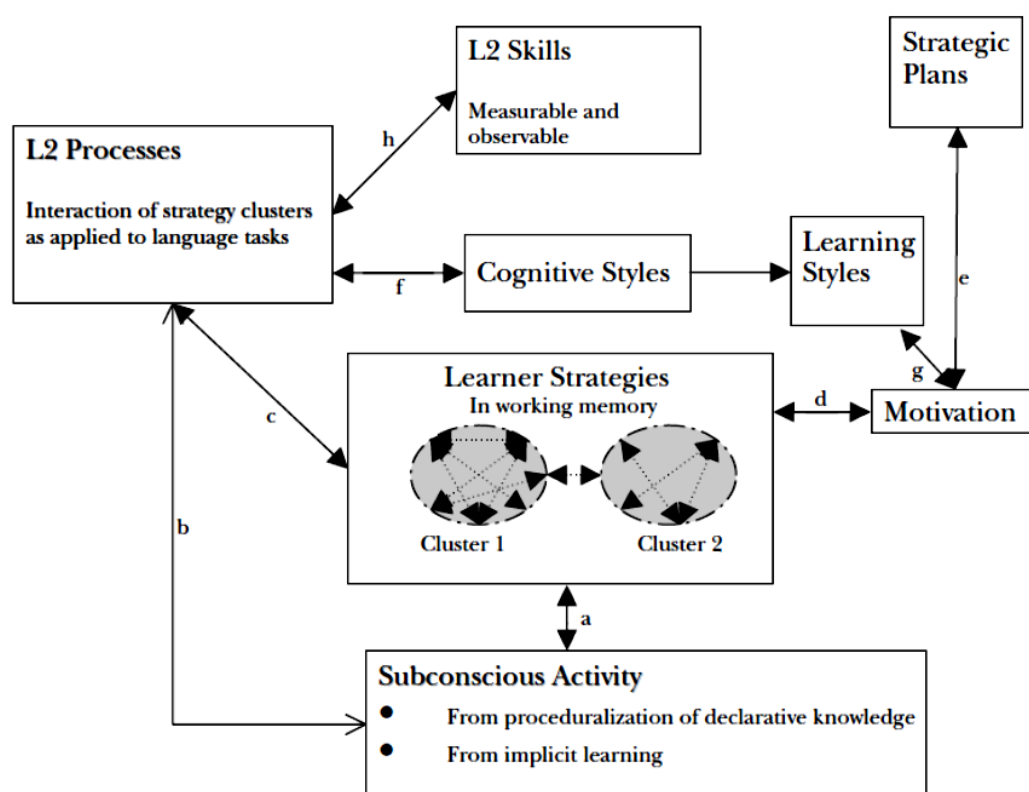


Figure 1: A Cognitive Framework for Learner Strategies (Macaro, 2006, p. 326). Used with permission.

Although Macaro (2006, p. 332) called for testing of this theoretical framework for learning strategies, he argued that it contributed to the field as follows: 1) Rejecting the dual location of

strategies and determining that a strategy exist in the working memory in the brain, while also clarifying that a strategy description requires a goal, a situation, and a mental action. 2) Strategies are integral components of processing, but they are not considered shortcuts for fast processing. 3) Success in learning is not attributed to frequent strategy use but to the strategy orchestration available to and employed by the learner.

### 2.3.3 Oxford's Theories

Rebecca Oxford responded to the criticism of the initial theories of strategy. She was influenced by Dörnyei and Skehan's (2003) and Dörnyei's (2005) call for a new model of 'self-regulation' rather than strategies, and in her (2011) volume, *Teaching and Researching Learning Strategies*, she introduced her 'Strategic Self-Regulation (S2R) Model' of language learning. Oxford saw the model as having five cognitive dimensions (schema theory, cognitive information-processing theory, activity theory, cognitive load theory, and neurobiological theory), where two are more relevant to the cognitive theory above. However, she stressed the social dimension of LLS processing too. Oxford tried to link LLS to cognitive theory employing two existing theories: schema theory and cognitive information-processing theory.

Oxford's schema theory mainly focuses on how information is organized in the brain. A schema is 'a mental structure by which the learner organizes information' (Oxford, 2011, p. 48). Knowledge in this view involves organized interrelationships between its informational components. In this theory, strategies of paying attention (which help learners focus) and organizing (which helps learner link new information with already known items) are essential in building schemata. The theory makes the following postulations: materials will be more memorable when information is organized; building schemata is required to move information from short-term memory (working memory) to long-term memory; organizing information facilitates retention; information is better organized in memorable strings and sequences; using association strategies may lead to learning information in a nonsequential way; we should move L2 information from working memory to long-term memory if we want to use it; and finally, associations made while using information develop schemata and make them automatic (Oxford, 2011). This theory corresponds to certain LLS used by language learners to learn L2 information. For example, in learning new words in the target language, Mandler (2001) notes that some LLS relate to organizing L2 information in a specific way, such as grouping words by part of speech or by synonyms and antonyms, or using flash cards, or listing new words with other related words. Generally speaking, this theory represents one of the mental processes that take in the language learner's brain, namely, organizing.

Oxford (2011) also elaborated a cognitive information-processing theory based on Anderson's original model of 'Adaptive Control of Thought' (a cognitive theory of learning concerning how memory is structured), with some changes in terminology. This theory consists of three stages. In

the first stage, the learner uses strategies to integrate L2 information as declarative knowledge. In the second stage, the learner practices new L2 information to associate it with already stored memory and partly proceduralize it. In the third stage, the learner uses L2 information automatically; in this stage, L2 information is fully proceduralized (procedural knowledge) and there is no need to use strategies to access it (Oxford, 2011). These ideas are strongly relevant to cognitive theory, as they deal with declarative knowledge (the way information is first received) and procedural knowledge (the way it is encoded in long-term memory).

Although cognitive theory is considered the main theoretical underpinning of the field of LLS, it does not fully explain LLS employed when a language learner interacts with other speakers, such as when asking for clarification or pursuing collaboration. Most such strategies are referred to as ‘social strategies’. The sociocultural perspective on LLS theory is discussed in the next section.

### **2.3.4 The Sociocultural Perspective on LLS**

Various researchers have recognised that social strategies are among the LLS that language learners may use. For example, Naiman *et al.* (1996) mentioned seeking communicative situations involving other speakers of the L2; Rubin (1981) included creating opportunities for practice with native speakers; and O’Malley and Chamot (1990) added a social/affective category to their classification; it includes cooperation and questioning while working with peers and teachers. Oxford (1990) introduced as ‘indirect strategies’ social strategies including asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others; Oxford (2011) then came up with the new categories of meta-sociocultural-interactive strategies and sociocultural-interactive strategies. Vygotsky (1978) did not use the term ‘strategies’, but he did investigate a number of what he called ‘higher order functions’ that, as Oxford (1999) pointed out, can be viewed as ‘cognitive strategies’ (the ‘higher order functions’ of analysing and synthesizing) or ‘metacognitive strategies’ (planning, monitoring, and evaluation). These functions are employed through social interaction, which requires social strategies, and through affective strategies, which control emotion and motivation (Oxford, 1999). From Vygotsky’s point of view, ‘learning takes place through dialogue with a “more capable other”, that is, a teacher, partner, or more advanced peer’ (Oxford and Schramm, 2007, p. 53). In the current study, strategy instruction in the classroom is led by the teacher (a more capable person) who explains and models particular strategies for a group of language learners by sharing his own language learning experiences and strategies; at the same time, conversely, learners are exposed to new LLS and encouraged to consciously keep using previously applied LLS. More successful learners in the class may also assist their less successful classmates as ‘more capable others’. In the present study, social strategies (e.g. asking for help while speaking, asking teachers or friends to correct your mistakes, and asking to be involved in a conversation) were explicitly taught in the classroom.

In a nutshell, LLS belong mainly to the cognitive theoretical perspective, but strategy theory has also drawn on other learning theories such as sociocultural theory, schemata theory, information processing theory, and audiolingual or behaviourist elements (in forms of repetitions or memory strategies), producing a complicated theoretical underpinning. This has led Oxford (2011, p. 60) to describe LLS theory as a ‘web of interlocking theories’, a basic perspective that is widely shared.

## **2.4 Issues with Language Learning Strategies**

### **2.4.1 Definition of LLS**

Numerous LLS scholars have attempted to define them, although there is still considerable debate in this regard (Cohen and Macaro, 2007; Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003; Griffiths, 2008, 2013; Griffiths and Oxford, 2014; Oxford and Cohen, 1992). One early definition was by Rubin (1975): ‘the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge’ (p. 43). Weinstein and Mayer (1986, p. 315) defined learning strategies as ‘behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner’s encoding process.’ O’Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 1) defined LLS as ‘the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them to comprehend, learn, or retain new information’. This definition is based on cognitive theory, describing LLS as procedural skills using an IF/THEN clause. In other words, if a given task requires something but I am unable to do it, I will use this strategy; for instance, ‘IF the goal is to comprehend an oral or written text, and I am unable to identify a word’s meaning, THEN I will try to infer the meaning from context’ (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 52). Elaborating on this definition, Oxford (1990, pp. 6-8) noted the original Greek-derived military term ‘strategy’ a ‘plan, step, or conscious action toward achievement of an objective’, and broadened this definition to include learning strategies, ‘... specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations’.

From an early stage in LLS research, this proliferation of definitions was a focus of concern. For example, Wenden and Rubin (1987, p. 7) describe the term as ‘elusive’, and Ellis (1994, p. 529) as ‘fuzzy’. This lack of consensus led Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) to criticise the above-mentioned definitions of LLS by O’Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990). According to Dörnyei and Skehan (2003), Oxford (1990) defines LLS as ‘behaviours’ or ‘actions’ but includes cognitive and affective strategies in her well-known Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990), which involves mental processes. Sometimes, Oxford replaces the phrase ‘behaviours and actions’ with ‘steps’, which is questionably general. Similarly, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) defined LLS as ‘special thoughts’ or ‘behaviours’, but sometimes replace these words with ‘methods’ or ‘techniques’. Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) point out that the LLS listed in O’Malley

and Chamot (1990) are dissimilar to those listed in Oxford (1990), and note (p. 610) that the concept of ‘strategy’ is based on a ‘theoretical muddle’ that has never been ‘cleared away’. They suggest (p. 611) abandoning the concept of ‘strategy’ for one of ‘self-regulation’, which ‘refers to the degree to which individuals are active participants in their own learning’. The salience of these criticisms led 19 experts in LLS to gather in seminars in July 2004 at the University of Oxford under the aegis of the International Project on Language Learner Strategies (Cohen, 2007). The purpose of the project was to discuss issues related to strategy theory and definition and to attempt to specify strategy characteristics. Cohen provided the following definition as a starting point:

Strategies can be classified as a conscious mental activity. They must contain not only an action but a goal (or an intention) and a learning situation. Whereas a mental action might be subconscious, an action with a goal/intention and related to a learning situation can only be conscious. (Cohen, 2007, p. 31).

The findings that emerged from this expert panel after discussion are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Characteristics of a strategy

No.	Feature	Agree	Disagree	Comment
1	Level of consciousness	✓		The majority agreed that any strategy has metacognitive components by which the learner consciously and intentionally will be able to attend, analyse, plan a task, and monitor and evaluate the whole process.
2	Extent of attention	✓		There was consensus that attention can be viewed on a continuum from full focus on the strategy at one end to only minimal attention at the other.
3	Explicitness of action	✓	✓	There were mixed results. Since strategies are conscious and the learner should know what he is doing, degree of explicitness depends on the learner.
4	Degree of goal orientation	✓		Most experts agreed that strategies have a goal.
5	Strategy size		✓	The majority tended not to make the distinction between macro- and micro-strategies.
6	Amount of strategy clustering	✓		There was general consensus among experts that strategic behaviour could fall along a continuum from a single action to a sequence of actions.
7	Potential for leading to learning	✓		The majority agreed that strategy leads to learning.

As Table 1 shows, all experts clearly agreed with five features of the definition of strategy (level of consciousness, extent of attention, degree of goal orientation, amount of strategy clustering, potential for leading to learning). On one feature (explicitness of action) they seemed unsure, as this feature mainly depends on the learner (e.g. ‘reread a text’ is a reading strategy that some learners may employ it for more understanding while some other learners may not necessarily

reread the whole text but they just scan the text); and they disagreed with another feature (strategy size). Therefore, the strategy experts accepted most of Cohen's above-suggested features of a strategy. In his 2011 volume (p. 7), Cohen's own subsequent working definition of LLS is: 'Thoughts and actions, consciously chosen and operationalized by language learners, to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very onset of learning to the most advanced levels of target-language performance'. Similarly, and in response to calls by Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) and Dörnyei (2005), Oxford (2011, p. 12) provides her new 'Strategic Self-Regulation' (S2R) model, in which she defines self-regulated L2 learning strategies as 'deliberate, goal-directed attempts to manage and control efforts to learn the L2. These strategies are broad, teachable actions that learners choose from among alternatives and employ for L2 learning purposes.' However, despite the tortuous process of developing a consistent definition and despite calls for 'self-regulation' as an alternative, the term 'strategy' refuses to disappear (Griffiths, 2013). This can be attributed to two main factors: a) the term 'self-regulation' in a sense 'begs the question', as the learner will need strategies if s/he wants to self-regulate (Griffiths and Cansiz, 2015); and b) frequent conferences and publications that continue to employ the term 'strategy', such as Cohen (2011), Cohen and Macaro (2007), Griffiths (2008, 2013), Oxford (2011), and many others. Nonetheless, some scholars still endeavour to clear up the issue, attempting to first define characteristics of strategies (e.g. Griffiths, 2008, 2013; Gu, 2012; Macaro, 2006) and then define 'strategies' as a general concept on that basis. For instance, Griffiths (2013) identified the six essential characteristics of LLS as the following: 1) LLS are *active*. They are what language learners do (Rubin, 1975). They are expressed as verbs (usually the gerund, e.g. *grouping words*, or present tense for first person, e.g. *I guess the meaning*) which makes them different from learning styles, with which they are often confused, in that learning styles are usually expressed as adjectives (e.g. *auditory, visual, global*, etc.). 2) *Consciousness*. The issue of consciousness is controversial in relation to LLS. Despite Griffiths's assertion and the agreement among the group of prominent scholars represented in Table 1 above; it is difficult to decide if the learner is consciously using strategies. Griffiths suggests instead characterizing it in terms of 'deliberate' vs. 'automatic', as novice language learners usually initially need deliberate steps to learn language but in time become expert enough to do these steps automatically. 3) Strategies are *chosen*. Language learners should have a strategic repertoire from which they choose appropriate strategies for a given case. 4) Strategies are *goal oriented*. This distinguishes them from skills, which appertain to how language is used, for example, to *listen*, to *read* or to *write* (Griffiths and Cansiz, 2015). However, skills may be used to execute strategies; for instance, a learner can read to expand his/her vocabulary. 5) *Regulation*. Strategies can serve as proactive tools employed by language learners to regulate their own learning. 6) LLS *focus on learning*. LLS are basically implemented with the aim of learning language, where the learner is really engaged in the learning process, as distinct from styles or skills. Based on these six characteristics of strategy, Griffiths (2015, p. 426) defines LLS



as ‘... actions chosen by learners (either deliberately or automatically) for the purpose of learning or regulating the learning of language’.

Following Cohen and Macaro (2007, p. 283), ‘[i]n the absence of a consensus, researchers should state clearly the theoretical framework on which they are basing their research ....’ In this light, Oxford’s (2011) much updated definition of LLS mentioned above is considered working and appropriate for the current study, for the following two reasons: First, it stresses most of the characteristics of LLS broadly agreed upon among scholars in the field (strategies are attempts and actions: broad, chosen, deliberate, goal-directed, teachable, employed for learning). Second, it serves the purpose of the current study, which is to teach LLS to students and provide a variety for them to choose from.

## **2.4.2 Purposes and Importance of LLS**

Students who do not utilize strategies have been described as akin to ships adrift at sea without a rudder (O’Malley *et al.*, 1985). The experts at the abovementioned gathering in 2004 were in consensus that the following are acceptable purposes of LLS: ‘to enhance learning; to perform specific tasks; to solve specific problems; to make learning easier, faster, and more enjoyable; and to compensate for a deficit in learning’ (Cohen, 2007, pp. 38-39). Although LLS make learning easier in some ways, their purpose is more significant: they make learning deeper, more productive, and more lasting (Cohen and Macaro, 2007). Improving proficiency in and use of the L2 is the main purpose of LLS use, in Anderson’s (2005) point of view; in the same vein, Oxford (2011) emphasizes that self-regulated L2 learning strategies make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, and more effective. They reflect the whole, multidimensional learner, not just the learner’s cognitive or metacognitive characteristics, and in keeping with this, strategies can be used across contexts and for different purposes. She also emphasized that some strategies, such as planning and monitoring can be employed in learning different subjects and solving problems, not only in language.

## **2.4.3 LLS Classification**

Over four decades, there have been numerous attempts to classify strategies (Cohen, 1998, 2011; Cohen and Weaver, 2006; O’Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, 2011; Rubin, 1981). Rubin (1981), one of the earlier LLS classification schemes, classified strategies into two categories based on interviews with students: a) strategies that directly affect learning, such as monitoring, memorising, deductive reasoning, and practice; and b) processes (strategies) that indirectly affect learning, such as creating opportunities for practice.

Subsequently, to facilitate understanding of LLS by learners and researchers and clarify which of them are used by L2 learners and how, scholars in the field have classified LLS by function. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) based their schemes on cognitive theory and the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge. These two classifications have contributed considerably to the understanding of L2 LLS (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002; Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015). O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) classification and Oxford's (1990) classification share several categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. *Metacognitive strategies* involve 'knowing about learning', such as paying special attention to particular aspects while learning, planning for learning, monitoring learning, and evaluating learning. *Cognitive strategies* under this taxonomy work on incoming information and manipulate them such as repeating or grouping words, using visual images, inferencing or guessing the meaning, and linking ideas. *Social/affective strategies* in O'Malley and Chamot (1990), which was criticised as explained below, encompass strategies to interact with others, such as cooperating with others to solve a problem or questioning others for more clarification; and strategies to control affect, such as self-talk to reduce anxiety about conducting a task.

Oxford's (1990) classification divided LLS into two main groups: *direct strategies* and *indirect strategies*. Direct strategies include: *memory strategies*, which are related to how learners remember language, such as using semantic maps or flash cards; *cognitive strategies*, which assist the learner to manipulate and transform the target language, such as practicing language and analysing and reasoning; and *compensation strategies*, which enable learners to make up for limited knowledge, such as using gestures to get meaning across or guessing the meaning of new words in texts. Indirect strategies include: *metacognitive strategies*, which are related to how learners manage and control their learning process, such as planning for learning and evaluating learning; *affective strategies*, which deal with learner feelings, such as relaxing to reduce anxiety or encouraging yourself; and finally, *social strategies*, which involve learning through interaction with others, such as asking questions for clarification or verification or for self-correction and cooperating with others. This classification led Oxford to develop her SILL, which is commonly used around the world (Oxford, 2011).

Both these classifications (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, and Oxford, 1990) have been criticised: Dörnyei and Skehan (2003, p. 608-609) believe that the last group, 'social/affective strategies', in O'Malley and Chamot's taxonomy includes diverse behaviours, such as 'cooperation', 'questioning and clarification', and 'self-talk', which are not related to the cognitive theoretical basis outlined. Dörnyei and Skehan's criticism (2003, p. 609) leads to a situation with four main classes of learning strategies:

- i. *cognitive strategies*, involving the manipulation or transformation of the learning materials/input (e.g. repetition, summarizing and using images);

- ii. *metacognitive strategies*, involving higher-order strategies aimed at analysing, monitoring, evaluating, planning and organizing one's own learning process;
- iii. *social strategies*, involving interpersonal behaviours aimed at increasing the amount of L2 communication and practice the learner undertakes (e.g. initiating interaction with native speakers, and cooperating with peers);
- iv. *affective strategies*, involving taking control of the emotional (affective) conditions and experiences that shape one's subjective involvement in learning.

However, Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) admitted that the taxonomies created by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and by Oxford (1990) are highly compatible with one another and their own if the changes they suggested are considered.

Oxford's (1990) classification also received other criticism, however. For instance, LoCastro (1994) wondered if memory strategies in the SILL should be put in a separate category from cognitive strategies (they should be placed under the same category because they both involve mental processing). For Ellis (1994) compensation strategies in the SILL are supposed to be communication strategies, which was confusing for him.

In a response to these criticisms, Oxford (2011) revised her 1990 six-category strategy taxonomy, classifying strategies into three main dimensions: *cognitive*, which involves strategies for remembering and processing language; *affective*, which involves strategies linked with emotions, beliefs, attitudes, and motivation; and *sociocultural-interactive*: which involves strategies for contexts, communication and culture. This taxonomy shows that metastrategies (metacognitive strategies, meta-affective strategies and meta-sociocultural-interactive strategies) assist learners to manage and control the respective corresponding categories. It can be seen in this taxonomy that cognitive strategies now include memory strategies and sociocultural-interactive strategies include compensation strategies.

Instead of classifying strategies by function like the efforts above, Cohen (1998) classified learning strategies by goal to distinguish between language *learning* strategies (strategies to increase one's understanding/knowledge of the target language) and language *use* (strategies employed to use what has been learnt from the target language) strategies. Language learning strategies include strategies to *identify* material for learning, *distinguish* materials from each other, *group* materials for easier learning, *engage in repeated contact* with materials, and *commit materials to memory*. Language use strategies, for their part, can be broken down into: *retrieval strategies* (e.g. retrieving meaning of a word when you hear it or read it); *rehearsal strategies* (e.g. repeating pronunciation of a word before using it); *communication strategies* (e.g. using gestures to communicate when unable to use language); and *cover strategies* (e.g. circumlocution to avoid using particular unknown or imperfectly known words).

Another strategy classification was Cohen and Weaver (2006) which categorised LLS by language skill area. Based on previous work by Cohen *et al.* (2002a), this classification included six categories: *listening strategies*, *vocabulary strategies*, *speaking strategies*, *reading strategies*, *writing strategies*, and *translation strategies*. These categories were utilized in building the 89-strategy Language Strategy Use Survey (LSUS) employed in the current study (see 4.4.1).

Overall, LLS classification has not reached any consensus (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002), and attempts to categorise LLS consistently have been ‘fraught with contradictions’ (Woodrow, 2005, p. 91). This has led some scholars in the field (e.g. Griffiths, 2008, 2013) to advise avoiding strategy classification (until further research reaches more clarification) or instead to group strategies on a case-by-case basis where particular learners, situations, goal, and purposes of the research justify using that classification. Other scholars, such as Griffiths and Oxford (2014, p. 3), call on researchers to ‘work collaboratively to devise a more consistent set of theoretically sound strategy categories that can be widely applied’. According to Macaro (2009, p. 30) other authors in the field of LLS have begun to reject the idea of strategy classification, instead starting to specify tasks and identify strategy combinations, or clusters, or chains that can be linked to the given task. Macaro stated that some researchers have enthusiastically examined their strategic behaviours, come up with different taxonomies of strategies, and demonstrated that learners follow their taxonomies. In his words, ‘this approach was a mistake’. Macaro might be right as language learners differ in learning languages and using strategies.

In the present study, given the theoretical uncertainties and also the purpose of the study (to increase students’ strategy awareness in these four language skills plus vocabulary), an instrumental approach was taken by connecting strategies with skills along the lines of Cohen and Weaver above. Specifically, strategies were classified into reading strategies, writing, strategies, listening strategies, speaking strategies and vocabulary strategies, as they originally are in the LSUS.

#### **2.4.4 Strategy Awareness-Raising**

Awareness-raising is extensively represented in the LLS literature. Many scholars in the field agree that awareness-raising assists language learners both to learn the L2 and to use strategies to do so (Chamot, 2005; NCLRC, 2004; O’Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, 1996; Oxford and Cohen, 1992). From Chamot’s (2005) point of view, more successful language learners possess more metacognitive awareness, whereas Dickinson (1992) points out further that for effective L2 learning; there are two kinds of necessary learner awareness: ‘language awareness’ (knowledge of the structure and features of a language) and ‘language learning awareness’ (knowledge about elements that affect language learning). The latter is referred to as ‘strategy awareness’, the ‘learner’s understanding of his or her own strategy application—how he or she takes in new

language material, encodes it, and transforms it to make it usable for actual communication' (Oxford and Cohen, 1992, p. 13). According to Cohen (2011), large numbers of language learners can be exposed to this kind of awareness-raising. Language learners may be more likely to experience lifelong-learning and unforgotten language learning experiences if they are more aware of how to learn best and how to take more responsibility for their learning (Cohen, 2002). Generally, awareness-raising on LLS is useful to improve and make more beneficial students' motivation, attitudes, and beliefs about language learning (Oxford, 1990). This strategy awareness-raising can be done through different activities, such as surveys, interviews, discussions, games, think-alouds, interactive lectures, and workshops. Learners with a high degree of metacognitive awareness are expected to successfully regulate their learning by employing best ways to practice and reinforce what they have already learnt, according to Zhang and Goh (2006), who also suggest that the daily language classroom should be supported by awareness-raising activities that involve drawing students' attention to strategies as well as strategy instruction to broaden students' strategy repertoire, and that increase students' ability to use strategies. Rubin (1987, p. 16) emphasizes that 'making learning decisions conscious can lead both poorer and better learners to improve the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of information, that is, can lead them to learn better.' Though as we will see below there is evidence from previous studies that strategy awareness-raising can have a positive effect upon language learners' achievement and can increase their strategy repertoires; little or nothing is known about this issue in the Saudi context.

In a two-phase study (Flaitz and Feyten, 1996) that involved awareness-raising and strategy use for 130 university students learning Spanish at two levels, where students in the experimental group received metacognitive awareness-raising instruction for one 50-minute session; the achievement of students in the experimental group was highly significantly better in comparison to students' achievement in the control group. The findings of this study suggest that the notion of awareness-raising deserves a great deal of attention. Although it was one raising-awareness session, it assisted students in the experimental group to be more aware of their metacognitive strategies. This supports the idea of providing even little of strategy awareness to students to contribute to their strategy use and increase their strategy repertoire.

In another study, Simmons (1996) conducted intensive six-week individual training to raise four Australian university students' awareness of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The findings show that the students increased the amount and variety of their strategy use and that they were more aware of strategies that fit with their own individual profiles as language learners. This study encouraged the strategy instruction programme in the present study to vary strategies taught to cover different students' learning approaches. Nonetheless, the findings of this study cannot be generalized, as it only included four students. Moreover, only qualitative, not quantitative, data were collected in this study, through students' diaries.

Otwinowska-Kasztelanica (2009) conducted a study on raising awareness of 200 university Polish students towards English cognate vocabulary, including instruction in various vocabulary learning strategies. They were divided into an experimental group and a control group, and exposed to 30 hours of vocabulary learning strategies instruction. Students in the experimental group were sensitised to the existence of cognates while students in the control group were not. The results show that the sensitization to the existence of cognates provided to students in the experimental group assisted them to recognise more Polish-English cognates than their counterparts in the control group. This study concluded that training to make conscious use of cognates enhances mastery of L2 vocabulary.

Blanco *et al.* (2010) conducted collaborative action research with 24 university students (divided into three groups) learning Spanish at the University of Westminster in London and enrolled in a strategy awareness-raising programme, to examine the impact of the programme on their strategy awareness, strategy use, and strategy transfer. Data were collected through semi-structured questionnaires, interviews, and an observation journal by the lecturer. The findings revealed that the majority of students (92%) agreed that the strategy awareness-raising programme assisted them to be more aware of the strategies they used and more aware of the wide range of strategies available for language learning. Moreover, the findings show that a big percentage of students (79%) reported changes in their strategy use as a result of the programme, including drawing on new strategies, and that 66% of students were able to transfer strategies from Spanish to other subjects.

Thus, the previous research indicates that strategy awareness-raising guides language learners to use more and varied strategies, leading to better language learning. The present study anticipates that students' strategy awareness in both the experimental and the control groups will be raised as a result of completing the LSUS, and that participants in the experimental group will see it raised even higher as a result of completing both the LSUS and the strategy instruction programme.

#### **2.4.5 Strategy Use and Learning Success: Direction of Causality**

Grenfell and Macaro (2007, p. 24) state that 'the complex relationship between strategy use and achievement remained unresolved...' because there is a debate in the field surrounding whether strategy use results in better achievement or whether proficiency leads to strategy use. In the early stages of research into LLS it was theorised that the causal relationship between strategy use and success was unproblematic; however, recently, many scholars have realised that independent variables such as stage of learning, time of beginning learning, rate of progress, achievement level and proficiency level need to be investigated in order to examine their association with and effect on strategy deployment (Grenfell and Macaro, 2007).

The issue of causality has been raised by some scholars, though few studies have been conducted so as to ascertain causality (Takeuchi *et al.*, 2007). By reviewing literature, a considerable amount of research into LLS emphasises that the use of LLS is related to increased language achievement and/or proficiency (Dreyer and Oxford, 1996; Green and Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997; Griffiths, 2003). According to Green and Oxford (1995, p. 288), the relationship between strategy use and proficiency can be visualised ‘...not as a one-way arrow leading from cause to effect, but rather as an ascending spiral in which active use strategies help students attain higher proficiency...’, which is the same conclusion reached by Griffiths (2003).

Grenfell and Macaro (2007) asserted that strategy use and achievement were inextricably linked; nonetheless, the relationship between strategy use and successful learning is sometimes suspected or complicated. For instance, Rees-Miller (1993) claims that there is no empirical evidence that proves the relationship between strategy awareness and learning success. Other scholars have attributed learning success to different factors. Grenfell and Harris (1999), for example, found that proficiency levels may not be able to determine learners’ strategy use. They referred to other factors such as learning styles and the nature of the task. They called for more careful examination of the relationship between proficiency, achievement and strategies. Macaro (2001) linked successful and unsuccessful deployment of strategies to factors other than learning stage or proficiency level. Those factors include limitations of working memory, lack of linguistic resources, and lack of motivation. He believes that less successful learners lack not only the range and combinations of strategies, but also metacognitive strategies. In two studies (Mochizuki, 1999; Wharton, 2000), it was found that more motivated Asian university students used strategies more frequently than did less motivated students. According to Takeuchi *et al.* (2007), this may indicate that motivation is another factor that affects strategy use or that strategy use leads to higher motivation. In listening, Macaro *et al.* (2007, p. 168) highlighted vocabulary and grammar knowledge as important issues that play an important role in a listening task, which makes the difference between successful and less successful listeners. They believe that the notion of ‘the more strategies the better’ has been rejected. In their view, success in listening is linked to greater linguistic knowledge, as well as using different LLS in different combinations in which metacognition plays a very important role.

Many studies have found that successful learners reported using more strategies than less successful learners, although other studies have found that this relationship does not always hold as reviewed below.

In a study by Green and Oxford (1995), 374 university students at the University of Puerto Rico were divided into pre-basic, basic, and intermediate English levels and completed the SILL to measure their strategy use. The goal was to describe variation in overall strategy use, strategy use through SILL categories, and strategy use at the individual item level. The findings showed greater use of strategies among more successful learners compared to less successful learners. Many

advanced students in the intermediate group and many low intermediate students in the basic group might affect the findings of this study in terms of the relationship between strategy use and proficiency. Thus, the intermediate group used more strategies than did the basic group, although the difference in strategy use between them was not significant. The significant difference in strategy use was between the pre-basic group and the basic and intermediate groups.

In a similar study on the relationship between proficiency and strategy use, Dreyer and Oxford (1996) gauged 305 Afrikaans university students' strategy use through the SILL. Students' scores on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) were used to measure their listening and reading abilities. Pearson correlation was used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between students' scores on the TOEFL and their strategy use. The findings revealed that the correlation between students' TOEFL scores and strategy use was positive and highly significant. Even though the findings of this study presented the overall correlation between SILL parts and students' overall scores in TOEFL, the results of the correlation between individual strategies in SILL and individual parts of TOEFL (listening, structure and reading) were not presented.

Park (1997) investigated the relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency with around 332 Korean university students, whose strategy use was measured with the SILL and their proficiency, with TOEFL scores. This study found that the relationship between strategy use and L2 proficiency was linear, and that all six categories of LLS listed and overall all strategies listed in the SILL were significantly correlated with students' TOEFL scores. In other words, more proficient learners frequently used more strategies than less proficient learners. TOEFL used in this study did not measure students' speaking and writing skills, although many strategies listed in SILL are related to these two skills. Therefore, the correlation between strategy use and TOEFL scores in this study is more relevant to listening, structure and reading skills than to speaking and writing. This study suggested teaching LLS in classrooms based on these demonstrated benefits.

In the same vein, Griffiths (2003) explored the relationship between reported strategy use and course level in 348 international students learning English in New Zealand. Students' initial level of English ranged from elementary to advanced based on their Oxford Placement Test scores. All students completed the 50-item version of Oxford's (1990) SILL to measure their frequency of language learning strategy use. The results revealed a statistically significant relationship between reported strategy use and the level of the course in which students were enrolled; advanced learners reported significantly more frequent use of strategies than beginner students did. There were individual exceptions to this general finding, as Kang (who made good progress) did not report high, frequent strategy use and May (who failed to make progress) reported high strategy use. This can be attributed to other factors, such as age (as participants in this study were of different ages (14–64)), nationality (as participants in this study came from different backgrounds (21 countries)) and different proficiencies (elementary, mid-elementary, upper elementary, pre-intermediate, mid-



intermediate, upper intermediate, and advanced). This somehow attracts the attention of the reader in being careful while looking at such findings with this kind of variety.

Developing another survey (the English Language Learning Strategy Inventory) to measure strategy use, Griffiths (2008) investigated the relationship between strategy use and proficiency using this new inventory rather than Oxford's (1990). She divided 131 international students learning English in a private language school in New Zealand into elementary, intermediate, and advanced based on their Oxford Placement Test scores, as in Griffiths (2003). This study found that higher-level students reported significantly more frequent use of strategies than lower-level students did. This is confusing because participants were first divided into elementary, intermediate and advanced based on their proficiency test. If elementary students were lower-level and advanced students were higher-level, what about the intermediate students? It seems that intermediate students emerged at both lower and higher levels or students at each proficiency level were divided into higher and lower levels, which is unclear.

The relationship between strategy use and language proficiency was also investigated by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006). In this study, 55 ESL university students from different cultural backgrounds joined an intensive English programme at Southwestern University in Georgetown, Texas, USA. Their English proficiency levels ranged from beginner to advanced based on their scores in the placement test as provided by their language institute. They completed Oxford's (1990) SILL to gauge their frequency of strategy use. The findings show that students who used more strategies made faster progress in their language learning than those who employed less strategies. The relationship between strategy use and language proficiency in this study was found to be curvilinear, revealing that students at the intermediate level reported more use of learning strategies than at beginning and advanced levels, which differs from Park (1997), who found the relationship to be linear (more proficient students frequently used more strategies than did less proficient students). This asserts that the relationship between strategy use and learning success is really complicated.

Although many studies have demonstrated a significant positive correlation between strategy use and success in learning, as seen, there are also a number of studies that have found this relationship inconsistent. For example, Porte (1988) interviewed 15 adolescent EFL learners studying at a private school in London, who were classified as under-achieving based on their performance in placement tests, homework, and classwork. The interviews aimed to investigate LLS used by these learners when they dealt with new vocabulary. Results gained from structured interviews showed that similar to good language learners, poor or under-achieving learners used strategies to deal with new vocabulary. The study attributed strategy use in the classroom to factors related to present or past language learning experiences. Data presented in this study were few and mainly qualitative due to structured interviews. Supporting these data with more data through the use of another instrument may strengthen the findings of this study. Furthermore, the findings showed only that

poor learners and good learners similarly used strategies, without further investigation into how strategy orchestration was deployed by both poor and good learners.

The same conclusion was reached by Vann and Abraham (1990), who focused on two unsuccessful language learners (based on a range of scores and data) to discover reasons behind their lack of success. Interviews about their learning experiences and strategies they used while learning English showed that both unsuccessful learners were involved in think-aloud discussions and a series of typical classroom tasks. The findings revealed that the two unsuccessful learners were similar to successful learners in terms of their strategy repertoire, and that they were active strategy users though they sometimes applied strategies inappropriately. This may indicate that low-achieving learners are able to use a considerable amount of strategies though inappropriately which makes them equal to high-achieving learners in terms of strategy repertoire. Although different instruments were employed so as to collect data in this study, the sample is very small. Comparing the findings of only two successful male learners with those of two less successful female learners is limited in terms of the number of participants and for some researchers is unfair, as previous studies such as Oxford and Nyikos (1989) have shown that female learners use strategies more frequently than do male learners.

In another study, Gardner *et al.* (1997) investigated the relationship between several individual factors (language attitude, language aptitude, motivation, anxiety, self-confidence, and learning strategies) and measures of achievement in a second language. A sample of 102 university students learning French in Canada completed a learning strategies questionnaire and a short language history questionnaire. The researchers had access to the participants' final grades in French in addition to their scores on four different language tests, which showed no significant correlation between language learning strategies and achievement in L2. Although participants in this study indicated that they had studied French for an average of 11.37 years, which seems a considerable amount of time during which to improve students' proficiency, and the researchers managed to access students' final grades and other tests' scores, nothing is mentioned in relation to participants' language proficiency. With regard to learners with different language proficiencies possibly using different strategies, nothing is known because of the lack of information about participants' proficiency. Therefore, the findings of this study regarding the correlation between strategy use and achievement need to be precisely looked at.

It can be difficult, to some extent, to compare the findings of the above-reviewed studies because of the variety of some important factors such as age, context, and level of language proficiency, which is also the case regarding the variety of methods used to identify more and less successful learners in these studies. In terms of proficiency tests, for example, some researchers have used proficiency tests designed by the schools or institutes in which they conducted their studies, while some other researchers have used standardised tests such as TOEFL to measure participants' proficiency. Furthermore, some of the above-reviewed studies highlighted that learners recognised the

importance of certain strategies, which does not necessarily mean that they could use them. The findings of some of the above-reviewed studies cannot be generalised to greater populations due to sample sizes and aspects of randomness.

This complicated relationship between strategy use and learning success encouraged Cohen and Macaro (2007, p. 280) to differentiate between ‘proficiency’, ‘achievement’, ‘success’ and ‘expertise’. Consequently, they asked for discussing the relationships between strategy use and proficiency in a skill, strategy use and the rate of progress (achievement), strategy use and success at a task, and strategy use and the expertise of participants. They presented other factors that need to be controlled while exploring the relationship between strategy use and proficiency or achievement, such as the level of linguistic knowledge, the first language in reading and writing, and initial levels of motivation. By controlling those factors and using more sophisticated ways of analysis, they believe that it can be moved beyond the evidence of a correlation between strategy use and success towards a causal representation. According to them, this causal representation can be: a) unidirectional, where effective strategy use results in success regardless of variability in linguistic knowledge or whether lower linguistic knowledge excludes using specific strategies; or b) bidirectional or circular, where strategy use leads to success at a task or where success at a task leads to strategy use. Cohen and Macaro (2007) call for transformation to establish causation, rather than remaining at the level of correlation.

These inconsistent findings on the relationship between strategy use and successful language learning have led some scholars in the field (Griffiths 2013, 2015; Griffiths and Oxford 2014; Oxford 2011) to suggest that the relationship between strategy use and proficiency is complex. This has promoted researchers to consider the appropriate use and management of strategies (Dörnyei and Ryan 2015). For instance, Macaro (2006, p. 332) stressed that in research ‘... successful learning is no longer linked to the individual learner’s frequency of strategy use, but to his or her orchestration of strategies available to him or her.’

#### **2.4.6 Strategy Orchestration**

Strategy orchestration is considered as a complex phenomenon (Griffiths 2013). The term refers to the learner’s ability to effectively employ strategies in combination. Lacking strategy orchestration might be what made the poor language learners in Porte (1988) and Vann and Abraham (1990) choose inappropriate strategies and use them ineffectively. For Anderson (2008, p. 101),

Effective strategy use does not occur in isolation. Often we discuss the use of a strategy as if it happens all by itself. Understanding the interdependency of strategy use while engaged in a language learning task is an important learning experience. Being metacognitively aware of strategy use allows good language learners to integrate the use of various strategies in a positive way.

Macaro (2006) claims that a strategy should be combined with other strategies, whether in sequences or simultaneously, to be effective in language learning, a concept known as ‘strategy clusters’. He demonstrated that strategy orchestration requires a higher level of metacognition and thus metacognitive strategies are responsible for monitoring and evaluating cognitive strategies used. Thus, as explained further in 4.5.2.1, the NCLRC’s (2004) Metacognitive strategies (organize/plan learning; manage learning; monitor learning; and evaluate learning) and Task-based strategies, which mostly include cognitive strategies, were chosen for strategy instruction in the present study to activate strategy orchestration among participants.

In one of very few studies to have discussed strategy orchestration, Vandergrift (2003) attempted to explore strategy orchestration by identifying listening strategies used by 36 adolescent learners of French in Canada. Participants were divided into more skilled and less skilled listeners based on a listening comprehension test. Data were collected using a think-aloud protocol while participants were engaged in listening to authentic texts, and were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. Results showed that more skilled listeners were able to systematically orchestrate a cycle of metacognitive and cognitive strategies to reach a better understanding of the text.

From a pedagogical perspective, Griffiths (2013) suggests that strategy orchestration is not an easy skill to teach in the classroom for the following reasons: a) any particular strategy combination that suits a language learner may not suit another, due to factors such as age, nationality, gender, etc.; b) strategy combination requires a context where a language learner may not use the same strategies in different situations, which means it is difficult to elicit effective strategy orchestration; and c) each language learner is required to experiment with strategy orchestration to determine the combination that produces successful learning. However, Griffiths (2013) calls for discussion of strategy orchestration with students in the classroom, as it may help them benefit from available possibilities and gain more fruitful outcomes.

In the current study, students were always encouraged to orchestrate or cluster strategies while doing a task. Using the Teacher’s Booklet, designed for the purpose of strategy instruction, teachers in the experimental group provide a variety of strategies for students and prompt them to try using more than one, which is expected to result in better learning and smoother task achievement.

## **2.5 Summary**

This chapter has presented an overview of LLS. In the second section, a brief historical background was introduced, including the birth of the concepts of ‘good language learners’ and ‘language learning strategies’. The first spark that ignited the field of LLS was Rubin (1975), which recognised that good language learners had certain learning ways (strategies) that enabled them to be better language learners (Oxford *et al.*, 2014b). Based on this insight, scholars tried to identify

these strategies and teach them to less successful language learners. Next, a theoretical background was provided, in the third section of the chapter. It encompassed how LLS are represented in cognitive theory; the link between LLS, declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge; and Macaro's (2006) cognitive framework and Oxford's (2011) theories. The sociocultural perspective on LLS was highlighted as another important theoretical dimension LLS rely on; and there are also other relevant theories such as audiolingual theory. Although it is now four decades since strategy research began, this aspect of strategy, which depends on multiple theoretical underpinnings, makes it hard for researchers in the field to come up with theoretical consensus (Griffiths, 2013, 2015; Oxford, 2011; Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015). This problem hampered research in the field and prompted scholars to call for the adoption for the alternative concept of 'self-regulation' (Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003); however, continuous research and publications in the LLS field have supported the continued use of the term strategy. The fourth section discussed some issues relevant to LLS, such as their definition, the criticism of a slippery definition, their characteristics, their purpose and importance, and their classification. Some scholars in the field prefer to describe features of strategies rather than defining them as a whole (Macaro, 2006; Cohen and Macaro, 2007; Griffiths, 2008, 2013) as the latter may lack robust theoretical rigour. In this spirit, researchers have classified strategies by function (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford 1990), by goal (Cohen, 1998), and by language skills (Cohen and Weaver, 2006). Strategy classification is another point of criticism in the field, however, with some researchers rejecting the practice and others still pushing for an adequate operational definition for the field (Griffiths and Oxford, 2014). Next, we considered strategy awareness-raising, which plays a very important role in dealing with LLS. Many studies have concluded that strategy awareness-raising has a positive effect on strategy use, on the hand, and also on proficiency and on learner variables such as motivation. The relationship between strategy use and learning success was also reviewed, and it was observed that there is a split between studies that show that strategy use positively affects learning success (Green and Oxford 1995; Park, 1997) and those that find no relationship (Porte, 1988; Gardner *et al.*, 1997). This controversy has attracted researchers to consider the appropriateness and quality of strategies used and also to keep in mind the status of strategy orchestration as a factor that may contribute to successful learning (Cohen and Macro, 2007; Macaro, 2009). This chapter ended by further discussing strategy orchestration, a highly complicated process that researchers nevertheless call to be deployed in the classroom through strategy instruction; however, despite the suggestive findings, few studies have been conducted in this area, and more research is still needed to better understand this complex mental process.

For the purposes of the present study, the literature in this chapter has assisted in finding a suitable strategy definition of LLS that meets the purpose of the study. The literature also directed the present study's adoption of a classification of LLS by language skill, into listening strategies, vocabulary strategies, speaking strategies, reading strategies, and writing strategies. The present study intends to fill gaps in literature regarding the effect of strategy instruction on strategy

awareness. Although there are a small number of studies that have investigated the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness, there are still calls to carry out more studies in this regard. Students in the experimental and control groups having completed the LSUS twice makes the present study distinctive from previous studies in measuring students' strategy awareness before and after the intervention. Completing the LSUS itself is considered a way of raising students' strategy awareness. Furthermore, the present study intends to contribute towards a better understanding of the relationship between strategy use and learning success through strategy instruction. By involving students in a strategy instruction programme that raises their strategy awareness and renders them better strategy users, they can be frankly asked at the end of that strategy instruction programme whether it has contributed to their improved proficiency or whether their improved proficiency has contributed to their strategy use. Hopefully, this may contribute to understanding the complex relationship between strategy use and learning success.

In the next chapter, strategy instruction (the main intervention in the present study) will be reviewed in depth, including consideration of learning styles as an important factor in the learning process and as part of the framework used in the strategy instruction programme carried out in this study. Studies in LLS instruction and studies on the relationship between LLS and learning styles will also be reviewed in the following chapter.

## **Chapter 3: Strategy Instruction**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter provided a historical and theoretical background for LLS and an overview of the debate on defining and classifying LLS. It also reviewed strategy awareness-raising, strategy use and learning achievement, and strategy orchestration, as major issues related to LLS. This chapter, in contrast, focuses on strategy *instruction*, as follows. First, the question ‘What is strategy instruction?’ is taken up, in the second section; the purpose and importance of strategy instruction are highlighted in the third section; then, methods of strategy instruction are explained in the fourth section; models designed for strategy instruction in previous literature are summarized in the fifth section; the sixth section briefly discusses the language of strategy instruction; the seventh presents studies on the effect of strategy instruction in the four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) plus vocabulary; and under the eighth section, learning styles are reviewed in relation to strategies and strategy instruction. The review of learning styles first defines them, presents seven major learning styles established in previous literature, considers relationships between styles, strategies and motivation (highlighting the significance of ‘style-stretching’), and introduces the SSBI framework, model used for the purpose of strategy instruction in the current study. The chapter concludes with a group of studies conducted to examine the relationship between styles and strategies.

### **3.2 What is Strategy Instruction?**

Strategy instruction refers to ways in which teachers can help students become more effective learners (Oxford, 1990; Chamot, 2004). Oxford (2011, p. 175) defined learning strategy instruction as ‘the teacher directly teaching learning strategies to a group of students in a language classroom’. Similarly, Cohen (2011, p. 116) believes that strategy instruction is ‘explicitly teaching students how to apply language learning and language use strategies.’ These definitions align with Cohen (1998) and Chamot *et al.* (1999), who defined strategy-based instruction as intensive strategy instruction in the classroom incorporating LLS.

Thus, strategy instruction involves teachers delivering direct, explicit instruction in a group of LLS parallel with their daily language teaching in the regular language classroom. The taught LLS should be chosen carefully to serve exercises at hand effectively; they also should be presented overtly to students, by naming them and explaining when and how to use them to achieve particular tasks. Students should have the opportunity to practice using these strategies in authentic language exercises and should be allowed to judge their benefits. Strategy instruction is considered to be an

important variable affecting strategy use and thus success in language learning, as we saw in 2.4.5 above.

In the present study, strategy instruction is defined as explicitly teaching a list of metacognitive and task-based strategies (mainly cognitive) through a language textbook (Language Leader, Elementary) using the SSBI framework in regular language classrooms.

### **3.3 Purpose and Importance of Strategy Instruction**

The literature shows that more effective L2 learners use more LLS and usually have a wider repertoire of LLS than less effective L2 learners. Acquiring LLS may thus benefit those less effective learners in their L2 learning (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). A 'repertoire' here is like a bank of strategies that allows a learner to pick and choose the appropriate one in a given context (Griffiths, 2013). Language learners routinely use LLS (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 2011; Cohen, 2011; Griffiths, 2013), however, most of them are unaware of these LLS or use them improperly. Cohen mentioned in Cohen *et al.* (2014, p. 20) that he was a strategy user when he began learning other languages, but 'not an enlightened one.' The present study hopes to increase students' strategy awareness and repertoires through strategy instruction. Gu (2010, cited in Oxford, 2011) believes that the central point of language learning strategy research is maximizing the outcomes of learning through support to learners provided by teachers and curricula. He believes that instruction in strategic learning can result in better learners. In the present study, strategy instruction was utilized by teachers via the students' language curriculum to enable students to apply strategies to exercises and hopefully gain such a learning benefit.

In the USA, the National Capital Language Resource Center (NCLRC) (2004, pp. 10-11) stated important reasons for strategy instruction as follows. First, better learners have greater metacognitive awareness, which assists them choose the most appropriate strategies; second, most language learners have the ability to learn strategies; third, however, while strategies can be employed to achieve different tasks, guidance is needed for students to do so; fourth, strategy instruction increases students' motivation by increasing their confidence in their learning abilities and providing them with particular tools for successful learning; and fifth, students who successfully manage to use strategies become more self-reliant and have the advantage in independent learning.

Nyikos (1996) states that teachers who teach LLS may enable learners to override some of their educational limits in addition to helping them expand their ability to compensate for missing knowledge, increase comprehension, and develop linguistic competence. She recommends that teachers integrate procedural knowledge of LLS into their classes, which will contribute to creating a learner-centred classroom. In such an environment, teachers will be better able to understand their students' difficulties and will become more effective in helping their learners overcome these



obstacles. In fact, shift from a teacher- to a learner-centred classroom requires more learning responsibility to be taken by students, as Cohen (1998, p. 21) reflects with the comment that 'language learning and language use strategies can have a major role in helping shift the responsibility for learning off the shoulders of the teachers and on to those of the learners.' According to Cohen (2011), learners will be more encouraged to 'learn how to learn' or 'learn how to use' the L2 in a learner-centred situation. Although in the context of the present study, the main responsibility remained with the teacher, the present researcher also affirms that it is time to make students more responsible for their learning.

Wenden (1991) is also in favour of assisting learners to be more autonomous. She stresses that the absence of strategy training may lead learners to be overly dependent on their teachers. In the same vein, the goal of strategy instruction according to Oxford and Leaver (1996) is to help learners be more self-directed, autonomous, and effective by improving their use of LLS. They suggest that strategy instruction teaches students to be better learners through:

- 1) identifying and improving strategies that are currently used by the individual; 2) identifying strategies that the individual might not be using but that might be helpful for the task at hand, and then teaching those strategies; 3) helping students learn to transfer strategies across language tasks and even across subject fields; 4) aiding students in evaluating the success of their use of particular strategies with specific tasks; and 5) assisting students in gaining learning-style flexibility by teaching them strategies that are instructively used by students with other learning styles. (Oxford and Leaver, 1996, p. 227)

Chamot *et al.* (1999) indicated that the goal of teaching LLS is to help students control their language learning consciously. This should result in motivated, efficient, independent language learners. Additionally, the ultimate goal of strategy instruction, as Cohen (2011, p. 116) stated is 'to enhance the language learners' [learning] act'. As stressed in NCLRC (2004), 'strategic students' see themselves as more academically successful than those who do not use LLS. This successful learning leads to increased motivation among strategic students. By implementing strategy instruction, the present study hopes to provide students with some LLS that may assist them to become autonomous learners in their lifelong English learning, not only during college. If students managed to become at least partially autonomous after strategy instruction, it is also expected that their motivation will improve.

Providing strategy instruction to L2 learners will improve their learning skills and language skills. This improvement will provide them with the necessary tools to:

1. self-diagnose their strengths and weaknesses in language learning;
2. become more aware of what helps them to learn the target language most efficiently;

3. develop a broad range of problem-solving skills;
4. experiment with both familiar and unfamiliar strategies for L2 learning and use;
5. make decisions about how to approach a language task;
6. monitor and self-evaluate their performance; and
7. transfer effective approaches to strategy use to new L2 contexts. (Cohen, 2011, p. 117)

From the teaching perspective, the present study attempts to alert language teachers in Saudi Arabia to the need to consider their own language teaching. Oxford *et al.* (1990) stated that when teachers teach strategies in the classroom, they feel that their role in the classroom is mostly to facilitate learning. In other words, their role is to prompt students to think of how to learn language beside learning language content. According to Oxford *et al.* (1990), through strategy instruction, teachers can become more learner oriented and more aware of their students' needs. They may also start thinking more about their teaching styles and whether they matches their students' learning styles and strategies, and if needed altering their teaching styles to make them more effective.

It is more important for learners to master how to learn than simply to learn (Chamot *et al.*, 1999; Zhang, 2008; Rubin, 2001; Wenden, 2002). The present study is an attempt to raise students' awareness of their own ways of learning and to provide participating students with new LLS in order to increase their strategy repertoires. Creating learner-centred classrooms, being more autonomous and more self-regulated or strategic, taking conscious control of language learning, and having better language proficiency are among the purposes the present study intends to achieve through strategy instruction.

### **3.4 Methods of Strategy Instruction**

Researchers interested in strategy instruction have provided instruction in two different ways. Some have recommend strategy instruction in dedicated courses or programmes, while others recommend integrating strategy instruction into regular L2 courses. However, Cohen (2011) stressed that there is no single best way to conduct strategy instruction. This section will give more details about these two approaches and will shed light on the advantages of explicit strategy instruction integrated in regular language classrooms—the method used in the present study.

#### **3.4.1 Strategy Instruction in Separate Courses**

Strategy instruction in separate courses began in 1989, when Ellis and Sinclair provided a course called '*Learning to Learn English: A Course in Learner Training*'. This course aimed to assist learners to think about factors that affected their language learning, recognise LLS that would help them be effective learners, and take more responsibility for their language learning (Ellis and Sinclair, 1989). In another programme, Flaitz and Feyten (1996) provided separate strategy

instruction to American university students learning Spanish. The purpose of this programme was to raise consciousness and use of strategies. The teachers praised the programme and found that it had been effective for their students, which shows that separate strategy instruction sessions can be very effective if they are properly conducted through well-designed programmes. In the same vein, Cohen started his course 'Practical Language Learning for International Communication' at the University of Minnesota (USA) in 2001. This course encompassed L2 LLS, learning styles, motivation, and culture. The main goal was to enable students to learn languages and culture effectively whether in their home country or abroad. In this course, students identified their already used LLS and their learning styles, and learned more about language learning from their peers through participation in classroom discussions. This course yielded a book called *Maximizing Study Abroad: A Students' Guide to Strategies for Language and Culture Learning and Use*, from which the present study has borrowed some taught strategies in the strategy instruction programme. This course was effective, as students at the end of the course were able to transfer the information to their own L2 learning through recognising their currently used strategies, adding new strategies to their strategy repertoires, identifying their learning styles and considering strategy preferences (Paige *et al.*, 2006).

Oxford (2011, p. 179) enumerated the advantages of strategy instruction in separate courses or programmes as follows: First, strategies learned within a language class for certain tasks might be less likely to transfer to other tasks compared to when they are learned task independently. Second, some L2 teachers are not prepared to integrate strategy instruction into their courses, and it takes significant time and effort to teach them how to do so. Third, strategy instruction that is unintegrated with L2 instruction might actually be preferred by motivated, adult learners whose time is limited and who are capable of applying the principles and practices on their own. Cohen (2011) believes that strategy instruction can be delivered separately through general study-skills instruction, lectures, workshops and modules, peer tutoring, and strategy materials in textbooks and on websites. The advantages of teaching strategies in separate courses according to Cohen (2011) include developing students' general learning strategies, making students more efficient, and making them more active towards their language learning.

Although the separate approach of strategy instruction seems to have some advantages, the present study did not adopt it. Instead, strategy instruction in the present study was explicitly integrated into a language learning course, not only because most researchers (Chamot, 2004, 2008; Cohen, 1998, 2011; Harris and Grenfell, 2004; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, 2011) are in favour of strategy instruction in the regular language classroom context, but also to practically instruct students in strategies through language textbooks to enhance their ability to apply strategies to actual tasks and to examine the effectiveness of strategies for language learning.

### **3.4.2 Explicit Strategy Instruction Integrated into L2 Courses**

Researchers since the 1990s have generally supported direct strategy instruction in dedicated L2 classes (McDonough, 1999). Oxford (1990) said that strategy instruction that fully informs the learner (by indicating why the strategy is useful, how it can be transferred to different tasks, and how learners can evaluate the success of the strategy) is more successful. Grenfell and Harris (1999, p. 104) stressed that ‘the purpose of strategy instruction should be made explicit to the learners’, which may be done by integrating strategy instruction into everyday lessons. According to the NCLRC (2004), teaching LLS does not mean finding a separate set of strategy lessons where LLS are taught; it should be part of regular language classroom activities to discuss students’ strategies and thoughts. LLS taught in the present study were covered by exercises in the students’ textbook, which was used to conduct the present study.

#### **3.4.2.1 Advantages of Explicit Strategy Instruction**

Cohen (2011, p. 139) states that explicit strategy instruction will help L2 learners become more aware of:

- 1) how they learn most effectively; 2) how they can enhance their own comprehension and production of the target language; 3) how they can continue to learn on their own and communicate in the target language after they leave the language classroom.

He added that this kind of strategy instruction assists learners to become more responsible for their efforts in learning and using the target language, and ultimately makes them more effective learners. One important advantage Cohen (2011) refers to is that explicit strategy instruction is not specific to any given teaching methodology or culture, and can be applied across contexts. Explicit strategy instruction tends to make the learners’ own strategy repertoire more functional and supportive and simultaneously to enable learners to decide which strategy to use, when to use it, for what purpose, and how (Cohen, 2011). Through his long years of training on strategy instruction, Cohen (2011) concluded that although explicit strategy instruction is time consuming, teachers who apply it report that students become more efficient in completing language tasks, take more responsibility for their learning outside of class, and gain more confidence in their ability to learn and use language.

Explicit strategy instruction is helpful to identify when a given strategy might be useful, model the strategy with a specific L2 task, provide learners time to practise the strategy, and teach learners how to evaluate whether the strategy is useful and when it should be transferred to other tasks and situations (Oxford, 2011). Leaver (2003) claimed that such instruction may reduce time spent in achieving higher language proficiency levels. Finally, Oxford (2011) showed that such strategy instruction helps not only learners but also teachers develop metacognitive awareness of their own

learning and their students' learning, in that it not only enables language learners to practice and encourage self-regulation but also allows teachers to observe and question students regarding their learning and model learning strategies, and assists teachers in identifying a given student's strategies and encouraging other students to try them out (Oxford, 2011). Given these several advantages, explicit strategy instruction integrated in regular language classrooms was deployed in the present study through Cohen and Weaver's (2006) SSBI framework which is one of other frameworks (O'Malley and Chamot (1990); Oxford (1990, updated 2006); Grenfell and Harris (1999); Chamot, *et al.* (1999), Chamot (2004 and 2005); and Macaro (2001)) designed for strategy instruction as will be explained in 3.5 below.

### 3.5 Strategy Instruction Frameworks

Researchers interested in strategy instruction have developed several similar frameworks or models for doing so. One early-1990s attempt to explicitly instruct students in LLS is O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), which, as Chamot (2007) claimed, imparted to learners significant content knowledge and skills, improved language proficiency, and improved LLS. In 1990, Oxford presented her model for strategy instruction (updated in 2006). The model includes six steps which can be explicitly applied in a language classroom to further LLS instruction. Oxford claimed that this model is useful for long-term strategy training as well as closely tied to regular language learning. Cohen (1998), later updated by Cohen and Weaver (2006), presents the Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI) framework, which aims to help learners use LLS appropriately according to their learning style preferences. The current study is mainly based on this model, which will be discussed in more detail in 4.6.3. Grenfell and Harris (1999) present a six-step cycle model that, they suggest, provides two advantages: first, directly on the assimilation of the language; second, indirectly in building up a repertoire of cognitive skills which can be employed in pedagogic and natural learning contexts. Chamot *et al.* (1999, updated in Chamot, 2004, 2005), presented another strategy instruction model, which also contains six steps that L2 learners and their teachers should go through to achieve effective strategy instruction. Macaro (2001) introduced his cyclical model for strategy instruction, with nine steps. He suggested that strategy training needs to be presented to students as a serious undertaking, and has to cater to individuals' different learning styles and personalities.

In all these models, strategy instruction is applied in steps that L2 learners and teachers are meant to perform. Indeed, the models share most of their steps, although they sometimes differ from each other in the number of steps or the order. Table 2 below summarizes the models.

Table 2: Strategy instruction frameworks

	Oxford (1990, 2006)	O'Malley and Chamot (1990),	Cohen (1998 ) Cohen and Weaver (2006), SSBI	Grenfell and Harris (1999)	Chamot <i>et al.</i> (1999), Chamot (2004, 2005)	Macaro (2001)
<b>1</b>	Prepare: Identify Current Strategies, Raise Initial Awareness: Students identify current strategies for familiar tasks. Teacher considers motivational and cultural issues regarding strategy instruction	Students identify their current strategies	Teacher as diagnostician: Helps students identify current strategies and learning styles  *Strategy Preparation	Awareness raising: Students complete a task, then identify the strategies they used	Preparation: Teacher identifies students' current learner strategies for familiar tasks	A) Raise the awareness of students  B) Explore possible strategies available
<b>2</b>	Continue to Raise Awareness: Learners do a task 'cold,' without any strategy instruction. They discuss how they did it (strategies). Brainstorming of strategies	Teacher explains additional strategies	Teacher as language learner: Shares own learning experiences and thinking processes  *Strategy Awareness-Raising	Modelling: Teacher models, discusses value of new strategy, make checklist of strategies for later use	Presentation: Teacher models, names, explains new strategy; asks students if and how they have used it	C) Modelling by teacher and/or by other student
<b>3</b>	Model and Name Strategies: Teacher (or strategic learner) names and models (demonstrates)and explains new strategies, stressing the potential benefits	Teacher provides opportunities for practice	Teacher as learner trainer: Trains students how to use learning strategies  *Strategy Instruction	General Practice: Students practise new strategies with different tasks	Practice: Students practice new strategy; in subsequent strategy practice, teacher reduces reminders to encourage independent strategy use	D) Combining strategies for a specific purpose or task  E) Application of strategies with scaffold support

<b>4</b>	Practice: Use, Combine, and Monitor Strategies: Learners practise the new strategies and make strategy combinations (strategy chains)	Teacher assists learner in evaluating their success with new strategies	Teacher as coordinator: Supervises students' study plans and monitors difficulties  *Strategy Practice	Action Planning: Students set goals and choose strategies to attain these goals	Self-evaluation: Students evaluate their own strategy use immediately after practice	F) Initial evaluation by students  G) Gradual removal of scaffolding
<b>5</b>	A) Evaluate and Transfer: Learners evaluate effectiveness of strategies. Teacher or learner shows how strategy can be transferred to other tasks.  B) Expand and Adapt: Learners apply strategies to further tasks		Teacher as coach: Provides ongoing guidance on students' progress  *Personalization of Strategies (evaluation)	Focused Practice: Students carry out action plan using selected strategies; teacher reduces prompts so that students use strategies automatically	Expansion: Students transfer strategies to new tasks, combine strategies into clusters, develop repertoire of preferred strategies	H) Evaluation by students (and teacher)  I) Monitoring strategy use and rewarding effort  (Continue cycle)
<b>6</b>	Learners Continue to Increase Ownership: Learners continue to monitor use and evaluate success.			Evaluation: Teacher and students evaluate success of action plan; set new goals; cycle begins again	Assessment: Teacher assesses students' use of strategies and impact on performance	

Adapted from Cohen and Macaro (2007), Griffiths (2008), and Oxford (2011)

As the table shows, the models share much of their content. All models share a *preparation* step except Grenfell and Harris (1999). Preparation in this sense takes place through asking L2 learners to identify their current LLS or helping them do so, for example by asking them direct questions (e.g. what do you do when you are unable to understand the meaning of a word in a reading text?) or distributing questionnaires. Among the questionnaires that have been widely used to identify L2 LLS is Oxford's (1990) SILL. In the present study, participants in this step identified not only their LLS but also their learning styles, through a strategy survey and a style survey respectively.

Second, *raising awareness* seems to be a clear and discrete step in Grenfell and Harris's (1999) model and in Macaro's (2001). However, it is conflated with preparation in the other models. Raising awareness involves doing a task and brainstorming the strategies used, or exploring possible available strategies, or sharing learning experiences and thinking processes. In the present study model, students' awareness explicitly defined to include their awareness of the learning process, their learning styles, strategies they already use, and their responsibilities for their learning.

Third, the *modelling* step is set out in the models of Oxford (1990, 2006), Grenfell and Harris (1999), and Macaro (2001); in the other three models, it is called the *presentation* step. Modelling or presenting a strategy in a way that demonstrates its value is normally the duty of the teacher or strategic learners. In the present study, after hearing from students, teachers are supposed to model and name different strategies, show their benefits, and show when and how to use them.

Fourth, the *practice* step is shared by all models. Practicing strategies is a duty of L2 learners, and the opportunity to do so should be ensured by the teacher. Teachers may provide some scaffolding and/or reminders while learners use given strategies. In the present study, students were given considerable scaffolding (how to apply strategies, e.g. helping learners to differentiate between a new word's parts of speech or using antonyms, for instance, *able*, *unable*, *enable*, *ability*, *inability*), particularly in the early stages of the intervention.

Fifth, the *evaluation* step appears clearly in almost all models, although they differ in terms of who evaluates the strategies. Oxford (1990, 2006), Cohen (1998), Cohen and Weaver (2006), Chamot *et al.* (1999), and Chamot (2004, 2005) suggest that it is students who should evaluate the use and effectiveness of a given strategy, whereas Chamot (2004, 2005) suggests that teachers should do so. O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Grenfell and Harris (1999) suggest that teachers should assist their students to evaluate the effectiveness and use of a given strategy, whereas Macaro (2001) suggests that evaluation should be initially by students and later by both students and teachers. In the present study, students were given the opportunity to evaluate the use and effectiveness of given strategies, and teachers then reflected on students' evaluations for taught strategies.



Sixth, the *expansion* step is clear in the models of Oxford (1990, 2006), Chamot *et al.* (1999), and Chamot (2004, 2005), while it appears as a kind of further practice and gradual removal of scaffolding and reminders in the models of Grenfell and Harris (1999) and Macaro (2001). That expansion takes place as strategies are applied to further tasks and combined in chains or clusters (orchestration). In the present study, students were given opportunities to try different strategies for learning different language skills, and orchestration was stressed.

### **3.6 The Language of Explicit Strategy Instruction**

‘Teachers should not feel guilty about using the L1 for the purpose of strategy training’ (Macaro, 2001, p. 271). To conduct strategy instruction in regular language classrooms, the language of instruction (L1 or L2) needs to be taken into consideration. Chamot (2004) notes that beginning language learners are not proficient enough to understand strategy instruction in the target language, but that at the same time beginners need strategies and should not wait until they become advanced language learners to receive instruction in them, since that takes time and they would lose the benefit of early exposure to strategies. McDonough, in Archibald (2006) pointed out that as a result a large proportion of strategy training is conducted in L1, particularly for beginner and intermediate learners. Some studies, such as Florez (2000) and Rybicki (2002), have involved provision of strategy instruction to beginner learners in their mother tongue, while others, such as Grenfell and Harris (1999), Ozeki (2000), and Chamot and Keatley (2003; cited in Oxford, 2011), have used a combination of the mother tongue and target language in strategy instruction. However, the NCLRC (2004) suggests that the language of strategy instruction should be the target language to the degree possible, including the names and basics of the strategies.

Although Chamot (2004) noted that this issue is far from being resolved, she advised that if all students in a classroom and their teacher share the same native language, they can be initially taught strategies in their native language. Alternatively, Chamot (2004) stressed providing a name in L2 for each strategy, explaining or defining the strategy in simple words in the target language, and repeatedly modelling the strategy. Grenfell and Harris (1999) encouraged using the target language as much as possible in teaching strategies, except with the most inexperienced learners (where instruction should be in their native language). In the present study, both teachers, the researcher, and the students all spoke Arabic as their native language, and the students’ English proficiency level was basic. Thus, the strategies were named, defined, and explained entirely in Arabic.

### 3.7 Studies in Strategy Instruction

Though not always successful, the findings of many strategy instruction studies have been generally positive (Hassan *et al.*, 2005). Nonetheless, some L2 strategy instruction studies have been unsuccessful or inconclusive (Oxford, 1994). When we review studies that have looked at the effect of strategy instruction on language skills, we notice that few studies have discussed the effect of strategy instruction on writing in L2 (Manchón *et al.*, 2007). Studies conducted on the effect of listening strategy instruction are again few in number, as Macaro *et al.* (2007) assert. They claim that it is difficult to draw clear conclusions as to what the key factors of successful listening strategy instruction might be, adding that it is still unclear in the literature whether listening strategy instruction can be implemented effectively. As for speaking strategy instruction, Nakatani and Goh (2007) stated that there is a conflict in the results of studies dealing with the effect of strategy instruction on communication strategies and on speaking in general: some have found it effective, while others have not. In their review of studies of instruction in vocabulary learning strategies (VLS), Nyikos and Fan (2007) found that there were three distinctive forms of intervention studies: a) metacognitive awareness studies, b) teacher-led VLS studies, and c) task-induced VLS studies. In terms of vocabulary strategy instruction, the present study is a mixture of these three forms, as it aims to increase students' awareness of all types of strategies; implements strategy instruction led by two teachers and the researcher; and uses mostly task-induced strategies. Learner voice and equal instructional time were lacking in previous intervention studies in relation to vocabulary (Nyikos and Fan, 2007). Finally, Erler and Finkbeiner (2007) call for further studies of SBI that include different levels of reading proficiency, in different languages, with different L2 learners in different settings. In fact, the current study might be one reply to that call.

Above and beyond the basically mixed nature of the findings, very little is known about teaching LLS explicitly in the classroom in various specific contexts, such as the Saudi context. The review of previous studies in this section is divided into three subsections in order to review studies of the effect of strategy instruction on learners' language proficiency in the first subsection, studies of the effect of strategy instruction on learners' strategy use in the second subsection, and studies of the effect of strategy instruction on both learners' proficiency and strategy use in the third subsection.

#### 3.7.1 Effect of Strategy Instruction on Language Proficiency

One of the early studies on reading strategies instruction was conducted by Kern (1989), who studied 53 university students doing level three French at the University of California, Berkeley. The study was aimed at evaluating the effect of strategy instruction on French students' reading comprehension and determining what type of learners derive greatest benefit from it. Students were divided into an experimental group, which received explicit reading strategy instruction, and a control group which did not. Instruction in reading strategy use was integrated into the course

curriculum and took place over six in-class hours and five homework hours distributed over eight weeks. The results showed that teaching comprehension strategies (e.g. making and confirming predictions, creating pre-reading expectations, identifying a text's macro-structure, and using textual redundancy, context, signalling cues, and background knowledge to enhance comprehension) explicitly had a strong positive effect on L2 readers' comprehension gain scores. This study is important to the present study as some of the reading strategies in it are similar to the ones used here (predict what will come in the text, check for prior knowledge of the topic, and infer the meaning of words and ideas based on clues to meaning in the text).

In one of the rare studies in the Saudi context, McMullen (2009) questioned whether use of LLS was affected by gender or academic field of study and whether strategy-based instruction helped Saudi EFL students improve their writing abilities. About 165 male and female university students from three Saudi universities enrolled in the same English composition classes participated in this study. Data were collected through Oxford's (1990) SILL, a comparison of students' marks in English composition pre- and post-strategy-based instruction, and a self-report questionnaire. Strategy instruction in this study depended on Cohen and Weaver's (2006) SSBI model, which is used in the present study, and the data were collected over one academic year. Results related to strategy-based instruction in writing showed that 15 out of 16 participants in that part of the study gained higher marks on an English composition post-test. McMullen (2009, p. 430) concluded his study by humbly asking, '*Where is the LLS research from Saudi Arabia?* While the rest of the world has heeded the call for strategy-specific research, the EFL research community in general remains in the infancy stage in Saudi Arabia'. In fact, this study was a major inspiration for conducting the present study since there are limited studies on strategy instruction in the Saudi context.

One of the earliest studies in listening strategies instruction was by O'Malley *et al.* (1985). This study aimed to discover, classify, and measure frequency of LLS in vocabulary, speaking, and listening, and see if metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective LLS can be taught successfully. A total of 75 high school ESL students participated, divided into two experimental groups and one control group. Students in the first experimental group (metacognitive group) received instruction in the use of one metacognitive strategy, two cognitive strategies, and one socio-affective strategy. The second experimental group (cognitive group) received instruction only in cognitive and socio-affective strategies. The control group did not receive any strategy instruction. Explicit strategy instruction was integrated into a language course for 50 minutes per day, for eight days. Three listening strategies were taught: 1) *selective attention*, where 'students were instructed to listen selectively for linguistic markers typically used in lectures to present an overview, a main topic, main points, examples, and a conclusion or summary'; 2) *note-taking using a t-list*, 'in which main points are entered on the left side of a page and corresponding examples or details are entered on the right'; and 3) *cooperation* using 'peers and a resource.' Data were collected through pre- and

post-test, multiple-choice questions, and videotapes. The results concerning listening were inconclusive; although students' listening scores in both treatment groups were higher than in the control group, the difference failed to reach significance. Although inconclusive, the study indicated that strategy instruction can be effective if it is integrated into a language task, which was the basis for the present study to conduct strategy instruction through tasks and exercises presented in the students' language textbook.

O'Malley *et al.* (1985), mentioned above, also instructed two speaking strategies: functional planning (plan out in advance what you want to say, in the present study), and cooperation (ask for help, ask for correction and ask question to be involved in a conversation, in the present study). It tested speaking by comparing scores on pre- and post-tests. The results showed that students' scores in the both treatment groups significantly increased in comparison to the control group. Strategy instruction was found to positively affect organization and comprehensibility in speech in particular (O'Malley *et al.*, 1985). The feasibility of strategy instruction in enhancing listening, speaking, and vocabulary skills (three language skills together) in this study was another motive for conducting strategy instruction in reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary in the present study.

Graham and Macaro (2008) investigated whether a programme of strategy instruction can improve listening comprehension among English learners of French as a foreign language. They also discussed whether a level of scaffolding while instructing the strategy improves listening comprehension, and the effects of strategy instruction on self-efficacy beliefs for listening comprehension. The findings showed that the strategy instruction programme positively affected listening comprehension. Students in the two experimental groups (high- and low-scaffolding groups) outperformed those in the control group in Time 2 and Time 3 however the control group outperformed the two experimental groups in Time 1. Although students in the high-scaffolding group outperformed students in the low-scaffolding group in the second listening test, the reverse happened in the third listening test after six months. This study provided the inspiration for considering scaffolding as an important element for students while practicing strategies. Based on this, the present study considered the use of bottom-up strategies and provided helpful materials to students during strategy instruction.

In another study, Rasekh and Ranjbary (2003) investigated the effect of explicit metacognitive strategy training on the development of the lexical knowledge of Iranian EFL students. About 53 male and female intermediate students aged between 19 and 25 studying in an intensive English programme were divided into a control group and an experimental group. Both groups received VLS instruction for ten weeks, taken from the textbook that students were studying in a *Headway* pre-intermediate course (an English language textbook published by Oxford University Press). Students in the experimental group also received explicit instruction on metacognitive strategies, built on the CALLA model. All students participated in a pre- and a post-test to compare their

performance in vocabulary before and after the intervention; the findings showed that students in the experimental group surpassed their counterparts in the control group, and thus that explicit instruction of metacognitive strategies positively affected the lexical knowledge development of EFL students. This study was a model for the present study to choose the language textbook (*Language Leader, Elementary*), which students used for the purpose of strategy instruction, and to employ strategy instruction through the SSBI model.

### **3.7.2 Effect of Strategy Instruction on Strategy Use**

Raymond (1993) examined the effects of strategic training in several organizational patterns of discourse (description, collection, causation, problem solution and comparison) on the reading recall of 43 university-level Anglophones reading well-structured expository texts in French. Strategy instruction was deployed over five hours spread over two weeks. Raymond found that although strategy training in second language reading is highly complex and difficult to undertake, students in the experimental group recalled more ideas from the text than their peers in the control group. The current study was inspired by this study to consider factors other than strategy instruction that may contribute to students' proficiency, particularly in the intervention group. It listed other factors, such as the interaction of the strategy with text content, reader interest and background knowledge, and reader perceptions of text difficulty, that contributed to participants' higher scores on the reading tests, which make it compatible with findings of the present study.

In another study, Ikeda and Takeuchi (2003) investigated the effect of explicit strategy instruction for 210 Japanese university students learning English as a foreign language, at different proficiency levels. Explicit strategy instruction in reading strategies was conducted for 20 minutes in each 90-minute weekly class. Strategies taught in this study included parsing the sentences into phrasal groups, guessing unfamiliar words from context identifying the topic sentence in each paragraph to understand the outline of a passage, using keywords in a title and attached questions to understand the outline of a passage (similar to , identifying keywords and sentences carrying the main ideas in the present study), using visual aids to understand the outline of a passage, using discourse markers to comprehend a passage more, and summarizing each paragraph after reading (similar to writing summaries in the present study). The results showed that the explicit strategy instruction increased the frequency of strategy use by high-proficiency learners, who retained this increase when retested five months later. However, low-proficiency learners in both control and experimental groups used the same number of strategies. This means that strategy instruction was not effective enough to make low-proficiency learners change their strategy use frequency. In addition to sharing a few reading strategies, this study also prompted the present study to consider the effect of strategy instruction on less-successful and successful students.

Sasaki (2002) investigated learners' process in English expository writing among Japanese EFL writers, divided into 12 experts and 22 novices. The study was built on hypotheses resulting from Sasaki's (2000) pilot study, which had compared experts and novices in terms of text length, writing speed, time spent before starting to write, revision, planning, and overall organization of writing before v. after strategy instruction. Strategy instruction lasted two semesters in this study. Rereading (similar to going back to go forward in the present study), rhetorical refining, local planning (similar to planning out what you are going to write in the present study), and translating from L1 to L2 were taught as writing strategies to all writers. Sasaki (2002) used multiple data sources, including written texts before strategy instruction and after, videotaped writing behaviours, and simulated recall protocols. The results indicated that although novices did not improve their writing fluency, their writing abilities did seem to have improved. Novices also decreased their translation from L1 to L2 while or before writing, and spent more time planning the content of their writing before starting to write. Finally, strategy instruction guided the writing processes of all writers. This present study also incorporated this idea of comparing students' writing proficiency through their written texts prior to and after the intervention, and monitor the writers' strategy use from the beginning of the intervention until the end.

Chen (2009) examined how EFL learners in Taiwan changed listening strategy use during a listening strategy instruction course, with 31 participants of different listening proficiency levels enrolled in 14 weeks of strategy instruction consisting of strategy awareness-raising in the classroom; demonstrating, discussing, and practicing strategies in the classroom; and reflection on listening processes out of the classroom. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected through reflective journals. The results showed that students were better at employing more sophisticated metacognitive strategies that enabled them to control their listening after instruction than before, and used more strategies effectively. It also found that students' higher awareness of cognitive strategies led their strategy use to shift from bottom-up (understanding word by word) to top-down (understanding the gist), resulting in more effective comprehension, which stressed the importance of teaching both top-down and bottom-up listening strategies in the present study.

In a quasi-experimental study, Fraser (1999) provided explicit metacognitive strategy instruction for eight (ESL) high- and low-proficiency Francophone university students in Canada. The eight hours of strategy instruction given over one month in this study included instruction in three lexical processing strategies: ignoring unfamiliar words, consulting a dictionary, and inferring meaning from the text. Data were collected from students' written reflections on eight reading texts over five months to elicit their lexical processing strategy use with unfamiliar words and from a cued recall task implemented one week after each reading task to measure students' learning of new words. The results showed that some lexical processing strategies lead to higher retention rates, and that when students used two strategies together (e.g. consulted dictionaries and inferred meaning from

the text) their recall increased more than when they used only one, which was a method used in the present study to emphasize the role of strategy orchestration and to encourage students to adopt it.

In her PhD study, Tassana-ngam (2004) investigated the effect of training in five VLS on Thai university students. Around 69 students of mixed proficiency levels, aged 19 to 22, from second, third and fourth years, were divided into a control group and an experimental group. Students in the control group received extra reading work while students in the experimental group received VLS training—around nine hours in both cases. Data were collected through pre-and post-tests of vocabulary, think-aloud protocols, and semi-structured interviews. The findings showed that students in the experimental group significantly outperformed their counterparts in the control group in their ability to learn words, reacted positively towards VLS training, and had increased awareness of the need to select suitable VLS. This study explained how to teach very important VLS, such as dictionary work, grouping word families and semantic mapping, which contributed to teaching these VLS and others in the present study.

### **3.7.3 Effect of Strategy Instruction on Proficiency and Strategy Use**

In a quasi-experimental study, Zhang (2008) examined the willingness of Chinese ESL university students in Singapore to engage in strategy-based reading instruction, and whether such instruction would lead them to adopt particular reading strategies. A group of reading strategies were taught in this study: previewing or surveying a text, reading headings or subheadings to get a gist of a text (similar to skim the text in the present study), scanning for highlighted words or expressions (scan the text in the present study) and summarizing main ideas of a text by re-reading it (write summaries and reread for clarification in the present study); and metacognitive strategies such as checking correctness of comprehension (monitor ongoing understanding of the text in the present study) and checking the effectiveness in strategy use (decide how effective the strategies were in helping you accomplish the task in the present study). Although strategy instruction was not always successful, students were familiar with strategies and gave examples of having used them, which was the motivation for hearing student voices and getting their feedback on the effect of strategy instruction in this study. The findings also showed that students in the experimental group benefited from strategy instruction and their reading performance was significantly improved on post-test.

Sasaki (2004) conducted a three-and-half-year longitudinal study to investigate changes in writing behaviours of 11 Japanese students based on the strategy instruction provided in Sasaki (2002). Using a stimulated recall protocol, students' written texts and videotaped writing behaviour data were analysed in this study. The results showed that L2 proficiency, L2 composition quality, and L2 writing fluency were improved both in students staying in Japan and in those who went to the United States after receiving instruction in planning and revision strategies. This present study was

supported by this study to adopt teaching useful writing strategies such as planning out what you are going to write, editing grammar and mechanics after your ideas are written, and making major revisions after your ideas are written down.

In an intervention study, Nguyen and Gu (2013) investigated whether training in metacognitive self-regulation strategies may lead to improved writing in English and if this improvement may be maintained. Participants were 91 Vietnamese university students, divided into an experimental group (37 students) and a control group (54 students). Students in the experimental group received eight weeks' metacognition training incorporated into their academic writing course. Strategy instruction involved metacognitive strategies such as planning strategies, monitoring strategies, and evaluating strategies. Participants in the experimental group were able to plan, monitor, and evaluate their writing better than their counterparts in the two control groups. Training in metacognitive self-regulation strategies helped the experimental group achieve significantly higher scores in writing than the control group. The present study followed this study in including in its strategy instruction programme many metacognitive strategies such as plan how to accomplish the task (planning strategy for all language skills), correct yourself (monitoring strategy for speaking and writing), assess how well you have accomplished the learning task (evaluation strategy for all language skills). See Appendix D for the list of metacognitive strategies taught in the present study.

Although he criticised some aspects of LLS research, Dörnyei (1995) also examined the teachability of communication strategies as a supporting attitude for strategy instruction. In his study, 109 Hungarian EFL secondary school students were divided into one treatment group (received strategy instruction in communication strategies) and two control groups (one received nothing at all except their regular lessons and one received conversational training supplement to their regular language classes). A strategy instruction programme was provided to students in the treatment group for three lessons a week, lasting up to 40 minutes each time, for six weeks, embedded in a regular English course in the classroom. Students in the experimental group were trained on three communication strategies: topic avoidance and replacement, circumlocution, and using fillers and hesitation to remain in the conversation. To gather data, the study used written and oral tests before the treatment and an oral test after the treatment, in addition to a questionnaire done by the treatment group. The results showed that there is no guarantee that communication strategies can be taught, although post-training results showed improvement in the quality and quantity of communication strategies use. Overall students' speech rate was improved (significant improvement in speech rate among students in the treatment group and in the conversational training group but no significant change among students in the no-treatment group). Moreover, students in the treatment group had favourable attitudes towards strategy instruction after the intervention. The favourable attitude of students toward strategy instruction in communication as seen in this study prompted the implementation of strategy instruction in speaking strategies in the present study to get both students' and teachers' feedback toward the provided strategy instruction.



Cohen *et al.* (1996) conducted a study to examine the effect of explicit strategy instruction on students' speaking proficiency, specifically, the relationship between frequency of strategy use and task performance on speaking tasks, as well as students' reasons for using given strategies while performing a speaking task. The findings showed that students in the experimental group outperformed students in the control group in the third speaking skill (city description); however, the means of differences in the first (self-description) and the second (story retelling) speaking skills were not significant. Also an increase in the use of certain strategies among students in the experimental group was reported. The authors recommended engaging learners in discussions of LLS, reviewing strategy checklists, and practicing LLS in the classroom as effective learning activities which induced the present study to apply these recommendations and examine their effectiveness. This study is important to the present study as most of the speaking strategies taught in it were taught in the present study (e.g. lower your anxiety, plan your responses and contributions, ask for clarification, encourage yourself, etc.).

A total of 62 Japanese college students participated in Nakatani (2005) who studied the effect of explicit oral communication strategies instruction on students' speaking proficiency, including discourse and how students perceived their speaking test performance and strategy use in retrospective verbal report protocols. The findings showed that students in the experimental group improved their speaking proficiency in comparison to students in the control group, making longer utterances and using more strategies than students in the control group. However, Nakatani (2005) found that strategy instruction is not always effective for all students. Data from retrospective protocols showed that oral communication strategies instruction did help learners to be aware of some strategies that improved their speaking, which consequently was used in the present study to raise students' strategy awareness to improve their speaking proficiency through strategy instruction.

Over a ten-week semester, Mizumoto and Takeuchi (2009) examined the effectiveness of explicit instruction in VLS on 146 EFL Japanese university students. All students were involved in a vocabulary test to check their vocabulary knowledge and proficiency level. Based on the test, students were assigned to an experimental or a control group. A set of cognitive and metacognitive strategies were explicitly taught to students in the experimental group. The same test was administered at the end of the study to compare students' improvement. Alongside the vocabulary test, participating students took a VLS questionnaire before and again after the intervention to assess changes in their strategy use. Moreover, nine individuals from the experimental group were interviewed to triangulate the methodology. The findings showed that students in the experimental group outperformed their peers in the control group on the vocabulary test, and that explicit strategy instruction was effective in increasing strategy repertoire and frequency of using strategies. In terms of methodology, this study encouraged the present study to consider administering the LSUS twice (pre and post intervention) in order to gain a better understanding of students' strategy

awareness. This study also guided the present study to interview students from the experimental group in order to get their feedback on the strategy instruction programme and triangulate the methodology.

The abovementioned studies in 3.7.1, 3.7.2 and 3.7.3 differed in many aspects. For instance, some of the studies focused on strategy instruction in more than one skill; however, some others focused strategy instruction on only one skill. Furthermore, strategy instruction delivered in these studies varied between explicit strategy instruction delivered through curricula and implicit strategy instruction integrated through language teaching via additional materials. The length of the strategy instruction varied from one study to the next, which may have affected the level of strategy awareness and students' proficiency. Furthermore, strategy instruction in some of the above studies included metacognitive awareness raising, which may have contributed to the findings of those studies in terms of raising students' strategy awareness in contrast to studies that did not include metacognitive awareness raising. The majority of the studies above contained an experimental and control group, which is essential in comparing the effect of strategy instruction; however, some of the studies did not use any comparison group, which makes it somewhat difficult to understand the effect of strategy instruction. Moreover, in terms of students' performance or students' scores in tests that measured their language proficiency, the studies above differed: some of them measured students' proficiency through pre- and post-tests, while others carried out only one test and students' scores were taken from standardised tests such as TOEFL or from tests produced by schools. However, the findings of the abovementioned studies cannot be underestimated.

In sum, the studies above show mixed results relating the effectiveness of strategy instruction. It seems that strategy instruction might be successful with some LLS, language skills, or learners but not others. Griffiths (2013, p. 149) puts it as follows: 'Previous research into strategy instruction has produced very mixed results and much research remains to be done to clarify questions of instructional effectiveness and teacher's role in the process'. These controversial results have contributed to the criticism directed at strategy instruction research. For instance, Kellerman (1991) limits strategy instruction to showing language learners how they can transfer strategies they employ in their L1 to their L2. Hassan *et al.* (2005, p. 62) state that 'there has been little standardisation of either the packages of interventions or the outcomes that were measured', making synthesis of studies and evaluation of the preponderance of evidence difficult.

Nevertheless, there persists a strong feeling that language learning success is linked to the use of LLS (Macaro, 2006). Two studies, by Gillette (1994) and Rees-Miller (1993), present evidence against this link by a number of unsuccessful interventions which led to the argument that there was no demonstrated causal relationship between L2 learning success and strategy awareness; certainly, not all strategy users become good language learners as Macaro (2006) explained. From Rees-Miller's (1993) point of view, it is better to spend time on direct language teaching rather than on the process of strategy instruction. In response to these open issues, by conducting strategy

instruction in the Saudi context the present study hopes to at least substantiate positive effects on language learners (as some of the abovementioned studies did). Calls for more strategy instruction studies in all language skills were a major part of the motivation for the current study, whose results can be compared to those of other studies to help get a firmer sense of the precise effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness and language proficiency.

The following section will discuss learning styles and their relationship with strategies, as strategy instruction in the current study is entirely based on the SSBI model of Cohen and Weaver (2006), of which styles are an intrinsic part.

## **3.8 Learning Styles**

Learning styles are an essential learner variable in the present study. This section will shed light on the following: learning style definition; learning styles discovered in the literature, with more focus on those examined in the present study; the relationship between learning styles and learning strategies, stressing the importance of style-stretching and motivation; SSBI as it represents strategy instruction in this study; studies that have investigated the relationship between learning styles and strategies, and critique and problematizing for the learning style theory.

### **3.8.1 Learning Style Definition**

Learning style, according to Reid (1995, p. viii), 'refers to an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills.' Oxford (2003, p. 2) defined learning styles as 'the general approaches—for example global or analytic, auditory or visual—that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject.' Cohen (2011) points out that researchers in educational psychology and in the L2 learning area have noticed that learners approach their learning in significantly different manners—known as learning styles, which he defines as 'general approaches to, and preferred ways of, learning' (p. 37). According to Ehrman (1996), learning styles cannot be dichotomous (black or white, present or absent), but 'operate on a continuum or on multiple, intersecting continua' (p. 3). This means that a language learner can be more visual than auditory or more extroverted than introverted, etc.

Learning style has sometimes overlapped with strategy in the literature. Stern (1975) for example positioned 'personal learning style' among the strategies utilized by good language learners. Given some uncertainty about such definitions, a group of scholars in the field of learning styles put forward the following consensus definition: 'Learning styles are individuals' preferred ways of responding to learning tasks which change depending the environment and context. They can affect a person's motivation and attitude to learning and shape their performance' (Armstrong *et al.*, 2012, p. 451). The confusion between style and strategy has been stressed by other scholars, such

as Griffiths (2013) and Dörnyei and Ryan (2015). One study, Reid (1995, p. ix), refers to learning styles as ‘internally based characteristics’, while strategies, as we saw in 2.4.1, are actions or activities language learners use to improve their learning. Bailey *et al.* (2000) concurred: ‘Whereas learning styles represent unintentional, or automatic individual characteristics, learning strategies are actions chosen by students that are intended to facilitate learning’ (p. 118). Another way to differentiate between learning styles and strategies is that learning styles are usually expressed as adjectives (e.g. *visual*, *extroverted*, *global*, etc.) as in Oxford (1995), or as nouns (*converger*, *assimilator*, *diverger*, etc.) such as Kolb (1976) whereas strategies are expressed as verbs particularly gerunds (*guessing the meaning*, *using flashcards*, *paying attention to keywords*, etc.) as a result of their active nature, or first-person verbs as in Oxford’s (1990) SILL (I *use* rhymes to remember new English words, I *try* to find patterns in English, I *think* about my progress in learning English) (Griffiths and İnceçay, 2015).

### 3.8.2 Discovered Learning Styles

The mid-1970s saw the recognition and explicitization of the concept of learning styles. Dunn *et al.* (1975) constructed the earliest instrument to measure learning styles, called the Learning Style Inventory. This inventory divided learning styles into five: *environmental*, *emotional*, *sociological*, *physiological*, and *psychological*. One year later, Kolb’s (1976) Learning Style Inventory included four types of learners: converger (active/abstract), accommodator (active/concrete), assimilator (reflective/abstract), and diverger (reflective/concrete). One of the most influential instruments to measure learning styles was Reid’s (1987) Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire. This instrument includes five learning styles: *visual*, *auditory*, *tactile*, *kinaesthetic* (all measured on a one-way scale) and *individual vs. group* (measured on a two-way axis). Oxford (1995) came up with 11 styles in her Style Analysis Survey (SAS), placed on one three-way field and several axes: *visual/auditory/hands on*, *extroverted/introverted*, *intuitive/concrete-sequential*, *closure-oriented/open*, and *global/analytic*. Her scheme contributed to the Learning Styles Survey (LSS) by Cohen *et al.* (2002b), which is the instrument used in the present study. The LSS includes 23 learning styles, placed into axes that are then categorized into types: 1) Sensory/Perceptual Learning Style: *visual/auditory/kinaesthetic* or *tactile*. 2) Psychological (Personality) Type: *extroverted/introverted*, *random-intuitive/concrete-sequential*, *closure-oriented/open-oriented*. 3) Cognitive Learning Style: *global/particular*, *synthesizing/analytic*, *sharpenner/leveller*, *deductive/inductive*, *field-independent/field-dependent*, *impulsive/reflective*, and *metaphoric/literal*. Only seven learning styles (*visual/auditory/kinaesthetic* or *tactile*, *extroverted/introverted*, and *global/particular*) representing the three categories were chosen to be examined in the present study as including all of them is beyond the capacity of this study.

### **3.8.2.1 Sensory/Perceptual Learning Styles**

This learning style category deals with how language learners use their physical senses. Visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic/tactile learning styles are placed under this category; if a language learner comes out as, for instance, more visual than auditory or kinaesthetic/tactile, s/he relies more on his/her sense of sight, learning best through visual means such as books, charts, pictures, and video. Language teachers should support visual learners by providing various visual aids. Oxford (1995) believes that 50% to 80% of students in any classroom are predominantly visual. Learning styles can vary by culture, thus, Arab students have been said to be strongly visual (Reid, 1987). Nel *et al.* (2014) mentioned that Arab learners of English use a variety of visualization strategies. Auditory learners rely on the sense of hearing while learning; language teachers are expected to provide opportunities for those learners to listen to lectures, and discussions in addition to recapping verbally. Arab students are strongly auditory as shown in Reid (1987). Kinaesthetic/tactile learners prefer learning through touching and manipulating, for example through writing, drawing, or tracing. Language teachers are expected to provide these students with more hands-on activities such as using models and dolls, acting, and movement practice. Arab students are strongly kinaesthetic learners according to Reid (1987). In terms of language achievement, audio-visual learners scored better than hands-on learners according to Tutunis (2001) though this is not always true.

### **3.8.2.2 Psychological Type (Personality)**

Although personality seems an independent learner variable, it is merged with other learning styles in Cohen *et al.*'s (2002b) survey used in the present study. This category deals with how open a language learner is to a learning situation. Only two personality types were retained for this category in current study: extroversion and introversion. If a language learner is more extroverted, s/he is probably open to the outer world, where s/he enjoys social and interactive learning activities. From a strategy use perspective, extroverted learners tend to use more social strategies and to be talkative and sociable, as they enjoy interacting with others (McCrae and John, 1992). Teachers are expected to provide them with interactive learning tasks such as discussions, debates, games and role-plays. Extroverts are commonly said in the literature to be the best language learners (Dewaele, 2004; Griffiths, 2013; Tutunis, 2001). Arabs are extroverted learners (Harshbarger *et al.*, 1986; Willing, 1988; both cited in Oxford, 1994). In contrast, if a language learner is more introverted, s/he is probably more open to his/her inner world, where s/he prefers to concentrate and work independently. Introverted learners prefer using more cognitive strategies. Thus, teachers are advised to encourage them to engage in independent work such as reading, or studying alone. Despite the overall support in the literature for the idea that extroverts are better language learners, introverted learners are overrepresented among the best language learners, as

Ehrman (2008) reported. However, the relationship between personality styles (extroverted and introverted) and language achievement is often not direct or linear (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015).

### **3.8.2.3 Cognitive Learning Styles**

This category focuses on how a language learner receives information. For the current study, two cognitive learning styles were selected: global and particular. The global (sometimes called holistic or rational) language learner prefers getting the main idea and communicates comfortably even if there is some ambiguity. S/he has little problem guessing meaning from context if information is incomplete. Teachers are advised to provide activities and materials that allow global learners to understand the gist of what is said or written without needing to focus on the details. In a study by Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995), Arab English learners were found to be more global. On the other side, the particular learner (sometimes called analytical) tends to concentrate on details. S/he prefers setting goals, and responds to sequential or step-by-step presentation of material (Reid, 1995). Guessing from context is avoided when possible by particular learners (Oxford, 2003). Teachers who deal with particular learners should provide activities that involve identifying details, such as filling blanks with missing words (Cohen and Weaver, 2006). Global learners do better than analytic (particular) learners on language learning according to Tutunis (2001).

### **3.8.3 Styles-Strategies Relationship**

Learning strategies are associated with learning styles (Ehrman 1996); strategies and styles are woven together and influence each other (Oxford *et al.*, 2014a). Ehrman and Oxford (1990, p. 311) claimed that a language learner is ‘a complex composite’ of different learning style preferences that s/he uses to some degree, but that her/his preference attracts the language learner to one or the other pole of each style preference. They state that the choice of LLS is significantly affected by style, but also that that LLS and learning styles are in a close mutual relationship. Cohen (2011) stressed that there had only been a little focus on the relationship between learning styles and LLS, although the existence of such a relationship underlay the SSBI framework. He stated that ‘language learning and use strategies do not operate by themselves, but rather are directly tied to the learner’s underlying learning style preferences’ (p. 37). Oxford (2011) viewed styles as ‘comfort zones’ and noted that learners can stretch their comfort zones through practice. This emphasizes the role learning styles play in using LLS. This comment has encouraged many researchers (Kozhevnikov *et al.*, 2014; Gregersen and MacIntyre, 2014; Wong and Nunan, 2011; Griffiths and İnceçay, 2015) to support what is known as ‘style-stretching’, which allows language learners to extend their learning styles to draw on more strategies, as we will see below. One of the minor objectives of the present study is to flesh out this relationship in order to encourage students to stretch their learning styles if they want to acquire new strategies.

### 3.8.3.1 Style-Stretching

Although learning style has been considered a stable individual characteristic, style-stretching has also been highlighted in the literature (Griffiths and İnceçay, 2015). One early discussion of methods to help students learn outside their preferred ways by stretching their style came from Oxford *et al.* (1991), who suggested that it might be impossible to change someone else's learning styles but that it might be possible for a language learner to stretch his or her own learning style by drawing on new strategies to accomplish a task. Additionally, Oxford and Anderson (1995) claim that if learners are aware of their learning styles, they will also consequently be aware of things they can do to help them stretch those styles. As a result of this awareness, students will be also able to cope with teachers' unawareness of teacher-student learning style clashes, and learn even if their teachers do not accommodate students' styles. According to Dörnyei (2005, p. 157), 'students who can operate in a range of styles ... in a flexible manner are likely to become more effective learners'. In the same vein, Wong and Nunan (2011) point out that effective learners have stylistic flexibility, and Cohen (2011) argues for the value of encourage language learners to stretch their learning styles in order to acquire new learning approaches they resisted in the past.

But style-stretching is a hard job that requires much training and practice (Cohen, 2012; Oxford, 2001). In one of very few studies, Griffiths and İnceçay (2015) attempted to match style-stretching to successful learning. In their research, 106 Turkish university students completed a learning style survey and took a proficiency exam in reading, writing, listening and speaking. The results indicated that the most successful students were eclectic in their style preferences and more open to stretch their own style and accept other style preferences. Also, a demonstrable link was found between learning style and successful learning (most successful students had aural, communicative, and environmental preferences). In the present study, students in the experimental group were advised by their teachers not to stick to their identified learning styles, but to try extending them by using novel strategies or attempting strategies used by other classmates with different learning styles, hoping to end up with better strategy awareness and better language learning. However, this cannot be done effectively without motivating students to do so during strategy instruction. Thus, motivation is another learner variable strongly linked to strategy instruction in general.

### 3.8.3.2 Motivation

Lack of motivation may result in lack of progress in language learning even if a language learner has a sufficient strategy repertoire (Cohen, 2011). Ushioda (2008, p. 19) defines motivation as 'what moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, and to persist in action'. Motivation has two common types: *intrinsic motivation*, which is the desire to do something due to interest, enjoyment, or personal challenge, and *extrinsic motivation*, which the desire to do something due to external rewards such as money or grades (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Motivation occurs in a cycle of three phases, being generated in the first phase and maintained and protected in

the second phase; finally, the third phase is ‘motivational retrospection’, or retrospective evaluation of how the individual achieved a task (Dörnyei, 2005). Any of these phases is subject to failure. According to Ushioda (2008, pp. 21-22), intrinsically motivated learners have more interest to learn things well, and consequently ‘[s]uch learners are likely to display much higher levels of involvement in learning, engage in more creative thinking processes, use a wider range of problem-solving strategies, and interact with and retain material more effectively....’. Knowledge and use of a variety of LLS has a positive effect on learners’ motivation in all three phases, and motivation and strategies are very closely linked (Cohen, 2010). Cohen explained that if a computer devotee has been told that an L2 can be learned through computer games, this might be an incentive to initiate learning; and if the learner then properly uses strategies already familiar to him/her from his/her computer experience or new learnt, this might increase his/her self-confidence and through it improve success; then, in the retrospective stage, the learner will consolidate and increase his/her strategic repertoire which will be used in future language learning. Thus, Oxford (2011) argues, using strategies is fruitful in that it supports a number of motivational orientations.

### **3.8.4 Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction**

Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI) can be defined as a ‘learner focused approach to language teaching that explicitly highlights within everyday classroom language instruction the role of the learners’ styles...and strategies...in performing instructional activities’ (Cohen and Weaver, 2006, p. 3). The premise of SSBI according to Cohen and Weaver (2006) is to provide students with more opportunities to understand not only the language they are learning but also how they personally learn language. At the same time, SSBI allows teachers to not only teach language but also assist learners in:

- (1) developing their awareness of their own preferred learning styles, (2) determining the nature of their current language learning and language use strategy repertoire, and (3) both enhancing their current strategy repertoire while at the same time complementing it with additional strategies that may be of benefit, given their style preferences and the task that they need to accomplish in the target language. (Cohen, 2002, p. 49)

SSBI not only assists students to learn, but also provides tools for teachers (the LSUS and LSS) to help them learn more about their students in order to choose more appropriate activities that enhance their students’ learning. The twenty-first century has seen the emergence of SSBI as a unified model (Cohen and Weaver, 2006; Cohen, 2011; Oxford, 2001, 2011), based on the fundamental insight that LLS can be looked at through the lens of learners’ styles (Oxford, 2001). According to Ma and Oxford (2014), learning styles influence learning strategy use and vice versa; and studies have shown how particular learning styles may align with particular strategies, as we will see in section 3.8.5 below.



### 3.8.5 Studies in Styles and Strategies

Studies in learning styles have a longer history than those in LLS, but studies that investigate the effect of strategy instruction on learning styles are still very few in number. Rossi-Le (1989) investigated the relationship between perceptual learning styles (auditory, visual, tactile/kinaesthetic) and LLS. A sample of 147 immigrants from different countries who were learning English in a community college in the USA participated. The Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire was used to determine participants' learning styles, and the initial version of Oxford's (1990) SILL was used to measure their strategy use. Stepwise multiple regression, chi-squared, and multivariate analysis were used to investigate the relationships between styles and strategies, and showed the strongest correlation between visual style and visualization strategies. Rooted in the different background characteristics of participants, a complex system of interaction between styles and strategies emerged, which guides the present study.

In another early study in this area, Ehrman and Oxford (1990) explained how eight personality types/learning styles (extraversion, introversion, sensing, intuition, thinking, feeling, judging and perceiving) borrowed from Myers and Briggs (1976) are associated with preferred learning strategies. Participants were 20 American students at the Foreign Service Institute aged 25-52 and studying different languages. All of them were at least college graduates. Students were asked to complete a style survey in addition to Oxford's (1990) SILL; they were also interviewed (as is part of the institute's policy for all students). In brief, the results showed that students' strategies vary by style preferences, in particular that social strategies were highly preferred by extraverts and metacognitive strategies were highly associated with introverts. Ehrman and Oxford (1990, p. 324) asserted that:

The experience of most of the students leads to optimism about the potential for learning strategy training based on learning style...It is clearly possible for students to stretch themselves beyond the strategies that are normally related to their own style, and explicit training in learning strategies can help.

Like Ehrman and Oxford, the present study will check which LLS are preferred by students with which learning styles.

In another study, Carson and Longhini (2002) conducted a diary study to examine learning styles and strategies in an immersion setting. Carson, the diarist, was a professor in Applied Linguistics at Georgia State University, who went to Argentina as a Spanish beginner to teach graduate-level linguistics courses in English and to collaborate with Longhini, her host, a native speaker of Spanish and associate professor in the Department of Foreign Languages at the National University of Rio Cuarto. For eight weeks, Carson stayed with Susana, a female former teacher who spoke Spanish but not English, and with Longhini's family, who had some English ability but only spoke

Spanish at home. During her stay, Carson did not receive any formal instruction in Spanish, but kept a detailed diary of her Spanish learning. Carson completed a style analysis survey at the beginning of her learning, in addition to completing Oxford's (1990) SILL at the beginning, middle and end of the eight weeks of language learning. The diary totalled 19,732 words, and was read by Longhini weekly and often discussed with Carson. Carson's proficiency was not tested, but she arrived with very weak Spanish according to Longhini, while and after two months her Spanish was good. The style analysis survey showed that Carson's style was visual, introverted, and global; while her learning styles remained relatively constant throughout her time in Argentina, her strategies were somewhat more variable over time. Analysing the diary entries, Carson and Longhini (2002) stated that the strategies Carson used were affected by her learning styles, and extrapolated that while strategies may vary within individuals, styles seem more consistent and predictable. However, they emphasized that if language learners are aware of their learning styles and strategies, they can manipulate them both, a lesson taken to heart by the present study, which tries to make participants aware of their styles and strategies and to ask them if they have preferred strategies and consider the results by style.

In a study testing the hypothesis that holistic (global) learners prefer strategies related to holistic comparison and analytic (particular) learners tend to use strategies related to description and segmental perspectives, Littlemore (2001) tested 82 Belgian university students (native speakers of French) studying English. They completed a French version of the computer-based Cognitive Style Analysis test designed by Riding (1991) and their communication strategies were identified through a concrete picture description task. The results showed that holistic or global learners used a higher number of holistic conceptual strategies than analytic or particular learners, who used a higher number of analytic conceptual strategies. For instance, describing a picture of a swordfish, holistic learners indicated that 'It reminds me of a shark', while analytic learners described a walrus as 'It got big teeth and it's very fat and erm it's grey' (Littlemore, 2001, p. 253).

Liyanage and Bartlett (2013) conducted a study to explore the association between LLS and personality types. A sample of 948 students aged between 16 and 18 learning English in government schools in Sri Lanka took a language learning strategy inventory and the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire to find out what strategies would be reported by extroverted and introverted learners. The findings showed that extroverted learners had a stronger positive relationship with the domain cluster of strategies than introverted learners, though when this domain cluster was disaggregated into metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective strategies there were mixed findings across personalities. In a metaphor, this study noted that the chameleon changes its colour due to internal states such as emotion as well as to external factors such as danger. In the same way, strategy use is affected by internal states such as personality as well as by external factors such as learning contexts (Liyanage and Bartlett, 2013). This study brings up learning context as an influential factor, which is reflected in the current study.

### 3.8.6 Learning Style Theory: Critique and Problematizing

Coffield (2005) states: 'The field of learning styles suffers from almost fatal flaws of theoretical incoherence and conceptual confusion.' This is due to the reasons summarised by Riding (2000, p. 368): a) many scholars generated a large and bewildering array of labels claiming to be different learning styles; b) many scholars designed and used ineffective and questionable assessment instruments to measure learning styles; c) scholars were unable to make a clear distinction between learning style and other constructs such as intelligence and personality; and d) scholars have been slow to demonstrate the practical utility of learning styles. Critiquing and problematizing learning style theory can be summarised in the following points:

Firstly, work on learning styles started earlier than work on learning strategies. Learning style theorists have presented a variety of models with which to classify learning styles, as explained in 3.8.2. In fact, there is no consensus on a single model being the most accepted one with which to measure learning styles. Those learning style models have many similarities and dissimilarities, with a focus on different aspects such as sensory modalities, environmental preferences, types of personality, and cognitive styles. This inconsistency in learning style theory and in measuring learning styles has resulted in much criticism in this area.

Secondly, mixing learning styles with personality is sometimes another issue when it comes to classifying learning styles. Myers and Briggs' (1976) indicator is an example of how some scholars (e.g. Ehrman and Oxford, 1995) overlap personality with learning styles, which has led to criticism from many scholars. There is somewhat of a lack of clarity between what personality and learning styles are, which indicates the difficulty in distinguishing between those two constructs. This problem has its origins because scholars are still inconsistent in defining and measuring both personality and learning styles.

Thirdly, learning styles have also overlapped with learning strategies. Hartley (1998, p. 149) defined strategies as being 'selected by learners to deal with different tasks', while learning styles 'might be more automatic than learning strategies which are optional'. Cassidy (2004) simplified the difference between learning styles and strategies in a 'motherboard/software' and 'hard/soft' wiring analogy wherein style is the motherboard with hard wiring and strategy is the software with soft wiring.

Fourthly, many instruments have been designed to assess learning styles. Using these learning style measurements has been found to be problematic for some reasons: firstly, those learning style instruments were designed for a particular reason in a particular cultural context; secondly, the findings of those instruments may not gain the same results in other contexts with different cultural backgrounds; consequently, they cannot be generalised throughout cultures (Liyanage and Bartlett,

2013). Nonetheless, De Bello (1995) claims that many or all proposed instruments of learning styles are valid and he called for more empirical work so as to support this validity.

Fifthly, for many years it was believed that learning styles were stable, but now there is a kind of change in this view. Although learners usually have their own learning styles, some scholars, such as Sharma and Kolb (2011), stress that learners can adapt their preferred learning styles and navigate between them. Kozhevnikov *et al.* (2014) encourage learners to switch between styles based on the task at hand. Style flexibility has become an emerging theme of significance, with the recommendation that teachers encourage their students to develop appropriate styles in order to better accomplish new tasks (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015).

Despite these obstacles, attempts are still being made to gain a better understanding and utilisation of learning style theory. Although much research has been conducted in this area, it is still growing.

### **3.9 Summary**

This chapter has presented an overview of what strategy instruction is, and has highlighted its purpose and importance. Many scholars believe that strategy instruction yields better and more autonomous language learners, and assists learners to be strategically self-regulated, which results in better outcomes. Learners who were instructed in LLS were more aware of their learning, developed a broad range of strategies, and showed more responsibility for their learning.

Methods through which strategy instruction can be effectively implemented were also introduced, with a focus on direct explicit strategy instruction in the classroom, the method employed in the present study. As discussed above, this method was chosen because embedding strategies in regular language classes enables students to practice them in real learning situations, while teaching strategies explicitly raises students' awareness of their own learning.

The frameworks used in strategy instruction were compared, with particular attention paid to the steps involved in each, which we saw to be similar in Table 2. These models normally start by preparing students for strategy instruction and raising their awareness of strategies. That is followed by naming and modelling instructing students in given strategies, including how and when to use them. Then, students are given the opportunity to practice those strategies, after which students, teachers, or both evaluate the effectiveness of those strategies.

The language in which strategy instruction is conducted (Arabic, the learners' L1, in the present study) was discussed. Learners targeted by strategy instruction should be able to understand the content and use of the strategy. Ultimately, learners' proficiency level in the target language determines whether strategy instruction is best taught in the target language or in the learners' mother tongue.

Studies examining the effect of strategy instruction on language skills were summarized. Most of these studies generally support the effectiveness of strategy instruction for learners' strategy use and language proficiency and are in favour of its implementation. However, some of them highlight that strategy instruction was seemingly not effective for all language skills; and some find that strategy instruction raised learners' awareness of their learning but not necessarily their strategy use or proficiency.

The last section of this chapter reviewed learning styles. Learning style was defined and differentiated from strategy as this has been a source of confusion in the literature. Identified learning styles were presented, with a focus on those the present study takes up: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic/tactile, extroverted, introverted, global and particular styles. The relationship between style and strategy, as learner variables that strongly link to and affect each other, was also discussed, in particular in terms of style-stretching to draw on new strategies. However, style-stretching such as strategy orchestration requires students to be motivated, and so motivation as an influential factor was discussed. The SSBI, which guided strategy instruction in this study, was introduced. Studies on the relationship between learning styles and strategies were reviewed; the basic fact of a relationship was largely a consensus position, but the precise nature of the relationship (or complex of relationships) remains unclear, as the evidence is mixed. The chapter concluded by highlighting the critiquing and problematizing of learning style theory, in particular providing different models with different aspects so as to cover learning styles; mixing learning styles with personality; overlapping learning styles with learning strategies; designing different problematic instruments with which to measure learning styles; and raising the issue of learning style flexibility.

The present study tries to discover the effect of teaching writing strategies on students' strategy awareness and writing performance in order to fill the current gap in this area. The inconclusive findings of previous studies of the effect of strategy instruction in listening still form a gap in literature that the present study attempts to fill. There is a need for more studies to investigate the effect of strategy instruction in speaking, which the present study does, as there is a conflict with the results of previous studies regarding the effectiveness of strategy instruction in speaking. Regarding vocabulary, previous studies have lacked learner voice and equal instructional time, which is a gap in literature that the present study would contribute to filling. Calls for further studies with different contexts, languages, and learners in different settings have encouraged the present study to contribute to the area of strategy instruction in reading.

The next chapter presents the methodology used in the present study, the instruments used in data collection, and the strategy instruction programme (intervention).



## **Chapter 4: Methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the methodological framework of this study: the study aim and research questions (in 4.2); the participants (4.3); the instruments used in data-gathering (4.4); the materials used for strategy instruction, including the coursebook (Language Leader, Elementary, or LL), and the way it presents LLS, as well as the Teacher's Booklet (TB) and how the strategies in it were chosen and categorized, and the approach piloted (4.5); the strategy instruction programme, including a trip to a summer institute at the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA), University of Minnesota, for training in strategy instruction, the subsequent preparation of the two participating teachers for strategy instruction, and the strategy instruction framework (SSBI) used to teach LLS in the classroom with examples on how vocabulary, reading, speaking, writing and listening strategies were taught (4.6); and data analysis (4.7).

### **4.2 Study Aim and Research Questions**

The literature review presented in the previous two chapters demonstrated that there is a dearth of research on the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness in general and in the Saudi context in particular. Moreover, the results that do exist are inconclusive, and there have been many calls by scholars in the field for more research in the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness and language proficiency. This study is an attempt to provide an empirical contribution to the literature that responds to those calls. Initiating strategy instruction in the Saudi context is urgent, as it will help effect a timely change of the current teacher-centred language classroom into a learner-centred classroom. The present study, therefore, aims to examine the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness and language proficiency. Accordingly, the following research questions were adopted:

1. What is the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness?
2. What is the effect of strategy instruction on students' language proficiency?
3. What is the role of learning style preferences in this study? This question is broken down into two sub-questions:
  - a) What are the learning style preferences of participating students in terms of each of three categories of learning style?

- b) How do students with different learning style preferences differ in terms of language proficiency?
4. What is students' and their teachers' feedback on the strategy instruction programme implemented?

### **4.3 Participants**

The population investigated in this research are Saudi preparatory year college students studying English as a foreign language at an industrial college in eastern Saudi Arabia. The population's first language is Arabic, and they will have studied English for seven years, from senior elementary school through intermediate school to secondary school. Although this seems like a substantial amount of time for Saudi students to establish a good background in English, most of them come to the college with very weak English skills (Khan, 2011). This target population was selected because students in the preparatory year work on reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary, which allowed the researcher to usefully teach strategies in these skills, and because the population's English level is at the point where strategy instruction may contribute to their language learning. The researcher is a language instructor at this college, and the research was sponsored by the Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu, which supervises education at the college.

The researcher used random sampling, which is the most commonly used method of selecting a probability sample (Dörnyei, 2007). Initially, about 219 male students were recruited for this study; they were aged between 18 and 21. They were divided into six randomly selected classes: three experimental sections of 35-37 students each, forming the experimental group, and three control sections of 35-37 students each, forming the control group. At the time of the pre-tests, including the pre-strategy survey (LSUS) and style survey (LSS), about 18 students withdrew from the study. By the time of the post-tests and post-LSUS, there were only 197 students as four students quitted the college for different circumstances.

#### **4.3.1 Experimental Group**

The participants in this group (98 students) were divided into three class sections. Like their peers in the control group, they had four regular language classes a day. They studied language skills (listening, speaking, and reading, plus vocabulary) in two classes, with one teacher who also taught them writing in one class, using their language textbook (LL), and studied grammar one class a day with another teacher. The primary focus was on language skills; therefore, strategy instruction, surveys, and tests were all administered during skills classes, although the writing tests were



administered in grammar class. One section of the experimental group was taught skills by the researcher, and the other two sections were taught by two other Arabic-speaking teachers. Only students in these three sections (that is, in the experimental group) received explicit strategy instruction in Arabic, through an eight-week strategy instruction programme designed for this purpose.

#### **4.3.2 Control Group**

Like their peers in the experimental group, students in the three sections of the control group (99 students) had four regular language classes a day: three skills (two for reading, listening, speaking and vocabulary, and one for writing) classes and one grammar class, using the same curriculum as the experimental group(s). All three control groups were taught by Arabic-speaking teachers other than the author or the two experimental group teachers. The students in the three sections of the control group were expected not to have received explicit strategy instruction in Arabic, which separated them from their peers in the experimental group. However, since the precise content of control group teachers' lessons was not known, the researcher decided to interview the teachers in the control group to check if they were explicitly teaching learning strategies in their classes.

However, both groups seem very similar in relation to most issues. Students in the experimental group were involved in morning classes, which might have made them more motivated than their counterparts in the control group, who were involved in afternoon classes. Students in the control group did not have the same advantage of living on college campus that their counterparts in the experimental group had. The reason for this is that vacancies in college campus accommodation are occupied by students who first applied to the college. Consequently, this resulted in urging late applicants to live outside the campus, which might have delayed their presence in morning classes due to traffic jams in the morning. Thus, they were designated in afternoon classes.

Students in the control group only completed the strategy survey without discussing the content of the survey or their answers therein, which is completely different from their counterparts in the experimental group, who did so with their teachers after completing the survey. Presumably, this should have increased the strategy awareness of students in the experimental group more than their counterparts in the control group, although completing the survey on their own is part of raising students' strategy awareness. The same occurred when students in both groups completed the learning style survey.

### **4.3.3 Participating Teachers**

The participating teachers voluntarily joined the present study and selected to teach students in participating groups. For strategy instruction in Arabic, the two teachers in the experimental group (Teacher 1 and Teacher 2) were native Arabic speakers; the researcher, who is also a native speaker of Arabic, wanted to discover how strategy instruction is applied in real language classrooms, and thus he also conducted strategy instruction in one of the experimental sections. The three volunteer teachers who taught the control group were also native Arabic speakers. All participating teachers had at least seven years' experience teaching English as a foreign language; all held at least a Bachelor of Arts in Teaching English or in Linguistics, and most held a Master of Arts in Linguistics or Applied Linguistics; one teacher held a PhD in Linguistics.

## **4.4 Data Gathering Instruments**

Before presenting the instruments used in the present study, it is very important to position the study in terms of philosophical stance, which justifies the data-gathering approach. Post-positivism is adopted, as an epistemological position that fits the purpose of the present study. Post-positivism is a successor to positivism, which claimed the possibility of absolute truth in human knowledge; in contrast, post-positivism recognises that when dealing with human actions and behaviours, our claims of knowledge cannot always be positive (Creswell, 2009). The present study relies heavily on quantitative data gained through two questionnaires and through pre- and post-tests, and also on supplementary qualitative data collected through structured interviews which involves adopting this position. According to Oxford (2011), almost all quantitative L2 research at the present time is based on a post-positivist stance.

Although post-positivists are still in favour of stressing the importance of objectivity and generalizability, they 'suggest that researchers modify their claims to understandings of truth based on probability, rather than certainty' (Mertens, 2014, p. 12). Thus, the present study adopts a modified objectivist ontological position.

Four instruments—two questionnaires, a pre- and post-test, and structured interviews—were employed in the present study; alongside dominant numerical data gathered through surveys and tests, qualitative data were obtained through the interviews. The purpose of triangulating these instruments in a mixed-methods approach is to '...obtain a more comprehensive view and more data about the problem ...' (Creswell, 2014, p. 15) and to strengthen the validity of research outcomes through convergence and corroboration of the findings (Dörnyei, 2007).

The first research question, which examines the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness, is answered through the LSUS pre- and post-implementations and the interviews. The second research question is answered through the pre- and post-proficiency tests and the interviews. The third research question is answered utilizing the LSS. However, the present study's approach of examining students' strategy awareness and proficiency both prior to and after the strategy instruction programme makes it different from almost all other studies in the field, which examined strategy awareness and language proficiency only after intervention. The fourth research question is answered through the structured interviews. The researcher interviewed seven students with different learning styles from the experimental group, as well as two teachers from the experimental group and two teachers from the control group for this purpose.

#### **4.4.1 Language Strategy Use Survey (LSUS)**

There have been various attempts to design a survey that measures awareness of different strategies in relation to different language skills. One of the early attempts was Carrell's (1989) Metacognitive Questionnaire (a (five-point) Likert scale ranging from 1 'strongly agree' to 5 'strongly disagree') designed to learn about students' metacognitive conceptualizations or awareness judgements for reading strategies (only). Vandergrift's (2005) Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (again a basic Likert scale) measured cognitive and metacognitive listening strategies; Vandergrift *et al.*'s (2006) Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 'strongly disagree' to 6 'strongly agree') was an updated version of Vandergrift (2005) for metacognitive strategies in listening only. Lee (2007) designed an Inventory for Strategy Awareness-Raising for Success, where students first choose 'yes' or 'no' for each item depending on whether they do what is described while reading only, and then choose from 1 'low' to 5 'high' to tell how much. Similarly, Zhang and Goh (2006) designed a Metacognitive Awareness Inventory in Listening and Speaking Strategies only (where students first decide how useful each item is on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 'least useful' to 5 'most useful, and then decide how often they use each item, from 1 'never' to 5 'most often'). There is no comprehensive instrument in the field to assess strategy awareness in all language skills together. This inconsistency and implementing strategy instruction through SSBI programme which involved disseminating the Language Strategy Use Survey (LSUS) (Appendix A) have encouraged the researcher to employ the LSUS to measure students' strategy awareness and to reflect on their strategy use.

The LSUS was designed by Cohen *et al.* (2002a) to help language learners find out more about themselves and help them discover strategies that can help them master new languages (Cohen and Weaver, 2006). It focuses on the four language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking, in

addition to vocabulary and translation (the last omitted in this study). Such a survey can be a useful pedagogical tool that encourages students to think about the strategies they use (Macaro, 2009). This survey is different from other strategy use surveys such as Oxford's (1990) SILL in that it does not measure frequency of LLS use, but asks learners how effectively they feel they are using each of the 89 listed strategies. As it doesn't measure frequency, Likert-style rating is not used in the LSUS employed here, though there is another version of the LSUS that measures frequency of LLS use (Cohen, personal communication, 30 October, 2015).

The version of the LSUS used here has four options; students check the box that describes them. The four options are: *I use this strategy and like it, I have tried this strategy and would use it again, I've never used this strategy, but I am interested in it, and This strategy does not fit for me.* The third option was amended in this study to *I've never used this strategy*, in order to focus the option on measuring strategy awareness.

In this survey, listening strategies (26 individual strategies) can be broken down into: strategies that increase exposure to the target language (e.g. *attend out-of-class events where the new language is spoken*), strategies to become more familiar with the sounds of the target language (e.g. *imitate the way native speakers talk*), strategies to prepare to listen to conversation in the target language (e.g. *try to predict what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far*), strategies to listen to conversation in the target language (e.g. *listen for key words that seem to carry the bulk of the meaning*), and strategies for when one is unable to understand what is said in the target language (e.g. *ask speakers to repeat what they said if it wasn't clear*). Vocabulary strategies (18 strategies) in this survey include: strategies to learn new words (e.g. *break the word into parts that can be identified*); strategies to review vocabulary (e.g. *go over new words often to remember them*); strategies to recall vocabulary (e.g. *look at meaningful parts of the word such as prefixes and suffixes to remember the meaning of the word*); and strategies to make use of new vocabulary (e.g. *practice using new words in a variety of ways*). Speaking strategies (18 strategies) in this survey include strategies to practice speaking (e.g. *practice saying new expression to myself*); strategies to engage in conversations (e.g. *plan out what to say in advance*); and strategies for when unable to think of a word or expression (e.g. *ask for help from my conversational partner*). Reading strategies (11 strategies) include strategies to improve reading ability (e.g. *make predictions as to what will happen next*); and strategies for when words and grammatical structures are not understood (e.g. *guess the meaning using clues from the context*). Writing strategies (10 strategies) encompass strategies for basic writing (e.g. *plan out in advance how to write*); and strategies to use after writing a draft of an essay or paper (e.g. *revise writing to improve the language and content*). The last category in this survey is translation strategies, omitted from the present study because it focuses on the four language skills and vocabulary; in addition, the number of items in the survey is

high (89 items), and so reducing it (to 83 items) after omitting translation's six strategies seemed desirable.

Questionnaires are popular because they are 'easy to construct, extremely versatile and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly' (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 101). Furthermore, data obtained from structured questionnaires, such as the LSUS, are organized in a uniform fashion and lend themselves to statistical analysis, as Cohen (2011) pointed out. In addition to these advantages of questionnaires, the LSUS was adopted in the present study for the following reasons:

1. To examine students' strategy awareness before and after intervention. Although the purpose of this four-option version of the LSUS is ostensibly for learners to help them know more about themselves and to discover new strategies (Paige *et al.*, 2006), the researcher intends to utilize it as a research instrument to examine students' strategy awareness and reflect on their strategy use.
2. To increase students' strategy repertoire. Oxford (2011) stated that many students who completed and self-scored strategy questionnaires were alerted to new strategies that could be used.
3. To avoid rating strategy awareness or use by frequency. Frequency is deceptive as a way of rating strategy use, since using a strategy frequently does not mean using it effectively (Paige *et al.*, 2006). Avoiding rating strategy use by frequency 'would be refreshing in that far too many studies have been done with the report of frequencies approach. And they haven't moved the field along very much since they are relatively uninformative' (Cohen, personal communication, 5 November, 2015).

Questionnaires also have some limitations, however. One such, according to Dörnyei (2007), is that they may produce unreliable and/or invalid data if they are improperly constructed. Another limitation is that the language used in the items must be simple and straightforward so as to be understood by all readers; therefore, this method is not suitable for probing an issue deeply. As this suggests, questionnaires usually provide only a thin description of the target phenomena—also because (finally) the time spent on them is too short for gathering of deep, nuanced data (Dörnyei, 2007).

Regarding validity, this version of the LSUS was first translated into Arabic by the researcher and submitted to two Arabic-speaking PhD students studying Modern Languages at the University of Southampton to verify the translation and wording, as recommended by Dörnyei (2007). Some amendments were suggested and adopted. For the pilot, the LSUS was given to 33 Arab students learning English in language schools in the UK. They were asked if the items in the survey were understandable and asked to measure the time needed to complete the survey, which took about 30-40 minutes, with no issues raised concerning their understanding of the items. The researcher used

the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to measure reliability; for the 83 items, Cronbach's alpha was .92, which indicates high reliability.

*Procedure:* Students in all experimental and control groups filled in the questionnaire at the beginning of the study to measure their strategy awareness before the treatment, and again at the end of the study to compare their strategy awareness after the treatment. Pre- and post-LSUS were administered following the same procedures. Before distributing the LSUS, the researcher met all the participating teachers, gave them the survey, and explained the instructions for administering it. He informed them that he would introduce himself to the students prior to obtaining student consent to participate. On the first day of the second week of classes, as shown in Table 4, the researcher first distributed the LSUS to students in his section of the experimental group, which was a 9 a.m. class, assisted students in completing it, and answered their questions. All students finished the survey in less than 35 minutes, under the researcher's oversight. Later on, in 11 a.m. and 1 p.m. classes, the researcher was available to answer questions from students in other sections (two experimental sections and three control sections) who completed the survey the same day. The surveys were then collected and attendance for all classes was checked; all absentees present on a second day, and completed the survey under the researcher's supervision.

#### **4.4.2 Learning Styles Survey**

The Learning Styles Survey (LSS) (Appendix B) was constructed by Cohen *et al.* (2002b). It focuses on style dimensions, which are strongly relevant to language learning according to Cohen and Weaver (2006). The format of the LSS and most of its dimensions and items are borrowed from Oxford's (1995) Style Analysis Survey (SAS); additional dimensions and some items are based on the work of Ehrman and Leaver (2003). The LSS was designed to assess general approach to learning and give a clear indication of overall learning style preferences.

The original LSS includes 23 learning styles, with 110 items. This survey was shortened in the present study to cover only seven learning styles: three 'Sensory/Perceptual' styles (visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic/tactile); two 'Psychological (Personality) Type' styles (extroverted and introverted); and two 'Cognitive' styles (global and particular). In all, 52 items were retained. The original LSS was shortened for the following reasons: First, the seven chosen styles represent all three categories, and including all 23 learning styles would require a wider research project which would exceed the scope of this PhD research. Second, the seven chosen styles are more commonly used and discussed in different studies than most of the remaining styles, and are particularly important for L2 learning according to Oxford and Anderson (1995). Extroversion/introversion styles, for example, are represented frequently because of their status as a trait that is considered central to theories of personality (Liyanage and Bartlett, 2013).

The LSS was employed in the present study because it is part of the SSBI framework and for the reasons below:

1. To raise students' awareness of their learning style preferences, which there is very little awareness of in the Saudi context.
2. To benefit students by helping them try different learning approaches. This may enable students to choose LLS that accommodate their learning styles and to try new LLS, hopefully increasing their strategy repertoires. Cohen and Weaver (2006, p. 7) asserted that if learners use a wider range of learning styles, they will be more successful in their language learning. The idea is to assist learners to 'think about their learning in strategic terms and to expand or stretch their learning approaches.'
3. To remind and encourage teachers to vary their teaching styles in their language classrooms to engage students with different learning styles.

To complete the LSS, students use a five-point Likert-type scale, with 0 indicating 'Never', 1 'Rarely', 2 'Sometimes', 3 'Often', and 4 'Always'. Once students have totalled their points, they write the results in the appropriate space on the last page of the survey and circle the highest number in each part. This indicates the preferred style in that part. If numbers are the same or close, students should circle both numbers; this means they have no dominant style in that part.

As with the LSUS, the 52 LSS items were translated into Arabic by the researcher and reviewed by the same two Arab PhD students who reviewed the LSUS; their amendments were adopted. After that, the LSS was piloted by the same 33 Arab students who had piloted the LSUS. The language used in the items of the survey was clear according to the students, but there was some confusion about how to calculate the numbers to identify the styles, which the researcher assisted the students to overcome. It took the students about 25-35 minutes to finish the survey. Reliability was calculated through SPSS; Cronbach's alpha was .88 for the 52 items of the LSS, indicating high reliability.

*Procedure:* On the second day of Week 2, as shown in Table 4, the LSS was administered. The researcher ran the survey for his own experimental section first. There was a little confusion amongst students about calculating scores to identify their learning styles, which they overcame. After the survey was finished, the researcher requested students write down their identified learning styles on a piece of paper for their personal records. A handout explaining learning styles was distributed among the students to inform them about their own styles and other learning styles. The researcher then asked students 'Who was a visual, auditory, or kinaesthetic/tactile learner?' 'Who was an extroverted or introverted learner?' 'Who was a global or particular learner?' and 'Who was neutral?' In this way, he encouraged awareness of students' learning styles and of the variety in learning styles in the classroom.

On the same day, to avoid obstacles running the survey in the subsequent groups, the researcher explained to the participating teachers how to calculate the totals to identify learning styles to explain it to their students. There were many questions and much confusion among students in the subsequent groups but, again, they were ultimately able to identify their learning styles. Again the researcher checked attendance, and again absentees were called on to complete the survey on the following day to ensure that their data were captured.

#### **4.4.3 Language Proficiency Pre- and Post-Tests**

To measure students' proficiency in four language skills plus vocabulary, the researcher drew upon the language test bank available at the site institution's English Language Centre (ELC). Two sample tests were chosen for their similarity in level but difference in content to be the pre- and post-tests, covering all five language areas. The records of the chosen tests showed that they had been used twice in the ELC, which increases their chance of being valid and reliable.

*Procedure:* Both pre- and post-tests were carried out following exactly the same procedures, overseen by the researcher and the teachers. On the same day as the LSS, during the grammar class, students completed a written task using information from a table to write a biography of Henry Ford in the pre-test and of Nelson Mandela in the post-test. Instructions on how to administer the test were provided to the grammar teachers, and the researcher was available in case of any inquiries and to take attendance. The test went smoothly, and most students finished in 30 minutes. The test was scored out of ten using the ELC rubric.

The next day, the researcher and the other teachers tested all the students in speaking. The researcher and each teacher tested the students in their own section. The test required calling on students one by one to do two speaking tasks. First, students introduced themselves (pre-test) and talked about their daily routine (post-test). Then, they described their hometown (pre-test) and the weather in their home region (post-test). Each student took about 3-5 minutes to do so. Thus, three skills classes (two skills classes and one writing class) in two days were spent on the speaking pre- and post-tests. Again, the ELC's rubrics were used to assess students' proficiency (out of ten) and absentees were tested later on.

The listening, reading, and vocabulary pre- and post-tests were administered together on the day after the speaking test. The researcher again explained the procedure to the teachers. The test started with two listening exercises, where students listened to a CD and answered two questions: a multiple-choice question and a true or false question. The reading test included ten questions with matching and multiple-choice items, completed after reading two passages. Finally, the vocabulary part included ten multiple-choice items. One whole period (50 minutes) was given to the listening,



reading and vocabulary tests. Students' proficiencies in listening, reading and vocabulary were assessed (out of ten) and absentees were tested later on.

#### **4.4.4 Structured Interviews**

The results gained from the quantitative instruments provided an image of one part of the effect of strategy instruction. They were complemented by qualitative data gathered in structured interviews. Macaro (2001, p. 56) stresses that 'Interviewing language learners about the way that they use strategies can be very productive and an excellent way of complementing a questionnaire.'

According to Dörnyei (2007), in qualitative inquiries, the interview is the most often used method, typically a one-on-one professional conversation that has an explicit structure and purpose and is 'tightly controlled' to ensure that the interviewee concentrates on a particular topic area (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 135). Furthermore, according to Dörnyei (2007), the structured nature of these interviews makes responses comparable; this is needed for the present study, which compares the effects of strategy instruction on students with different learning styles. However, there are certain drawbacks associated with the use of structured interviews. One of them is that there is generally little room for variation or spontaneity in the responses, and the other, which is related, is very little flexibility in the way of asking questions (Dörnyei, 2007).

##### **4.4.4.1 Structured Interviews with Students**

The main objectives of interviewing students in the experimental group were: a) to examine if the strategy instruction programme raised their strategy awareness; b) to see if the strategy instruction programme encouraged them to think of their language learning process; c) to examine if the strategy instruction programme improved their language proficiency; d) to recognise whether identifying their learning styles through the programme assisted them to accommodate new LLS; e) to check if the programme provided them with new LLS to deal with language use; and f) to determine their general impression about the strategy instruction programme, as Macaro (2001) advised. Questions were composed accordingly (see Appendix F).

*Procedure:* First, the researcher arranged interviews with seven students with different learning styles: one visual learner, one auditory learner, one kinaesthetic/tactile learner, one extroverted learner, one introverted learner, one global learner, and one particular learner. The intention was to gain responses from each type. The students were informed that it was their choice whether to participate in the interview. The interviews were conducted immediately after finishing the post-tests and post-LSUS. In one day, all designated students were called one by one to the researcher's office. As an ice-breaker, the researcher started by informing each interviewee of the subject of the interview. He asked students to reply to his questions frankly. Each interviewee was informed that

the interview was to be recorded but that it would be confidential. Although the interviews were structured, the researcher encouraged interviewees to take their time answering questions and say whatever they wanted; they were provided as much time as they needed to do so. At the end of each interview, each student was asked if there was anything that they would like to add.

#### **4.4.4.2 Structured Interviews with Teachers**

With the teacher interviews, the researcher was primarily looking for the effect of strategy instruction on students from the teachers' perspective, as reflected in the questions (see Appendix F).

##### **Interviewing Teachers from the Experimental Group**

Teacher interviews were conducted in the same week as student interviews. Teachers in the experimental group were interviewed to gain their feedback on the strategy instruction approach implemented, using the language textbook and Teacher's Booklet with taught strategies listed in it.

*Procedure:* Both teachers were interviewed separately. The researcher started the interviews by giving them the choice to speak in Arabic or English; both teachers chose English. As a warm-up, the researcher opened the conversation by thanking the teachers for their efforts in participating in the strategy instruction programme. Then, he informed them that he was interested in their own observations and experiences of strategy instruction and assured them of the integrity of the process. Each interview lasted about 20 minutes; at the end, the researcher thanked the teachers for their participation in the programme and the interview.

##### **Interviewing Teachers from the Control Group**

After interviewing the two teachers in the experimental group, the two teachers who taught in the control group were interviewed, mainly to check whether they were teaching LLS explicitly in Arabic in their regular English language classrooms (see Appendix F). If so, the control group would not 'provide a baseline for comparison' (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 116).

*Procedure:* As in the previous teacher interviews in the experimental group, both teachers in the control group were interviewed following the same procedures. One interview lasted about 8 minutes and the other about 10; the interviews were short as their main purpose was just to ensure that the teachers in the control group were not teaching LLS explicitly.

## **4.5 Strategy Instruction Materials**

Teaching LLS through the regular language curriculum in the regular classroom is widely recommended (Chamot, 2004; Cohen, 2011; Grenfell and Harris, 1999; McDonough, 1999; NCLRC, 2004). As stated earlier in 3.4.2, explicit strategy instruction in the classroom seems to be more effective than strategy instruction in separate courses. Thus, the researcher adopted a language textbook (Language Leader, Elementary) already used by the students as appropriate material through which strategy instruction could be accomplished.

### **4.5.1 Language Leader, Elementary**

Language Leader (LL) is a commercial series of English textbooks for adult and young adult English language learners. It was published by Pearson Education Limited in 2008. It has four levels that take students from elementary to an upper-intermediate level. It is designed to provide an international English course with a global focus, including topics from different fields in different parts of the world. Each level provides students with a coursebook, a workbook, a companion CD-ROM, a teacher's book with a master CD-ROM for tests, and a companion website. LL is not based on one particular teaching methodology; it is a mixture of communicative language teaching, text-based, and task-based approaches. The Common European Framework is taken into consideration in designing LL, which should bring elementary learners to the A1-A2 level.

LL contains 12 units, each divided into double-page lessons. Each unit in LL has the following: a) two input lessons, where new language is presented through text with a mixture of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and skills work; and b) a 'Scenario', where students practice the language provided in the input lessons during communicative tasks; the Scenario part provides a 'key language' section and 'other useful phrases'; c) 'Study and Writing Skills', where students practice writing and learn some study strategies. After every three units, LL provides a review unit. This unit encompasses a mix of exercises to go over the material in the previous three units. At the end of LL, there is a section called 'Language Reference and Extra Practice', which provides more information, grammar summaries, reference lists, and extra exercises for consolidation.

There is considerable variety in the texts provided in LL. They are from different genres, such as newspapers, magazines, literature, and publicity materials, and come in long and short passages from authentic sources. They cover various skills. Listening skills are given considerable space in LL; there is a wide variety of listening texts, such as radio programmes, conversations, interviews, talks, and lectures, and a range of listening activities. Speaking skills are also covered; students can practice speaking through different exercises, such as personalised question-and-answer activities,

role-play, and group work, and can comment on topics, discuss issues, and talk about their personal experiences and knowledge. LL also has a page in each unit to develop students' writing skills. On this page, students can try different writing exercises, starting with writing short simple sentences and ending up writing a short paragraph or passage. LL also provides a variety of vocabulary; students learn at least 50-70 new words in each unit, some from common language and some technical. Although the authors claim that they used a communicative language teaching method, grammar is also covered; students are encouraged to analyse and understand grammar through an inductive approach, with reference to examples and completing exercises in the text. There are many additional grammar exercises at the end of LL. The use of LL supported investigating reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary all together rather than focusing on only one of them.

#### **4.5.1.1 Existence of LLS in Language Leader, Elementary**

To discover evidence of LLS in LL, the researcher conducted an analytical study. He went through all the exercises in all 12 units in LL to examine how LLS are presented in it. The researcher found that LLS are explicitly presented only in the 'Study Skills' (Lesson Four) lessons, where students are asked to follow these study skills to improve their language learning. Although LL calls them 'things', Image 1 illustrates how some vocabulary strategies are explicitly presented. Among these vocabulary strategies are 'putting words into groups by their meaning', 'doing some word building' through identifying noun and adjective forms of the same lemma word, 'making mind maps', 'finding opposites for words', and 'using the words'.

Image 1: Example of explicitly presented vocabulary strategies in LL

**STUDY SKILLS:**  
learning new words

**1 Managing new vocabulary** How do you record and learn new vocabulary? Are these sentences true for you?

- I have a special vocabulary notebook.
- I read my vocabulary notes every day.
- I learn ten new words every day.
- I test my memory of new words every week.
- I make grammar and pronunciation notes about new words, e.g. *beautiful* (adj).
- I write translations for words.
- I write English definitions for words, e.g. *wonderful* – very good.

**2 Working with vocabulary** The best way to learn new vocabulary is to do things with the words. Try these exercises. Use your dictionary. After each exercise, check your ideas with a partner.

**a Put words into groups by their meaning.** Sort these words into two groups: materials and shapes.

circle leather metal plastic rectangle square wood

Can you add more words to these two groups?

**b Do some word building.** Look at these dictionary extracts. Circle is the noun, what is the adjective?

**circle** /ˈsɜːkl/ noun  
1 a round flat shape like the letter O, or a group of people or things arranged in this shape: Draw a circle on this piece of paper | We sat in a circle round the table. → see picture at poor!

**circ-cult** /ˈsɜːkl/ noun 1 a track where people race cars, bicycles etc: The racing cars go three times round the circuit. 2 the complete circle that an electric current flows around: an electrical circuit

**cir-cular** /ˈsɜːkjələ/ adjective shaped like a circle: a circular table.

from Longman Wordwise Dictionary

- What are the adjectives for these nouns? Use your dictionary.  
rectangle square wood
- Complete the table with these words.  
long widen width lengthen weight

Noun	Verb	Adjective
1	2	wide
length	3	4
5	weigh	

**c Make mind maps.** Add more words to this mind map. Can you add more than four?

**d Find opposites for words.** Match the opposite pairs in this group of adjectives.  
heavy light long narrow short wide

**e Use the words.** Make sentences with the new words.  
*circular* – A coin is circular.  
*plastic* – I use plastic bags from the supermarket.

**3** Make sentences with five of the new words in this unit. Compare with a partner.

**4** Which of these exercises do you like? Which do you think are more useful for you?

**WRITING SKILLS:**  
a description of objects

**5** Look at the photos A–C. These three objects are for sale on an Internet auction site. Which sections can you find them in?  
Antiques: Asia, Antiques: Games, Collectables: North America

**6a** Match the description with one of photos A–C.  
Photograph album

**This item** is very 1 \_\_\_\_\_. It is a 2 \_\_\_\_\_ photograph album from Japan – when you turn the pages, you hear a beautiful song! It is about 50 years old. It is 3 \_\_\_\_\_ (45cm long, 20cm wide) and it is in good condition. The album has got ten pages. These pages are now 4 \_\_\_\_\_ with age. On the front of the album there's a wonderful picture. It is of a 5 \_\_\_\_\_ temple and Mount Fuji. Thanks for looking and good luck!

**6b** Put these words in the correct places in the description.  
musical red rectangular unusual yellow

**7 it, this, these** In the first sentence of the description, the words *This item* refer to the name of the item – photograph album. What do the other highlighted words refer to? Compare your ideas with a partner.

Image 2 is another example of explicit presentation of some speaking strategies (again, named ‘things’ in LL). It shows some strategies used to prepare for talk: ‘putting your ideas in the best order’, ‘checking the pronunciation of difficult words’, ‘finding out some interesting information’, ‘practicing the talk’, ‘preparing some pictures or tables to make your points clearer’, and ‘making some notes to help you remember things in the talk’.

Image 2: Example of explicitly presented speaking strategies in LL

**STUDY SKILLS:**  
giving a short, informal talk

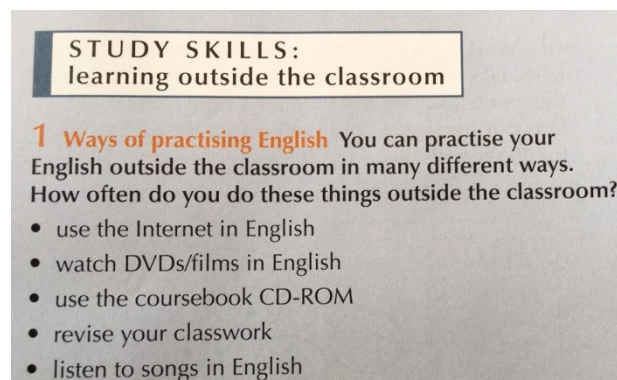
**1a Preparing a talk** Make a list of things we do when we prepare a talk. Match 1–6 with a–f.

- Put your ideas
- Check the pronunciation
- Find out
- Practise
- Prepare some pictures or tables
- Make some

- the talk.
- notes to help you remember things in the talk.
- to make your points clearer.
- in the best order.
- of difficult words.
- some interesting information.

Image 3 shows some ‘ways’ (strategies) LL suggests users practice English outside the classroom. Among them: ‘using the Internet in English’, ‘watching DVDs/films in English’, ‘using the coursebook’, ‘revising your classwork’, and ‘listening to songs in English’.

Image 3: Example of explicitly presented LLS in LL



In addition to these explicit discussions of strategies, in Lesson Four of each unit in LL, LLS are implicitly presented in most remaining exercises in the coursebook; unfortunately, in these cases strategies are not referred to and students are not made aware of them. Below are some examples of implicit LLS in LL.

Image 4 shows a reading exercise. The main strategy implicit in this exercise seems to be ‘inferencing’, where students can infer the meaning of words by looking at images. Other strategies that can be employed in this exercise are ‘predicting what will come in the text’ and ‘using prior knowledge’. Employing these and maybe other strategies together, in what is known as strategy combination or orchestration, may contribute to students’ learning and task achievement if they have adequate awareness of the strategies.

Image 4: Example of implicitly presented reading strategies in LL

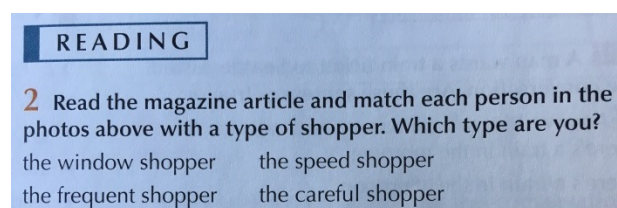
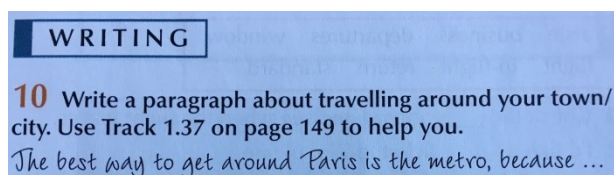


Image 5 shows that even when (writing) strategies are explicitly presented in LL, how to use them is not necessarily directly demonstrated. ‘Planning out what you are going to write’ is the first one. The second one is ‘accessing information sources’, using Track 1.37 (three paragraphs about three people living in different cities around the world describing transportation in their cities), mentioned in the exercise. This is supposed to guide students on how to develop their ideas before writing and organize their sentences while writing. Students can also be reminded to use other

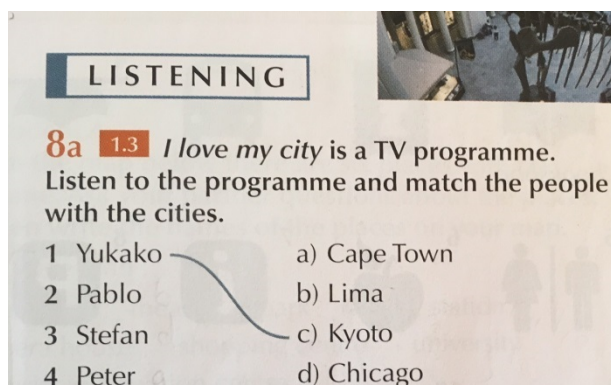
writing strategies such as ‘editing grammar and mechanics after writing ideas’. The purpose of such reminders is to raise students’ strategy awareness and to remind them with the importance of using strategies.

Image 5: Example of implicitly presented writing strategies in LL



Another example of how listening strategies are implicitly presented in LL is illustrated in Image 6. ‘Try to predict what the speaker will say’ is one possible strategy to be employed in this exercise, based on recognising the name of the TV programme. ‘Play the game of probabilities, inferences, and educated guessing’ is another strategy that can be used, looking at names of people and cities; for example, Yukako looks like a Japanese name, so it is matched to Kyoto. Students can also be taught some other listening strategies for doing this exercise, such as ‘skimming listening’, where students are encouraged not to listen to all the details but to focus on the names of people and cities.

Image 6: Example of implicitly presented listening strategies in LL



Some speaking strategies that are implicitly mentioned in the speaking exercise shown in Image 7. ‘Cooperation’ through ‘asking for help while speaking’ is a speaking strategy that can be made explicit to students; ‘planning out in advance what you want to say’ is another, via ‘thinking of four positive and four negative differences’ as shown on the exercise. ‘Looking for a different way/word to express the idea’ is another speaking strategy that can be employed, when comparing ideas with those of classmates.



Image 7: Example of implicitly presented speaking strategies in LL

**SPEAKING**

**11** Work with a partner. Compare your way of life now with your grandparents' way of life when they were young. Think of four positive differences and four negative differences. Compare your ideas with another pair of students.

*I can travel by plane to other countries but my grandparents could only use trains.*

Image 8 shows two vocabulary exercises in LL. Vocabulary strategies are implicitly presented in exercise two. The main strategy that can be explicit is 'grouping vocabulary' through matching words with their opposites (antonyms). Another strategy that also can be explicitly presented is 'creating a mental image or picture that you associate with the word' by choosing some of the listed words in exercise two and associating them with city photos—for instance, associating the ice in the photo of Kraków with the adjective 'cold'.

Image 8: Example of implicitly presented vocabulary strategies in LL

**VOCABULARY: cities, adjectives**

**1** Look at the photos A–D on pages 6 and 7. Choose the names of the cities from the box. (There are two extra names.)

Istanbul   Kraków   London  
New York   São Paulo   Tokyo

**2** Match adjectives 1–8 with their opposites a–h. Then choose two or three words for each city in the photos.

1 good	a) hot
2 old	b) dry
3 big	c) quiet
4 cold	d) new
5 wet	e) expensive
6 noisy	f) ugly
7 beautiful	g) bad
8 cheap	h) small

*London – big, ...*

Investigating the existence of LLS in the LL helped the researcher design a Teacher's Booklet (TB) to guide participating teachers in strategy instruction. More details about the TB are presented in 4.5.2 below.



### 4.5.2 Teacher's Booklet

Guidebooks in strategy instruction for language teachers include Cohen and Weaver (2006), *Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction*, which is the one mainly used in the present study. Other guidebooks in strategy instruction may include: Chamot *et al.* (2005), *Keys to Learning: Skills and Strategies for New Comers*; O'Malley and Chamot (1990), *Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach*; and Paige *et al.* (2006), *Maximizing Study Abroad: A Students' Guide to Strategies for Language and Culture Learning and Use*. Nevertheless, the TB is valuable in that it tailors the SSBI approach to strategy instruction using a particular language textbook (Language Leader, Elementary).

After confirming the existence of LLS in LL, the researcher decided to design the TB (Appendix C) to guide teachers in the experimental group to explicitly teach strategies through the LL curriculum. Several exercises were chosen from each unit as vehicles for strategy instruction, covering reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary. Strategies included in the booklet were chosen by the researcher based on considerations specified in section 4.5.2.1 below.

The first part of the TB contains basic information such as the purpose of the booklet, definitions and importance of LLS, learning style preferences, and strategy instruction. The second part explains what teachers can do to improve the strategy instruction programme, such as knowing more about their students, the class context, strategy transferring, and strategy sequence or clustering. Moreover, this part also includes more details about the framework (SSBI) through which the strategies are going to be taught. This part concludes by providing teachers with some brief information about the two surveys to be completed by students (LSUS and LSS). The third part of the TB contains 12 tables with assigned exercises for strategy instruction in LL. Each table shows the lesson number, exercise and page number, type of language skill, name/description of the strategy in English, strategy category (metacognitive or task-based), and name/description of the strategy in Arabic. Under each table there is a list of tips for teaching the strategies.

#### 4.5.2.1 LLS in the Teacher's Booklet

Scholars such as Chamot (2004) and Oxford (2011) emphasize the importance of selecting the right strategies for instruction, as does Cohen (2011), who recommends choosing strategies that are familiar to learners and strategies that cover the learners' needs, considering learner characteristics like learning style preferences, personality characteristics, cultural and educational background, age, gender, career orientation, previous language study, and level and type of motivation. Oxford (2006, p. 94) stresses that '... effective learning occurs when students are fully engaged in a language task ...'; consequently, Macaro (2001) recommended that taught strategies should be

linked to the nature of the task's cognitive and metacognitive demands and should serve a number of language skills and processes, a rule of thumb which assisted in choosing strategies for the TB.

Cohen and Weaver (2006, p. 5) emphasize that it is the role of the curriculum writers or teachers in SSBI to integrate strategies into everyday class materials: 'Teachers may: a) start with the established course materials and then insert strategies, b) start with a set of strategies and design activities around them, or c) insert strategies spontaneously into the lesson when appropriate'. The present researcher followed the first point by basing the framework of the TB on the work of Chamot and her team in the NCLRC (2004). In one of their projects, 'Sailing the 5 Cs with Learning Strategies', they provided 20 general commonly used and effective LLS that they said would improve learners' skills in reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, vocabulary, and learning content. This obviously made them appropriate for the present study. In addition, the classification into metacognitive strategies and task-based strategies avoids classifying strategies according to previous taxonomies such as O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) and Oxford's (1990), which have received criticism as explained in 2.4.3. The trend in the field regarding strategy classification has become to specify a task then identify combinations of strategies that can be associated with that given task (Macaro, 2009).

Figure 2 below shows how NCLRC (2004) divided the 20 general strategies into metacognitive and task-based strategies, which are then summarized in Table 3 below.

### Applying Language Learning Strategies



Figure 2: Sailing the 5 Cs with Learning Strategies (NCLRC, 2004, p. 18)

Table 3: Strategies from NCLRC (2004)

Metacognitive Strategies	Task-Based Strategies
Organize/Plan your own learning	<i>Use what you know:</i>
Manage your own learning	Background
Monitor your own learning	Inferences
Evaluate your own learning	Predictions
	Personalise
	Transfer/Cognates
	Substitute/Paraphrase
	<i>Use your imagination:</i>
	Imagery
	Real objects/Role-play
	<i>Use your organizational skills:</i>
	Patterns
	Group/Classify
	Graphic organizers/Take notes
	Summarize
	Selective attention
	<i>Use a variety of resources:</i>
	Access information sources
	Cooperate
	Talk yourself through it

These 20 general LLS form the basis of the strategies taught in the present strategy instruction programme. However, it can be easily noticed that many other more specific strategies can be identified within them. Therefore, the researcher took advantage of the literature to choose appropriate more specific strategies for strategy instruction through LL, as follows:

First, the LSUS by Cohen *et al.* (2002a) yielded 39 more specific strategies from the 89 it listed, chosen because they served the purpose of strategy instruction through the exercises in the LL, based on the investigation of the LL for strategies in 4.5.1.1. For instance, ‘*listen for key words that seem to carry the bulk of the meaning*’ (put under selective attention); ‘*try to predict what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far*’ (put under predictions) were listening strategies selected from Cohen *et al.* (2002a) and explicitly taught to students to do listening tasks. Second, Paige *et al.* (2006) provided a list of strategies and considered them appropriate for teaching language skills in reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary; 22 of these were selected on the same basis as those from Cohen *et al.* (2002a) (see 4.5.1.1). For example, ‘*infer the meaning of words and ideas based on clues to meaning in the text*’ (put under inferences); ‘*check for prior knowledge of the topic*’ (put under background) were reading strategies selected from Paige *et al.* (2006) and explicitly taught to students to do reading tasks.

The final list of taught strategies thus includes 61 in all; see Appendix D for the list. In fact, the nature of the exercises in LL is helpful in applying ‘task-induced’ (Nyikos and Fan 2007, p. 267) strategy instruction as particular strategies can be easily assigned to serve particular tasks in LL. More details on how strategies were assigned to exercises in LL will be presented through examples in 4.6.3.

#### **4.5.2.2 Piloting the Teacher’s Booklet**

It was necessary to examine the feasibility of using the TB for strategy instruction in a real language classroom and to see if strategies listed in it corresponded to their assigned exercises in LL. For this purpose, the researcher sent a section of the TB to one of his Arab colleagues at the college (Teacher HS) for a pilot study. Communicating by email with Teacher HS, the researcher explained how the strategies are assigned to particular exercises and how they should be explicitly taught in the classroom in Arabic through the five SSBI steps, as we will see in 4.6.3. The researcher asked Teacher HS to provide feedback.

Teacher HS piloted the sample, instructing students in the listed strategies for one week. He rated the usefulness of the strategies on a 10-point scale, entirely impressionistically (relying on his own observations and students’ reactions to strategy instruction). His comments were supportive of the feasibility of strategy instruction using the TB based on the sample he used; in particular, according to him, most strategies in that sample were appropriate for their assigned exercises. However, he found two strategies less effective and one not effective at all. This is expected if we take the learner variables (such as learning style preferences, motivation, and beliefs), the learning variables (such as the teaching and learning methods) and the task, all of which should be expected to influence strategy use, into account. Those less effective strategies might be more effective for other students with different learning styles, or if used in other situations or exercises. Therefore, the researcher did not change the strategies listed in the TB. The main purpose of piloting the TB was to check the feasibility of explicitly teaching strategies in Arabic in a regular English language classroom, in addition to checking if strategies in the TB were properly assigned to exercises in the LL, and this was achieved. To be sure, the researcher asked Teacher HS directly if teaching the strategies in the classroom would be feasible and if the strategies were correctly assigned to their exercises in the LL. The response was, ‘generally speaking, yes’. Teacher HS acknowledged that ‘some of these [strategies] are time consuming’ but said that ‘strategies deserve the time spent on them.’ As more specific recommendations, Teacher HS suggested teaching one strategy at a time and evaluating students’ performance prior to and after teaching the strategy; however, the purpose of strategy instruction is to assist students to cluster strategies, making such individual evaluation difficult. Finally, the researcher asked Teacher HS if the students liked the idea of learning about

strategies in Arabic. The answer was ‘very much’; he believed that their attitude was favourable and they felt comfortable learning techniques in Arabic to assist them to learn English.

## 4.6 The Strategy Instruction Programme

Initially, the strategy instruction programme was proposed to last 12 weeks. However, after attending the institution and reviewing the class schedule, the intervention period was reduced to eight weeks, in addition to the interruption of four days of quizzes and the mid-term exam week.

Table 4 illustrates the timetable for the intervention.

Table 4: Timetable for strategy instruction and data collection

Week	Activity
One Jan/2015	Attending the institution Reviewing the pacing schedule of the preparatory year Assigning sections in the experimental and control group Assigning and meeting teachers in all groups Starting to prepare teachers in the experimental group for strategy instruction
Two Feb/2015	Conducting pre-LSUS in experimental and control group Conducting the LSS in experimental and control group Administering all proficiency pre-tests in all groups Beginning of strategy instruction (intervention)
Three Feb/2015	Intervention continued during this week Meeting the two teachers participating in the experimental group
Four Feb/2015	Intervention continued during this week for three days Two days spent on quizzes Meeting teachers in the experimental group
Five Feb/2015	Intervention continued during the whole week Meeting teachers in the experimental group
Six Mar/2015	Intervention continued for this whole week
Seven Mar/2015	Intervention continued for only three days this week Two days spent on quizzes
Eight Mar/2015	Intervention continued for the whole week Meeting teachers in the experimental group
Nine Mar/2015	Intervention was suspended this week due to mid-term exams
Ten Apr/2015	Intervention continued for the whole week Meeting teachers in the experimental group
Eleven Apr/2015	Intervention continued for the whole week
Twelve Apr/2015	Conducting post-LSUS Administering all proficiency post-tests in all groups
Thirteen Apr/2015	Interviewing students and teachers

#### **4.6.1 Summer Institute at CARLA**

Teachers should be trained in how to instruct students in strategies and assess their use in the classroom (Cohen, 1998, 2011, Griffiths, 2013, Oxford, 2011, Oxford *et al.*, 2014b, Rasekh and Ranjbary, 2003). To improve his skills and deepening his understanding of strategy instruction in the classroom, the researcher attended a summer school for one week in July 2014 (Appendix E) at the University of Minnesota's Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA), which has supported extensive research in the field of LLS under the supervision of Professor Andrew Cohen. The title of the training was 'Improving Language Learning Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction', and the instructor was Dr Martha Nyikos, who has been working in the field since the 1990s and had been training people in strategy instruction at CARLA for 10 years in 2014.

This programme was an invaluable opportunity for the researcher to be trained in strategy instruction so as to guide teachers in how to explicitly teach strategies in the classroom. During the training, the researcher was involved in a variety of presentations, debates, workshops, activities, and seminars, and was equipped with the proper tools for conducting strategy instruction and assisting others to do so. During this summer school, the researcher completed the LSUS to reflect on his strategy use and the LSS to identify his learning styles and immediately after that he was involved in discussions with other participants in the school to review some individual differences among language learners. In practicing strategy instruction during the summer school, the researcher had the opportunity to design and present a brief lesson through which the audience accomplished a task based on taught strategies and then they evaluated their effectiveness. This summer school was a significant thrust for the researcher to establish strategy instruction in the present study.

#### **4.6.2 Preparing Teachers for Strategy Instruction**

The two teachers participating in the experimental group were contacted by phone by the researcher two months prior to conducting the study. The researcher explained to them the nature, length and scope of the study, and asked if they were willing to take part. They were informed that they would be provided with a guide booklet to assist them and that there would be a meeting, weekly in principle, with the researcher to discuss the progress of strategy instruction. The researcher told them that additional information and materials would be given to them the week before the start of the intervention. In addition, the researcher asked the participating teachers to assist him with managing the questionnaires and administering the pre-and post-tests. Both teachers were happy to take part in the study and showed readiness and cooperation.

Oxford *et al.* (2014b) call for preparing teachers for strategy instruction. During the first week, prior to strategy instruction, the researcher introduced the two teachers in the experimental group to the strategy instruction concept, explaining the study topic in detail and going over exactly what they were to do in the classroom. Both participating teachers were given their own copies of the TB, and the researcher explained its content and how to employ it in teaching strategies, as well as how to follow the five steps of the strategy instruction framework in their classrooms. As a very important matter, the researcher informed the two participating teachers that they should use only Arabic to explain or teach the strategies, not English. To increase the teachers' knowledge of strategy instruction, the researcher provided them some additional materials on topics relevant to strategy instruction, such as motivating students to use and learn new strategies, learning styles and their importance in teaching LLS, how strategy instruction may create better language learners, as well as the LSUS and LSS surveys.

#### **4.6.3 Strategy Instruction through the SSBI Framework**

Cohen's (1998) strategy-based instruction framework, as was seen in Table 2, describes the roles of the teacher during strategy instruction as follows: 1) a *diagnostician* who helps students identify current strategies and learning styles; 2) a *language learner* who shares his/her own learning experiences and thinking processes; 3) a *learner trainer* who trains students in how to use learning strategies; 4) a *coordinator* who supervises students' study plans and monitors difficulties; and 5) a *coach* who provides students with ongoing guidance on their progress. Eight years later, influenced by Oxford's (2001) work, Cohen and Weaver (2006) updated the framework and produced SSBI, with its five steps for strategy instruction (as below).

The present study adopted the SSBI framework for the following reasons:

1. The SSBI framework is the only framework that links a very important learner variable, style, to using LLS and considers how style influences choice and use of LLS.
2. The SSBI framework is one of only three frameworks (along with those of Oxford (1990, 2006) and Chamot and colleagues (Chamot *et al.*, 1999; Chamot, 2004, 2005) that has been revised and updated.
3. Teachers and researchers can be trained on how to apply this framework in the classroom. The researcher was trained in it at CARLA.
4. There are calls in the field, such as Mizumoto and Takeuchi (2009), for strategy instruction that has the features of SSBI.

Teaching strategies using this framework should include the following five steps:

1. *Strategy Preparation*: In this step, teachers should recognise that students are not a 'blank slate' (Cohen 2011) when it comes to strategy use. Students are assumed to use their own

strategies, whether effectively or not and whether consciously. The purpose of this step is to understand students' consciousness of strategies and strategy use.

2. *Strategy Awareness-Raising*: According to Cohen and Weaver (2006, p. 5), part of the SSBI involves explicitly raising students' general awareness towards:
  - a) what the learning process may consist of, b) their learning style preferences or general approaches to learning, c) the kinds of strategies that they already use, as well as those suggested by the teacher or classmates, d) the amount of responsibility that they take on for their learning, [and] e) approaches that can be used to evaluate the students' strategy use.
3. *Strategy Instruction*: In this step, teachers explicitly explain the use of the strategies in the classroom, and clarify how, why, and when particular strategies can be useful for language learning. Explicit strategy instruction involves describing and modelling strategies in addition to giving examples. In the present study, teachers explicitly instructed students in strategies listed in the TB, in Arabic, using the assigned exercises in the students' language textbook (Language Leader).
4. *Strategy Practice*: In this step, students practice strategies taught in the preceding step. Strategy practice should be applied through activities that reinforce the taught strategies.
5. *Personalization of Strategies*: This step involves strategy evaluation; students should judge the taught strategies and try to use them in other contexts, a process known as strategy transfer.

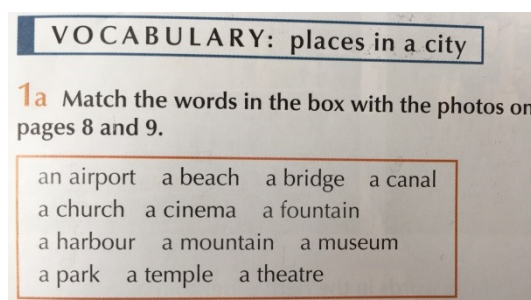
To facilitate the reader's understanding of the execution of these five steps, and how strategies were assigned to exercises in the students' language textbook, and to understand the strategy instruction programme generally, below are five examples reflecting how strategy instruction was implemented in the present study.

#### **4.6.3.1 Example of Instruction in Vocabulary Strategies**

In the LL, under Unit 1, titled 'Cities', there is a vocabulary exercise (1a) that asks students to match new words in the box with photos. The box contains the following vocabulary: *an airport, a beach, a bridge, a canal, a church, a cinema, a fountain, a harbour, a mountain, a museum, a park, a temple, and a theatre* (Image 9). The suggested strategies for strategy instruction for this exercise in the TB are: 'use flash cards' (a task-based strategy, or TBS), 'create visual maps (semantic mapping)' (TBS), 'link word sounds to sounds in Arabic or English' (TBS), and 'use quick and easy cognates' (TBS).



Image 9: Example of strategy instruction in vocabulary strategies



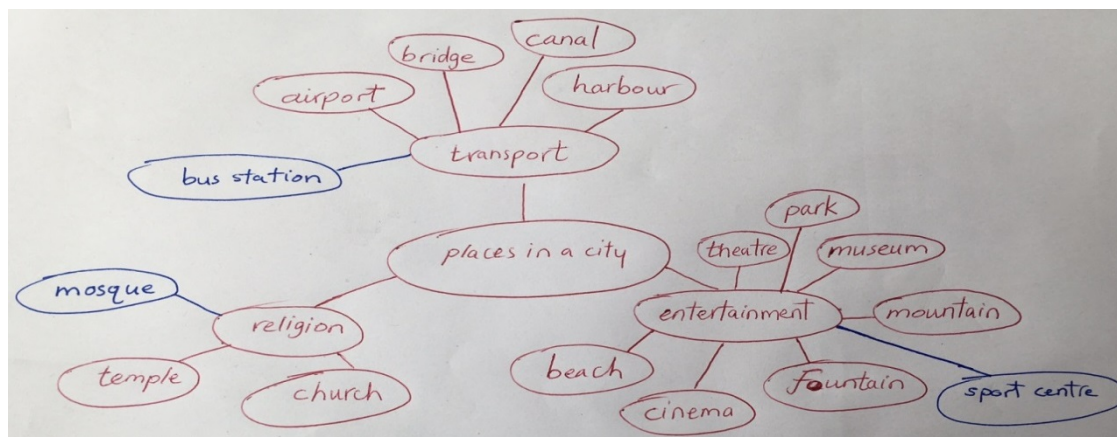
In the first step, strategy preparation, teachers should ask their students if they know about vocabulary strategies and if they are ready to use them. Teachers may ask students questions like ‘Do you know that there are some vocabulary strategies that may facilitate learning vocabulary?’ and ‘Do you think you will use these vocabulary strategies if you have been taught how to use them?’ This step introduces students to the concept of strategy, emphasizing its importance and encouraging students to start thinking about using it. Initially, it is meant to move at a leisurely pace, easing the students into strategy instruction.

In the next step, strategy awareness-raising, which is also expected to be very slow at the beginning, teachers raise students’ awareness about the learning process. Teachers should prompt students to think of their own ways of learning new words and to consider what they usually do when learning new words. They should also attract students’ attention to their own learning styles. As students will have completed the LSS at the beginning of the intervention and identified their learning styles, teachers should not only encourage them to consider their styles while learning but also inform them that their learning styles affect their acceptance of the suggested strategies in the materials they will be studying. Teachers should encourage students to try to expand their learning styles, as this allows them to learn and use new strategies. Teachers are also expected to urge their students to take more responsibility for their language learning, explaining that language cannot be learnt if students just depend on their teachers to learn; students should be aware that the main responsibility for learning English is theirs. After that, teachers are supposed to ask students if they have any strategies to learn new words such as these in exercise 1a. Students may or may not come up with some strategies. After hearing from students, teachers are supposed to encourage students to continue using the strategies they already use, and then to introduce the abovementioned vocabulary strategies by mentioning that there are some helpful vocabulary strategies which may facilitate learning and retaining new words.

In this third step, strategy instruction, teachers are supposed to explicitly name these suggested strategies (in Arabic) and explain to students how to use them. Teachers should explain to students that associating new words to images helps their brains memorise and retain new words, and

explain to them how to start making their own flash cards. Teachers should highlight that this strategy is favoured by visual learners but that students with different learning styles are also encouraged to think about using it. Teachers should also explain to students how to create visual semantic maps, drawing one on the whiteboard and asking students to extend it as in Image 10.

Image 10: Example of ‘create visual maps (semantic mapping) strategy



Also, teachers, as they are assumed in this intervention to share students’ mother tongue, are supposed to note that some words in the box sound like some Arabic words, such as [*canal*/قناة (QANAH)], while some sound like some other English words, such as [*beach/peach*], [*fountain/mountain*], [*park/bark*]. Teachers should explain to students that associating sounds of new words to already known words, whether in Arabic or in English, may facilitate learning these new words and help retain them. Teachers are expected to remind auditory and particular students that this strategy fits well with their style, but should encourage students with other learning styles to start thinking of using it as well. Further, teachers should explain to students that there are some Arabic and English cognates, such as [*cinema*/سينما (SINAMA)], and inform them that using quick and easy cognates may facilitate their vocabulary learning. Teachers should explain to students that this strategy may favour auditory or particular students; however, they should encourage all students with different learning styles to use it. Teachers should encourage students to cluster using these strategies rather than using them separately. For instance, *a fountain* and *a mountain* can both be grouped under ‘places for entertainment in the city’, as shown in the semantic map in Image 10, and they have similar sounds. Students should be informed that strategy clustering may be highly effective for vocabulary learning.

In the next step, strategy practice, teachers ask students to practice the suggested strategies (as the name implies). They should ask them to try associating new words with provided photos or with photos they like or know. In addition, teachers should ask students to draw their own semantic maps and expand them using other places they know in the city (for example). Teachers should also allow students to practice associating the sounds of target words to the sounds of other words,

whether in Arabic or English, that they have come up with on their own, and also to associate other new words with one another. Further, teachers are supposed to ask students to come up with English cognates for some Arabic words if they can.

In the last step, personalization of strategy, both students and teachers judge the use and effectiveness of the suggested strategies. Teachers should ask students if they managed to use any of the suggested vocabulary strategies (this in itself constitutes a metacognitive strategy: assess how well you have applied the strategies) and whether they found any of them effective (another metacognitive strategy: decide how effective the strategies were in helping you accomplish the task). The expectation is that some students will have applied all or some strategies effectively and others not. Teachers should encourage the former group to continue using these vocabulary strategies in other exercises, and the latter group to remember that not all strategies are appropriate to all students or tasks, but that there will be other situations where they will find and use certain vocabulary strategies effectively.

#### 4.6.3.2 Example of Instruction in Reading Strategies

In Unit 2 in the LL, titled 'Work and study', there are two articles: one about a businesswoman and the other about two pilots (Image 11). The articles give some details about those people and their jobs. Exercise 3, beside the articles, asks students to read the articles and decide whether the six sentences listed are true or false. The suggested reading strategies for this exercise in the TB are: 'plan how to accomplish the task' (metacognitive strategy, or MCS), 'infer the meaning of words and ideas based on clues' (TBS) and 'predict what will come in the text' (TBS).


Image 11: Example of strategy instruction in reading strategies

READING

**The businesswoman Youna Kim**

Youna is a fashion buyer. She's 31 and she lives in Seoul, in South Korea. She works for a big clothes shop. She says, 'I love my job. I go to a lot of countries and I buy clothes. But I don't wear them. They're for the shop – it sells the clothes.' Youna meets a lot of people in her job, but she doesn't meet any famous fashion designers!


**F**



**The pilots Jos van der Linde and Marco van den Berg**

Jos and Marco are pilots. Jos is 38 and Marco is 42. They live in Amsterdam, in Holland. They fly from Amsterdam to airports in Europe – for example, London, Rome and Frankfurt. They don't fly to the USA or to East Asia. Jos says, 'We like our jobs. We speak a lot of English and – in good weather – we see beautiful mountains, lakes and beaches.'

**G**



**3** Read the articles on page 14. Are these sentences true or false?

- 1 Youna is 28.    *false*
- 2 Youna works for a small clothes shop.
- 3 She doesn't sell clothes.
- 4 She designs clothes.
- 5 Jos and Marco fly to Rome.
- 6 They don't speak English.

Following the steps of the SSBI framework, teachers in the first step should ask students, as strategy preparation, if they know that there are reading strategies that can facilitate dealing with reading texts and if they are ready to use such strategies.

In the next step, strategy awareness-raising, teachers should encourage students to think not only of the content of the reading texts but also of ways of learning through reading texts. They should raise students' awareness of their learning styles and inform them that they may like using some strategies and may dislike using some others, but that they should not just stick to the styles they find comfortable, but try to stretch their learning styles, as this will enable them to discover and draw on other helpful strategies. Teachers should also encourage students to take more responsibility for their language learning. This step is expected to be slow at the beginning of the strategy instruction programme, but to speed up with time as it will be repeated many times during the intervention. Teachers should ask students to come up with strategies that facilitate dealing with the two articles and with true or false exercises. After hearing from students, teachers should praise students who suggested strategies, as motivation, and then provide the abovementioned three suggested reading strategies, telling students that these are helpful strategies you can use in dealing with reading texts and doing true or false exercises. At the same time, teachers should inform students that the suggested strategies may work for some students but not others due to differences in students' learning styles or maybe other reasons.

In the next step, explicitly teaching strategies in the classroom, teachers are supposed to directly and explicitly explain the three suggested reading strategies one by one in Arabic. For example, for the first strategy, teachers should inform students that there is a helpful strategy to deal with any task, called 'plan how to accomplish the task'. Teachers should explain that in a true or false exercise, planning how to accomplish the task takes place through the reading of the six listed sentences before the two articles. Teachers should inform students that this is meant to assist them in deciding whether the six sentences are true or false and thus to save their time. Teachers should then explain to students that there is another helpful reading strategy that enables them to gain some idea about the two articles (as they should do for all new strategies introduced): 'infer the meaning of words and ideas based on clues'. Teachers should explain to students that looking at features of photos or words such as which ones are written in bold, may help them get some idea about the two articles. Teachers should note that this top-down strategy will be more likely favoured by global students, but should ask particular students to considering using it also. The next reading strategy teachers should explicitly explain to students is 'predicting what will come in the text'—reading the six sentences and looking at the exercise's photos may assist students to predict what will come in the text or what the text will be about. This top-down strategy may again be more liked by global students, but teachers should again encourage all students to try it. Teachers are also supposed to advise students to use more than one strategy (strategy orchestration)

at the same time as this may facilitate their learning and improve task performance. For example, inferring the main idea of the two articles through photos and simultaneously predicting what will come in the text by reading the six statements may combine to result in better comprehension of the two articles.

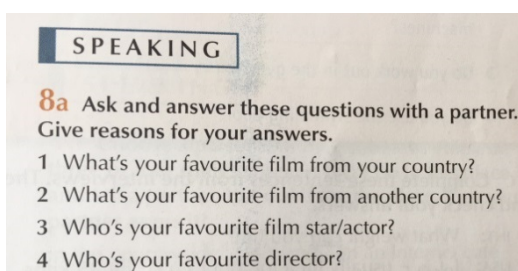
In the next step, students should practice these strategies. Teachers should ask students to look at the photos attached to the two articles and at the titles of the articles to infer the topic of the articles. Then, they should ask students to read the six sentences quickly before reading the two articles, and ask students to predict what the articles will be about. After that, students should read the two articles and answer the exercise by saying which sentence is true and which is false. Then, teachers should check the answers with students to ensure that they understand the correct answer.

The next and last step is for both teachers and students to evaluate the effectiveness of the suggested strategies. Teachers should ask students what their impressions were of using these strategies and whether they assisted them in achieving the task or not (as metacognitive strategies). After hearing from students, teachers should have some indication of the effectiveness of the suggested reading strategies. If students' evaluation was positive, the teacher should encourage students to think of using the same strategies in other skills such as writing, listening, or speaking. If students were unhappy about the strategies, the teacher should remind students that some strategies may work for some but not all students or in some but not all situations.

#### **4.6.3.3 Example of Instruction in Speaking Strategies**

Under Unit 4 in the LL, 'Leisure time', a speaking exercise (8a) is presented that requires students to ask and answer a list of questions about their favourite films, film actors, and film directors, and to justify their answers (Image 12). The TB suggests the following speaking strategies to improve students' speaking and to complete this exercise: 'ask questions to be involved in the conversation' (TBS), 'act out or draw the word' (TBS), 'look for a different way/word to express the idea' (TBS), 'reduce your anxiety when speaking' (TBS) and 'ask for help while speaking' (TBS).

Image 12: Example of strategy instruction in speaking strategies



In the strategy preparation step, teachers should find out if their students know about speaking strategies and if they have the ability to use these strategies. The importance of learning new strategies should be highlighted.

In the next step, awareness-raising, teachers should guide students think not only of the content of the language they learn but also of their own ways of learning. Moreover, teachers are expected to prompt their students to take more responsibility for their learning and remember that it is not only their teachers who should be responsible for their language learning, but they themselves. As students have come to be familiar with their learning styles through the LSS, teachers should advise them to consider their learning styles and how they may affect their acceptance of new strategies. As in strategy instruction in other skills, teachers should remind students that by stretching their learning styles, they will have more opportunities to learn new strategies. In this step, teachers should also ask students if they can come up with helpful speaking strategies in general or to do exercise 8a in particular; and if students are able to come up with some such strategies, teachers should not ignore them but should motivate them to use the strategies. Then, teachers should provide the above-suggested speaking strategies and move to the following step.

In this step, strategy instruction, teachers are supposed to directly and explicitly name the suggested speaking strategies in Arabic and explain how to use them. They should demonstrate to students that if they want to be involved in a conversation in English, not only in the classroom but also outside, asking questions is a good strategy to initiate such a conversation. That is, this strategy may encourage students to break the wall of shyness and start initiating conversations in English. In regard to exercise 8a, this strategy may prompt students to compete to be the first to ask the listed questions. Teachers should attract students' attention to the fact that this strategy may be mostly liked by extroverted students, but should also advise introverted learners to try it. Next, teachers should explain to students that if they are unable to express themselves or deliver their ideas due to limited linguistic knowledge, they may physically act out the ideas or draw the words. This strategy will be agreeable to kinaesthetic/tactile students, but teachers should encourage visual and auditory students to give it a try as well. In another suggested strategy, teachers should suggest to students that they can express themselves in different ways using different words, which may be favoured by global students (though teachers should encourage particular students to also try it). Teachers should also inform students about the strategy of reducing their anxiety while speaking, for example by taking a deep breath, not dwelling on one's fear of making mistakes, or increasing one's self-confidence. Another strategy that many students may be embarrassed or hesitate in using is to ask for help while speaking; teachers should make it clear to students that it is normal for language learners to ask for help when they have difficulties while speaking. In Saudi culture, students may often feel embarrassed to ask for help with their speaking, and so teachers should assist them to start using this strategy. More importantly, teachers should suggest to students that if



they find themselves unable to deliver their messages in conversation, they may speak better if they reduce their anxiety while speaking and ask their interlocutors for assistance with their speaking in order to find other ways to express themselves better.

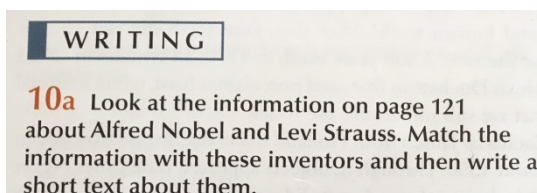
In the next step, practicing strategy, teachers allow students to do the exercise in pairs. Students are expected to use the suggested speaking strategies while asking and answering questions in the exercise, while teachers are supposed to permit enough time for students to practice, observe students while working in pairs, and remind them to use the suggested speaking strategies.

In the final step, personalization of strategy, students are supposed to express their judgment of the effectiveness of the suggested strategies, and teachers are supposed to ask students if they managed to use any of the strategies and if they were effective. Probably, some students will find the suggested strategies or some of them helpful, but others may find them ineffective. Teachers should inform students that strategies may work with some learners/situations but not others.

#### **4.6.3.4 Example of Instruction in Writing Strategies**

This example describes how writing strategies should be explicitly taught in the strategy instruction programme. Unit 9 in the LL is titled 'Inventions'; exercise 10a (Image 13) asks students to look at page 121 at the end of their textbook (LL) where there is some basic information about Alfred Nobel and Levi Strauss. Students are expected to match individual pieces of information to one of the two men and then write a short text about the two inventors using the given information.

Image 13: Example of strategy instruction in writing strategies



To teach writing strategies using the five steps in the SSBI framework through this exercise, teachers should use the TB, which provides the following suggested writing strategies for this exercise: 'plan out what you are going to write' (MCS), 'edit grammar and mechanics after your ideas are written' (MCS), 'look for a different way to express the idea, like synonyms' (TBS), and 'accept feedback on your errors' (MCS). As this exercise is in Unit 9, teachers and students should now be used to moving through the five steps faster than earlier on in the intervention. This means that in strategy preparation, teachers should just quickly ascertain if students know about any writing strategies and if they are ready to use these strategies.

In the second step, strategy awareness-raising, teachers should not spend much time as previously on raising students' awareness towards their learning processes and their learning styles, but they should remind students to be responsible for their learning and to stretch their learning styles to learn new strategies. This is because we are in a later unit not because we are now working on writing strategies, that is, teaching writing strategies in early units moved slowly, as for the other skills. Teachers ask students if they can come up with some writing strategies to do exercise 10a. As this exercise is in Unit 9, students will be expected to already know some writing strategies from their previous strategy instruction classes. After hearing from students and motivating them to keep using strategies, teachers are supposed to provide the abovementioned suggested writing strategies and then move on to the strategy instruction step.

In this step, teachers inform students that they can use some strategies to facilitate their writing. Teachers should explicitly name suggested strategies in Arabic, as in the TB. They should not take a long time to explain the idea of 'planning out what you are going to write' and how to use it, as this strategy was explained early, in Unit 1, and has been practiced many times in different units. Teachers should explain to students that this strategy may be more liked by particular modality students but that global students should be advised to employ it too. Next, teachers should explain to students how to 'look for a different way to express the idea, like using synonyms', by writing two sentences with the same meaning using synonyms such as: *Alfred Nobel invented dynamite in 1866* and *Alfred Nobel made the first explosives in 1866*. Teachers should ask students not to initially think about grammar and spelling mistakes while writing their ideas, as they will be able to do that after finishing their writing; teachers should explain to students that they need to focus on initiating their ideas first, as thinking of grammar and spelling while initiating ideas disrupts their thinking. Particular modality students may seem most favour of using this strategy, though global students should also be encouraged by the teacher to think about it. Also, teachers are expected to encourage students to 'accept feedback on their errors', by their classmates or by their teachers. They should inform students that by accepting and considering feedback on their work they will improve their writing and learn from their errors. This strategy may likely be more used by extroverted students, but teachers should encourage introverted students to be more open to accepting feedback as well.

In the practice strategy step, teachers allow students to practice the suggested writing strategies by themselves; this is where they look at the information about the two inventors on page 121, and write down notes. Teachers should allow enough time for students to do so. Next, in their writing, students should be encouraged by teachers to 'look for different ways to express their ideas'; teachers may provide some scaffolding for students such as indicating how to come up with ideas or how to write sentences in different ways. After finishing their writing, students are encouraged to review their texts and fix their grammar and mechanics if they can. Teachers may give feedback



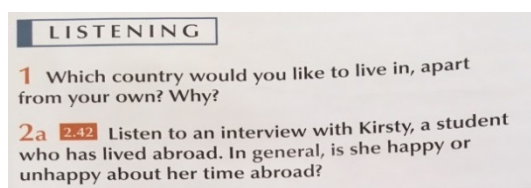
on students' writing if there is time or ask students to exchange their work and give each other feedback. The purpose of teaching the strategy of accepting feedback on your errors is to show students that it is normal to make errors and that getting feedback helps improve one's writing.

In the last step, personalization of strategy, teachers should ask students about their opinions of the effectiveness of the suggested writing strategies (highlighting metacognitive strategies). As for the other skills, some students may find the suggested strategies useful and some students may not. For those who do, teachers should encourage them to continue using the suggested strategies, and for those who don't, teachers should remind them that not all strategies are effective with all students or all exercises. Teachers should encourage those students to remember that there may be other strategies that will work for them in other writing exercises, as a result of their learning styles or the nature of the task at hand.

#### **4.6.3.5 Example of Instruction in Listening Strategies**

Listening strategies were also explicitly taught in the classrooms. The last unit in the LL (Unit 12), 'Travel', has a listening exercise (2a) that asks students to listen to an interview with a student named Kirsty who has lived away from her home country. Students should listen and decide if Kirsty was happy or unhappy about her time abroad (Image 14). The following are suggested listening strategies to achieve this task from the TB: 'try to predict what the speaker will say' (TBS), 'comprehend the message without understanding every word' (TBS), 'listen for keywords' (TBS), and 'try to stay in the conversation' (MCS).

Image 14: Example of strategy instruction in listening strategies



Using the five steps in the SSBI framework, in the first step, teachers are supposed to prepare students for the task by asking them if they know about listening strategies and if they have the capability to utilize them. As this exercise is in Unit 12, teachers should not spend much time on this step, as they are in the last week of the intervention and should have done this step many times. Therefore, they move quickly to the following step.

In the second step, strategy awareness-raising, teachers are supposed to remind students to consider their learning processes and learning styles—only briefly, as this should have taken place many times already during the intervention. Teachers should also remind students of their own responsibility for their language learning and urge them to take on more responsibility. After that,

teachers should ask students if they have any listening strategies that may facilitate doing exercise 2a. After hearing from students, teachers should praise students who manage to provide strategies. They then, should introduce the suggested strategies above by informing students that there are some strategies that may be effective in dealing with listening tasks. As this is Unit 12, students should have already practiced the suggested strategies during intervention. Thus, teachers should move to the following step.

In the third step, teachers should explicitly teach the suggested strategies. They should name the strategies and explain to students how to use them, in Arabic. Teachers should explain to students that it is helpful for them to try to predict what speakers are going to say based on the situation or information at hand. In exercise 2a, students should be encouraged to predict what Kirsty is going to say in the interview—especially in light of the hints they have received, which are that Kirsty, a student, stayed abroad for some time and may or may not have been happy there. Prediction is a top-down strategy that may be liked by global students, as teachers should highlight while also encouraging particular modality students to start thinking of using it. Also, teachers are supposed to inform students that it is not necessary to understand all the details of the interview, but might be enough to comprehend the main idea—though specific details are sometimes important to understand in specific cases. Teachers should inform students that comprehending the message and understanding the main idea is a top-down strategy that might be favoured by global students, though they should also advise particular modality students to try it. Meanwhile, teachers should also explain to students that there are important words (keywords) that can convey the meaning of a text, and that students should listen carefully to these words, which may enable them to comprehend better. This strategy is another top-down strategy that may be more used by global students, and so teachers are supposed to encourage particular modality students to give it a try as well. The last suggested strategy is a metacognitive strategy, prompting students to resist falling out of the conversation and continue listening even if they feel they are unable to continue due to difficulty in comprehending. This strategy may provide students with some hope that they can grasp at least part of the main idea of the interview. Students should be motivated to cluster these strategies to gain better listening comprehension. For instance, predicting what will come in the interview through hints at hand, listening to the keywords in the interview without understanding all of them, and persisting in listening and trying to understand may result in better listening comprehension if students employ them together to achieve this listening task.

In the fourth step, practicing strategy, teachers will give students opportunities to practice suggested listening strategies by starting the CD and letting students employ the strategies. Teachers may play the CD multiple times if desired to give more opportunities.

In the final step, students should be asked about their use and the effectiveness of the suggested listening strategies. If any students find effective listening strategies, teachers should encourage them to regularly use those strategies in other exercises or transfer them to other tasks. Conversely, if some students, as expected, find the suggested strategies or some of them ineffective, teachers should remind them that not all strategies work for all students or tasks.

## 4.7 Data Analysis

The first research question (*What is the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness?*) sought to investigate the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness. The question guided the analysis procedure. Students' responses on the pre- and post-LSUS were recorded on a spreadsheet. Descriptive statistics were obtained using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Students' responses under the four options of the pre- and post-LSUS were analysed to find the means of percentages of students under each option. The means of percentages of students under each option in the pre- and post-LSUS were entered in the SPSS to compare students' strategy awareness before and after intervention through a paired sample t-test.

The second research question (*What is the effect of strategy instruction on students' language proficiency?*) sought to examine the effect of strategy instruction on students' proficiency in reading, writing, listening, speaking and vocabulary. Therefore, the question also guided the analysis procedure. Students' scores in the pre-and post-tests in both groups were entered in the SPSS respectively. Using SPSS, the results were analysed as follows: A Kolmogorov–Smirnov (KS) test was carried out to check the normality of distribution of students' scores in the pre-test in each single skill. Then, a Mann–Whitney U-test was conducted to check whether there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups with regard to the mean score of each skill in the pre- and post-tests. To measure the effect size of difference between the two groups, an ANCOVA was carried out in each individual skill.

The third research question (*What is the role of learning style preferences in this study?*) which investigated the role of learning styles in this study was categorized into two sub-questions. The first one (*What are the learning style preferences of participating students in terms of each of three categories of learning style?*) investigated the learning styles of participants through the LSS used in this study. Frequencies and percentages of participants' learning styles were calculated through SPSS. The second sub-question (*How do students with different learning style preferences differ in terms of language proficiency?*) compared the proficiency of students with different learning styles. A one -way ANOVA test was utilized to compare students' proficiency in different learning styles.

The fourth research question (*What is students' and their teachers' feedback on the strategy instruction programme implemented?*) investigated students' and teachers' feedback on the strategy instruction programme through structured interviews. The qualitative data collected through this instrument were analysed through pre-prepared and elaborate themes covered in a list of questions indicated in Appendix F.

## **4.8 Summary**

A total of 197 male Saudi college students, and their five teachers plus the researcher participated in the study. Students were divided into an experimental and control group, and only students in the experimental group received strategy instruction. Data were collected through administering pre- and post-tests that measured students' proficiency in language skills and vocabulary. Data were also collected through a pre- and post-strategy survey in addition to a learning style survey. These quantitative data were triangulated by interviewing seven students with different learning styles, two teachers from the experimental group in order to obtain their feedback on the strategy instruction programme, and two teachers from the control group to ensure that they were not explicitly teaching strategies in Arabic in their language classrooms.

Teaching materials used in the present study encompassed the students' language textbook (LL) which was examined. The LLS included in it were analysed. It was used to design the TB that was used as an essential teaching resource for strategy instruction. For the purpose of strategy instruction, the researcher needed to train himself, and he prepared the participating teachers for strategy instruction as well. The strategy instruction programme lasted for eight weeks through which 61 LLS were explicitly taught in Arabic in regular language classrooms. Strategy instruction encompassed reading, writing, listening, speaking and vocabulary strategies.

The following chapter presents the findings of the current study.

## **Chapter 5: Findings**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter reports the results of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis for the four research questions performed in this mixed methods experimental study. Quantitative results represented in strategy and style surveys in addition to pre- and post-tests were obtained from statistical analyses using SPSS software while qualitative results were obtained through structured interviews with seven students, two teachers who taught strategies for students in the experimental group, and two teachers who taught students in the control group. The first three research questions were mainly addressed through the findings of the quantitative analysis whereas the fourth research question was addressed through the collection of qualitative data.

### **5.2 Findings of Quantitative Data**

Quantitatively, the instrument used for strategy awareness was a survey adapted from Cohen *et al.* (2002a). In this survey, participants checked one of the following four options: I use this strategy and like it; I have tried this strategy and would use it again; I've never used this strategy; and this strategy doesn't fit for me. Means of students' percentages under each option were calculated to examine the effect of strategy instruction on participants' strategy awareness. The following interpretation was used: the increase of students' strategy awareness was indicated by the increase in the means of students' percentages in the post-LSUS in options one and two, and also by the decrease in the means of students' percentages in options three and four in the post-LSUS.

Participants' language proficiency level in reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary was measured through pre- and post-tests. The used instrument for identifying participants' learning style preferences was a survey adapted from Cohen *et al.* (2002b). In this survey, participants responded using the following five-point Likert scale: 0 never; 1 rarely; 2 sometimes; 3 often; 4 always. The survey determined seven learning style preferences: visual-auditory-kinaesthetic\tactile, extroversion-introversion and global-particular.

#### **5.2.1 First Research Question**

What is the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness?

The first research question aimed to explore the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness. This can be achieved through comparing students' responses on pre- and post-LSUS. In this section, students' strategy awareness is compared for untaught strategies listed in the LSUS followed by other strategies which were listed in the LSUS but were among other strategies explicitly taught in the strategy instruction programme.

Table 5: Untaught and taught strategies

83 strategies listed in LSUS	61 strategies taught during strategy instruction
44 untaught strategies	22 taught strategies but not listed in LSUS
39 taught strategies ◀=====▶	39 taught strategies and listed in LSUS

Of the 83 strategies listed in the LSUS, 39 strategies were explicitly taught in the strategy instruction programme as Table 5 shows. The remaining 44 strategies listed in the LSUS were not taught in the strategy instruction programme but students' strategy awareness of them was calculated. In fact, the strategy instruction programme explicitly taught 61 strategies for reading, writing, listening, speaking and vocabulary. A total of 39 of these taught strategies were among strategies listed in the LSUS as Table 5 shows; consequently, students' strategy awareness of them was calculated. The remaining 22 taught strategies in the strategy instruction programme were not listed in the LSUS; therefore, students' strategy awareness of these 22 strategies was not calculated. In other words, students' strategy awareness was calculated for only strategies listed in the LSUS whether taught or untaught. We first begin with a discussion of the 44 untaught strategies listed in the LSUS.

#### Untaught Strategies (Paired Sample T-Test)

In order to answer the first research question, which examines the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness, participants' responses on the pre- and post LSUS were calculated using SPSS. Students' strategy awareness of the 44 untaught strategies listed in the LSUS, prior to and after the treatment, was examined. A paired sample t-test was used to compare the means of students' percentages under each option in the pre- and post-LSUS as shown in Table 6 below.

Table 6: Means of students' percentages under the four options in the pre- and post-LSUS (44 untaught strategies)

Option	Group	Mean of Students' %: <u>Pre</u>	Mean of Students' %: <u>Post</u>	Significance: Paired T Test
1) I use this strategy and like it	Experimental Control	33.07% 34.14%	35.04% 33.65%	<b>.03*</b> .52
2) I have tried this strategy and would use it again	Experimental Control	26.27% 24.58%	34.61% 31.56%	<b>.00*</b> <b>.00*</b>

3) I've never used this strategy	Experimental	25.47%	20.58%	<b>.00*</b>
	Control	25.85%	23.03%	<b>.00*</b>
4) This strategy doesn't fit for me	Experimental	15.21%	9.55%	<b>.00*</b>
	Control	15.44%	11.78%	<b>.00*</b>

Option One: I use this strategy and like it

Overall, this option was the most checked option by students in both groups in the pre-LSUS. Although the strategy instruction programme had not yet started at this stage, around one-third of students in both groups showed that they used and liked those 44 untaught strategies. In the post-LSUS as well, this option was checked by more than a third of the students in both groups.

The details in Table 6 above reveal that the means of students' percentages in the experimental group increased significantly (at the  $p = .05$  level) in the post-LSUS in this option. Regarding the 44 untaught strategies listed in the LSUS, 33.07% of students in the experimental group indicated that they used and liked these strategies in the pre-LSUS. This percentage increased significantly ( $p = .03$ ) to 35.04% in the post-LSUS by almost two percentage points. This indicates that completing the LSUS and perhaps strategy instruction contributed to the increase of students' relevant strategy awareness.

Comparing the means of students' percentages in the control group, it can be noticed that instead of 34.14% of the students who indicated that they used and liked these 44 untaught strategies in the pre-LSUS, only 33.65% of them indicated that they used and liked these strategies in the post-LSUS. This decrease in percentage in this group was not significant at the  $p = .05$  level ( $p = .52$ ). Students in this group did not receive strategy instruction; therefore, it can be indicated that the drop in percentage points in this group was a result of lack of strategy instruction which seemed to raise students' strategy awareness in the experimental group.

Option Two: I have tried this strategy and would use it again

About a quarter of students from both groups checked this option in the pre-LSUS. This percentage increased in the post-LSUS to more than one-third of the experimental group and close to one-third of the control group. It appears that completing the LSUS twice raised students' strategy awareness in both groups.

Table 6 indicates a clear trend of increase in choosing this option in the post-LSUS in both groups. While 26.27% of the students in the experimental group reported that they had tried these 44 untaught strategies and would use them again prior to intervention (language learners are not 'blank slates'), 34.61% of them (significantly increased,  $p = .00$ ) expressed that they had tried these strategies and would use them again after the intervention. This increase in means of students'

percentages is the highest in Table 6 with eight percentage points. This may indicate that strategy instruction prompted participants in the experimental group to try new strategies from the LSUS.

Similar increase (almost seven percentage points) was found in the control group where means of students' percentage significantly increased ( $p = .00$ ) in the post-LSUS to 31.56% instead of 24.58% in the pre-LSUS. Although participants in this group were not involved in the intervention, it appears that they benefited from completing the LSUS twice in terms of becoming more aware about trying new strategies however their means of percentage in the first option decreased in the post-LSUS.

#### Option Three: I've never used this strategy

This option was checked by a quarter of the students from both groups in the pre-LSUS. This percentage dropped in both groups in the post-LSUS. Decrease in the means of students' percentages in options three and four imply increase in students' strategy awareness. It seems that completing the LSUS increased the students' strategy awareness. Participants might become more familiar with strategies after completing the LSUS. They might have started trying or using these strategies that they had indicated as never-used in the pre-LSUS.

Means of students' percentages significantly decreased (at the  $p = .05$ ) in the third and fourth options in the post-LSUS. In the third option, instead of 25.47% of students in the experimental group who indicated that they had never used these 44 untaught strategies in the pre-LSUS, only 20.58% of them indicated that they had never used these strategies in the post-LSUS. A drop of five percentage points for this option might suggest that participants started using new strategies that they had never used before as a result of strategy instruction in general. Additionally, completing the LSUS might have increased students' strategy awareness about strategies that they were unaware of before completing the survey.

Another significant decrease was exhibited in the control group under this option. While 25.85% of students in the control group revealed that they had never used these 44 untaught strategies in the pre-LSUS, only 23.03% of them indicated that they had never used these strategies in the post-LSUS with a significant decrease equalling  $p = .00$ . This suggests that completing the LSUS might have contributed to students' strategy awareness as students might have started using strategies they had never used previously.

#### Option Four: This strategy doesn't fit for me

This option was the least checked option by all students in both groups in the pre-LSUS. Means of students' percentage dropped by almost five percentage points in the post-LSUS in both groups, indicating that students' strategy awareness increased. The percentage of students who showed that



some of these 44 untaught strategies did not fit them in the pre-LSUS decreased by almost five percentage points indicating that some students began to deem some of the strategies to be suitable.

In the experimental group, the mean of students' percentage in this option decreased significantly. Instead of 15.21% of the students in this group who indicated that these strategies did not fit them in the pre-LSUS, only 9.55% of them indicated the same in the post-LSUS. The drop by almost six percentage points (significant decrease where  $p = .00$ ) in this option is an indication that completing the LSUS twice and strategy instruction might have increased participants' strategy awareness towards using or trying strategies that they deemed unsuitable at the beginning of the study.

At the  $p = .05$  level, the mean of students' percentage decreased significantly ( $p = .00$ ) in the control group. Only 11.78% of students indicated that these 44 untaught strategies did not fit them in the post-LSUS, instead of 15.44% of them who indicated that these strategies did not fit for them in the pre-LSUS. Nonetheless, completing the LSUS appears to have increased their strategy awareness. More than three percent of the students who said that these 44 untaught strategies did not fit for them at the beginning of the study in this group indicated that they deemed these strategies suitable by the end of the study.

Results displayed in Table 6 above show that students' strategy awareness in both groups increased to some extent in a similar manner with a slight advantage for students in the experimental group. In other words, students in the experimental and control groups expressed a similar trend (to an extent) in checking the four options in the pre- and post-LSUS, particularly for the 44 untaught strategies, although figures indicated that means of students' percentages in the experimental group increased more than their counterparts in the control group in the first and second options and decreased more than their counterparts' means of percentages in the control group in the third and fourth options.

Further analysis is needed to examine students' strategy awareness towards the 39 taught strategies in the strategy instruction. Means of students' percentages in both groups need to be compared to examine if the strategy instruction programme offered to students in the experimental group had more influence on students' strategy awareness towards these 39 taught strategies.

#### Taught Strategies (Paired Sample T-Test)

We now discuss the 39 taught strategies. Similar to the statistical analysis used in comparing means of students' percentages under the four options of the pre- and post-LSUS applied for the 44 untaught strategies above, means of students' percentages under the four options of the pre- and post-LSUS were compared using paired sample t-tests, but only for the 39 taught strategies listed in the LSUS this time. This comparison aims to examine the effect of strategy instruction on students'

strategy awareness of these 39 taught strategies. Table 7 below illustrates means of students' percentages under the four options in the pre- and post-LSUS for only the 39 taught strategies.

Table 7: Means of students' percentages under the four options in the pre- and post-LSUS (39 taught strategies)

Option	Group	Mean of Students' %: <u>Pre</u>	Mean of Students' %: <u>Post</u>	Significance: Paired T Test
1) I use this strategy and like it	Experimental Control	33.17% 35.03%	38.05% 34.73%	<b>.00*</b> .80
2) I have tried this strategy and would use it again	Experimental Control	25.73% 26.30%	34.69% 28.13%	<b>.00*</b> .10
3) I've never used this strategy	Experimental Control	25.86% 24.40%	18.16% 23.61%	<b>.00*</b> .44
4) This strategy doesn't fit for me	Experimental Control	15.23% 14.27%	9.13% 13.54%	<b>.00*</b> .51

Option One: I use this strategy and like it

Similar to the results for the untaught strategies, this option was the most checked option by students in both groups for the 39 taught strategies listed in the LSUS.

Figures in Table 7 above reveal that the means of students' percentages in the experimental group for the 39 taught strategies increased significantly ( $p = .00$ ) in the post-LSUS in this option. Instead of 33.17% of the students who indicated that they used and liked these 39 strategies in the pre-LSUS, 38.05% of them indicated that they used and liked these 39 taught strategies in the post-LSUS. It appears that strategy instruction in the experimental group increased students' strategy awareness of these 39 strategies.

In the control group, the mean of students' percentage decreased but not significantly ( $p = .80$ ), by less than one percentage point. For the 39 taught strategies, the mean of students' percentages dropped to 34.73% in the post-LSUS instead of 35.03% in the pre-LSUS. Although participants in this group completed the LSUS twice exactly like their peers in the experimental group did, their mean of percentage in this option decreased. This implies that strategy instruction for students in the experimental group might have helped increase their strategy awareness in the experimental group.

Option Two: I have tried this strategy and would use it again

The mean of students' percentage in the experimental group, who indicated that they had tried these 39 strategies and would use them again, increased significantly ( $p = .00$ ) by almost nine

percentage points. In other words, regarding the 39 taught strategies, the mean of students' percentage in the experimental group increased from 25.73% in the pre-LSUS to 34.69% in the post-LSUS. This indicates that it is not only completing the LSUS that raised students' strategy awareness in this group, but also strategy instruction that influenced students' strategy awareness.

The mean of students' percentage in the control group towards the 39 taught strategies increased but not significantly ( $p = .10$ ). Instead of 26.30% of students who indicated that they had tried these strategies and would use them again in the pre-LSUS, 28.13% of them illustrated that they had tried and would use these strategies in the post-LSUS. This indicates that completing the LSUS twice might have made the students aware of these 39 strategies but did not reach significance. The difference of seven percentage points between the two groups can be attributed to strategy instruction delivered to students in the experimental group.

Option Three: I've never used this strategy

Approximately one quarter of students in both groups indicated that they had never used these 39 taught strategies in the pre-LSUS. This percentage dropped in both groups' post-LSUS. The decrease of students' percentages for this option indicates that students started using strategies they had never used previously which means that their strategy awareness towards these 39 strategies had increased.

Examining Table 7 above for this option reveals that students' percentage in the experimental group decreased significantly ( $p = .00$ ) from 25.86% in the pre-LSUS to 18.16% in the post-LSUS. This is lower almost by seven percentage points. This may suggest that the strategy awareness of students in this group benefited not only from completing the LSUS but also from the strategy instruction programme.

Simultaneously, students' percentage in the control group towards these 39 taught strategies decreased but not significantly ( $p = .44$ ) by less than two percentage points. Instead of 24.40% of students who illustrated that they had never used these strategies in the pre-LSUS, only 23.61% of them indicated that they had never used these strategies in the post-LSUS. As mentioned above, the decrease in students' percentage in this option means that students started using strategies they had never used before. In this group, students' percentage dropped as an indication for benefitting from completing the LSUS, but in comparison with the significant decrease in the experimental group, it can be noticed that strategy instruction provided for students in the experimental group resulted in significant drop in this option which is not the case for the control group under this option.

Option Four: This strategy doesn't fit for me

While option one was the most checked option by students in both groups, this option was the least checked one. As we see below, means of students' percentages under this option decreased in the post-LSUS. The decrease of students' percentage in this option implies that students started trying, or using these strategies which they did not deem suitable at the beginning of the study.

With regard to the 39 taught strategies in this option, the mean of students' percentage in the experimental group decreased significantly ( $p = .00$ ) from 15.23% in the pre-LSUS to 9.13% in the post-LSUS. The number of students who indicated that these 39 taught strategies did not fit them at the beginning of the study dropped significantly at the end of the study as a result of students' strategy awareness. It can be assumed that some of these strategies were deemed suitable by some students after their strategy awareness increased by completing the LSUS and the strategy instruction programme.

As reported in Table 7, the mean of students' percentage in the control group under this option decreased but not significantly ( $p = .51$ ), by less than one percentage point. Instead of 14.27% of students who indicated that these 39 taught strategies were not suitable in the pre-LSUS, only 13.54% of them indicated that these strategies did not fit them in the post-LSUS. Students' strategy awareness in this group might have increased through completing the LSUS although it had not increased as much as the experimental group.

## Summary

The first research question which investigated the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness is summarized in Table 8. Overall, for the 44 untaught strategies listed in the LSUS, students in the experimental and control group similarly checked the four options on the pre- and post-LSUS. Students in both groups benefited from completing the pre- and post-LSUS to raise their strategy awareness; however, the analysis revealed that the students in the experimental group had an advantage because of the strategy instruction they received. Although students in both groups indicated their acceptance of the 39 taught strategies to some extent similarly at the beginning of the study, only students in the experimental group differed significantly in checking these 39 taught strategies at the end of the study. Students in the experimental group reported higher strategy awareness (through significant increases in option 1 and option 2) with regard to these 39 taught strategies in comparison to their counterparts in the control group who indicated an increase (only option 2) in their strategy awareness but not significantly so. They also reported higher strategy awareness (through significant decreases in option 3 and option 4) towards these 39 strategies in comparison to their counterparts in the control group who indicated little strategy awareness (through insignificant decreases in option 3 and option 4) that didn't reach any significance. In conclusion, completing the LSUS at the beginning and at the end of the study increased students' strategy awareness in both groups. However, in terms of the 39 taught

strategies, strategy instruction increased students' strategy awareness in the experimental group significantly in comparison to their peers' strategy awareness in the control group.

Table 8: Summary of the findings in Table 6 and 7

Option	LSUS strategies	Experimental	Control
1) I use this strategy and like it	44 Untaught	S+	N-
	39 Taught	S+	N-
2) I have tried this strategy and would use it again	44 Untaught	S+	S+
	39 Taught	S+	N+
3) I've never used this strategy	44 Untaught	S-	S-
	39 Taught	S-	N-
4) This strategy doesn't fit for me	44 Untaught	S-	S-
	39 Taught	S-	N-

S+: Significant Increase; S-: Significant Decrease; N+: Not Significant Increase; N-: Not Significant Decrease

## 5.2.2 Second Research Question

What is the effect of strategy instruction on students' language proficiency?

The second research question which intended to identify how strategy instruction affected students' proficiency can be answered by comparing students' scores on their pre- and post-tests in both the experimental and control group. Descriptive statistics for the pre- and post-tests were calculated for writing, listening, reading, vocabulary and speaking and reported in Table 9. Following the same procedures in finding the results of each skill, the results of each individual skill will be presented below.

Table 9: Means of all students' marks in all tests

		Group Statistics				
	Groups	N	Mean	SD	Range	Max.
Pre-Writing	Experimental	98	1.48	1.81	7	7
	Control	99	1.05	1.95	9	9
Post-writing	Experimental	98	3.06	2.44	7.75	7.75
	Control	99	2.02	2.23	7.50	7.50
Pre-Listening	Experimental	98	4.05	1.83	8	8
	Control	99	3.90	1.87	8	8
Post-Listening	Experimental	98	6.35	1.85	9	10
	Control	99	6.04	2.08	9	10
Pre-Reading	Experimental	98	5.01	2.34	10	10
	Control	99	5.40	2.10	8.75	10
Post-Reading	Experimental	98	5.40	2.63	10	10
	Control	99	4.28	2.70	10	10
Pre-Vocabulary	Experimental	98	4.19	2.08	10	10
	Control	99	3.86	2.14	10	10
Post-Vocabulary	Experimental	98	4.77	2.47	10	10
	Control	99	4.26	2.25	10	10
Pre-Speaking	Experimental	98	5.40	1.91	6	8
	Control	99	5.23	1.73	8	8

Post-Speaking	Experimental	98	6.91	2.00	10	10
	Control	99	6.28	2.19	10	10

In writing, the experimental group obtained higher mean scores in the pre- and post-tests, as Table 9 shows. A Kolmogorov–Smirnov (KS) test was carried out to check the normality of distribution of writing scores in the pre-test. The outcomes of this test showed that writing scores in the pre-test were not normally distributed, as  $KS = .25$ ,  $df = 197$ ,  $p = .00$ , which did not meet the criteria of parametric tests. Therefore, a Mann–Whitney U-test was conducted to check whether there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups regarding the mean score of writing in the pre- and post-tests. The results showed that the higher mean scores for the experimental group were statistically significant in the pre-test ( $Z = -2.36$ ,  $p = .02$ ) and the post-test ( $Z = -3.15$ ,  $p = .00$ ). To measure the effect size of difference between the two groups, an ANCOVA was carried out in the writing post-test with writing pre-test scores as the covariate. The results showed that the improvement in the experimental group over the control group was statistically significant ( $F(1, 194) = 7.21$ ,  $p = .00$ ). There was a very small effect size ( $\eta^2 = .04$ ).

In the case of listening, Table 9 shows that the mean scores for the experimental group were higher than for the control group in the pre- and post-tests, although the scores were very close. Pre-test listening scores were found not to be normally distributed ( $KS = .18$ ,  $df = 197$ ,  $p = .00$ ). As this is not in line with parametric tests' criteria, a Mann–Whitney U-test was administered so as to figure out whether there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups with regard to the mean scores of listening pre- and post-tests. The results showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups regarding the listening pre- and post-test mean scores, as  $Z = -.47$ ,  $p = .64$  for the pre-test and  $Z = -1.17$ ,  $p = .24$  for the post-test. To control for differences in scores in the listening pre-test, an ANCOVA in the listening post-test was carried out with listening pre-test scores as the covariate. The results showed that the advantage of the experimental group was not statistically significant over the control group:  $F(1, 194) = .96$ ,  $p = .33$ . The effect size was very small:  $\eta^2 = .00$ .

Table 9 shows that in the reading pre-test the control group gained a higher mean score, whereas the experimental group obtained a higher mean score in the reading post-test. A Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was conducted so as to check the normality of distribution of the reading pre-test and it found that  $KS = .12$ ,  $df = 197$ ,  $p = .00$ , which means that the reading pre-test scores were not normally distributed. A Mann–Whitney U-test was carried out because the findings from the previous test did not meet the criteria of parametric tests. The results of this test showed that the higher mean score of the control group in the reading pre-test was not statistically significant:  $Z = -1.06$ ,  $p = .29$ ; however, the higher mean score of the experimental group in the reading post-test was statistically significant:  $Z = -3.09$ ,  $p = .00$ . The effect size of difference between the two groups was measured through ANCOVA in the reading post-test with reading pre-test scores as the

covariate. The results showed that the improvement in the experimental group over the control group was statistically significant:  $F(1, 194) = 11.99, p = .00$ . The effect size was found to be very small:  $\eta^2 = .06$ .

With regard to vocabulary, the experimental group obtained higher mean scores than did the control group in both the pre- and post-tests, although the scores were close, as shown in Table 9. Results from the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test showed that the scores of the listening pre-test were not normally distributed:  $KS = .17, df = 197, p = .00$ , which did not meet the criteria of parametric tests. Thus, a Mann–Whitney U-test was carried out to measure whether there were any statistically significant differences between the two groups regarding the vocabulary pre- and post-test mean scores. The findings of this test showed that the higher mean scores of the experimental group in both vocabulary pre- and post-tests were not statistically significant, as  $Z = -1.17, p = .24$  for the pre-test and  $Z = -1.38, p = .17$  for the post-test. For the purpose of controlling the differences in scores in the vocabulary pre-test, an ANCOVA in the vocabulary post-test was administered with vocabulary pre-test scores as the covariate. The results showed that the improvement in the experimental group over the control group was not statistically significant:  $F(1, 194) = 1.15, p = .29$ . The results showed that there was a very small effect size:  $\eta^2 = .00$ .

Finally, with regard to speaking, the experimental group obtained higher mean scores than did the control group in both speaking pre- and post-tests. By checking the normality of distribution of speaking pre-test scores using a Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, the results showed that  $KS = .22, df = 197, p = .00$ , which means that speaking pre-test scores were not normally distributed. Based on this, a non-parametric test (Mann–Whitney U-test) was used to find out whether there were any statistically significant differences between the two groups regarding speaking pre- and post-test mean scores. The results showed that the higher mean score of the experimental group was not statistically significant in the speaking pre- and post-test ( $Z = -.74, p = .45$  in the pre-test and  $Z = -1.54, p = .12$  in the post-test). To measure the effect size of difference between the two groups, an ANCOVA was carried out in the speaking post-test with speaking pre-test scores as the covariate. The results showed that the improvement in the experimental group over the control group was statistically significant:  $F(1, 194) = 4.01, p = .04$ . There was a very small effect size:  $\eta^2 = .02$ .

### Summary

The findings of the second research question can be summarized in Table 10 below. With regard to writing, the higher mean scores for the experimental group were statistically significant in the pre- and post-test. The difference in scores in the writing post-test showed that the improvement in the experimental group was statistically significant over the control group, albeit with a very small effect size which may indicate the role of strategy instruction provided to students in this group. Regarding reading, the higher mean score of the control group in the pre-test was not statistically

significant; however, the higher mean score of the experimental group in the reading post-test was statistically significant. The difference in the mean scores in the reading post-tests showed that the advantage of the experimental group over the control group was statistically significant, albeit with a very small effect size. This may be attributed to the strategy instruction delivered to students in the experimental group. The results showed that the higher mean scores of the experimental group were not statistically significant in the speaking pre- and post-test, but when the difference in mean scores of the speaking post-test was calculated through ANCOVA, it was statistically significant, albeit with a very small effect size. This advantage of the experimental group over the control group can be linked to the strategy instruction provided in the experimental group. There were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in the listening pre- and post-test mean scores. When the mean score of the listening post-test was calculated by ANCOVA, it was not statistically significant. Therefore, strategy instruction in listening might not be effective enough to make a significant difference between the two groups. The higher mean scores of the experimental group in the vocabulary pre- and post-test were not statistically significant. When the difference in the mean scores of the vocabulary post-test was calculated via ANCOVA, it was not statistically significant. Thus, it can be indicated that, as in listening, strategy instruction in vocabulary was not as effective as it was in writing, reading and speaking in reaching a significant difference between the two groups.

Table 10: Summary for proficiency results in both groups

Skill	Group	Pre-test	Mann–Whitney Pre-test Sig.	Post-test	Mann–Whitney Post-test Sig.	ANCOVA Sig.	Effect Size
Writing	Exp	1.48	<b>.02</b>	3.06	<b>.00</b>	<b>.00</b>	.04
	Ctrl	1.05		2.02			
Listening	Exp	4.05	.64	6.35	.24	.33	.00
	Ctrl	3.90		6.04			
Reading	Exp	5.01	.29	5.40	<b>.00</b>	<b>.00</b>	.06
	Ctrl	5.40		4.28			
Vocabulary	Exp	4.19	.24	4.77	.17	.29	.00
	Ctrl	3.86		4.26			
Speaking	Exp	5.40	.45	6.91	.12	<b>.04</b>	.02
	Ctrl	5.23		6.28			

### 5.2.3 Third Research Question

The third research question is primarily based on data collected from the LSS. It sought to answer the following research question: What is the role of learning style preferences in this study? This question was further categorized into two sub-questions in the following order:

A. What are the learning style preferences of participating students in terms of each of three categories of learning style?



B. How do students with different learning style preferences differ in terms of language proficiency?

**What are the learning style preferences of participating students in terms of each of three categories of learning style?**

As mentioned earlier in Section 3.8.2, the seven learning style preferences assigned for this study were among 23 learning style preferences which were categorised by Cohen *et al.* (2002b) under three main learning styles: sensory/perceptual learning style, psychological (personality) type and cognitive learning style. The seven learning style preferences addressed in this study were chosen to represent those three main learning style categories as including all the 23 learning style preferences is beyond the scope of this study.

Learning style preferences of participating students were elicited through the LSS. Tables 11, 12, and 13 below present frequencies, percentages and rankings of learning style preferences under each of the three main learning style categories. The first main category is the sensory/perceptual learning style. Table 14 below indicates students' learning style preferences under this category.

Table 11: Distribution of participants under the first category (sensory/perceptual learning style)

Sensory/Perceptual Learning Style	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Visual	108	54.82%	1
Kinaesthetic/Tactile	37	18.78%	2
Auditory	32	16.24%	3
Neutral	20	10.15%	4
Total	197	100%	

Of the 197 students who participated in this study, 108 students (54.82%), that is, more than half of the sample, were visual learners. A total of 37 (18.78%) of the sample were kinaesthetic/tactile learners. There were 32 (16.24%) auditory learners. Under this category, there were 20 (10.15%) neutral learners who indicated that they had no specific preference of learning style under this category.

Under the second main learning styles category which is the psychological (personality) type, there were two types of personality: extroversion and introversion. Table 12 presents students' learning style preferences under this category.

Table 12: Distribution of participants under the second category, psychological (personality) type

Psychological (Personality) Type	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Extroverted	109	55.33%	1
Introverted	75	38.07%	2
Neutral	13	6.60%	3
Total	197	100%	

Of the 197 students who participated in this study, 109 students (55.33%), meaning more than half of the sample, had extroverted personality. A total of 75 students (38.07%), that is, more than one third of the sample, had introverted personality. Under this category, there were 13 students (6.60%) who were neutral or did not have a specific personality type.

The third learning style category is the cognitive learning style. Under this category, there are two learning style preferences: global and particular. Table 13 below shows the distribution of the sample under this learning style category.

Table 13: Distribution of participants under the third category, cognitive learning style

Cognitive Learning Style	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Global	129	65.48%	1
Particular	47	23.86%	2
Neutral	21	10.66%	3
Total	197	100%	

Of the 197 students who participated in this study, 129 students (65.48%), that is, nearly two-thirds of the sample, were global learners. A total of 47 students (23.86%), that is, close to one quarter of the sample, were particular learners. There were 21 students (10.66%) who were neutral learners under this category. Those learners did not have a specific cognitive learning style preference.

Thus, visual, extroverted and global learning styles are dominant in the context of the present study. Tables 11, 12 and 13 indicate that there are neutral learners under the three learning style categories even in low percentages.

In seeking a response to the following question, we will examine the language proficiency of students with different learning styles.

### **How do students with different learning style preferences differ in terms of language proficiency?**

To answer this question, the total marks of students in all skills under each main learning style category in the pre-test were compared to find if there was any difference between proficiencies of students with different learning styles prior to intervention. The same procedure was conducted on students' marks in the post-test after intervention.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed between groups, with learning style category as the independent variable (called 'factor' in SPSS) and students' total marks as the dependent variable, to explore the difference in proficiency between students' with different learning style preferences.

### **Proficiency and Learning Style Preferences in the Pre-test**

Under the first learning style category (sensory/perceptual learning style), proficiencies of visual students, auditory students, kinaesthetic/tactile students and neutral students in the pre-test were calculated first. Table 14 below shows that there was no significant difference  $F(3, 193) = 1.64$ ,  $p = .18$  in proficiency between visual students, auditory students, kinaesthetic/tactile students and neutral students under this category.

Table 14: Proficiency and sensory/perceptual learning styles (pre-test)

Pre-test	ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	203.10	3	67.70	1.64	.18
Within Groups	7947.44	193	41.17		
Total	8150.54	196			

Proficiencies of extroverted students, introverted students and neutral students under the second learning style category (personality type) were calculated in the pre-test as well. Results from Table 15 illustrate that there was no significant difference in proficiency between extroverted students, introverted students and neutral students under this category as  $F(2, 194) = 2.19$ ,  $p = .11$ .

Table 15: Proficiency and psychological (personality) type (pre-test)

Pre-test	ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	179.97	2	89.98	2.19	.11
Within Groups	7970.57	194	41.08		
Total	8150.54	196			

Proficiencies of global students, particular students and neutral students under the third learning style category (cognitive learning style) were calculated in the pre-test. The independent between groups ANOVA yielded a statistically significant difference in proficiency,  $F(2, 194) = 3.06$ ,  $p = .04$  between the three groups as indicated in Table 16 below.

Table 16: Proficiency and cognitive learning styles (pre-test)

Pre-test	ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	249.37	2	124.68	3.06	<b>.04</b>
Within Groups	7901.16	194	40.72		
Total	8150.54	196			

To evaluate the nature of the difference in proficiency between the three groups further, the statistically significant ANOVA was followed-up with post-hoc tests of comparisons using the Tukey HSD test. Comparisons indicated a significant difference in proficiency between global students and particular students at the .04 level. However, the difference in proficiency between

neutral and global students and between neutral and particular students was not statistically significant as Table 17 below indicates.

Table 17: Tukey HSD proficiency and cognitive learning styles (pre-test)

Multiple Comparisons: Dependent Variable: Pre-test Tukey HSD						
(I) Cognitive Style	(J) Cognitive Style	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Neutral	Global	1.42	1.50	.61	-2.12	4.96
	Particular	-1.21	1.67	.74	-5.17	2.74
Global	Neutral	-1.42	1.50	.61	-4.96	2.12
	Particular	-2.63*	1.08	<b>.04</b>	-5.20	-.06
Particular	Neutral	1.21	1.67	.74	-2.74	5.17
	Global	2.63*	1.08	<b>.04</b>	.06	5.20

\*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Under the cognitive learning style category, Table 18 below shows particular students with the highest mean, followed by neutral students and global students respectively. With more than two scores in the mean of the total scores, particular students outperformed global students. This led to significant difference in proficiency between the two groups as mentioned above. With less than two scores than particular students and with more than one score than global students, neutral students, under this category, indicated no significant difference in proficiency compared to particular and global students.

Table 18: Mean of total pre-test scores for cognitive learning style

Style	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
Particular	21.64	7.32	1
Neutral	20.43	7.09	2
Global	19.01	5.88	3

Students' scores in the pre-tests revealed no difference in proficiency between visual, auditory, kinaesthetic/tactile and neutral students under the sensory/perceptual learning style. Moreover, there was no difference in proficiency between extroverted, introverted and neutral students under the personality type category as pre-tests scores illustrated. The only difference in proficiency in the pre-tests occurred between global and particular students under the cognitive learning style. The findings showed that the overall proficiency of particular students was better than the overall proficiency of global students in the pre-tests.

We will now investigate the difference in proficiency between students with different learning styles in the post-tests.

### Proficiency and Learning Style Preferences in the Post-test

Using the same statistical analysis as the pre-test, the difference in proficiency between students under the three main learning style categories in the post-test was found.

In the post-test, the proficiencies of visual students, auditory students, kinaesthetic/tactile students and neutral students were first compared using a one-way ANOVA test. Results from Table 19 below show that there was no statistically significant difference in proficiency between visual, auditory, kinaesthetic/tactile, and neutral students under the sensory/perceptual learning style category as  $F(3, 193) = 1.15, p = .33$ .

Table 19: Proficiency and sensory/perceptual learning styles (post-test)

Post-test	ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	223.43	3	74.47	1.15	.33
Within Groups	12503.22	193	64.78		
Total	12726.65	196			

Under the psychological (personality) type category, the difference in proficiency between extroverted, introverted and neutral students in the post-test was compared. Comparisons in Table 20 below revealed no statistically significant difference between extroverted, introverted and neutral students under this category as  $F(2, 194) = 2.36, p = .09$ .

Table 20: Proficiency and psychological (personality) type (post-test)

Post-test	ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	302.45	2	151.22	2.36	.09
Within Groups	12424.20	194	64.04		
Total	12726.65	196			

Proficiencies of global students, particular students and neutral students in the post-test under the cognitive learning style category were also compared to examine if there were any differences between these three groups of students. Table 21 below shows that the independent between-groups ANOVA test yielded a statistically significant difference in the proficiency between the three groups under this category as  $F(2, 194) = 3.70, p = .03$ .

Table 21: Proficiency and cognitive learning styles (post-test)

Post-test	ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	468.17	2	234.08	3.70	<b>.03</b>
Within Groups	12258.48	194	63.18		
Total	12726.65	196			

To evaluate the nature of the difference in proficiency between the three groups under this cognitive learning style, further analysis is required. The statistically significant ANOVA was followed-up with post-hoc tests of comparisons using Tukey HSD test as indicated in Table 22. Comparisons indicated a significant difference in proficiency between global and particular students at the .02 level. However, the difference in proficiency between neutral and global students and between neutral and particular students was not statistically significant.

Table 22: Tukey HSD proficiency and cognitive learning styles (post-test)

Multiple Comparisons: Dependent Variable: Post-test Tukey HSD						
(I) Cognitive Style	(J) Cognitive Style	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Neutral	Global	.83	1.87	.89	-3.58	5.25
	Particular	-2.85	2.08	.36	-7.78	2.07
Global	Neutral	-.83	1.87	.89	-5.25	3.58
	Particular	-3.68*	1.35	<b>.02</b>	-6.88	-.48
Particular	Neutral	2.85	2.08	.36	-2.07	7.78
	Global	3.68*	1.35	<b>.02</b>	.48	6.88

\*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As Table 23 shows, particular students had almost four scores in the mean of the total score higher than global students on the post-test. This resulted in significant difference in proficiency between the two groups mentioned above. Neutral students under this cognitive learning style category remained at the same place with no significant difference in proficiency with particular or global students.

Table 23: Mean of total post-test scores for cognitive learning style

Style	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rank
Particular	27.39	8.78	1
Neutral	24.54	6.42	2
Global	23.70	7.85	3

In a summary, there was no statistically significant difference in the proficiency of students under the sensory/perceptual learning styles and the psychological (personality) types on both pre- and post-test. The only statistically significant difference was found between global and particular students under the cognitive learning style category of both the pre- and post-test. In other words, there was no significant difference in the proficiency among visual, auditory kinaesthetic/tactile and neutral students under the sensory/perceptual learning style on their pre-and post-test. Additionally, there was no significant difference in the proficiency of extroverted, introverted and neutral students under the psychological (personality) type category on their pre- and post-test.

However, a significant difference was found in the proficiency of global and particular students under the cognitive learning style category of their pre- and post-test.

In the following section, the findings of qualitative data will be presented.

## **5.3 Findings of Qualitative Data**

This section presents qualitative findings from interviews conducted with the following: 1) seven students (pseudonyms: Abdul (visual), Saad (auditory), Khamis (kinaesthetic/tactile), Ghaith (extroverted), Nehad (introverted), Eisa (global), and Turki (particular) Appendix G) with different learning style preferences who received strategy instruction, 2) two teachers who participated in strategy instruction (Teacher 1, and Teacher 2), and 3) two teachers who taught students in the control group (Teacher 3 and Teacher 4). Interviews were short (8-10 minutes) with teachers in the control group and ranged between 18 and 23 minutes with students and teachers in the experimental group. To convey findings, pre-prepared themes from structured interviews along with selected quotations are highlighted.

### **5.3.1 Fourth Research Question**

What is students' and their teachers' feedback on the strategy instruction programme implemented?

The answer to this question can be elicited from students' feedback presented in the first part and from teachers' feedback presented in the second part of this section.

#### **5.3.1.1 Students' Feedback**

The students' feedback on the strategy instruction programme revealed the general benefit of the strategy instruction programme. These benefits were found in the following domains: 1) increased students' strategy awareness, 2) positive change in students' way of learning, 3) improvement in students' proficiency, 4) identification of learning style, and 5) learning new strategies.

##### ***Strategy awareness***

*Strategy awareness before the programme.* In general, the qualitative data revealed that interviewees were unaware of the term 'strategy' before the strategy instruction programme. Although two of them, Abdul (spent a couple of months in the USA before joining the college) and Turki (studied English in a language school in Saudi Arabia for three months before joining the college) attended additional English courses after finishing their secondary school, alluded that they were not taught about LLS. However, most interviewees narrated that they were

unconsciously employing some ways to learn English without being aware that they were strategizing. Eisa, for example, indicated that he ‘was watching movies, playing video games in English and linking new words to words I already know’. Nehad said, ‘I used my bilingual dictionary and wrote new words in lists to help me revise them again’. Khamis even before identifying his learning style, (kinaesthetic\tactile) indicated that he ‘(would) spontaneously try some ideas such as physically acting the action of some verbs such as *jump*, *fall*, and *crawl*’.

*Strategy awareness after the programme.* An examination of the interview data relating to individual students’ strategy awareness indicated general support for the findings from the LSUS data that students’ strategy awareness increased after the strategy instruction programme. In order to facilitate the comparison of students with different learning styles, the LSUS results of the seven selected student interviewees are presented in Table 24 below.

Table 24: Interviewees’ strategy awareness in the pre- and post-LSUS

Option	LSUS	Abdul	Saad	Khamis	Ghaith	Nehad	Eisa	Turki
1) I use this strategy and like it	Pre	27	38	19	19	36	27	19
	Post	44	45	39	54	38	35	47
2) I’ve tried this strategy and would use it again	Pre	41	14	16	35	15	23	24
	Post	35	17	17	22	33	34	32
3) I’ve never used this strategy	Pre	13	22	12	27	6	19	28
	Post	4	12	3	4	7	11	4
4) This strategy doesn’t fit for me	Pre	2	9	36	2	26	14	12
	Post	0	9	24	3	5	3	0

It can be noted from Table 24 that the number of strategies used and liked (option one) by all students increased in the post-LSUS. Another noticeable increase can be seen among most interviewees under the second option in the LSUS. The second option showed that the number of strategies that students tried and indicated that they would use again after the intervention increased for all participants except Abdul and Ghaith. It appears that although the number of strategies that Abdul and Ghaith used and liked increased after the intervention, the number of strategies they had tried and would use again had decreased. The results for the third option illustrated that the number of strategies that student had never used decreased for all interviewees after the intervention except Nehad. This means that most interviewees started trying strategies they had never tried before the commencement of the programme. The fourth option indicated that the number of strategies that Abdul, Khamis, Nehad, Eisa and Turki did not find to be suitable decreased after the intervention,



indicating that these strategies suited them. Interestingly, Saad reported the same number of strategies that he deemed suitable in the pre- and post-LSUS. However, the number of strategies that did not fit for Ghaith increased at the end of the programme. These figures indicate that overall, students became more aware of using new strategies and their strategy repertoires increased after being involved in this programme.

According to Abdul, the programme ‘enlightened’ him to focus on strategies. Ghaith believes that his ‘poor strategy repertoire has become rich with many helpful strategies’ after finishing the programme. The programme, he thinks, introduced to him a list of strategies that should be introduced to any language learner. Khamis alluded that the programme increased his awareness to always think of ‘good ways’ when intending to accomplish any language task. For him, strategies have become a very important part of learning English. The programme provided Saad with ‘a variety of strategies to choose (from)’. This allowed him to acquire new strategies he was ‘unfamiliar with before the programme’. Nehad used to employ some strategies unconsciously and he was unaware that they were called strategies, but after the end of the programme, he became ‘more conscious about using strategies’. Therefore, he emphasized using strategies he knew prior to the programme and simultaneously began including the strategies taught during the programme. Similar to Nehad, Eisa unconsciously used a few strategies before the programme, but the programme explained what a strategy is and when and how to use it, thus increasing his awareness of new LLS and when to use them. In Turki’s words, the programme ‘guided me to use strategies in order to make English learning easier’. Thus, he thinks that his awareness about LLS increased at the end of the programme.

### ***Change in students’ way of learning***

Regarding change in students’ way of learning, the results from interviews indicated that students lacked awareness about their ways of learning prior to intervention although their awareness about learning increased predominantly after the intervention. After the end of the programme, the interview results revealed that a few students were able to orchestrate strategies they had improved in using strategies. More details about these findings are provided below.

*Lack of awareness towards way of learning.* Before the programme, all the interviewees admitted that they were unaware of their own ways of learning. They alluded that they never thought of how they learned English or how their minds dealt with new language information. They provided some reasons for the same. Abdul, Ghaith and Nehad, for instance, referred to focusing on the content of the language while learning. When Saad and Turki were asked why they did not think of their way of learning, they explained that the learning process takes place unconsciously and they were not used to thinking about it. When Eisa was asked the same question, he directly responded, ‘my language teachers never asked me to do so’.

At the end of the programme, students' awareness towards their way of learning had increased to some extent. This increased awareness towards the way of learning resulted in positive change in the learning process itself among most students as explained below.

*Positive change in ways of learning due to awareness towards way of learning.* Abdul, for example, emphasized that the programme changed his way of learning 'to the best available method'. In learning vocabulary, he used to write new words in long lists and use rote memorising for them. At times, this would succeed and at times, it would fail. After the programme, he started making his own flash cards with new words and their definitions, with English on the front side and the Arabic translation on the backside of the card. Khamis and Eisa believe that their way of learning has changed to the right methods. They said that the programme assisted them to change their methods of dealing with different language tasks. Prior to the programme, they engaged in accomplishing tasks without any planning or thinking about how but the given tasks needed to be accomplished, but after the programme, they emphasized the importance of finding appropriate strategies that may facilitate accomplishing any given task. For Saad and Ghaith, the programme presented many strategies they were unfamiliar with prior to the programme such as associating new words with things they already know. This strategy enabled them to change their method of learning vocabulary as they started to think of things they could link to new words in order to learn vocabulary. Nonetheless, the programme did not significantly change Nehad and Turki's methods of learning. Although they agreed that they had become aware of new strategies, they think that they are continuing to learn English in the same way. For them, changing the method of learning requires much time and practice. Nehad believes that 'enough time' is needed to improve his own way of learning. Turki says, 'I need more sources such as the LSUS and the LSS to know more about myself and about my own way of learning, in addition to a lot of practice on strategies to change my way of learning English'.

*Strategy orchestration(another positive change).* Strategy orchestration or clustering is a slightly sophisticated and advanced stage of using strategies as mentioned in Section 2.4.6. The data from the interviews tends to harmonize with this trend. Four of the interviewees (Abdul, Saad, Ghaith and Eisa) reported orchestrating strategies only while learning new words. To learn a new word, Abdul needs to 'write it down on a flash card, write its definition in English, practice its pronunciation, write it in a meaningful sentence, and try to use it while speaking'. Using somewhat similar strategies, Saad learns new words through 'writing them down, listening to their pronunciation through mobile dictionary and associating their sounds to similar sounds in Arabic or English'. Similar to Saad, Ghaith learns a new word by writing it down, linking its sound to sounds of other words he already knows if possible, and by trying to 'link it to a mental image'. Eisa uses more than one strategy to learn new words. He said that he writes the word down in the vocabulary

notebook, after which he breaks the word into small parts if possible to facilitate learning followed by writing it in a meaningful sentence.

Unlike Abdul, Saad, Ghaith and Eisa, Khamis orchestrated strategies while speaking. In his response, providing an example of how to orchestrate strategies while speaking, Khamis says the following, ‘in speaking, I initiate conversations in English and when I find it difficult to express myself, I try expressing myself in other ways using other familiar words or use gestures to deliver my message or ask the interlocutor for help’.

Nehad and Turki were unsure if they would be able to orchestrate strategies. They could not remember if they clustered strategies while learning new words or while accomplishing language tasks. They agreed that this resembled a complex mental activity that they were unsure to implement.

### ***Students’ language proficiency***

#### **Reading**

Table 25: Interviewees’ scores in reading pre- and post-tests

Skill	Test	Abdul	Saad	Khamis	Ghaith	Nehad	Eisa	Turki
Reading	Pre	6.25	6.25	8.75	3.75	8.75	6.25	6.25
	Post	10	6.25	10	5	10	8.75	5

Most interviewees improved in their reading proficiency as indicated in Table 25. Abdul, Khamis and Nehad for instance, scored full marks on the post-test and when they were asked if using reading strategies contributed to their improvement in reading, Abdul and Khamis indicated their agreement. Nehad thought that reading strategies might help him in reading but ‘reading for pleasure in English outside the classroom’ (an untaught strategy listed in the LSUS) improved his reading in general. Eisa and Ghaith also improved on the post-test; however, they did not score full marks. On being asked if using reading strategies assisted them to improve in reading, Eisa and Ghaith said that the taught reading strategies assisted them to improve reading. Ghaith added, ‘mainly my general improvement in English assisted me to slowly improve in reading’. Saad had the same score on the pre- and post-test and when asked if the reading strategies helped him improve his reading, he explained that he used reading strategies but his ‘lack of vocabulary made reading hard’. Turki was the only interviewee who scored lower marks on the post-test. When asked if using reading strategies contributed to his reading, Turki said that using reading strategies was useful in understanding texts although with some ‘tough texts, even if reading strategies were used, they would be useless’.

#### **Writing**

Table 26: Interviewees' scores in writing pre- and post-tests

Skill	Test	Abdul	Saad	Khamis	Ghaith	Nehad	Eisa	Turki
Writing	Pre	4.5	0	5	0	2	3.5	1.75
	Post	6.75	1.25	5.25	2.5	3.25	5.25	5.25

Writing was reported to be the most difficult aspect of learning English for most interviewees. This was compatible with their low scores, particularly on the pre-test. As Table 26 shows, Abdul, Ghaith and Turki scored two marks higher in their post-test than their pre-test. When asked if they used writing strategies to improve their writing, Abdul reported that he used writing strategies to improve writing. However, for him, 'writing requires more time and practice'. Ghaith also reported that writing strategies assisted him to improve his writing. He said, 'I am improving by using writing strategies, but slowly'. Using writing strategies also improved Turki's score on writing although he believed that 'writing strategies are not everything'. His writing abilities improved in general due to the 'good feedback I got from my writing teacher during semester' (a strategy taught in the intervention). Although Saad, Khamis, Nehad and Eisa scored better on their writing post-test, their improvement scores differed by less than two marks. When asked if they used writing strategies to improve writing, they indicated that writing strategies slightly assisted them to improve their writing. Nevertheless, Saad believed that 'vocabulary knowledge' was important for him to improve his writing. Similar to Abdul, Khamis reported that writing required extra time and practice to be improved. For Nehad, writing was 'a complex process' that required 'more effort to be controlled'. In addition to using writing strategies, Eisa attributed his improvement in writing to 'improvement in grammar'.

## Listening

Table 27: Interviewees' scores in listening pre- and post-tests

Skill	Test	Abdul	Saad	Khamis	Ghaith	Nehad	Eisa	Turki
Listening	Pre	8	2	6	6	6	2	5
	Post	7	8	9	8	6	7	8

Table 27 illustrates that most of the interviewees' proficiency in listening improved. In fact, Saad and Eisa indicated the best improvement with an increase of five or six points on their listening post-test scores. When asked if listening strategies assisted them to improve their listening, Saad reported that listening was his 'favourite skill' and he agreed that listening strategies improved his listening skills. Eisa mentioned that planning for listening through 'reading questions' (a strategy taught in the intervention) helped him to improve his listening significantly. Khamis's, Ghaith's, and Turki's results on the listening post-test indicated improvement in their listening proficiency with two (Ghaith) and three (Khamis and Turki) scores higher than their pre-test. When asked if using listening strategies assisted them to improve in listening, Khamis attributed his improvement in listening to 'watching TV and listening to radio in English for long hours', an untaught strategy

listed in the LSUS. Similar to Eisa, Ghaith reported that learning the strategy of planning for listening by ‘reading exercise questions’ before listening improved his listening proficiency. However, Turki believed that his listening skills had improved due to ‘watching movies and news in English’. He explained that his ears had started to get use to how native speakers talk. He said that listening strategies were not a great deal of assistance. Although their scores were not poor in both tests, Abdul and Nehad did not exhibit any improvement on their listening proficiency. Conversely, Abdul obtained a lower score on the post-test. When this was pointed out to him and he was asked if listening strategies assisted him to improve, Abdul admitted that ‘being unfamiliar with some vocabulary while listening makes listening hard sometimes’, thus resulting in his lower score in the post-test. He used some listening strategies but they were ‘not enough to answer questions properly’. Nehad had the same score on both tests and when asked whether listening strategies helped him to improve listening, he explained that ‘under the stress of tests, I completely forget about strategies’.

### Speaking

Table 28: Interviewees’ scores in speaking pre- and post-tests

Skill	Test	Abdul	Saad	Khamis	Ghaith	Nehad	Eisa	Turki
Speaking	Pre	8	6	6	6	8	6	6
	Post	9	6	8	8	8	8	8

As shown in Table 28, most interviewees indicated little improvement in their speaking proficiency at the end of the programme. For example, Khamis, Ghaith, Eisa and Turki reported an increase of two points on their speaking post-test while Abdul reported only a one-point raise on his speaking post-test. Khamis reported that speaking strategies were ‘part of progress in speaking, but practicing English inside the campus of the college was mainly behind my progress’, (Regularly seek opportunities to talk with native speakers, an untaught strategy listed in the LSUS). Ghaith also agreed that speaking strategies helped him to improve speaking; however, he also attributed his progress to ‘practicing English outside the classroom such as when I regularly visit my little brother in the hospital, or when I go to cafes’. Eisa however believed that he improved in speaking due to his general improvement in English but he stated that speaking strategies ‘directed me to be a better speaker’. Turki was ‘pretty sure’ that speaking strategies assisted him to improve in speaking. Abdul thought that speaking strategies slightly assisted him to improve speaking but he mainly attributed his improvement in speaking to ‘staying in the USA for a couple of months with a host family’. In spite of this general improvement in speaking proficiency, Saad and Nehad did not improve according to their speaking pre- and post-test results. In fact, Nehad gained a higher score (8 out of 10 on both the pre- and post-tests) than Saad did (6 out of 10 on both the pre- and post-tests). When this was pointed out and they were asked if speaking strategies assisted them to improve, Saad reported that ‘speaking strategies should be helpful if I worked on them outside the

class. Also, two months at this industrial college is a short period of time to improve in speaking'. Nehad explained that he forgot about strategies under the stress of tests as he did in listening. He said, 'In tests, I always don't do well; however I can do better in normal speaking situations'.

## Vocabulary

Table 29: Interviewees' scores in vocabulary pre- and post-tests

Skill	Test	Abdul	Saad	Khamis	Ghaith	Nehad	Eisa	Turki
Vocabulary	Pre	8	3	9	3	7	6	6
	Post	8	5	10	3	10	7	8

Table 29 illustrates that most interviewees improved in the vocabulary proficiency. Nehad for instance reported the best improvement with three scores higher on his vocabulary post-test. When asked if vocabulary strategies assisted him to improve in vocabulary, Nehad agreed and said, 'Yes, there are many good vocabulary strategies (that) assisted me to learn many English words'. Saad and Turki also improved in vocabulary with two scores higher on their post-test. Answering the question if vocabulary strategies assisted them to improve in vocabulary, Saad responded, 'Yes, to a great extent, thanks to many effective strategies that assisted me learning a lot of words'. Similarly, Turki said, 'Many times, vocabulary strategies were a useful tool to learn new words'. With one score higher on their vocabulary post-test, Khamis and Eisa indicated a little improvement in their vocabulary proficiency. When the researcher asked them whether vocabulary strategies improved their proficiency in vocabulary, Khamis replied, 'Of course yes, vocabulary strategies are intelligent ideas for quick learning'. Eisa stated that 'vocabulary strategies contributed to my progress in vocabulary'. Abdul and Ghaith did not indicate improvement in their vocabulary proficiency; however, Abdul's scores were much higher than Ghaith's. When they were asked if vocabulary strategies assisted them to improve in vocabulary, Abdul said, ' (The) taught vocabulary strategies were a key factor in learning a lot of new words, although my score didn't improve'. Ghaith answered, 'I think vocabulary strategies helped me to improve; however, I still need to work hard on vocabulary'.

## Learning Styles

*Identifying learning styles.* All students were glad to identify their learning style preferences. For all of them, it was the first time that they had information on their own learning style preferences. They all agreed that most of the items listed in the LSS diagnosed their true learning style preferences. Before completing the LSS, Abdul did not believe that he might have a learning style. Once he completed the LSS and identified that he was a visual learner, Abdul knew why he 'preferred to learn through watching'. When Saad discovered that he was an auditory learner, he explained that identifying his learning style 'attracted me to examine more strategies that match my learning style'. In an obvious example for the kinaesthetic\tactile learning style, Khamis disliked

sitting down in the class for long periods of time. Several times, he would ask for permission to stand up and move in the class while all his classmates were sitting down. This was very annoying for the teacher (the researcher) at the beginning of the semester, but after identifying Khamis' learning style, the teacher was able to understand his behaviour. In his own words, identifying his learning style 'raised my awareness about my behaviours and how I can learn English better'. As an extroverted learner, Ghaith felt that identifying his learning style encouraged him to start thinking of his 'personality and my own way of learning'. Nehad, as an introverted learner, said that 'identifying my learning style enabled me to choose the appropriate materials through which I learn English easily'. Similar to Saad, Eisa as a global learner explained that 'after identifying my learning style, I started focusing on strategies that met my learning style'. Turki as a particular learner agreed that identifying his learning style assisted him to 'accept many new strategies'.

*Preferred strategies.* Data from interviews showed that when interviewees were asked about strategies they liked using, their responses included strategies related to students' learning styles; strategies taught in the classroom, and strategies listed in the LSUS. For instance, when Abdul as a visual learner was asked about his preferred strategies, he mentioned flash cards, semantic mapping, watching speakers' gestures to understand what they are saying and using a dictionary. Saad as an auditory learner listed his favourite strategies as linking sounds of new words to words in Arabic or English, checking how the word was pronounced by native speakers, listening to the speaker's tone of voice to understand the situation of the speaker, using cognates, and listening to stressed words or sentences to understand their meaning. The kinaesthetic/tactile learner, Khamis, stated that he preferred to practice new action verbs by acting them out, using semantic mapping, predicting what the speaker might say, using gestures to get meaning across and practicing the spellings of new words. As an extroverted learner, Ghaith said that he preferred attending out-of-class events to practice English (an untaught strategy listed in the LSUS), looking at parts of the word, particularly prefixes and suffixes, and making associations to learn new words. Nehad, as an introverted learner, felt more comfortable to check his prior knowledge of a topic, plan how to accomplish a task, and place new words in a topic group such as 'vegetables', 'fruits', and 'animals'. Listing some top-down preferred strategies that match his learning style as a global learner, Eisa said that he liked to comprehend the message without understanding all details, accept some ambiguity while listening, infer the meaning of a sentence through clues provided while reading, and create mental images to associate with new words. As a particular learner and listing some bottom-up strategies, Turki said that he preferred to reread a text for clarification, correct himself while speaking, take a good look at new words, and listen for particular details such as 'numbers or words or phrases' to help him understand.

*Style-stretching.* All interviewees' pre- and post-LSUS were examined to understand if they were able to stretch their learning styles to accommodate other learning strategies. In the post-LSUS,

Abdul (visual) and Saad (auditory) reported that they used and liked practicing new action verbs by acting them out, a strategy recommended for kinaesthetic/tactile learners although they had originally reported this strategy as a never-used strategy or a strategy that did not fit them in the pre-LSUS. Watching TV is a strategy recommended for visual learners but was reported as a used and liked strategy in Khamis' post-LSUS which indicates that he was able to stretch his learning style to accommodate strategies recommended for other students with different learning styles although he was a kinaesthetic/tactile learner. Encouraging others to correct one's own errors was a strategy recommended for extroverted learners although Nehad as an introverted learner reported this strategy as a used and liked strategy in his post-LSUS. He had identified this strategy as one that did not fit in his pre-LSUS. The pre- and post-LSUS did not indicate that Ghaith (extroverted), Eisa (global) and Turki (particular) were able to acquire strategies beyond their learning style zones. These findings indicate that there is evidence, albeit weak, that some language learners might be able to stretch their learning styles to accommodate new strategies.

### ***Learnt Strategies***

*Learnt reading strategies.* When the interviewees were asked what reading strategies they had learnt from the programme to deal with reading tasks, they emphasized the following six reading strategies: skim the text, scan the text, infer meaning of words and ideas based on clues, predict what will come in the text, plan how to deal with text, read the text word by word. However, the programme taught them about 13 reading strategies. Data from interviews indicated that all interviewees learnt some top-down strategies. They said that they learnt to skim and scan texts. They admitted that using these two strategies saved them time and effort to figure out answers of questions quickly. Abdul and Ghaith mentioned that the programme taught them to infer the meaning of words and ideas based on provided clues such as photos, diagrams, headings and subheadings. Ghaith said, 'Now, I look at many things on the page to help me predict what the text will be about and to facilitate my understanding while reading'. Prediction and using prior knowledge were reading strategies Khamis and Nehad learnt through the programme. They stated that they were able to predict what might come in any text based on their prior knowledge about the topic and based on the parts they had already read in the text. Khamis considered using prior knowledge as 'an essential strategy we may use but we are unaware of its benefit'. Saad and Turki learnt how to plan for a reading task. They emphasized reading questions at the end of each text before reading the text itself. This assisted them to predict the impending contents of the text while simultaneously saving time by underlining answers of the questions while reading. Additionally, some bottom-up strategies were also learnt through the programme, as Khamis and Turki reported. They said that if they were unable to get the main idea of the text, they read it word by word. For Turki (particular learner), reading a text word by word was said to be 'a very helpful strategy to understand important details to answer questions about the text correctly'.



*Learnt writing strategies.* Although eight writing strategies were taught in the programme, interviewees emphasized learning five writing strategies: plan out what you are going to write, discuss what you want to say with someone else before writing, go back to go forwards, edit grammar and mechanics after writing ideas, and accept feedback on errors. Data from interviews indicated that the programme taught all the interviewees to plan before writing by taking notes. They said that planning was helpful in organizing paragraphs and covering points which are relevant to the topic. In Turki's words, 'My writing will be more organized and fluent when I plan carefully'. Discussing the topic with someone before writing was mentioned by Abdul, Khamis, Ghaith and Eisa. Khamis indicated that discussing the topic with someone enabled him to 'write many notes' before writing. Saad and Eisa learnt from the programme to read and review what they had written before continuing their writing. Saad, Khamis, Eisa and Turki reported using editing grammar and mechanics after finishing writing the whole passage. According to Saad, this strategy, 'kept me focused on writing main ideas and then, checking for grammar and punctuation errors'. Nehad and Turki reported accepting feedback from the classmates or from the teacher. They believed that highlighting their errors made them more aware about not repeating them.

*Learnt listening strategies.* The programme explicitly taught students ten listening strategies. From those ten listening strategies, interviewees highlighted learning the following listening strategies: plan how to accomplish the task, skim listening, listen for keywords, listen for stressed words and sentences (a strategy listed in the LSUS and implicitly presented in the LL), accept some ambiguity and predict what the speaker will say. In fact, Saad, Ghaith, Nehad and Eisa reported learning planning how to accomplish the task, by which they meant reading the questions of the given exercise before the listening task. In Eisa's words, 'this strategy was effective as it enabled me to predict what I am going to listen to and to easily figure out answers'. Skim listening was emphasized by Abdul, Khamis and Nehad. They believed that utilizing this strategy allowed them to get the main idea of what they listened to without paying attention to each single word. Listening for keywords was learnt by Abdul, Saad and Khamis who explained that they were able to generally understand talks through listening to keywords. In Abdul's words, 'You can get the main idea of a talk if you just listened to important words that tell you what the talk is about'. Although listening for stressed words and sentences was not among the listening strategies taught in the programme, Abdul, Saad and Turki reported learning this strategy because it was presented many times in the LL. Turki highlighted, 'Some listening exercises in the textbook (LL) ask us to pay attention to stressed words while listening to the CD'. Predicting what the speaker will say was reported as a learnt strategy by Eisa and Turki. According to them, prediction facilitated understanding of what they were listening to.

*Learnt speaking strategies.* Eleven speaking strategies were explicitly taught in the programme, and data from the interviews indicated that the interviewees learnt the following speaking

strategies: plan out in advance what you want to say, reduce anxiety, encourage yourself, ask for help, act out or draw the word, and practice saying new expressions. Abdul, Nehad and Eisa learnt from the programme to plan in advance what they wanted to say if they were going to give a speech. According to them, this strategy reduced their errors while speaking and prepared them to speak in complete and meaningful sentences. Nehad said, 'I will give better talks in the classroom if I plan for my speaking'. Another strategy they learnt was reducing anxiety. They felt more confident while speaking after learning this strategy. Abdul, Saad and Turki learnt to encourage themselves to speak in English. They said that this strategy enabled them to speak more fluently in English and to ignore errors while speaking. Saad, Khamis and Ghaith reported learning asking for help while speaking. As they expressed, this strategy was important to get their meaning across to the interlocutor. Ghaith (extroverted learner) said, 'I do not hesitate now to ask my classmates or teacher for help while speaking in English'. Acting out or drawing words to get the meaning across was highlighted by Khamis and Ghaith. They indicated that this strategy assisted them significantly when they lack proper words to express themselves in English or in any other language. For Khamis (kinaesthetic/tactile learner), 'this strategy was used unconsciously before this programme, but now I will continue using it to express myself if I couldn't in spoken language'. The programme taught Nehad and Turki to practice saying new expressions. This strategy according to them was useful in learning particular expressions used by native speakers such as greeting, apologizing, complaining, etc. Turki (particular learner) reported, 'Practicing saying new expressions correctly makes me more fluent while speaking'.

*Learnt vocabulary strategies.* The programme taught 13 vocabulary strategies from which the interviewees emphasized learning the following: association, use cognates, write down words, take a good look at new words, draw semantic maps, group and use flash cards. With regard to association, Saad, Ghaith Nehad and Eisa learnt from the programme to associate new words with different things that enabled them to retain these words. For instance, they associated sounds of new words to sounds of other English or Arabic words they already knew, new words to places or situations that they had first seen or heard, or new words with their actions or mental images. Ghaith mentioned, 'associating new words to anything I know assists me to learn it and remember it later'. The programme taught Saad, Khamis, Nehad and Eisa to use cognates. For them, using English and Arabic cognates such as 'cup' كوب (KOOP), 'elite' عليّة (ELYAT) 'gas' غاز (GHAZ), and 'camel' جمل (JAMAL) facilitated learning new words and made them more retainable. Nehad explained, 'This strategy encouraged me to think (about) how languages share some words or borrow some words from each other'. Abdul, Saad, Ghaith and Nehad learnt that writing new words in sentences is helpful. According to them, this strategy enabled them to use new words properly. In Abdul's words, 'writing new words whether alone or in sentences helps me to spell them accurately'. Taking a good look at new words was a vocabulary strategy emphasized by Saad,

Khamis and Turki. By taking a good look at new words, they were able to check the spelling and compare it with the spelling of already known words (Khamis: kinaesthetic\tactile), practice pronunciation and compare it to other words (Saad: auditory), and divide it into smaller parts (Turki: particular). Drawing a semantic map was highlighted by Khamis, Eisa and Turki. They explained that this strategy expanded their vocabulary size, and activated their vocabulary retention. Grouping was emphasized by Nehad, Turki and Ghaith. They grouped words by topic (Ghaith), by synonyms and antonyms (Nehad), and by parts of speech (Turki). Using flash cards was a strategy highlighted by Abdul and Eisa. They reported that flash cards allowed them to add clues to new words. Abdul in particular, started making his own flash cards. He explained, 'I write new words with their definition in English if needed on the picture side and the Arabic translation and example sentences in English on the other side'.

### **5.3.1.2 Teachers' Feedback**

As mentioned earlier in 4.3.3, the two teachers (Teacher 1, and Teacher 2) who participated in the strategy instruction programme in the experimental group were interviewed in order to determine their feedback on the programme. Their responses covered the following: teachers' previous backgrounds in LLS, strategy instruction involving language textbooks, the TB and the strategies included in it, the SSBI framework, and explicit strategy instruction.

#### ***Teachers' previous backgrounds in LLS***

Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 informed the researcher that they knew about LLS before engaging with this programme. Teacher 1 had written a paper on LLS in Canada in 2011, which formed part of his master's degree studies. Teacher 2 said that he had previously heard a radio programme that discussed learning strategies in general. When they were both asked if they have taught LLS in the classroom before engaging with this programme, Teacher 1 stated that he 'occasionally referred to strategies in the classroom, such as skimming and scanning in reading and planning in writing, which I believe that they were helpful techniques students should know'. Similar to Teacher 1, Teacher 2 had not taught LLS in the classroom, 'unless it was explicitly asked for in the curriculum' and, he added, 'it was rarely to find a textbook asks for teaching strategies explicitly in the classroom as done in this programme'. When asked if, before this programme, they had used English or Arabic in the classroom when teaching or referring to such strategies, both stressed that they used English, as Arabic was not allowed in the classroom. When asked if the methods of teaching or referring to strategies in the classroom they used before this programme were effective, Teacher 1 believed that they were, as his students showed 'interest in applying those techniques', while Teacher 2 stated that 'I was not sure if my students were learning how to use strategies'. Therefore, he was unable to give a definite answer.

Another two more teachers (Teacher 3 and Teacher 4) who taught in the control group were also interviewed. As mentioned earlier, the purpose of interviewing these professionals was to examine if they were explicitly teaching strategies in their regular language classrooms, as this may result in incomparable experimental and control groups. Similar to their colleagues in the experimental group, Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 were asked about their previous background in LLS. Teacher 3 revealed that he heard of the term ‘strategy’ through an article sent to him by a fellow, but he was ‘not acquainted with its complete principles’. However, the term was completely new for Teacher 4, who had previously mixed learning strategies with teaching strategies until LLS were defined and examples of LLS were provided for him. When Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 were asked if they were explicitly applying strategy instruction in their regular language classrooms, Teacher 3 said that he did not do so, although he believed ‘this method might assist students to learn in better ways’. Teacher 4 also reported that he had never taught LLS in his language classrooms. When they were asked why, Teacher 3 explained that ‘teaching English as a foreign language in the classroom requires concentration on the language itself’. He believed that students improve their English if they have ‘much exposure to the language’. However, Teacher 4, elaborating on his lack of knowledge about strategies, said: ‘students have their own strategies and everyone is learning in his own way, so there is no need to teach strategies’. When both teachers were asked if they took note of their students’ own learning methods, Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 agreed that they did not give this issue sufficient attention, but they both mentioned that they were aware that individual differences exist between students. When they were asked about the difference between a good language learner and a poor language learner, an indirect reference to strategies, Teacher 3 highlighted that ‘good language learners spend much time working on themselves and try to expose themselves to the language more than poor language learners’. However, Teacher 4 considered good language learners to be ‘outcomes of good family and school establishments’; in other words, he believed that family and school play essential roles in developing good language learners. At the end of the interviews, Teacher 3 and Teacher 4 were informed that strategies can be explicitly taught to students in the classroom and that students can become better language learners after being taught LLS. Then, when the teachers were asked if they would like to know more about this topic, they both stated that they were eager to learn more about LLS and how they can be explicitly taught in language classrooms.

### ***Strategy instruction through a language textbook***

As mentioned earlier (4.5.1), the strategy instruction programme was applied through the language textbook (Language Leader) that the students were using. Consequently, it was clearly very important to obtain teachers’ feedback on this method of instruction. When Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 were asked about the level of difficulty or simplicity, and also the effectiveness, of strategy instruction through a language textbook, Teacher 1 revealed that teaching LLS was ‘very easy

since the guidebook (Teacher's Booklet) we were given was well designed and clearly summarizes the strategies that could be used for teaching different language skills'. Teacher 2 also indicated that teaching strategies through a language textbook was 'fairly easy'. Regarding the effectiveness of teaching strategies through a language textbook, Teacher 1 explained that it was 'very effective and reflecting on the students' reaction towards it, they did really benefit a great deal from just learning or hearing about these strategies'. Further, Teacher 2 found it 'effective based on students' feedback'. When Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 were asked about importance of Lesson Four of the students' language textbook, which concerned explicit strategy instruction in each unit, both teachers stressed that this lesson was important, although Teacher 1 admitted that he occasionally skipped this lesson as a result of time constraints. When both teachers were asked about the importance of presenting LLS in a language textbook, Teacher 1 said he believed that 'it's of great importance especially for students studying in EFL context because some of them are highly motivated but they don't know how to learn'. Supporting this opinion, Teacher 2 stated:

especially in our context in here, in our country, it is extremely important. Many students come to us, to the school, and they actually tell you they don't know how to study sometimes. So, you need these strategies to teach them. The goal of the strategy is to help and aid in the understanding ... yes the strategy is important it should be mentioned explicitly in the book.

When they were asked for recommendations they would give curriculum designers from a strategy perspective, Teacher 1 recommended including LLS, if not in the textbook itself, then in the teacher's guide. Similarly, Teacher 2 highlighted the importance of explicitly presenting LLS in language textbooks, as this would improve teachers' awareness on such strategies and facilitate language learning for students.

### ***Teacher's Booklet***

Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 were asked about the helpfulness of the Teacher's Booklet (TB) in teaching LLS. Teacher 1 revealed that he found the TB very helpful. He elaborated, 'the researcher actually managed to identify strategies that students could use to improve their English'. Teacher 2 said 'it was detailed. It mentioned everything, almost everything. I mean all the divisions of every unit were there: listening, reading, writing, vocabulary, and speaking; most of the activities I can say if I can remember are mentioned there'. When they were asked if, during the intervention period, they managed to follow the TB in terms of the time assigned for teaching strategies, Teacher 1 stated that the time assigned for teaching strategies was manageable, and the way the TB explained the material was very helpful; however, he skipped teaching some strategies as a result of the condensed pacing schedule. Teacher 2 believed that time was fairly enough' and he managed to follow the booklet in terms of the number of strategies assigned to a certain number of classes.

When they were asked about elements of the TB they liked or disliked, Teacher 1 said, 'my comments in here will be overall positive because I liked it and I think it summarized everything I could think about.' However, he suggested reducing the number of strategies in some exercises. Teacher 2 said there was nothing about the TB he disliked. He particularly liked the use of Arabic translation for some strategies. The teachers were then asked if they were willing to design their own booklets to teach strategies. Teacher 1 was unsure about designing his own booklet, but would:

definitely think about it in my like daily lesson plans. When I plan my lesson, I will look at the exercises and think what kind of learning strategies could I provide to students?

Designing the book like would take me time, but if I had the time and I could design one, I would do it.

Teacher 2 did not say if he planned to design his own booklet to teach strategies, but he stated that he would present such strategies himself through a booklet or other supplementary material to the textbook. He also said he would explain each needed strategy to the students.

### ***Taught strategies***

The appropriateness of taught strategies to students' level and to assigned exercises was discussed with both teachers. Teacher 1 explained that there were few strategies that surpass most students' levels, such as 'reading between the lines' in reading and 'look for a different way to express the idea', which involves using synonyms when writing and speaking. He believed that such strategies were more appropriate for upper-intermediate or advanced language learners; however, all other strategies were appropriate. In the same vein, Teacher 2 found 'make up new words in English to communicate the unknown words' to be an inappropriate strategy for learning speaking. Similar to Teacher 1, he believed that 'this strategy might be suitable for more proficient students'. However, he evaluated the appropriateness of taught strategies as: 'on a scale of one to ten, I would say eight or nine'. When the two teachers were asked about assigning more than one strategy to an exercise (strategy orchestration), Teacher 1 revealed that he was convinced of the effectiveness of clustering strategies; however, in practice, he taught large numbers of students in the classroom, and some were only capable of employing one strategy while others employed more than one strategy. Consequently, he tended to offer students more than one strategy in order to accommodate the individual differences between them and, concurrently, to facilitate the completion of the task or exercise. Teacher 2 raised the issue of students' learning styles. For him, it was important to provide numerous methods of performing an activity, as this would meet the needs of students with different learning styles. Inquiries were then made concerning time issues in relation to strategy instruction. Both teachers were asked if the teaching of certain strategies was time consuming. Teacher 1 commented that the manner by which he applied strategy instruction was not really time

consuming, because he was using the students' mother tongue, which saved a lot of time. However, Teacher 2 found it time consuming at first but, once he had explained most strategies, the time required was greatly reduced because he simply needed to remind students of them. In his point of view, once that stage was reached, strategy instruction was no longer time consuming from his point of view.

### ***SSBI framework***

Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 were asked if they were able to follow the five steps provided in the SSBI framework in regard to strategy instruction. Teacher 1 was able to follow the five steps, although he admitted that he occasionally did not apply them in the order provided. The first three steps (strategy preparation, strategy awareness-raising, and strategy instruction) 'sometimes overlap'. He said that the suggested order to instruct strategies, particularly the first three steps, was not always followed as a result of 'their similar objectives'. Teacher 2 stated that he tried to follow the five steps, but sometimes he 'was governed by the class. In some occasions, students were impatient as they jumped to practicing the strategy without fully understanding when and how to use it'. Strategy instruction in Arabic was also discussed with both teachers. Teacher 1, found it very effective and time saving, because if he wanted to 'teach strategies in English, taking into consideration the level of our students here, that would have taken a lot of time but using Arabic saved my time and facilitated the instruction process'. Teacher 2 commented that it would be slightly difficult to teach strategies in English. For example, 'using cognates without translation would have been vague, but with translation, students comprehended the idea and started actually using the strategy'. He believed that if students studied something in a different language and did not understand it, 'it would form a block'.

### ***Explicit strategy instruction***

The two teachers were asked if they believed that the programme assisted in raising their students' awareness of strategies. Teacher 1 was 'confident that this programme contributed to students' strategy awareness'. He mentioned some incidences where students began independently utilizing strategies in the classroom, such as:

a student who showed his weekly semantic maps, another student drew the word [eye] inside a smiling face, many students in the classroom who started reading questions before listening to a CD or before reading a text, and many students who took notes before commencing their writing and who edited their grammar and punctuation after writing paragraphs.

Teacher 2 noticed some of his students grouped words based on the parts of speech they related to, some wrote new words and their synonyms and antonyms together in their notebooks, some

skimmed and scanned texts in reading, some revised paragraphs after finishing writing, and one student listed cognates on a specific page.

When Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 were asked if their students' improvement in English proficiency was accelerated by the strategy instruction programme, Teacher 1 answered that his students' proficiency was improving at approximately the same speed, but he had noticed the 'positive effects' of the strategies. He stated that 'the role of strategies students learnt through this programme cannot be ignored'. He added, 'if not all students benefited from strategies to improve their English proficiency, at least some, whom I noticed using strategies in the classroom, did'. Teacher 2 believed that the improvements in students' English proficiency 'cannot be accurately judged in two months'. He believed that novice English-language learners improve after a short period of time, and 'tests scores do not always represent reality.' From his point of view, students should have access to 'many resources that contribute to their English proficiency improvement, and strategies can be considered one of these resources'. He said 'strategies can contribute to students English proficiency, but they are not a major contributor'.

Both teachers were asked if strategy instruction in a separate programme would be a good alternative to integrating strategies within regular language lessons, but both stated that they preferred integrating strategy instruction into regular language lessons. Teacher 1 stressed that 'by teaching strategies through language classroom, we provide students more opportunities to practice strategies in real learning situations'. Teacher 2 added 'strategies will be better explained and practiced if they accompanied exercises or tasks in students' language textbooks'. For him, 'students will not take strategies seriously if they were taught in a separate course'.

When both teachers were asked about the advantages of explicit strategy instruction, Teacher 1 listed the following: 'raising students' awareness towards LLS; attracting students' attention to think of their own ways of learning; and providing more than one way for students to facilitate their learning'. Teacher 2 added: 'focusing more on learn how to learn than learning the content of the language itself, changing the traditional way of teaching English, providing students with new tools to assist their language learning, and encouraging students to take more responsibilities for their English learning'. Regarding the disadvantages of explicit strategy instruction in the classroom, Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 listed the following: students may refuse to use learning strategies as additional materials; some students may already be aware of some taught strategies and may find explanations of these strategies boring; and using Arabic heavily might annoy students who are attending the classes just to learn English.

In regard to whether teaching strategies explicitly in the classroom was effective, Teacher 1 revealed that it was 'effective to a great extent with many students'. This was based on his observations of students practicing strategies, as well as students' and his own evaluations of



strategies. Consequently, he noticed that ‘the vast majority of students reacted positively towards strategy instruction’. Teacher 2 stated that ‘most of my students had a positive impact from explicit strategy instruction in the classroom’. He attributed this to ‘expected benefits students gained from strategy instruction’. For him, his students’ evaluations of many strategies indicated the effectiveness of explicit strategy instruction.

## **5.4 Summary of the Qualitative Data**

The qualitative data from students’ and teachers’ interviews provided some information on students’ and teachers’ feedback on the strategy instruction programme. This feedback can be summarized as follows:

First, students’ feedback included an increase in their awareness of strategies, a positive change in their methods of learning, improvement in their language proficiency, identifying their learning style preferences, and learning new strategies. The qualitative results revealed that, prior to this programme: students were unaware of the term ‘strategy’, although a small number were unconsciously strategizing while learning English. The programme raised interviewees’ awareness of strategies in general, as evidenced by their responses in the pre- and post-LSUS. This enhanced strategy awareness did not only result in enlightening students in regard to facilitating their language learning, but also helped them to increase their strategy repertoires. The qualitative results also revealed that the programme positively affected students’ learning methods, although not all interviewees changed their ways of learning English after the end of the programme. As all interviewed students stated that they had never paid attention to their English-learning methods prior to this programme, it is clear that they have now become aware, to some extent, of these methods. They began to focus not only on the content of the language, but also on methods of learning the content. Moreover, instead of immediately engaging in accomplishing tasks, students mentioned that they had begun to plan the completion of tasks and to consult their strategy repertoires in order to determine the appropriate strategies. Another evidence of positive change in the students’ learning methods was that some had gained the ability, to some extent, to orchestrate strategies. As the results revealed, most strategy orchestration was performed by students while learning new words. Some students orchestrated strategies while speaking in English. In regard to improving students’ language proficiency and learning new strategies, the qualitative results revealed the following: all students learnt new strategies in all language skills and for vocabulary, most students improved in all language skills as well as in vocabulary, and most admitted that these newly acquired strategies contributed to their language-proficiency improvement, although some reported that they had also used other resources to improve their language proficiency. All students found identifying learning style preferences interesting because they, for the first time, had become

aware of their learning style preferences. In addition, the activity of identifying learning style preferences proved that students with particular preferences were in favour of using strategies that suited these learning style preferences. Some students were unable to expand their learning styles to accommodate strategies beyond their learning styles' zones; however, some students did manage to achieve this, as their pre- and post-LSUS illustrated.

Second, the teachers' feedback covered their previous knowledge of LLS, strategy instruction through a language textbook, the TB, the strategies taught in the TB, SSBI framework, and explicit strategy instruction. Three of the interviewee teachers had heard of LLS before this programme and one was unfamiliar with LLS. None of those who were aware of the strategies before the programme taught LLS explicitly in their regular language classes. They only referred to LLS or rarely explained strategies if they were directly asked to do so by the curriculum. All teachers believed that using strategies might be effective for students. Both teachers who taught strategies in this programme found strategy instruction through a language textbook easy and effective. They highlighted the importance of Lesson Four in the students' textbook, although one of them admitted that he occasionally skipped this lesson as a result of time constraints. They emphasized the importance of presenting LLS in language textbooks in order to raise students' awareness of strategies and to simultaneously facilitate language learning in the classroom. The feedback of the two teachers who participated in the intervention group showed that the TB was helpful for strategy instruction. Overall, they both liked the TB, although they expressed minor aspects they disliked. Both teachers were unsure about whether they would design their own booklets to teach strategies in the future; however, they stressed that they would continue presenting strategies to students in their regular language classes. Concerning the strategies they taught from the TB, both teachers found most strategies appropriate for assigned exercises, and there were very few strategies inappropriate for the levels of their students. They suggested that these more difficult strategies may be more appropriate for advanced language learners. In regard to the ability of students to cluster or orchestrate strategies, one of the teachers revealed that he noticed some students clustering strategies independently, but not all students; however, he added that strategy instruction involved providing students with a variety of strategies and allowing them to choose which and how many to use. The other teacher also raised the issue of students' learning styles, stating that he provided a number of options and allowed students to choose their own method of completing the exercises or tasks. One of the teachers found strategy instruction to be time consuming at the beginning of the programme, although the time required later reduced. For the other teacher, strategy instruction was not time consuming, as the students' mother tongue was used to explain the process. The five steps of the SSBI framework, which were used in the strategy instruction featured in this programme, were not always followed by both teachers when they were teaching strategies. One of the teachers felt that the first three steps overlapped and shared similar

objectives, while the other teacher found that students would jump between steps to test given strategies. Both teachers encouraged the use of Arabic when teaching strategies. From their point of view, using Arabic in strategy instruction facilitated students' understanding and saved time. Both teachers who participated in the intervention stated that the programme increased their students' strategy awareness. They specifically mentioned incidences they had noticed in their regular language classes involving students utilizing LLS independently. Regarding students' proficiency, both teachers agreed that their students had generally made some progress in English. One of the teachers revealed that the programme had a positive effect on students' proficiency; however, the other found LLS to be just one of many resources that contributed to improving students' proficiency. Both teachers supported integrating strategy instruction in regular language classrooms. They believed that if strategies were taught in separate courses, students might not take them seriously. Regarding the advantages of explicit strategy instruction, the teachers emphasized the following: raising students' awareness of LLS and methods of language learning, facilitating language learning through the provision of helpful tools, changing the traditional method of language teaching in the classroom, and urging students to take more responsibilities for their language learning. Among the disadvantages both teachers listed were: students might resist instruction on strategies as additional materials, students who are already familiar with some taught strategies might become bored, and some students might be unhappy with the use of Arabic in an English classroom. Finally, both teachers found the explicit strategy instruction in language classrooms to be very effective; this verdict was based on their observations in the classrooms, their students' reactions towards the taught strategies, and on their and their students' evaluations of the effectiveness of the taught strategies after practicing them.

The following chapter discusses the quantitative and qualitative findings that were presented in this chapter.



## **Chapter 6: Discussion**

### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the results presented in chapter 5 in light of the literature reviewed in chapters 2 and 3. The discussion relates to the following four areas: strategy instruction and strategy awareness, strategy instruction and language proficiency, learning styles (including dominant learning styles, proficiency of students with different learning styles, strategy preferences and style-stretching), and feedback on the SSBI programme. The first research question, which investigated students' strategy awareness (quantitatively) in addition to students' and teachers' feedback in regard to the fourth research question (qualitatively), is triangulated in order to fuel the discussion concerning the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness.

Additionally, comparisons with other studies that have examined students' strategy awareness prior and after strategy instruction are performed; this was in order to determine if there were any similarities or differences between such studies and the study described in this paper, bearing in mind that the current study carries more advantages because it more closely examines changes in strategy awareness through applying LSUS both before and after strategy instruction. Quantitative findings collected to answer the second research question, which concerned the effect of strategy instruction on language proficiency, are also triangulated with qualitative findings collected from students' and teachers' feedback from the fourth research question in order to establish the basis of the discussion concerning strategy instruction and language proficiency. The discussion also considers a number of very relevant topics the study attempted to refer to, such as identifying learning styles, style and proficiency, strategies preferred by particular styles, and style-stretching. The final part of the discussion chapter focuses on the remaining areas of students' and teachers' feedback on the strategy instruction programme in regard to the fourth research question.

### **6.2 Strategy Instruction and Strategy Awareness**

This section discusses the effect of the strategy instruction programme on students' strategy awareness. The discussion is divided into two subsections: the first subsection discusses improvements in students' strategy awareness based on results gained from quantitative and qualitative data, while the second subsection discusses the positive change in the students' learning processes as a result of exposure to strategy instruction; this is based on the qualitative data, as we will see below.

### 6.2.1 Better Strategy Awareness

Strategy awareness provides true evidence of declarative and procedural knowledge referred to under cognitive theory. In other words, if a student is aware of new strategies, s/he may initially begin processing them in the brain as declarative knowledge that involves some practice in order to be proceduralized (Macaro, 2001). Enhancing strategy awareness constitutes the second step in the process of explicitly teaching strategies through which students' general awareness towards learning process; learning styles; and already used and suggested strategies was improved. The aim behind enhancing strategy awareness was to develop students' declarative and procedural knowledge.

The present study found that, for 44 untaught strategies listed in the LSUS, the averages of students' percentages for the four options showed that completing the LSUS alone increased strategy awareness in both groups to almost the same degree, although the figures were slightly higher for students in the experimental group. This finding further supports the theory that asking learners to complete strategy questionnaires *per se* contributes to enhancing their strategy awareness; NCLRC (2004) and Nyikos (1991) stated that learners are often unaware of the strategies they have used unless they self-assess their strategies through a strategy questionnaire. This finding is also consistent with those of Vandergrift *et al.* (2006), who applied their Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire as a potential tool for improving students' strategy awareness. According to Oxford and Leaver (1996, p. 232), completing strategy surveys 'spark[s] strategic awareness' among language learners, and their study also determined that discussions held after completing strategy surveys improve strategy awareness, a result that was also noticed in the experimental group of the present study.

A possible explanation for this might be related to applying the LSUS twice: at the beginning and at the end of the study. Providing students in both groups with a list of strategies that they may or may not have seen or used before may improve students' awareness of these strategies and, further, they may begin thinking of trying them themselves; at the very least they will become aware that there are strategies used by language learners. Another possible explanation for this finding might relate to the four options in the LSUS, from which students must choose one for each listed strategy. In other words, asking students whether they have used a particular strategy and enjoyed using it (option one), if they have tried a particular strategy and would use it again (option two), if they have never used a particular strategy (option three), or if a particular strategy did not fit for them (option four) might prompt students to apply new strategies they have never used before (as a result of possessing poor strategy repertoires) or to try strategies that they encountered previously but did not like (because they believed that these strategies were not beneficial or they did not know how to use them). A possible reason for the students in the experimental group having

slightly higher strategy awareness than that of their counterparts in the control group could relate to the strategy instruction delivered to them in the experimental group. The strategy instruction which included approximately 39 strategies from those listed in the LSUS may have raised students' strategy awareness in the experimental group to apply some of these 44 untaught strategies listed in the LSUS.

For the 39 strategies listed in the LSUS and taught in the programme, in the experimental group the averages of students' percentages in regard to the four options showed a significant increase in strategy awareness; this contrasted with the averages of students in the control group, which were not significant. This emphasizes the positive effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness. The experimental group's strategy awareness was obviously enhanced as a result of receiving strategy instruction over two months. Hence, this strategy instruction helped these students develop their declarative and procedural knowledge of the 39 taught strategies. Further, these results match those observed in earlier studies. Flaitz and Feyten (1996) for example, linked strategy awareness to strategy instruction, although they believed that strategy instruction was insufficient to raise students' strategy awareness. Similarly, Simmons (1996) found that six weeks of strategy training increased students' strategy awareness. Many other studies, such as Alnufaie (2013), Blanco *et al.* (2010), Nakatani (2005), Otwinowska-Kasztelanic (2009), and Yang (1996) reached the same conclusion as that of the present study, although they differed in many other results due to differences in contexts and circumstances.

To explain this finding, we can say that if the students in the control group had received similar strategy instruction to their peers in the experimental group, it is likely that their strategy awareness would have further improved. This finding accords with Nakatani (2005), who suggested that students in his control group who did not receive metacognitive training would have improved their knowledge of oral skills if they had received the same metacognitive training. This result may also be explained by the claim that training students on the use of strategies increases their strategy awareness. Hence, the strategy awareness of students in the experimental group was improved through explicit strategy instruction, in which one of the strategy instruction steps was strategy awareness enhancement. In contrast, the strategy awareness of students in the control group was only improved through completing the LSUS and, consequently, it was not enhanced to the same level as the experimental group, which received strategy instruction over two months.

These quantitative findings are boosted by qualitative findings sourced from students' and teachers' feedback on the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness. Students' feedback on their strategy awareness included: enlightenment, where students learned when and how to use new strategies; increased strategy repertoires, where students improved their strategic competence to apply new strategies; ability to think of learning methods, where students began thinking of their

own ways of learning; enhanced consciousness in regard to strategies that were already being unconsciously used; and facilitating language learning, where students became aware that strategies may be a useful tool for language learning. Teachers' feedback on students' strategy awareness included accounts of students using strategies independently in the language classroom.

The students' feedback on their strategy awareness may be explained by the fact that the students may have been completely unaware of the term 'strategy', and strategies may not have been discussed in their language classes at all. Therefore, the programme provided opportunities for students to learn the term 'strategy' and its purposes and, simultaneously, to identify the strategies they were unconsciously using, learn how to employ them appropriately, think of their own learning processes, and utilize new tools to facilitate their language learning.

These findings indicate that either completing a strategy questionnaire or providing a strategy instruction programme for students will have a positive effect on students' strategy awareness. However, in a study by Rees-Miller (1993), the link between strategy instruction and strategy awareness was not found despite a number of attempts, which led to the argument that there is no demonstrated causal relationship between L2 learning success and strategy awareness. In another study, Zhang and Goh (2006) found that strategy instruction made their Singaporean students aware of the usefulness of taught strategies (which accords with the present study), but the students were not confident strategy users. Rees-Miller's study (1993) is incongruent with the current study and with other studies such as Yang (1996), Nakatani (2005), Otwinowska-Kasztelanic (2009), and Blanco *et al.* (2010), which found a relationship between strategy instruction and strategy awareness. We can, therefore, infer that students' strategy awareness can be slightly increased through completing strategy surveys, such as the LSUS, and it can be noticeably increased through explicit strategy instruction. This has implications for English language teachers in the Saudi context, as it shows that, even if they are unable to implement a strategy instruction programme, they can begin enhancing their students' strategy awareness through completing strategy surveys.

### **6.2.2 Positive Change in the Learning Process**

An examination of the results found through the interviews appears to indicate a positive (although not very high) impact of strategy instruction on students' learning methods. Five of the seven interviewed students (Abdul, Khamis, Eisa, Saad, and Ghaith) reported that the strategy instruction programme helped them to positively change their learning method. This change involved altering their strategy use, as they reported that they had begun to employ new strategies. This positive change in strategy use is supported by many studies that achieved the same result, such as Blanco *et al.* (2010), Chen (2009), Dörnyei (1995), Macaro and Erler (2008), Mizumoto and Takeuchi (2009), Nakatani (2005), Nguyen and Gu (2013), Otwinowska-Kasztelanic (2009), and Zhang



(2008), although they differed in regard to some other results. It is possible that these participants were more motivated to learn English or the taught strategies were more useful for them; however, two of the students involved in the present study (Nehad and Turki) stated that they were continuing to learn English in the same way as previously, but they were now aware of some new strategies. Explaining why they were not applying the new strategies, they highlighted the issue of the time required to change their learning methods, which was also noted in Sharkey (1994), and they also reported the need to know more about themselves before choosing a strategy. As Sharkey (1994) stressed, this resistance towards changing learning methods is expected among some students. A possible cause of this resistance could relate to students' learning styles. For example, Nehad was an introverted learner who usually depended more on himself while learning; however, the strategies provided by the teacher required him to examine those taught strategies himself, recognise their benefit, and then embrace them. Turki, however, was a particular learner who relied heavily on knowing details such as instances where he might need to identify each strategy and know exactly when and how to adequately use it and practice it; such a practice takes considerable time. Consequently, the time made available during the strategy instruction programme may not have been sufficient for him, which might have resulted in his reluctance to change his learning method.

Bearing in mind the strong agreement among many scholars that a strategy is effective for promoting learning if it is combined with other strategies (Anderson, 2008; and Cohen, 2007; Macaro, 2009), another positive change in the learning process concerned the ability of some students to orchestrate or combine strategies, although not deeply. The findings from interviews reported that five of the interviewed students (Abdul, Saad, Ghaith, Eisa, and Khamis) could combine strategies while learning new words or while speaking; however, two of them (Nehad and Turki) were unable to combine strategies. These findings seem to be consistent with Macaro (2001), who noticed that while some of his participants were able to effectively combine strategies, some were not. The fact that some students in the present study had the ability to combine strategies can be explained by considering their mental processes. This reminds us of Macaro's Cognitive Framework, which explained that declarative knowledge is proceduralized through links between the working memory (declarative knowledge) and long-term memory (procedural knowledge). In the present study, students who were able to combine strategies may have been able to proceduralize strategies and employ them together with other strategies, while students who could not proceduralize strategies may have been unable to orchestrate strategies. Another explanation may relate to the tangible effect the act of employing more than one strategy had on students' learning processes. Regarding the students in the current study who did not deploy strategy combination, this may have been because it was too mentally complex or confusing for them to employ more than a strategy at a time (Macaro, 2001). Learning style might also play a

role, as seen in the example of Turki, who was a particular learner and his learning style may have prompted him to focus on one strategy rather than deploying two or three strategies concurrently. It is still unknown why certain learners have the ability to combine strategies more effectively than others. These findings imply that strategy orchestration should also be recommended within strategy instruction programmes in the Saudi context, bearing in mind individual differences between learners. Combining strategies is a complicated process and its effectiveness differs among language learners; this process may be new to many language learners in the Saudi context and some might need some extra time to adapt.

Teachers also revealed that assigning more than one strategy to address a language task was helpful for students, although students were not always willing to attempt this. One of the teachers explained that some students were able to orchestrate strategies whereas others were not. Hence, this teacher should offer his students different strategies to accomplish tasks; however, he was certain that some of his students were unable to cluster strategies. This finding is consistent with those of Griffiths (2013), Macaro (2001), and Vandergrift (2003), who found that strategy combination is a complex process and some learners cannot accomplish it. The other teacher highlighted learning style as a factor that may affect students' ability to orchestrate strategies, which is similar to Oxford (2001, 2011), Cohen (2011), Cohen and Weaver (2006), and Ma and Oxford (2014), all of whom believed that learning styles play a very important role in using strategies. As such, in order to meet different learning styles and provide better learning opportunities, teachers should offer many strategies to their students and, concurrently, encourage strategy combination, a method that was also championed by Griffiths and Tang (2016).

### **6.3 Strategy Instruction and Language Proficiency**

Results obtained from the quantitative data showed that in both groups students' proficiency improved in almost all language skills except reading; in fact, the control group's reading proficiency score was the only aspect to drop significantly. However, after comparing the difference in proficiency improvement in both groups, significant differences were found in students' proficiency improvement in regard to writing, reading, and speaking. Nonetheless, the differences in students' proficiency improvement in both groups were not significant in relation to listening and vocabulary. This might indicate that, for students in the experimental group, strategy instruction was sufficiently effective for writing, reading, and speaking only, but was not sufficiently effective for listening and vocabulary. A closer examination of these findings will be discussed below.

### **6.3.1 Significant Difference in Writing Proficiency Improvement**

The quantitative findings reported a significant improvement in students' writing proficiency for both groups. Nevertheless, when the difference in writing proficiency improvement between the two groups was calculated, it was found that students in the experimental group had significantly outperformed their counterparts in the control group. These results seem to be consistent with Sengupta (2000), who instructed revision strategies concerning writing for two groups of English learners in Hong Kong and compared their writing performance with that of another group of students who did not receive any instruction on writing strategies. Sengupta (2000) found that the explicit teaching of revision strategies had a measurable influence on writing performance; moreover, Sasaki (2004) found that strategy instruction improved L2 composition in terms of quality and fluency for both groups involved in her study. In the same vein, McMullen (2009) found that Saudi learners of English earned higher marks in writing after exposure to strategy-based instruction.

Improvement in students' writing proficiency was also discussed qualitatively in the interviews. Some interviewees (Abdul, Ghaith, and Turki) clearly stated that writing strategies assisted them in improving their writing; however, others (Saad, Khamis, Nehad, and Eisa) said that they only slightly depended on strategies to improve their writing. Aside from strategy instruction, some interviewees attributed their improvement in writing to other resources, such as good feedback from the teacher (a strategy taught in the intervention), better vocabulary knowledge, and improvements in grammar. However, most interviewees confessed that using writing strategies demands more time and practice. Although all interviewees in this study improved their writing proficiency after the intervention, Alnufaie (2013) found that only three of his five participants scored higher in their writing competence after the treatment, with the other two retaining the same writing competence. In the present study, some students believed that their improvement in writing was slow and they generally agreed that writing is a complex process that constitutes the most difficult aspect of learning English.

There is, however, an explanation for this finding. Generally, after being involved in an intensive English course for two months, learners self-expect to improve their proficiency, and this occurred in both groups in the current study. The strategy instruction provided to students in the experimental group might constitute an additional factor that contributed to improving these students' writing proficiency. Furthermore, it can be assumed that, in comparison to other strategies (reading, listening, speaking, and vocabulary strategies), writing strategies were better taught to the students in the experimental group, as one class per day was devoted to writing; hence, teachers in the experimental group had much more time to work with students on writing strategies. However, strategy instruction was not the only active factor, as students also relied on other sources to

improve their writing. A possible explanation for this might be that students found these other resources more effective than using strategies. Another possible explanation might relate to the difficulty of applying writing strategies, as some students showed that using strategies regularly requires more time and practice.

### **6.3.2 Significant Difference in Reading Proficiency Improvement**

In the experimental group, quantitative results showed that students' reading proficiency improved after the intervention, but not by a significant degree. Contrarily, in the control group, students' reading proficiency had worsened significantly. When the difference between the experimental group's proficiency improvement and the control group's proficiency drop was calculated, it was found to be significant. This finding accords with that obtained by Kern (1989), who determined that training in reading strategies had a positive effect on reading comprehension. Moreover, Raymond (1993) found that students in her experimental group recalled significantly more ideas after reading a text than their peers in the control group, which indicated better reading comprehension. Zhang (2008) found that there were statistically significant differences in reading performance between students in his experimental group, who received strategy instruction, and students in the control group, who did not receive any strategy instruction.

The improvement in the experimental group's reading proficiency might be attributed to general proficiency improvement, but strategy instruction may have been a contributory factor. However, it is difficult to explain why the control group's reading proficiency worsened in the post-test. Interviewing students from the control group, which unfortunately was not conducted in this study, might help us understand this contradictory result.

It is clear that using reading strategies helped some students, Abdul, Khamis, and Nehad, as they obtained full marks in their reading post-test after the intervention, as reported in the qualitative results. However, one of them (Nehad) attributed his improvement to his reading for pleasure, which cannot be ignored. Although two of the interviewees (Eisa and Ghaith) agreed that reading strategies assisted them in regard to improving their reading, Ghaith believed that his improvement in reading was a result of his general improvement in language proficiency, which indicates that, after spending some time learning English in an intensive language course, language proficiency is expected to improve if the learner is motivated to learn. One interviewee (Saad) explained that reading comprehension is difficult if there are many unknown words, regardless of whether reading strategies are used. The only interviewed student whose reading proficiency worsened after the intervention was Turki, who believed employing strategies was ineffective for difficult texts.

It seems possible from these findings that explicit strategy instruction concerning reading strategies might have been an important factor in the improvement in the experimental group's reading proficiency. Strategy instruction seems to have had a positive effect on students' reading proficiency; however, other factors, such as the one highlighted above (reading for pleasure) should not be underestimated. It is noticeable that those who did not improve their reading proficiency faced particular difficulty utilizing strategies when they were given texts containing a large number of unknown words. This might be explained by the fact that students can easily abandon strategies if confronted with challenging tasks and if they have insufficient strategy repertoires. Macaro (2001) suggested that insufficient linguistic resources may prevent learners from deploying certain strategies. Hence, strategy instruction should involve the provision of a variety of strategies and should encourage learners to think of other strategies that might facilitate their learning. Regarding the control group's drop in reading proficiency, it can be surmised that if the students in this group had received similar strategy instruction as their counterparts in the experimental group, they might have, at the very least, retained the same reading proficiency level.

### **6.3.3 Significant Difference in Speaking Proficiency Improvement**

Quantitative results reported a significant improvement in speaking proficiency among students in both the experimental and control group. However, when the difference in improvement in speaking proficiency between the two groups was calculated, students in the experimental group were found to have outperformed their counterparts in the control group to a significant degree. These findings conform with those of O'Malley *et al.* (1985), who found a substantial increase in the speaking skills of students in their two experimental groups, which was not observed in their control group students. Dörnyei (1995) also found an improvement in his experimental group's speaking proficiency, although he added that his findings were inconclusive. Cohen *et al.* (1996) found that students in their experimental group significantly outperformed their counterparts in the control group in one of three tasks (city description); however, there was no significant difference between the groups' speaking proficiency in regard to the other two tasks (self-description and story retelling). Furthermore, Nakatani (2005) found that students who received training in oral communication improved their oral test scores to a greater degree than those who did not receive strategy training. Lam (2009) provides further support for the current study's findings, as she found that in oral tests students who received strategy instruction on metacognitive strategies outperformed those who did not receive metacognitive strategy instruction.

The students' scores revealed that five of the interviewees (Abdul, Khamis, Ghaith, Eisa, and Turki) improved their speaking proficiency after the intervention. All of them agreed that the speaking strategies taught during the programme helped them to obtain better scores in their

speaking post-test. However, they did not attribute their improvement in speaking proficiency to strategy instruction received *per se*. They highlighted additional factors that also contributed to their speaking proficiency improvement, such as practicing English inside the industrial college campus, practicing English in cafes and hospitals in Saudi Arabia where English is spoken, a strategy listed in the LSUS under speaking strategies (regularly seek out opportunities to talk with native speakers); general improvement in their English; and staying for a number of months in a country where the target language is spoken (as Abdul stated). These factors (or strategies) should not be ignored, as they are considered additional sources that students found helpful in regard to improving their speaking. The two students who did not improve their speaking proficiency (Saad and Nehad) attributed the constancy of their speaking proficiency to: a lack of practice of speaking strategies outside the classroom; the short period of the strategy instruction programme, claiming that two months was insufficient to effectively learn to apply strategies; and that they had forgotten strategies as a result of the stress associated with the tests (reported by Nehad).

From these findings, it seems that explicit strategy instruction for speaking strategies had a positive effect on students' speaking proficiency. Nonetheless, other resources that contributed to students' speaking proficiency should also be taken into account. Strategy instruction might be just one of many factors that improved students' speaking proficiency, so it cannot be assumed to be the only effective factor. In regard to factors that could have possibly hindered improvements in students' speaking proficiency, such as not practicing strategies outside the classroom, students might have believed that the strategies should only be used while formally learning English in the classroom; however, at the beginning of the programme it was stated that the strategies should be used whenever and wherever language is learnt. The short period of time assigned for the strategy instruction programme was another reason for a lack of improvement in speaking proficiency, and this can be explained by the fact that it is highly recommended that strategy instruction be conducted over long periods of time (Cohen, 2011; Griffiths, 2013; Oxford, 2011), even years (Chamot, 2004). Due to the time constraints of the present study, a maximum period of two months was available to teach strategies. Hence, such a short period may have been insufficient for some students to learn new strategies, as they were simultaneously encountering other difficulties in learning the language itself. Therefore, teachers should carefully consider time in strategy instruction programmes in order to allow their students to gain maximum benefit. Regarding forgetting strategies while under the stress of tests, this is an interesting phenomenon, and further research is required to investigate how language learners apply strategies while experiencing test stress.

### 6.3.4 Insignificant Difference in Listening Proficiency Improvement

Students in both the experimental and control group significantly improved their listening proficiency after the intervention. When the difference in listening proficiency improvement between the two groups was measured, no significant difference was found. This finding is similar to that of O'Malley *et al.* (1985), who detected differences in students' gains in the post-test for all three of their groups, but none were significant. Nonetheless, other studies such as Graham and Macaro (2008), Seo (2000), and Thompson and Rubin (1996) found a significant improvement in the listening proficiency of the intervention group in comparison to that of the control group.

Five of the seven interviewed students (Saad, Eisa, Khamis, Ghaith, and Turki) improved their listening proficiency after the intervention. Four of these five stated that listening strategies, particularly planning how to accomplish a task (through reading questions before listening), assisted them in improving their listening skills. The exception was Turki, who believed that listening strategies were occasionally ineffective. Further, the interviewed students listed additional strategies that contributed to their listening proficiency improvement, such as watching TV (news and movies) and listening to radio for long periods. One of the interviewed students (Nehad) did not improve his listening and he again stated that he had forgotten the strategies when under test-related stress. The only interviewed student whose score dropped in listening post-test was Abdul, and he explained that in the post-test he encountered new words, which made it difficult for him to score highly. He stated that he did apply some strategies, but they were not sufficient to help his result.

If it is assumed that, in the experimental group, strategy instruction had a positive effect on most students' listening proficiency improvement, what caused the significant improvement in the control group? This may be explained by the fact that findings from previous studies did not obtain clear conclusions (Macaro *et al.*, 2007) concerning the effect of listening strategy instruction on learners' performance. Other studies such as Ozeki, (2000), and McGruddy (1995) found no clear difference between students' proficiency in their experimental and control groups. Thus, the assumption that teaching listening strategies has a positive effect might be rejected based on the findings of the present study and similar findings from previous studies. Another possible explanation for the significant improvement in students' listening proficiency in the control group might be that they applied additional resources (or strategies) similar to those mentioned by interviewed students (planning, watching TV, and listening to the radio or others). These findings should encourage researchers to conduct further research on teaching listening strategies, as studies in this area are still sparse (Macaro *et al.*, 2007).

### **6.3.5 Insignificant Difference in Vocabulary Proficiency Improvement**

Students' scores showed that students in both groups improved their vocabulary proficiency, but only the experimental group's improvement was significant. When the difference in the improvement in vocabulary proficiency between the two groups was calculated, it was not found to be significant. This finding conforms with that of Rasekh and Ranjbary (2003), and also with that of Mizumoto and Takeuchi (2009), who both found that students in their experimental groups outperformed their counterparts in the control groups in the post-test.

The scores of five interviewed students (Nehad, Saad, Turki, Khamis, and Eisa) showed an improvement in vocabulary proficiency. All five stated that there were many useful vocabulary strategies that assisted them in learning new words. The usefulness of vocabulary strategies was also mentioned by the two students who did not improve their vocabulary proficiency (Ghaith and Abdul). Abdul, who was considered a successful learner (Appendix G), emphasized that, even though his vocabulary score did not improve, he felt that vocabulary strategies were a key factor in learning many new words. Moreover, Ghaith, who was considered a less-successful learner (Appendix G), highlighted the importance of vocabulary strategies in learning new words, although he mentioned that he still experienced some difficulty in this regard.

Carefully examining the findings tells us that strategy instruction may have had a positive effect on the intervention group's vocabulary proficiency. This positive effect may be based on the significant improvement the intervention group showed in the post-test, and also on the praise concerning the usefulness of vocabulary strategies, which was even provided by students who did not improve their vocabulary proficiency (Ghaith and Abdul). Students in the control group also improved, although not significantly, and the difference in the improvement between the two groups was also not significant. This closeness in students' scores may support the assumption that if students in the control group received the same strategy instruction, they may have obtained similar scores to their counterparts in the intervention group. Conversely, the insignificant difference in the improvement of vocabulary proficiency between the two groups may raise doubts concerning the effectiveness of teaching vocabulary strategies. It can be assumed that, for the present study, teaching vocabulary strategies was not as effective as teaching writing, reading, or speaking strategies. Nonetheless, learning vocabulary is still an excellent area for learners to apply strategies and also for teachers to teach new vocabulary strategies to their students.



## **6.4 Learning Styles, Proficiency, Strategy Preferences and Style-Stretching**

This section discusses the key role learning styles play in the present study. Identifying the dominant learning styles is discussed in 6.4.1, and this is followed in 6.4.2 with a discussion of the similarity in proficiency between students with different learning styles. After that, in 6.4.3, the interaction between styles and strategies is discussed, demonstrating that specific students prefer specific strategies. This section is concluded in 6.4.4 with a discussion on evidence of existing style-stretching among certain students in the present study.

### **6.4.1 Dominant Learning Styles**

Under the first learning style category (Sensory/Perceptual Learning Style) the findings of the LSS reported that over half of the participants (54.82%) in the present study were visual learners. In general, this finding is consistent with Oxford's (1995) finding, that visual learners form between 50% to 80% of any classroom, as well as that of Ried's (1987), who found that the majority of Arabs are visual learners. In the Saudi context, this finding accords with Al-Hebaishi (2012) but is inconsistent with Al-Khatani (2011), who found that the majority of his participants were tactile learners; this form of learning was ranked joint second with kinaesthetic learners in the present study. As many Saudi students in the present study appeared to be visual learners, language teachers are encouraged to promote visual activities in language classrooms, as this would motivate a huge percentage of the students; such activities would involve the use of posters, pictures, diagrams, videos, etc. In terms of strategies, teachers are encouraged to instruct strategies that demand visual capabilities such as flash cards, mind-mapping, and watching TV, without ignoring other strategies that facilitate other students who possess different style modalities.

Results obtained from the LSS in regard to the second learning style category (Psychological or Personality Type) showed that over half of the participating students (55.33%) in the present study were extroverted learners. This finding accords with Oxford and Anderson (1995), who demonstrated that Arabs are more extroverted learners than introverted. According to them, Arab students are overtly verbal and interested in extroverted modes of instruction, which is evidenced by their gregarious and social lifestyles. Consequently, teachers are encouraged to provide opportunities for Saudi students to practice conversations in English, play roles, and involve themselves in other interactive activities such as giving speeches, playing games, etc. Regarding strategies that would be appropriate for extroverted learners, social strategies such as asking for help while speaking or asking questions, or affective strategies such as reducing anxiety or encouraging yourself while speaking are highly recommended. Nonetheless, other strategies that

suit introverted learners (who prefer to work alone), for example cognitive strategies such as planning in advance or grouping words or inferencing, should not be dismissed.

In regard to the Cognitive Learning Style category (the third learning style category), the findings showed that approximately two thirds (65.48%) of the participating students in the present study were global learners. This accords with findings by Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995), who found that Arabs tend to be global learners. Teachers instructing global learners should encourage language learning through the ‘whole picture’ and, concurrently, they should not underestimate the role of learning a language through paying attention to details. In terms of strategies, teachers should encourage their global students to employ top-down strategies, such as guessing the meaning from the context, skimming texts, or listening for keywords. Concurrently, they should consider bottom-up strategies that suit particular modality students, such as reading a text word-by-word, rereading a text in order to understand it, or listening to speech and attempting to understand each word.

#### **6.4.2 Equal Proficiency among Various Learning Styles**

Students’ scores in the pre- and post-tests showed that, generally, there was no difference in proficiency between visual, auditory, kinaesthetic/tactile, and neutral students under the sensory/perceptual learning style category. These findings concur with many studies that have examined the relationship between learning styles and language learning performances and disagree with other studies that obtained mixed results leading to unclear conclusions. For instance, this finding contradicts the study of Rossi-Le (1989, 1995), who found a correlation between kinaesthetic modality and language proficiency, with kinaesthetic learners being the most proficient; however, it concurrently agrees with Rossi-Le (1989), who also found no relationship between visual and auditory learning styles and language proficiency. In one of the early studies in this area, Ried (1987) concluded that learning style should not be linked to language proficiency; however, she detected a preference for tactile and kinaesthetic learning styles. On the contrary, Bailey *et al.* (2000) discovered that better language learners prefer to learn informally, although they dislike learning in a kinaesthetic learning environment. In the present study, Abdul (visual) and Khamis (kinaesthetic/tactile) were successful learners while Saad (auditory) was a less-successful learner.

Under the personality-type category, students’ scores in the pre- and post-tests showed no difference in proficiency between extroverted, introverted, and neutral students. Again, mixed results obtained from literature regarding proficiency among extroverts and introverts has led to an inconclusive result. This finding is inconsistent with Ehrman (2008), who reported that most successful language learners were introverted; however, she acknowledged that this is contrary to

preceding studies, which give privilege to extroverts. Further studies have found that introverted learners are better language learners than extroverted learners (Griffiths, 2013; Ma and Oxford, 2014), and this is attributed to their 'greater ability to consolidate learning, lower distractibility, and better study habits' (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015, p. 26). However, other studies have found extroverted learners to be more fluent than introverted learners (Dewaele and Furnham, 1999; Dewaele, 2004; and Liyanage and Bartlett, 2013). In the present study, as Ghaith (extroverted) was a less-successful learner while Nehad (introverted) was a successful learner.

In the present study, the only exception that arose in the present study was a significant difference in proficiency between particular and global students under the cognitive learning style category, where particular students reported better proficiency in the pre- and post-test. Nonetheless, when we examined the pre- and post-test scores of two interviewed students, Eisa (global) and Turki (particular), it was noticeable that Turki outperformed Eisa in regard to listening and vocabulary, but Eisa outperformed Turki in writing and reading. They obtained similar scores in their pre- and post-tests for speaking. Overall, their total scores in the pre- and post-tests were almost identical and both were less-successful learners (see Appendix G). This finding contradicts Tutunis (2001), whose global participants outperformed their particular counterparts. This seems to reinforce the point that there are inconclusive results concerning the link between learning styles and proficiency.

Emphasizing that learners with different learning styles are believed to have almost identical language proficiency, Tight (2010) found that learners with different style preferences are equally successful, and he recommended conducting language instruction through multiple modalities. It can be concluded that it is unlikely that a strong link between learning styles and proficiency exists, because language learners may have different learning styles which can be applied in different learning circumstances. Griffiths (2013, p. 129) summarized this best when she stated 'Although learners appear to favour certain types of activities according to their learning style, no particular learning style appears to be more likely to lead to success than any other'. This accords with Curry's (1990) conclusion that no single learning style modality is clearly advantageous. In the results of the present study, there was generally no difference in proficiency between students with different learning styles, except the difference between global and particular students; this contradicted previous findings (Tutunis, 2001) and resulted in a lack of a clear conclusion. Consequently, teachers are encouraged to be aware that no particular learning style is better than others and, as a result, the teaching of students should be balanced in order to accommodate students with different learning styles.

### 6.4.3 Matching Styles with Strategies

This study found that there is a link between students' learning style preferences and the LLS they used while learning English. This finding aligns with the claims of many scholars in the field (Anderson, 2005; Carson and Longhini, 2002; Cohen, 2011; Cohen and Dörnyei, 2002; Cohen and Weaver, 2006; Ehrman and Oxford, 1990; Griffiths, 2013; and Oxford, 2011); specifically, that styles and strategies have a very close relationship. These findings were obtained from interviews with students with different learning style preferences. For instance, in the present study, as Abdul reported, some strategies accommodated visual learners by including vision-related aspects. These strategies included the use of flash cards, watching gestures of interlocutors, and using dictionaries. This is consistent with the studies of Rossi-Le (1989), where visual learners used visualization strategies such as mental imagery to learn new language; Carson and Longhini (2002), who demonstrated that Joan Carson was a visual learner who used visual or graphic representations or mental images to match what she had heard; and Ma and Oxford (2014), who showed that Rui Ma had a visual modality preference and, as a result, using images for learning language was a preferred strategy. Therefore, students with visual modality should be provided with pictures, diagrams, videos, and TV material in order to suit their learning style preference, as such accommodation is believed to result in better learning.

By interviewing Saad, who was an auditory learner, it was found that he used strategies related to voices and listening to sounds. For instance, Saad reported linking the sounds of new words to sounds of words he already knew in Arabic or English, checking how words were pronounced by native speakers, listening to the speaker's tone of voice in order to discern the situation, using cognates, and listening to stressed words or sentences in order to understand the meaning. This finding is consistent with Rossi-Le's study (1989), which found that auditory learners use memory strategies (linking sounds of new words to sounds of already-known words). Thus, auditory learners can be best assisted in the classroom by allowing them to pay more attention to how new words are pronounced in the dictionary and by discussing differences in the accents of native speakers; and outside the classroom through encouraging them to expose themselves to real conversations in English and to listen to the radio.

In the present study, Khamis, as a kinaesthetic/tactile learner, clearly demonstrated using strategies that involved movement, such as practicing new action verbs by acting them out, using semantic mapping (although this strategy is much preferred by visual learners), predicting what a speaker might say, using gestures to portray his meaning, and practicing the spelling of new words. Cohen and Weaver (2006) explained that kinaesthetic/tactile students demonstrated the significant use of strategies that require touching, manipulating, or writing, which is consistent with this finding. Kinaesthetic/tactile learners should be given opportunities to move in the classroom (as the

researcher did with Khamis) through engaging them in roleplay and group works. They are happy to participate in games and also in acting. It would be a good idea if they are allowed (particularly in the Saudi context, which strictly restricts students' movement in the classroom) to shape or act new words in front of their peers in the classroom as a means of portraying their meaning.

The interview with Ghaith who was an extroverted learner showed that he used strategies that suited his style, such as attending extracurricular events in order to practice English. This finding is supported by Ehrman and Oxford (1990), who found their extroverted learners applying some social strategies, such as asking their teachers or friends for clarification and cooperating with peers or with more proficient speakers of the language in their communities. In fact, extroverts draw their energy for learning from the environment they live in; therefore, they require a variety of activities in the classroom, and they also need a social environment to better practice language.

The introversion style modality was represented by Nehad, who reported using some strategies that matched his learning style modality, such as checking prior knowledge of a topic, planning how to accomplish a task, and placing new words in a topic group. This finding accords with that of Ehrman and Oxford (1990), who found that introverts regularly use planning for an upcoming task and organizing for language learning. Hence, introverts are best helped by providing them with appropriate homework, as they prefer to work alone. In the classroom, they should be given sufficient time to process information (Cohen and Weaver, 2006).

It was also found in the present study that Eisa, as a global learner, preferred strategies that suited his learning style modality. This related to top-down strategies, such as comprehending messages without understanding all details, accepting some ambiguities, and inferring the meaning of sentences while reading through given clues. This finding concurs with that of Littlemore (2001), who found that holistic (global) students tended to use strategies that are based on holistic comparisons, as evidenced by her example concerning comparing a target to a related concept, such as explaining a slug with the phrase: 'it's like a snail'. It is implied that learners that possess a global modality learn better if their teachers encourage them to enjoy finding the main idea and to attempt communication even if they are not sufficiently proficient to do so. They should be informed that they can learn without knowing all details and, concurrently, they should be advised that details are occasionally very useful while learning; therefore, they should not be completely ignored.

Particular learners in the present study were represented by Turki, who clearly demonstrated the application of strategies that matched his learning style modality. These strategies included some bottom-up strategies such as rereading a text for clarification, correcting myself while speaking and taking a good look to new words. In fact, applying these strategies involves paying more attention to very little details. This finding further supports findings by Littlemore (2001), who determined

that analytic (particular) students tended to use strategies that were based on analytic descriptions, such as describing or listing the properties of a target, such as ‘this is something that you can eat’ (squid). Hence, particular learners can be helped to learn language by encouraging them to focus on details and, at the same time, encouraging them consider the main idea.

Based on these findings, which indicate the link between styles and strategies, there is the possibility that students with specific learning styles can be introduced to new strategies that support their modality style. They can be advised, or their awareness towards specified strategies may be enhanced, in an attempt to convince them to apply particular strategies that best suit their modality style. In other words, visual learners, for example, should be aware that there are particular helpful strategies that suit them better than other strategies, and this also applies to other learners with different learning styles. Concurrently, learners should also be encouraged to try other strategies beyond their learning style zones.

#### **6.4.4 Evidence of Style-Stretching**

Style-stretching was found in the present study, although not among all interviewed students. Findings from students’ pre- and post-LSUS showed that only four of the seven interviewed students were able to stretch their learning styles to accommodate new strategies favoured by other students with different learning style modalities. For instance, Abdul, as a visual learner, and Saad, as an auditory learner, showed that they had begun using and liking a strategy (practicing new action verbs by acting them out) that was outside of their identified learning style zones. In fact, this particular strategy is located within the comfort zone of kinaesthetic/tactile learners. Also, Khamis, a pure kinaesthetic/tactile learner, was another student who managed to stretch his learning style. At the end of the study, he reported using and liking the strategy of watching TV (a strategy mostly preferred by visual, and possibly auditory, learners); he did not report using and liking this strategy at the beginning of the study. Nehad, an introverted learner, also managed to stretch his style and apply a strategy usually preferred by extroverted learners. He reported ‘encouraging others to correct my errors’ as a used and liked strategy at the end of the intervention, but this strategy did not suit him prior to the intervention. The remaining three interviewed students, Ghaith (extroverted), Eisa (global), and Turki (particular) were unable to accommodate new strategies beyond their comfortable learning style zones, as their pre- and post-LSUS showed.

These findings accord with Griffiths and İnceçay (2015). Although Griffiths and İnceçay (2015) did not determine how students with different learning styles stretched their styles, they investigated how students with different levels of language proficiency coped with stretching their styles. Griffiths and İnceçay (2015) found that more successful learners were more willing than less-successful learners to expand their learning approaches and include different styles. This is

consistent with some of the findings of the present study, as Abdul, Khamis, and Nehad, who all managed to stretch their styles, were among the successful students; however, it is inconsistent with some other findings of the present study, as Saad, who also managed to stretch his style, was among the less-successful students. Nonetheless, it does support Griffiths and İnceçay's (2015) statement that the relation between successful learning and style-stretching is still unclear and under investigation.

However, as learning style remains stable, as is well documented in literature, the ability of some students to stretch their styles to accommodate new strategies may be explained by the 'stylistic flexibility' referred to in Kozhevnikov *et al.*, 2014; Gregersen and MacIntyre, 2014, and Wong and Nunan (2011). This flexibility allows learners with particular learning styles to test new learning styles, which constitutes another helpful tool towards achieving better language learning. Another explanation might stem from the claim of Little and Singleton (1990) that learning styles are malleable and experience and training can assist in adapting them. Another practical explanation of the ability of some students to stretch their styles might be the tangible benefit they find in using new strategies that transcend their style's comfort zones. This benefit might prompt them to apply these strategies and to expand or tolerate their learning approaches to include other learning styles.

Although students were advised during the intervention that, by stretching their styles, they would expose themselves to more opportunities to use more strategies, which is expected to lead to better language learning, three of them failed to stretch their styles. Possible explanations for this are as follows: 1) the claim that learning styles are stable may be true; 2) these students may have been comfortable within their style zones and apprehensive of going beyond them; 3) the period of intervention might have been insufficient for these students to begin stretching their styles, as they may have required more time to do so; and 4) the practice in style-stretching provided for these students in the present study might not have been sufficient. They may have required an increased amount of practice in using different strategies from different learning style zones in order to begin the process of style-stretching.

## **6.5 Feedback on the Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction Programme**

The feedback on the SSBI programme was gained from interviews with seven students from the experimental group as well as from the two teachers who participated in the strategy instruction programme. In addition to students' feedback on the effect of the programme on their strategy awareness and proficiency, which was discussed in 6.2 and 6.3 and the role of learning styles as discussed in 6.4 above, students' feedback in this section relates to LLS they learnt through the

strategy instruction programme. Discussing teachers' feedback will encompass the following: their experience of strategy instruction through a language textbook, their judgement of the Teacher's Booklet, their addressing of the steps assigned for strategy instruction and the use of Arabic while teaching strategies, and their general feedback on explicit strategy instruction.

### **6.5.1 Learning a Number of LLS (Students' Feedback)**

#### **Reading strategies**

Through interviews, students emphasized learning the following six top-down and bottom-up reading strategies: 'skim a text' (top-down), 'scan a text' (top-down), 'infer the meaning of words and ideas based on clues' (top-down), 'predict what will come in a text' (top-down), 'plan how to address a text' (bottom-up), and 'read a text word-by-word' (bottom-up). Top-down processes were first created by Goodman (1967), who found that readers link new information to their already acquired information using schemata or background knowledge in order to comprehend knowledge. Some previous studies (Block, 1986; and Hosenfield, 1977) indicate that successful readers use top-down strategies more often than less-successful readers, while less-successful readers use bottom-up strategies more often than successful readers. In fact, some researchers, such as Gass and Varonis (1994) and Lee and Van Patten (1995), are in favour of top-down models while other studies, such as Anderson (1991), and Macaro (2001), have found that readers (both successful and less-successful) generally use both top-down and bottom-up strategies. Nonetheless, other researchers (Smith, 1986; Kern, 1989; and Stott, 2001) advocate the bottom-up process. The finding in the present study completely accords with Anderson (1991) and Macaro (2001), as Abdul (a successful learner) and Ghaith (a less-successful learner) reported inferring the meaning of words and ideas based on provided clues (top-down). Also, Khamis (a successful learner) and Turki (a less-successful learner) reported using 'reading a text word-by-word' (bottom-up).

Students' learning of the 'skimming' and 'scanning a text' strategies might be explained by their implicit presence in the language textbook (Language Leader), in addition to the extra practice provided for these two strategies during intervention. Students' desire to learn the strategy of 'inferring the meaning of words and ideas based on clues' may be explained by the intensive existence of photos, headings and subheadings, and italic and bold words in the LL reading texts, in addition to having practiced this strategy more than other reading strategies. Perhaps the 'predicting what will come in a text' strategy was chosen by students as a result of their enhanced strategy awareness. Regarding the 'planning how to address a text' strategy, students were intensively instructed to not plan for just reading tasks but also for any language-skill task. A possible explanation for the desire to learn the 'reading a text word-by-word' strategy comes from Kern (1989), who claimed that most L2 readers process texts in a bottom-up manner. Therefore, L2



teachers should not underestimate either process. English teachers in the Saudi context should provide a variety of both top-down and bottom-up reading strategies in order to enable students with different learning styles (particularly global learners, who seem to prefer top-down strategies, and particular learners, who prefer bottom-up strategies) to acquire different strategies that suit their learning needs.

### **Writing strategies**

In regard to writing strategies, students reported learning the following five writing strategies at the end of the strategy instruction programme: 'plan out what you are going to write', 'discuss what you want to say with someone else before writing', 'go back to go forwards', 'edit grammar and mechanics after writing ideas', and 'accept feedback on errors'. In Cumming (1989), Sasaki and Hirose (1996), and Wolfersberger (2003), 'planning ideas before writing' was found to be one of the most distinctive features or strategies in L2 writing, which accords with the findings of the present study. The strategy of 'discussing what you want to say with someone else before writing' was regularly employed by students in the present study, which is congruent with Weissberg (2006), who found that pre-writing talk and invention talk are very useful strategies for writers. The findings of the present study regarding learning the strategy of 'going back to go forwards' concur with Manchón *et al.* (2005), who found that writers usually review their essays in order to check their improvement. 'Editing grammar and mechanics after writing' was also emphasized by McMullen (2009), who found that students made great gains in the area of mechanics after learning writing strategies; and Nguyen and Gu (2013), who found that, after the intervention, their students were able to evaluate their writing through self-examining their use of appropriate vocabulary, sentence structures, and cohesive devices. 'Accepting feedback on errors' was another writing strategy learnt by students in the present study, which is consistent with Griffiths's (2013) student (Fernando) who reported learning from correction, but inconsistent with other studies such as those of Zamel (1985), who found that the role of feedback in regard to errors was confusing; Fathman and Walley (1990), who found that feedback in relation to errors was inconsistent in terms of effectiveness; and Semke (1984), who discovered that many writers ignored feedback on their errors.

Students' learning of the 'planning for writing' strategy may be explained by the considerable time spent teaching writing strategies; writing was taught alone in a separate class. Another explanation may be the better essays students wrote after performing planning in terms of details, ideas, and organization; particularly when they compared their writing in advanced stage of the intervention to their writing in the early stage of the intervention. Learning the writing strategy, 'discuss what you want to say with someone else before writing' may be explained by the fact that using this strategy might activate students' background knowledge and help them to devise more ideas for

their writing. This strategy reminds us of the theoretical background of LLS; in particular, the sociocultural perspective that indicates that LLS are not only cognitive, but can also be social. The use of ‘go back to go forwards’ by students in the present study may be explained by Manchón *et al.*’s (2005) claim that writers review their writing to detect improvements. Another explanation may be that this strategy assisted students to potentially improve their essays because they considered the appropriateness of the ideas and the general plan of the essay. Students stated that they learnt the strategy of ‘editing their grammar and mechanics after writing’ because this had the capability to enable them to focus on writing their ideas down first and to organize their essay reviews so that they could address their errors in a more organized manner. Learning the strategy of ‘accepting feedback on error’ may be explained by students’ desire to improve their writing. Thus, they accepted feedback on their errors. Another explanation for learning this strategy may be the fact that in the Arab culture the teacher is the correct and trusted source of the information (Alqahtani, 2011); therefore, students do not hesitate to accept their teachers’ feedback on their errors. In order to contribute to students’ writing performance in the Saudi context, writing teachers are encouraged to explicitly teach these five writing strategies, and maybe others. Although ‘accepting feedback on errors’ seems to be confusing in some other contexts, it appeared useful in the context of the present study; thus, it should not be ignored.

### **Listening strategies**

Findings from interviews illustrated that, from the strategy instruction programme, students reported learning the following six top-down and bottom-up listening strategies: ‘planning how to accomplish a task’ (bottom-up), ‘skimming listening’ (top-down), ‘listening for keywords’ (top-down), ‘listening for stressed words and sentences’ (bottom-up), ‘accepting some ambiguity’ (top-down), and ‘predicting what the speaker will say’ (top-down). ‘Planning how to accomplish a task’, which is similar to O’Malley *et al.*’s (1985) ‘advance organizer’, was learnt and utilized by students in the present study. This finding is incongruent with O’Malley *et al.* (1985), who found that planning did not always afford students opportunities to reflect on their learning. However, planning was used by participants in Vandergrift’s study (2003) as well as in that of Vahdany *et al.* (2016), and the latter found that planning was used more often by advanced listeners than intermediate listeners. This makes results regarding using planning in listening confusing. In the present study, three less-successful students (Saad, Ghaith, and Eisa) and one successful student (Nehad) reported learning this strategy. Students in the present study reported learning the strategy of skimming listening, which is consistent with Vandergrift’s (2003) ‘selective attention’. ‘Listening for keywords’ was another listening strategy learnt by students in the present study. This strategy is similar to Chen’s (2009) ‘listening for the gist’, in which students with middle proficiency used this strategy, and Vogely (1995), who found that good listeners demonstrated using such a strategy; however, these findings are inconsistent with the present study, as two

successful students (Abdul and Khamis) and one less-successful student (Saad) reported using this strategy. Students in the present study also reported learning 'listening for stressed words and sentences', which accords with White (2008), who counted this strategy among other strategies that lead to successful listening. Regarding 'accepting some ambiguity', a listening strategy students taught through the programme, it was highlighted as a useful strategy by Paige *et al.* (2006). 'Prediction' was also learnt by students in the present study. This finding accords with Rost (2002), who concluded that predicting information and ideas before listening was linked to successful listening. However, the findings of the present study demonstrated that prediction was used by two less-successful learners (Eisa and Turki), which is also inconsistent with Hwang (2003), who found that more proficient listeners use more prediction while listening than less proficient listeners.

In the present study, students' desire to learn the strategy 'planning how to accomplish a task' may be explained by their awareness of the importance of planning to negotiate listening tasks and how the strategy helps them complete the tasks. Students' desire to learn the strategy 'skimming listening' may be attributed to the fact that they knew they did not need to know every single word they listened to. They may have understood that listening to the major ideas of the main topic is usually sufficient to understand the general idea of the text. Learning 'listening for stressed words and sentences' may be explained by the existence of numerous exercises in the textbook (Language Leader) that prompted students to pay more attention to stressed words, as well as the recognition that this could facilitate their understanding. A possible explanation for students' desire to learn the strategy 'accepting some ambiguity' may be that they were convinced by their teachers during the intervention that ambiguity is a normal part of listening to texts in English. Thus, the students became tolerant of some ambiguity. Regarding learning 'prediction', it can be assumed that this strategy was recommended to be used for listening because it was also taught in regard to negotiating reading texts. Therefore, their awareness of using this strategy in more than one language skill might have caused them to afford it more attention. The results of this study suggest that listening teachers should play an active role in teaching listening strategies. They should teach an equal degree of both top-down and bottom-up listening strategies in order to accommodate students' varying learning needs and approaches.

### **Speaking strategies**

The interviews with students demonstrated that they managed to learn the following speaking strategies: 'planning out in advance what you want to say', 'reducing anxiety', 'encouraging yourself', 'asking for help', 'acting out or drawing the word', and 'practicing saying new expressions'. 'Planning out what you want to say' is similar to 'global planning' by Lam (2009) and conforms with her finding that this strategy enables students to determine the purpose and requirements needed for a task prior to accomplishing the task. Students also reported learning,

after the intervention, to ‘reduce their anxiety’ while speaking. This finding accords with Griffiths (2013), who found that one of her participants (May) reported using this strategy. Nonetheless, this finding does not conform with that of Nakatani (2006), who indicated that this strategy was used by higher-level speakers; in the present study, two successful learners (Abdul and Nehad) and one less-successful learner (Eisa) reported using this strategy. ‘Encouraging yourself’ was learnt by students in the present study. This finding is also inconsistent with Nakatani (2006), who found that this strategy was used by higher-level speakers; in this study, this strategy was used by both successful learners (Abdul) and less-successful learners (Saad and Turki). ‘Asking for help’ was also learnt by students in the present study, which matches the results of Lam and Wong (2000), who found this strategy enabled students to cooperate with each other and offer scaffolded help, and also with Naughton (2006), who found that students regularly used this strategy (requesting and giving help) after the intervention. ‘Acting out or drawing the word’ was highlighted as a learnt speaking strategy in the present study. This strategy is similar to ‘nonverbal strategies’ (attempting to make eye contact while talking, and using gestures and facial expressions if I cannot express myself through communication) mentioned in Nakatani (2006). Nakatani found that this strategy was used by effective learning strategy users, which is inconsistent with the present study, as both Khamis (a successful learner) and Ghaith (a less-successful learner) reported using this strategy. Although students reported learning the strategy of ‘practice saying new expressions’, to the best of the researcher’s knowledge no previous study has discussed using this strategy.

A possible explanation for students’ learning of ‘planning out what you want to say’ may be the positive effect this strategy has on students’ speaking performance. It might afford them some time to think of what they are going to say, allowing them to consider required words and expressions. Students’ learning of ‘reducing anxiety’ may be explained by the hypothesis that reducing anxiety leads to better speaking performance and, concurrently, increases speakers’ confidence levels (Cohen and Weaver, 2006); this may have been tested by students in the present study. Similar to ‘reducing anxiety’, the use of the ‘encouraging yourself to speak’ strategy may be explained by the impact this strategy can play in regard to students’ affect (Oxford, 2011). Students might find it helps them to be more fluent while speaking. Students’ desire to learn the ‘asking for help’ strategy may be explained by the nature of the speaking tasks. Speaking is an interactive skill that requires interlocutors to direct questions to each other and, consequently, this provides students with more opportunities to speak. Employing this strategy attracts our attention to the sociocultural perspective of strategy theory, where learners ask for help from more capable others. Learning the ‘acting out or drawing the word’ strategy may be explained by students’ increased awareness of styles and strategies. In fact, students with different learning styles were encouraged to stretch their learning styles, as this would allow them to apply other strategies. As we saw in style-stretching (6.4.4) above, students can spontaneously begin employing this strategy. Regarding learning

‘practice saying new expressions’, the students in the present study came from an Arab context, which depends heavily on the route-memorisation strategy (Oxford, 1990); consequently, they may have found that this strategy suited their cultural background of relying on memorisation. Hence, ‘practice saying new expressions’ may have helped these students to memorise these new expressions and, ultimately, enhance their speaking. Utilizing this strategy reminds us of audiolingual or behaviourist elements (Griffiths, 2013) of the strategy theory.

### **Vocabulary strategies**

In the present study, the interviewed students indicated learning the following vocabulary strategies: ‘making associations’, ‘using cognates’, ‘writing down words’, ‘taking a good look at new words’, ‘semantic mapping’, ‘grouping words’, and ‘using flash cards’. ‘Making associations’ (with the sounds of other words in English or Arabic, with places or situations they first heard them at, with word actions, with mental images) was learnt by both less-successful students (Saad, Ghaith, and Eisa) as well as successful students (Nehad), which is in line with Mizomoto and Takeuchi (2009). This strategy was also noted in Cohen and Aphek (1981), which is congruent with the present study. ‘Using cognates’ was also learnt by the students, which is similar to Holmes and Ramos (1993) and Otwinowska-Kasztelanic (2009). It is to be noted that advanced students in Otwinowska-Kasztelanic (2009) used cognates more than beginners. ‘Writing down words’ was another vocabulary strategy learnt. This is consistent with many other studies (Gu and Johnson, 1996; Lawson and Hogben, 1996; Otwinowska-Kasztelanic, 2009; Mizomoto and Takeuchi, 2009; and Schmitt, 1997) that have illustrated an intensive use of this strategy. ‘Taking a good look at new words’ was also learnt by the students. To the best of the researcher’s knowledge, no study has discussed this strategy yet. The students in the present study also indicated learning the strategy of ‘semantic mapping’. This is congruent with Lavine (2008), cited in Oxford (2011), who found that with semantic mapping, students rehearse the semantic maps that leads to memorizing them until they become naturalized. The students further reported learning the strategy of ‘grouping words’ for learning new words. This finding is consistent with Otwinowska-Kasztelanic (2009) who found that after raising students’ awareness of this strategy, the number of students who began using it increased. ‘Using flash cards’ was also highlighted by the students. This finding aligns with Moir and Nation (2008) who found that one of their participants (Abdi) reported using this strategy to learn new words.

Students using the strategy of ‘making associations’ may be explained by the existence of a cultural background of Asians (also Arabs; Oxford, 1990) preferring and depending a lot on their memories (Gu, 2003). This preference of relying on memory and the expected success of using memory might have encouraged students in the present study to learn and use this strategy. Although Arabic and English cognates are not many in number, the emphasis placed by the students in this study on

using this strategy may be explained by the fact that cognates usually make learning new words faster and easier (Otwinowska-Kasztelanic, 2009), which might be what happened in the present study. ‘Writing down new words’ underlies the strategy of ‘note-taking’ detailed by Schmitt (1997), which involves writing down not only the new word but also other details relevant to that word such as its definition, an example sentence, written repetition, etc. Usage of ‘writing down new words’ may be explained by the necessity of jotting words down to facilitate learning them. Regarding ‘taking a good look at new words’, it seems that the intervention played a role in convincing students to look carefully at new words and to try and come up with a strategy that might assist them in learning those words as Paige *et al.* (2006) claimed. A suitable explanation for the use of ‘semantic mapping’ may be the abundance of exercises in the textbook (Language Leader) that facilitated employing this strategy. Another possible explanation may be its main dependence on memory, which is preferred by Arab students as we saw with ‘making associations’ above. The learning and using of ‘grouping words’ may be attributed to the fact that this strategy assists the students in ordering, classifying, and labelling new material or words in reality or in brain. This organization leads to better vocabulary learning and retention as explained by Oxford’s schema theory in 2.3.3 which focuses on how information is organized in the brain. Emphasis on ‘using flash cards’ may be explained by the fact that more than half the students in the present study were visual. This strategy mainly relies on photos, which is a preferable aid for them.

Following this discussion on the students’ feedback on strategies they learnt through the strategy instruction programme, the next subsection will discuss the teachers’ feedback on the strategy instruction programme.

### **6.5.2 Strategy Instruction through the Language Textbook (Teachers’ Feedback)**

The feedback of both participating teachers (Teacher 1 and Teacher 2) on strategy instruction through a language textbook was generally positive. For them, integrating strategy instruction through a language textbook was applicable and considerably easy, and they praised its effectiveness. Both teachers agreed on the importance of explicitly presenting LLS in language textbooks, and they also stressed the importance of Lesson Four in each unit in the Language Leader as it explicitly presents LLS.

There were two main concerns at the time of piloting the TB during the present study. The first one was the expected infeasibility of strategy instruction through a language textbook as strategy instruction was not commonly applicable to the Saudi context (McMullen, 2009). Thus, the option of strategy instruction in a separate course rather than embedding it in a language textbook was

another option in hand if the latter was invisible. The explanation for the ability of teachers to integrate strategy instruction through the language textbook (in piloting the TB and in the main study) and eliminate this concern was the usage of the TB as a guide, as they clearly stated it which agrees with Oxford, *et al.* (2014b) that teachers opting for or raising awareness of strategy instruction through readings or discussions is highly recommended. The second concern was the expected inability of teachers or the difficulty they may face in embedding strategies in their regular language teaching in classrooms. The disappearance of this concern may be explained by the teachers' interest in improving their teaching method, and their desire to provide something new to their students, or their wish to modify their teaching styles. Another possible explanation may be that the two teachers were introduced by the researcher to the fact that, through strategy instruction they would benefit their students and assist them in learning the language as well as contribute to establishing a learner-centred environment.

With regard to time management while teaching strategies, one of the teachers found teaching strategies time consuming at the beginning of the programme, although he and the other teacher believed that generally it was not so. Nonetheless, one of the teachers confessed that he sometimes dismissed strategy instruction to make time for his plans and to stick to his basic schedule. Grenfell and Harris (1999) showed that strategy instruction was indeed time consuming. It seems that integrating strategy instruction was an additional duty that the two teachers had to carry out. Therefore, it might have taken them some time to familiarize themselves to it. After working on this programme, both teachers seemed confident in their ability to deliver strategy instruction through the regular language classrooms.

### **6.5.3 Teacher's Booklet for Strategy Instruction**

As previously mentioned in 4.5.2, the purpose of designing the TB was to assist teachers in teaching strategies in their regular language classrooms, to match students' needs to learn strategies that may assist their language learning, and to suggest appropriate strategies to accomplish the given exercises for different language skills. Both teachers expressed their general satisfaction about using the TB in teaching strategies in their classrooms. They liked its content and organization, and positively commented on the choice of strategies listed in it. They agreed that most of the strategies were appropriately assigned to the exercises given in the textbook. Nonetheless, they noted that a number of strategies were not suitable for beginner language learners such as the students in the present study. They recommended that few of the strategies were more appropriate for students with a higher language proficiency level. This finding accords with many studies that call for choosing appropriate strategies for students at different language proficiency levels such as Griffiths (2013) as well as Ikeda and Takuchi (2003). Although the

researcher might have found these few strategies suitable for accomplishing the given exercises, which agrees with Oxford *et al.* (2014b) that strategy type is determined by the nature of the task, he might not have been successful in choosing the appropriate ones for the beginner language learners who participated in the study. The TB contributed to raising teachers' awareness of how students learn language and how they could improve their teaching styles to benefit their students. This positive feedback by the teachers on the TB is in line with the development of guidebooks to help language teachers integrate strategy instruction in their language classrooms as suggested by NCLRC (2003, 2004).

However, the teachers confessed that they did not manage to cover all the strategies listed in the TB due to time constraints. This may be attributed to the strict roles at the college, in that teachers are supposed to cover their planned lessons, and integrating strategy instruction may lead to some delays that made teachers neglect strategy instruction whenever they found themselves falling behind their plan. The teachers also suggested reducing the number of strategies assigned for some exercises. The possible explanation for this may be that in some cases, teachers found that their students were unable to orchestrate certain strategies to accomplish the given tasks. Thus, for them, teaching many strategies to accomplish one task in some cases may be a waste of time as they may notice its ineffectiveness. Although the teachers were glad to use the prepared guidebooks to teach strategies, they did not seem eager to design their own booklets for the same purpose. This may be because teachers are usually very busy with their daily duties. Additional work such as designing a booklet for strategy instruction may make them fall behind their planned schedules. A better suggestion for language teachers in this regard is to ask a group of teachers who share the teaching of the same curriculum to work together on designing a booklet for strategy instruction. This may result in better quantity and quality of the strategies to be presented in the booklet, which is different from the present study wherein the researcher alone designed the TB.

#### **6.5.4 Strategy Instruction Steps and Using Arabic**

The two participating teachers managed to follow the SSBI framework's five steps (strategy preparation, strategy awareness-raising, strategy instruction, strategy practice, and personalization of strategy) to teach strategies in their classrooms. However, they frankly explained that sometimes, they did not follow the exact order of the five steps. Two reasons were cited for this: (1) the first three steps overlapped considerably and (2) the students' behaviour during strategy instruction process. This finding indicates that it is not necessary that students follow the exact order of the SSBI framework's steps as this order is eventually inconsistent in all other strategy instruction frameworks as we saw in 3.5. It agrees with Griffiths (2015, p. 429) who stressed that '... there has not always been unanimity on how best to go about it [strategy instruction]'.



Following the five steps in the SSBI framework in the suggested order cannot be guaranteed as an overlap is observed in other strategy instruction frameworks, such as Oxford (1990), Grenfell and Harris (1999), Chamot *et al.* (2004, 2005), or Macaro (2001). For example, the awareness-raising step is the first step in some frameworks, although it coexists in the first and second step in others. Moreover, the strategy preparation step exists as the first step in some frameworks, although it disappears from some others. The step of strategy instruction or modelling fluctuates between the second and third step in different frameworks. Strategy practice appears as the third step in some frameworks and as the fourth in others. Thus, it seems inevitable that following the exact order of the five steps in the SSBI is not always possible. In short, the steps in the abovementioned frameworks are very similar in their general flow (Oxford, 2011). Therefore, teachers do not have to worry if they or their students cannot follow the same order (particularly, strategy preparation, strategy awareness-raising, and strategy instruction) during the process of learning strategies.

Regarding using Arabic for strategy instruction and translating strategies into Arabic in the TB, both teachers agreed that including Arabic in the strategy instruction programme saved time and facilitated the understanding and learning of strategies. This finding is congruent with Florez (2000) and Rybicki (2002) who taught strategies to their students in their L1 and found it helpful. Moreover, Chamot (2004) stated that beginner learners do not have enough L2 proficiency that can enable them to understand explanations in L2 on how and when to use the strategies. She recommended teaching them strategies in their mother tongue. Although the roles in the context of the present study prohibit using Arabic in English classes, teachers should change such roles if the purpose is beneficial for students, such as strategy instruction that enables students to learn English in better ways. English is supposed to be spoken most of the time in the classroom, but when it comes to strategy instruction for beginner learners, the implication is: it is helpful for both teachers and students to communicate in their L1 (if they share the same mother tongue) in order to understand each other and achieve the target of strategy instruction.

### **6.5.5 Effectiveness of Integrated Explicit Strategy Instruction**

Both teachers were in favour of integrating strategy instruction in the regular language classrooms rather than teaching them in a separate course. This is because integrating strategy instruction in the regular language classrooms enables students to practice the strategies in an authentic setting. This finding is consistent with Chamot (2004), Grenfell and Harris (1999), NCLRC (2004), and Oxford (1990). The possible explanation for this finding may be the mostly appropriate matching between the strategies taught and the assigned exercises in the students' textbook, which teachers might observe when teaching the strategies. Another possible explanation may be the teachers' observation of the real benefits students gained from the explicit strategy instruction through the

textbook. However, it can be anticipated that if some teachers have been trained to teach strategies in a separate course, they may find it more effective if their students have also been provided the opportunity to learn strategies separately. The implication is to encourage explicit and integrated strategy instruction in the Saudi context, although separate strategy instruction programmes are also welcomed if the circumstances permit them. The main point is to adopt strategy instruction in any form so long as it facilitates students' language learning and encourages them to take more responsibilities with regard to their learning.

The two teachers listed the following advantages of explicit strategy instruction: raising students' strategy awareness, encouraging students to reflect on their learning, providing more ways for students to facilitate their learning, pressing students to focus more on learning how to learn than on learning the language, encouraging students to take more responsibilities for their learning, and improving the teachers' teaching styles. All these advantages have been already agreed upon within the existing literature by Chamot (2004), Cohen (1998, 2011), Cohen and Weaver (2006), Grenfell and Harris (1999), Griffiths (2008, 2013), Macaro (2001), Oxford (1990, 1996, 2011), and Paige *et al.* (2006). It seems that the programme in the present study contributed to not only the students, but also the teachers, who were positively affected as the programme encouraged them to change their teaching styles.

However, the two teachers listed a number of disadvantages such as the resistance of some students to the inclusion of strategy instruction in addition to their language learning, boredom of some students as they may be introduced to strategies they are already familiar with, and disappointment of some students regarding the usage of Arabic as they may have come to the industrial college specifically to learn English. The resistance to strategy instruction by some students in the present study is in line with Griffiths (2015, p. 430), who emphasized that 'it is essential that learner identity, whatever it may be, is respected by teachers, as otherwise resistance may develop, which may be counterproductive in terms of learner willingness to adopt strategies ...'. Thus, those students may not have been fully informed or convinced from the beginning of the study that embedding strategy instruction is intended to benefit their language learning to at least reduce their resistance. Regarding some students getting bored if they were introduced to strategies they already use, it was suggested by Kellerman (1991) that strategy instruction is not needed if learners already have their own strategies. If the bored students might have been reminded that other classmates might be unaware of such strategies, and their classmates need to learn something new, this may help in reducing their getting bored. It is also to be noted that students are expected to speak in English when learning in the classroom, and use of Arabic should be limited to strategy instruction and specifically only with beginner English learners. Thus, it is implied that students should be informed in advance that the usage of Arabic will be very restricted, and it will be only for the sake of strategy instruction.

Finally, both teachers found that integrating explicit strategy instruction in the regular language classrooms was generally effective with many students. This conclusion was based on their observations in the classrooms, their evaluation of the effectiveness of each strategy taught to the students, and their students' evaluation of the value of the taught strategies. This finding is in agreement with many studies in the field that found strategy instruction effective, such as Graham and Macaro (2008), Ikeda and Takeuchi (2003), Kern (1989), McMullen (2009), O'Malley *et al.* (1985), Raymond (1993), Dadour and Robbins (1996), Sasaki (2002, 2004), etc., and it is inconsistent with few studies that underestimate the effectiveness of strategy instruction such as Kellerman (1991) and Rees-Miller (1993). In the context of the present study, the findings show that strategy instruction seems to be effective in general or at least for some language skills such as reading, writing, and speaking. As this is the case, language teachers in Saudi Arabia are encouraged to adopt this method and facilitate language learning for their students. They can start by changing the current situation from a teacher-centred setting into a learner-centred setting through placing more learning responsibilities on their students, who will be capable of handling them because of the strategy instruction.

The quantitative and qualitative findings of the present study were discussed in this chapter. Chapter 7 will present the conclusion which includes a summary of the findings, implications for practice, limitations of the present study, recommendations for future research, and the contributions of the present study to the field.



## Chapter 7: Conclusion

### 7.1 Summary of the Findings

This study explored the effects of explicit strategy instruction on the strategy awareness and proficiency of Saudi college students who studied English as a foreign language in their first year at an industrial college, Saudi Arabia. The SSBI framework by Cohen and Weaver (2006) was utilized for this purpose. Utilizing this framework required the completion of two surveys: the first one was the LSUS which was completed by students in the experimental and control group before and after the intervention, and the second one was the LSS which was completed only at the beginning of the study. Furthermore, students in both groups were involved in pre- and post-tests in reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary to compare their language proficiency. Finally, seven students with different learning styles from the experimental group and the two teachers who participated in strategy instruction were chosen for structured interviews to express their feedback on the strategy instruction programme.

The results show that with regard to the 44 untaught strategies listed in the LSUS, completing the survey twice raised students' strategy awareness in both groups in a similar way although with greater advancement for students in the experimental group. However, only students in the experimental group reported a significant increase in their strategy awareness of the 39 explicitly taught strategies listed in the LSUS.

Overall, the pre- and post-test scores showed that the proficiency of students in both groups improved. The improvement was significant in both groups in writing, listening, and speaking; although, only students in the experimental group improved significantly in vocabulary. In reading, students in the experimental group improved, though not significantly; however, the proficiency of their counterparts in the control group dropped significantly. The difference in the proficiency improvement between the two groups was significant in writing, reading, and speaking (students in the experimental group outperformed their counterparts in the control group) while it was not significant in listening and vocabulary. This may indicate that strategy instruction generally had a positive effect on students' proficiency in the experimental group in all skills, but it was most effective in writing, reading, and speaking and not effective enough to make a significant difference in listening and vocabulary proficiency.

The results also show that the visual style modality was dominant under the sensory/perceptual learning style category (54.82% of the participants). Moreover, the extroverted style modality was dominant under the psychological or personality type category (55.33% of the students). Under the

cognitive learning style category, results show that around two-thirds (65.48%) of the participants in the present study were global.

According to the results of this study, there was no statistically significant difference in the proficiency between students of the visual, auditory, kinaesthetic/tactile, and neutral modality under the sensory/perceptual learning style. Similarly, no statistically significant difference was found in the proficiency between students of the extroverted, introverted, and neutral modality under the psychological/personality type. However, there was a statistically significant difference in the proficiency between students of the global and particular modality under the cognitive learning style, as the latter outperformed the former in the pre-and post-tests.

The results gained from the students' feedback on the effect of strategy instruction show that the students became more aware of using LLS. Their ways of learning had been positively changed as they had begun focusing not only on the content of the language, but also on how to learn that content. Some students had become able to orchestrate strategies, although it is, to some extent, a complex process. Students learnt new reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary strategies that, besides other factors, contributed to their proficiency improvement. By identifying their learning styles, students preferred some strategies that were within their style zones. This did not prevent some students from using strategies beyond their style zones, and there were some who managed to stretch their styles and draw on other strategies outside their comfort zone.

The results also show that not all teachers were familiar with LLS and those who were, did not teach them explicitly in their regular language classes. Both teachers who participated in the present study admitted that their awareness of these strategies had been raised after being involved in the strategy instruction programme. Teaching strategies through a language textbook was applicable and effective according to the participating teachers who also emphasized the importance of presenting LLS explicitly in the language textbooks. Although both teachers were unsure about designing their own teacher's booklet, they liked the TB used in the present study and commented on its advantages and disadvantages with regard to the strategies listed in it. Strategy instruction was time consuming at the beginning of the study for one of the teachers; however, both teachers managed to cope with the time constraints and integrate the strategy instruction in their regular language teaching. Although the five steps specified by the SSBI framework were helpful, their exact order was not always followed by the teachers while teaching strategies. As both teachers illustrated, using Arabic while teaching strategies was helpful for both the students to quickly understand the strategy and for the teachers to save time. Overall, both teachers found explicit strategy instruction in language classroom very effective based on their observations and their students reactions while evaluating the strategies taught.

## 7.2 Implications for Practice

The results of the present study indicate the importance of explicit strategy instruction, woven into language lessons, in raising students' strategy awareness. If students' strategy awareness is raised, it is expected to increase their strategy repertoires which results in successful learning as mentioned in 2.4.5. The results show that students' strategy awareness was not only raised through explicit strategy instruction, but also through completing the LSUS at the beginning and end of the study. Moreover, students' ways of learning has been positively changed due to explicit strategy instruction. The strategy instruction enabled some students to orchestrate strategies, which leads to better language learning (Vandegrift, 2003). These have implications for language teachers to initiate explicit strategy instruction in their regular language classrooms and to urge their students to start thinking of not only the content of the language they are learning, but also their ways of learning. If embarking strategy instruction programmes is impossible, language teachers should, at least, ask students to complete strategy surveys such as SILL or LSUS and discuss the results with them. This may contribute to an increase in their students' strategy awareness.

The explicit strategy instruction programme helped students improve their language proficiency in general, which is similar to many studies conducted in this regard. Although there are few studies that suspect the effectiveness of strategy instruction such as Kellerman (1991) and Rees-Miller (1993), the present study found that explicit strategy instruction, among other factors, contributed to the improvement in students' proficiency. This indicates that explicit strategy instruction should not be disparaged or underestimated, at least until it is practically examined in a particular context. Ideally, teachers should explicitly instruct students on strategies in their regular language classrooms and attempt to determine if this positively impacts their language proficiency.

In relation to students' improved proficiency in the control group, the teacher effect cannot be ignored altogether. It harmonizes with many other factors that affect students' language proficiency. In other words, the teacher effect is similar to other factors that contribute to students' language proficiency, such as speaking with native speakers or watching TV, or reading for pleasure so as to improve language proficiency. Therefore, language teachers should be aware that they are part of improving their students' language proficiency; consequently, they are implicated to provide tangible benefits to their students. In the present study, although students in the control group did not receive strategy instruction, their language proficiency was improved in almost all skills, except for reading. Part of this achievement should be attributed to students themselves and their language teachers, who might fill the gap of strategy instruction absence with other means in order to improve language proficiency among their students. Bearing in mind that one of the teachers in one of the control group sections is a PhD holder and the other is a Master degree

holder with at least seven years of experience in teaching English as a foreign language, it may implicate that employing more qualified teachers is urgent so as to produce better outcomes.

The explicit strategy instruction assisted at least some of the students in stretching their learning styles and drawing on new strategies that lay beyond their comfort zone. This increased those students' strategy repertoires which consequently resulted in more successful language learning (Griffiths and İnceçay, 2015). This has implications for the Saudi educational system, i.e. to initially assist students in identifying their learning styles. As mentioned in 4.4.2 and to the best of the researcher's knowledge, students in Saudi Arabia have no opportunity in school to identify their learning styles and so they reach university with no idea about them. Hopefully, employing the LSS is a rare opportunity for students to discover themselves by identifying their learning styles and increasing their awareness of this topic. The implication for strategy instruction teachers is to prompt students to discover their learning styles through the many style surveys such as LSS, SAS, or their preferred strategies in addition to encouraging them to not remain within their comfort style zones, but to accept or adopt others and add new strategies to their repertoire which will benefit them greatly.

With regard to learner variables, culture is an important one that should be considered by language teachers while teaching strategies. Holliday (2003) was right in emphasizing that strategy instruction should be relevant to the learners' culture, whereby learners are encouraged to use strategies related to their culture and are assisted in using new useful strategies borrowed from other cultures. In the present study, students used strategies relevant to memory (Arabs highly depend on memory strategies; Oxford, 1990) such as 'making associations' and 'semantic mapping'. This should not be underestimated or described as 'rote' as such strategies involve deep, and sophisticated mental associations, which is relevant to how Asian (or Arab) students learn (Tsai, *et al.*, 2000, cited in Oxford, 2011). Particularly, this is highly recommended if the culture of the teacher who provides the strategy instruction is different from his/her students' culture.

Employing teachers from Arab cultural background in the present study might facilitate conducting strategy instruction to students who belong to the same culture. Other learner variables such as age, aptitude, autonomy, beliefs, gender, motivation, and personality should also be taken into account while teaching strategies (Griffiths, 2008). Another implication relevant to culture is that, if students come from a culture where the teacher is usually more responsible for the students' learning, these students need to develop new attitudes and beliefs (Oxford, 2011). It requires the teachers to work hard through more researches that diagnose and explore the current teaching and learning situation in a specific context, and it requires students to be more flexible in accepting new approaches while learning a language.



The present study indicates that it is very important to train teachers in strategy instruction. The training the researcher had at CARLA was very helpful in preparing the two participating teachers for strategy instruction during this study. The implication for educational establishments is to train pre-service teachers on how to teach strategies before sending them to classrooms, and the implication for schools which intend to adopt strategy instruction is to well-prepare their in-service teachers for strategy instruction. Preparation can be through seminars and workshops presented by experts in the field or by more experienced teachers who may have expertise in this regard. Sending teachers to specialized centres such as CARLA is an excellent investment to prepare teachers for strategy instruction if educational establishments intend to adopt this approach effectively.

This study found that integrating explicit strategy instruction through a language textbook in regular language classrooms is feasible and effective. Although strategy instruction can be conducted in separate courses as we saw in 3.4.1, most scholars in the field are in favour of integrating explicit strategy instruction in authentic language classrooms through language textbooks. The implication for curriculum developers is to explicitly present strategies in student textbooks as well as in the teacher's version of the same. Although Oxford (2011) states that many international publishers of L2 student books and the corresponding teacher editions incorporate learning strategies (whether they call them 'strategies', 'tips', 'tactics' or any other name), and based on the experience of examining the presence of such strategies in the Language Leader in the present study, more explicitness of presenting or integrating strategies in the textbooks is needed. The implication for teachers who have interest in strategy instruction through language textbooks is to examine the tasks provided in the textbook, and to investigate the presence of the strategies and determine whether it is implicit or explicit. If there are no strategies provided in the textbook, teachers can carefully choose some that serve the given tasks. It would be better if a group of teachers who share the teaching of the same course work together on designing their own strategy instruction teacher's guide that parallels their students' textbook, needs, and culture.

The researcher's participation in this study has its own reflections. There are some advantages of the researcher's participation in the study, such as applying theories in practice through students, teachers and materials, which implicates researchers to always transfer theories into practice if they have the desire to test theories. Moreover, by involving himself in this study, the researcher had the opportunity to sit with language teachers, listen to their complaints, ideas and suggestions, and benefit from their thoughts and experiences. This, in itself, bridges the gap between teachers and researchers and allows them to complement each other, as they are always in need of assistance. The presence of the researcher in this study also facilitated completing surveys, particularly the LSS, which required students to carry out some calculations in order to identify their learning styles. If the researcher were not present during the completion of this survey, it might have made

completing it impossible. Thus, it is sometimes worth, if possible, the researcher being around participants while completing surveys, as he/she is the right person to answer participants' queries.

However, there are some disadvantages of the researcher's participation in this study. One of them might be that of better strategy instruction for students in the researcher's group than that delivered to their counterparts in the other two experimental groups, due to the researcher's better training in strategy instruction and to his compassion towards the research project. It is implicated that in such similar conditions, it is fairer, for the sake of students, to have a similar degree of strategy instruction if their strategy awareness or proficiency is going to be measured at the end of the intervention. Moreover, the researcher might spend much time on strategy instruction, rather than balancing time between strategy instruction and the required materials, which consequently may result in negative attitudes and quick boredom among students. Therefore, strategy instruction teachers need to be careful and balanced while integrating strategy instruction in their regular language classrooms.

The present study succeeded, to some extent, in explicitly teaching strategies in the classroom. This success is a promising sign for the start of the transfer of more learning responsibilities from the shoulders of teachers to that of students (Cohen, 2011). Hopefully, this becomes the initial step in transforming the current teacher-centred classrooms around the world into more ideal learner-centred classrooms. As Chamot stressed in Oxford (2011), learner-centred language teachers can successfully integrate strategy instruction in their teaching. The implication for teachers in this regard is best summarized in Oxford (2011, p. 180) when she calls for involving teachers in:

- (a) developing metacognitive awareness of their own learning and their students' learning, (b) practicing and encouraging self-reflection, (c) observing and questioning students regarding learning, (d) modelling learning strategies, and (e) identifying a given student's strategies and encouraging other students to try it out.

### **7.3 Limitations of the Study**

The present study, similar to any other, has a number of limitations that should be considered. First, it was conducted in a single industrial college in the eastern part of Saudi Arabia although there are more than 20 industrial (technical) colleges in different parts of the country. Thus, it is unlikely for the results of the study to be generalizable. Therefore, surveying students' strategy awareness and learning styles in different places in addition to providing strategy instruction to students in other industrial colleges in different places may provide a better understanding of the effect of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness and language proficiency.

Second, although a huge set of data were collected through structured interviews, the researcher was restricted to a set of questions that needed to be answered which led to the absence of many follow up questions that might allow interviewees to provide more useful information. Moreover, all interviewed students came from the experimental group. Interviewing students from the control group who also took the LSUS twice may present extra information regarding their strategy awareness after completing the LSUS two times and their proficiency drop in the reading post-test.

Third, although the LSUS was adequate in measuring students' awareness of the strategies through its four-option version (I use this strategy and like it, I have tried this strategy and would use it again, I have never used this strategy, and This strategy does not fit for me), the four options may be close in meaning or confusing for some students which may lead to an incomplete picture of students' strategy awareness. Creating a more accurate questionnaire for this purpose is a worthy topic to be considered in future research.

Fourth, only seven learning styles (visual, auditory, kinaesthetic/tactile, extroverted, introverted, global, and particular) were treated in the present study; however, there are 16 more styles (random-intuitive, concrete sequential, closure-oriented, open-oriented, synthesizing, analytic, sharpener, leveller, deductive, inductive, field-independent, field dependent, impulsive, reflective, metaphoric, and literal) in the original LSS that need to be examined. The capacity and scope of the present study made it impossible to include all of them.

Fifth, style-stretching was only investigated through students' choices in the pre- and post-LSUS. This may give an indication that some students were able to stretch their styles, though other instruments such as observations, interviews, or narratives (Oxford, 2011) are needed to boost the findings collected through the pre- and post-LSUS in this regard. In the present study, the LSS was completed only once, at the beginning of the study; however, if it was completed again at the end, we may have had better clarification on whether students retained the same learning style or if they managed to stretch them. In fact, investigating style-stretching is a topic that requires more investigation which is beyond the capacity of this study.

Sixth, strategy orchestration was only examined through interviews wherein some students explained that they used more than one strategy to achieve a given task or to learn a new word. If structured interviews in the present study were supported by other instruments such as the think-aloud protocol or students' diaries, it may result in a better understanding of how students orchestrate the strategies. Strategy orchestration is also another area that demands more investigation which is beyond the main focus of the present study.

Finally, the time span assigned for strategy instruction in the present study (two months) was not enough to accurately judge its effectiveness. It can be acknowledged that two months was a very

short time to cause tangible changes among students and teachers. In some cases it was not enough for the students to acquire new strategies or learning habits and for the teachers to go through all the strategies suggested for instruction in detail or to fully adopt strategy instruction into their teaching styles. Therefore, longitudinal studies are highly recommended as Chamot (2004) stated that strategy instruction may need years to be fruitful.

## 7.4 Recommendations for Future Research

The present study, although producing many interesting results regarding the effects of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness and proficiency, has raised some questions that are fertile areas for further research. Some of them are:

- Carrying out similar research in different settings (such as other technical colleges in different areas in Saudi Arabia) is needed in order to examine the possibility of generalizing the findings. Although strategy instruction for individual language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking, or vocabulary) has been conducted by other studies, I am unaware of any study that has discussed the effect of strategy instruction on all language skills together.
- Although the present study employed the four-option version of the LSUS to measure students' strategy awareness, there were a few different attempts in the past to assess the same, such as Carrell (1989), Vandergrift (2005), Vandergrift *et al.* (2006), Zhang and Goh (2006), and Lee (2007). This inconsistency in developing a survey to measure strategy awareness prompts the present study to call for a proper tool to measure strategy awareness among language learners. Thus, further work needs to be done to reach a consensus if possible on an appropriately developed survey that enables researchers to measure students' strategy awareness with more accuracy.
- A study that investigates the effect of strategy instruction on students with learning styles different from those included in the present study would be interesting. Discovering learning styles in the Saudi context *per se* would also be an intriguing endeavour. Conducting a study that deals with styles that might have never been heard about in the Saudi context would be even more fascinating. Moreover, there is some focus in the existing literature on some learning styles such as those included in the present study, but there are many others (e.g. random-intuitive, concrete sequential, closure-oriented, open-oriented, synthesizing, analytic, sharpener, leveller, impulsive, reflective, metaphoric, and literal) that require more investigation.
- Work needs to continue on style-stretching as only very few studies have been conducted in this area. It is commonly known that there is no consensus among scholars in the field whether learning styles are stable or if they change or develop in response to the surrounding

environment (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015). Therefore, strategy instruction might be one such circumstance that encourages students to stretch their styles; thus, a more intensive examination is still needed on this issue.

- In spite of the findings gained through interviews that students managed to orchestrate strategies in the present study, more instruments should be used in future studies to examine the ability of students to do so. These instruments may include think aloud protocols, diaries in the classroom. In fact, strategy orchestration will be a completely new topic in the Saudi context as there is a lack of studies in that specific context.
- A longitudinal styles- and strategies-based instruction programme could be set up to deeply explore the effects of strategy instruction on students' strategy awareness and proficiency. Such a programme will be very effective if teachers have sufficient required training on how to explicitly deliver strategy instruction in their regular language classrooms.

## **7.5 The Contributions of the Study to the Field**

Transition from theory to practice which is highly called for is a valuable contribution of this study to the field of LLS. This transition was demonstrated in the present study through two streams: (1) by examining the existence of LLS in a language textbook (Language Leader, Elementary) and building a guideline (Teacher's Booklet) for teachers to integrate strategy instruction in their regular language classrooms based on the researcher's previous examination of the tasks and exercises listed in the above-mentioned textbook and (2) by deploying strategy instruction through a suggested framework (SSBI) in the literature designed for this purpose. Applying strategy instruction through this framework allowed the researcher to test it and measure its validity and reliability in a new context.

This study also contributed to the field of LLS in terms of investigating students' strategy awareness of all language skills and vocabulary together. This makes the current study unique, as it provides a clearer understanding of students' strategy awareness of all language skills rather than in only one or two. Moreover, this study measured students' strategy awareness through the four-option version of the LSUS, whereas previous studies that measured strategy awareness used different surveys. Hence, this study initiates the first call to design a survey for the purpose of measuring strategy awareness.

Responding to criticism related to measuring the frequency of strategy use is another contribution of this study. Using the LSUS with its four-option version, which is different from the Likert scale version that was used for many years to measure the frequency of strategy use, is a practical attempt to discover students' strategy awareness and reflect on their strategy use. If frequency is

considered a deceptive parameter in measuring students' strategy use, this version of the LSUS with its four options is another way to look at students' strategy awareness and reflect on their strategy use away from frequency. This is applicable if the researcher's suggested amendment for option three in the four-option version of the LSUS (*I have never used this strategy but I am interested in it to become I have never used this strategy*) is considered. This is a contribution to the methodology used in assessing students' strategy awareness and reflecting on their strategy use away from frequency.

This study confirms findings by previous studies in terms of the positive effect of strategy instruction on students' learning process, strategy awareness, and proficiency. Thus, it defends the criticism by a few scholars who question the effectiveness of strategy instruction. This study suggests that even if strategy instruction does not improve students' language proficiency significantly, it leaves a positive effect on students' learning process and strategy awareness.

The present study succeeded, to some extent, in showing that it was possible to switch from a teacher-centred learning environment to an at least partially learner-centred environment in the Saudi context. This has been confirmed through the interaction between the participating teachers and students during the study and through their feedback at the end of the programme.

## Appendix A: Language Strategy Use Survey

Name: ..... ID #: ..... Sec. #: .....

Dear student,

Thank you very much for participating in this survey. The purpose of this survey is to find out about your strategy awareness towards listening strategies, vocabulary strategies, speaking strategies, reading strategies, and writing strategies. Check (✓) the box that describes your use of each listed strategy. The categories are:

*I use this strategy and like it*

*I have tried this strategy and would use it again*

*I've never used this strategy*

*This strategy doesn't fit for me*

The survey consists of five parts: listening strategy use, vocabulary strategy use, speaking strategy use, reading strategy use, and writing strategy use.

All information you will provide will be treated as strict confidential, no names will be mentioned in the study and no one will have access to that information other than me. If you have any question, do not hesitate to ask me or your teacher.

## First: Listening Strategy Use

		I use this strategy and like it	I have tried this strategy and would use it again	I've never used this strategy	This strategy doesn't fit for me
<b>Strategies to increase my exposure to the target language:</b>					
1	Attend out-of-class events where the new language is spoken.				
2	Listen to talk shows on the radio, watch TV shows, or see movies in the target language.				
3	Listen to the language in a restaurant or store where the staff speak the target language.				
4	Listen in on people who are having conversations in the target language to try to catch the gist of what they are saying.				
<b>Strategies to become more familiar with the sounds in the target language:</b>					
5	Practice sounds in the target language that are very different from sounds in my own language to become comfortable with them.				
6	Look for associations between the sound of a word or phrase in the new language with the sound of a familiar word.				
7	Imitate the way native speakers talk.				
8	Ask a native speaker about unfamiliar sounds that I hear				
<b>Strategies to prepare to listen to conversation in the target language:</b>					
9	Pay special attention to specific aspects of the language (e.g., the way the speaker pronounces certain sounds).				
10	Try to predict what the other person is going to say based on what has been said so far.				
11	Prepare for talks and performances I will hear in the target language by reading some background materials beforehand.				
<b>Strategies to listen to conversation in the target language:</b>					
12	Listen for key words that seem to carry the bulk of the meaning.				
13	Listen for word and sentence stress to see what native speakers emphasize when they speak.				
14	Pay attention to when and how long people tend to pause.				
15	Pay attention to the rise and fall of speech by native speakers— the “music” of it.				



## Continue First: Listening Strategy Use

		I use this strategy and like it	I have tried this strategy and would use it again	I've never used this strategy	This strategy doesn't fit for me
16	Practice "skim listening" by paying attention to some parts and ignoring others.				
17	Try to understand what I hear without translating it word-for-word				
18	Focus on the context of what people are saying.				
19	Listen for specific details to see whether I can understand them				
<b>Strategies for when I do not understand some or most of what someone says in the target language:</b>					
20	Ask speakers to repeat what they said if it wasn't clear to me				
21	Ask speakers to slow down if they are speaking too fast				
22	Ask for clarification if I don't understand it the first time around				
23	Use the speakers' tone of voice as a clue to the meaning of what they are saying				
24	Make educated guesses about the topic based on what has already been said				
25	Draw on my general background knowledge to get the main idea				
26	Watch speakers' gestures and general body language to help me figure out the meaning of what they are saying.				

## Second: Vocabulary Strategy Use

		I use this strategy and like it	I have tried this strategy and would use it again	I've never used this strategy	This strategy doesn't fit for me
<b>Strategies to learn new words:</b>					
27	Pay attention to the structure of the new word.				
28	Break the word into parts that I can identify.				
29	Group words according to parts of speech (e.g., nouns, verbs).				
30	Associate the sound of the new word with the sound of a word that is familiar to me.				
31	Use rhyming to remember new words.				
32	Make a mental image of new words.				
33	List new words with other words that are related to it.				
34	Write out new words in meaningful sentences.				
35	Practice new action verbs by acting them out.				
36	Use flash cards in a systematic way to learn new words.				
<b>Strategies to review vocabulary:</b>					
37	Go over new words often when I first learn them to help me remember them.				
38	Review words periodically so I don't forget them.				
<b>Strategies to recall vocabulary:</b>					
39	Look at meaningful parts of the word (e.g., the prefix or the suffix) to remind me of the meaning of the word.				
40	Make an effort to remember the situation where I first heard or saw the word or remember the page or sign where I saw it written.				
41	Visualize the spelling of new words in my mind.				
<b>Strategies to make use of new vocabulary:</b>					
42	Try using new words in a variety of ways.				
43	Practice using familiar words in different ways.				
44	Make an effort to use idiomatic expressions in the new language.				

## Third: Speaking Strategy Use

		I use this strategy and like it	I have tried this strategy and would use it again	I've never used this strategy	This strategy doesn't fit for me
<b>Strategies to practice speaking:</b>					
45	Practice saying new expressions to myself.				
46	Practice new grammatical structures in different situations to build my confidence level in using them.				
47	Think about how a native speaker might say something and practice saying it that way.				
<b>Strategies to engage in conversations:</b>					
48	Regularly seek out opportunities to talk with native speakers.				
49	Initiate conversations in the target language as often as possible.				
50	Direct the conversation to familiar topics.				
51	Plan out in advance what I want to say.				
52	Ask questions as a way to be involved in the conversation.				
53	Anticipate what will be said based on what has been said so far.				
54	Try topics even when they aren't familiar to me.				
55	Encourage others to correct errors in my speaking.				
56	Try to figure out and model native speakers' language patterns when requesting, apologizing, or complaining.				
<b>Strategies for when I can't think of a word or expression:</b>					
57	Ask for help from my conversational partner.				
58	Look for a different way to express the idea, like using a synonym.				
59	Use words from my own language, but say it in a way that sounds like words in the target language.				
60	Make up new words or guess if I don't know the right ones to use.				
61	Use gestures as a way to try and get my meaning across				
62	Switch back to my own language momentarily if I know that the person I'm talking to can understand what is being said.				

## Fourth: Reading Strategy Use

		I use this strategy and like it	I have tried this strategy and would use it again	I've never used this strategy	This strategy doesn't fit for me
<b>Strategies to improve my reading ability:</b>					
63	Read as much as possible in the target language.				
64	Try to find things to read for pleasure in the target language				
65	Find reading material that is at or near my level.				
66	Plan out in advance how I'm going to read the text, monitor to see how I'm doing, and then check to see how much I understand				
67	Skim an academic text first to get the main idea and then go back and read it more carefully.				
68	Read a story or dialogue several times until I understand it.				
69	Pay attention to the organization of the text, especially headings and subheadings.				
70	Make ongoing summaries of the reading either in my mind or in the margins of the text.				
71	Make predictions as to what will happen next				
<b>Strategies for when words and grammatical structures are not understood:</b>					
72	Guess the approximate meaning by using clues from the context of the reading material.				
73	Use a dictionary to get a detailed sense of what individual words mean				

## Fifth: Writing Strategy Use

		I use this strategy and like it	I have tried this strategy and would use it again	I've never used this strategy	This strategy doesn't fit for me
<b>Strategies for basic writing:</b>					
74	Practice writing the alphabet and/or new words in the target language				
75	Plan out in advance how to write academic papers, monitor how my writing is going, and check to see how well my writing reflects what I want to say.				
76	Try writing different kinds of texts in the target language (e.g., personal notes, messages, letters, and course papers).				
77	Take class notes in the target language as much as I'm able.				
<b>Strategies for writing an essay or academic paper:</b>					
78	Find a different way to express the idea when I don't know the correct expression (e.g., use a synonym or describe the idea).				
79	Review what I have already written before continuing to write more.				
80	Use reference materials such as a glossary, a dictionary, or a thesaurus to help find or verify words in the target language				
81	Wait to edit my writing until all my ideas are down on paper				
<b>Strategies to use after writing a draft of an essay or paper:</b>					
82	Revise my writing once or twice to improve the language and content.				
83	Try to get feedback from others, especially native speakers of the language.				



## Appendix B: Learning Styles Survey

Name: ..... ID #: ..... Sec. #: .....

Dear student,

Thank you for participating in the Learning Styles Survey. This survey is designed to assess your general approach to learning. It does not predict your behaviour in every instance, but it is a clear indication of your overall style preferences. For each item, circle the response that represents your approach. Complete all items. There are 3 major activities representing 7 different aspects of your learning style. When you read the statements, try to think about what you usually do when learning. It typically takes about 30 minutes to complete the survey. Do not spend too much time on any item—indicate your immediate feeling and move on to the next item.

For each item, circle your response:

0 = Never      1 = Rarely      2 = Sometimes      3 = Often      4 = Always

Once you have finished filling the survey, calculate the total and write it in front of the word Total in each part. Once you have totalled your points, write the results in the blanks on the last page of the survey. After writing the results, circle the higher number in each part (if they are close, circle both).

All information you will provide will be treated as strict confidential, no names will be mentioned in the study and no one will have access to that information other than me. If you have any question, do not hesitate to ask me or your teacher.

<b>Part 1: How I use my physical senses</b>						
		<b>Never</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Always</b>
1	I remember something better if I write it down.	0	1	2	3	4
2	I take detailed notes during lectures.	0	1	2	3	4
3	When I listen, I visualize pictures, numbers, or words in my head.	0	1	2	3	4
4	I prefer to learn with TV or video rather than other media.	0	1	2	3	4
5	I use color-coding to help me as I learn or work	0	1	2	3	4
6	I need written directions for tasks.	0	1	2	3	4
7	I have to look at people to understand what they say.	0	1	2	3	4
8	I understand lectures better when professors write on the board.	0	1	2	3	4
9	Charts, diagrams, and maps help me understand what someone says.	0	1	2	3	4
10	I remember peoples' faces but not their names.	0	1	2	3	4
<b>A – Total:</b>						

		<b>Never</b>	<b>Rarely</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Always</b>
11	I remember things better if I discuss them with someone.	0	1	2	3	4
12	I prefer to learn by listening to a lecture rather than reading.	0	1	2	3	4
13	I need oral directions for a task.	0	1	2	3	4
14	Background sound helps me think.	0	1	2	3	4
15	I like to listen to music when I study or work.	0	1	2	3	4
16	I can understand what people say even when I cannot see them.	0	1	2	3	4
17	I remember peoples' names but not their faces.	0	1	2	3	4
18	I easily remember jokes that I hear.	0	1	2	3	4
19	I can identify people by their voices (e.g., on the phone).	0	1	2	3	4
20	When I turn on the TV, I listen to the sound more than I watch the screen.	0	1	2	3	4
<b>B – Total:</b>						



		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
21	I prefer to start doing things rather than checking the directions first.	0	1	2	3	4
22	I need frequent breaks when I work or study.	0	1	2	3	4
23	I need to eat something when I read or study.	0	1	2	3	4
24	If I have a choice between sitting and standing, I'd rather stand.	0	1	2	3	4
25	I get nervous when I sit still too long.	0	1	2	3	4
26	I think better when I move around (e.g., pacing or tapping my feet).	0	1	2	3	4
27	I play with or bite on my pens during lectures.	0	1	2	3	4
28	Manipulating objects helps me to remember what someone says.	0	1	2	3	4
29	I move my hands when I speak.	0	1	2	3	4
30	I draw lots of pictures (doodles) in my notebook during lectures.	0	1	2	3	4
<b>C – Total:</b>						

<b>Part 2: How I expose myself to learning situations</b>						
		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	I learn better when I work or study with others than by myself.	0	1	2	3	4
2	I meet new people easily by jumping into the conversation.	0	1	2	3	4
3	I learn better in the classroom than with a private tutor.	0	1	2	3	4
4	It is easy for me to approach strangers.	0	1	2	3	4
5	Interacting with lots of people gives me energy.	0	1	2	3	4
6	I experience things first and then try to understand them.	0	1	2	3	4
<b>A – Total:</b>						
7	I am energized by the inner world (what I'm thinking inside).	0	1	2	3	4
8	I prefer individual or one-on-one games and activities.	0	1	2	3	4
9	I have a few interests, and I concentrate deeply on them.	0	1	2	3	4
10	After working in a large group, I am exhausted.	0	1	2	3	4
11	When I am in a large group, I tend to keep silent and listen.	0	1	2	3	4
12	I want to understand something well before I try it.	0	1	2	3	4
<b>B – Total:</b>						

<b>Part 3: How I receive information</b>						
		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	I prefer short and simple answers rather than long explanations.	0	1	2	3	4
2	I ignore details that do not seem relevant.	0	1	2	3	4
3	It is easy for me to see the overall plan or big picture.	0	1	2	3	4
4	I get the main idea, and that's enough for me.	0	1	2	3	4
5	When I tell an old story, I tend to forget lots of specific details.	0	1	2	3	4
<b>A – Total:</b>						
6	I need very specific examples in order to understand fully.	0	1	2	3	4
7	I pay attention to specific facts or information.	0	1	2	3	4
8	I'm good at catching new phrases or words when I hear them.	0	1	2	3	4
9	I enjoy activities where I fill in the blank with missing words I hear.	0	1	2	3	4
10	When I try to tell a joke, I remember details but forget the punch line.	0	1	2	3	4
<b>B – Total:</b>						

Now, in the blanks below, write down the Total you have calculated in each part. Circle the higher number in each part. The higher number represents your style. If numbers are similar or close to each other's, circle both numbers and this means you have no particular style in this activity.

**Part 1:**

A..... Visual

B..... Auditory

C..... Kinaesthetic/Tactile

**Part 2:**

A..... Extroverted

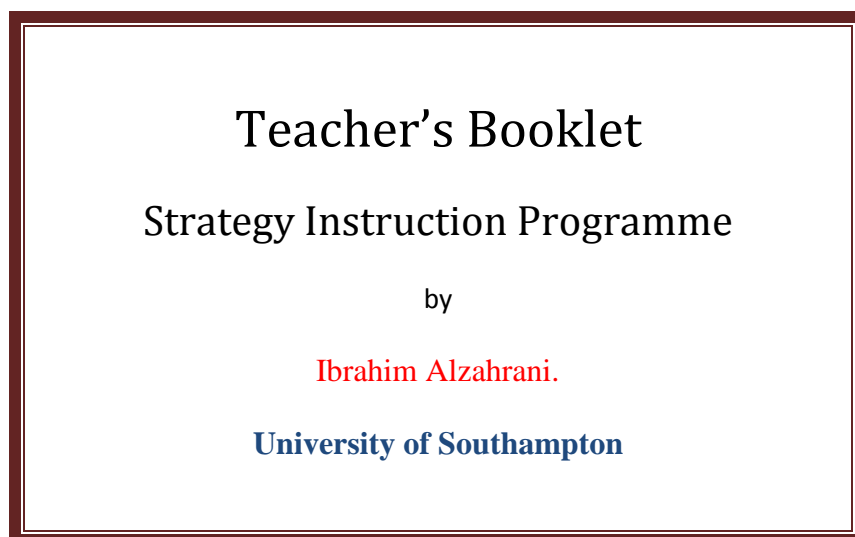
B..... Introverted

**Part 3:**

A..... Global

B..... Particular

## **Appendix C: Teacher's Booklet**



## **1. To Know**

The first part of this booklet is written to provide a brief background for you, as a teacher participating in this study. It introduces the researcher and the study and contains a brief definition of Language Learning Strategies (LLS); the importance of LLS; and a brief definition of learning styles and their importance. It also defines LLS instruction and highlights its significance. The last section in this part states how the exercises and strategies for strategy instruction have been chosen.

### **1.1 Purpose of the Booklet**

This booklet has been particularly designed to guide language teachers participating in an ongoing PhD study on strategy instruction for college students. The purpose of the study is to integrate strategy instruction in language classrooms. LLS should be explicitly taught to students in the experimental group for a certain period of time. Each teacher should teach particular LLS in addition to others may be suggested by their students.

### **1.2 What are Language Learning Strategies (LLS)?**

LLS can refer to all the tactics, thoughts, behaviours, techniques, devices, or actions language learners use or do to help them learn, comprehend, or retain a new language. The following are examples of LLS: (1) planning in advance for what to write or say in English is a metacognitive strategy that enables students to complete a given writing or speaking task; (2) grouping new words in English as synonyms, antonyms, or parts of speech in addition to associating new words to different things are cognitive strategies that might help students learn new words in English; (3) cooperating with others and asking questions in English are social strategies that might allow students to practice and communicate in English; and (4) by encouraging themselves and reducing their anxiety, students employ affective strategies through which they can control their feelings and motivation towards learning English.

### **1.3 Importance of LLS**

In addition to the role of LLS in making learning deeper, more productive, and more lasting, LLS can assist in enhancing learning; performing specified tasks; solving specific problems; making learning easier, faster, and more enjoyable; and compensating for a deficit in learning.

### **1.4 What are Learning Styles?**

Simply put, learning styles are general approaches to or preferred ways of learning that students use while learning. It has been noticed that learners approach their learning in significantly different manners which are known as learning styles. For example, if a language learner is interested in using flash cards or watching movies while learning a language, it can be said that the learning style preference of this learner is visual. In another case, if a language learner enjoys listening to music, speeches, or radio programmes in the target language to compare sounds and stresses, it can be said that this learner prefers an auditory learning style. Moreover, a language learner can be said to have

a tactile or kinaesthetic style when s/he prefers touchable aids or practices language by drawing.

### **1.5 Importance of Learning Styles**

Students usually tend to learn better if their teachers nurture their individual learning style. Therefore, if the teacher presents the language material in a variety of ways, most of the students' learning styles are likely to be nurtured. Students will also be more successful if they can use more styles. Hence, it is recommended to help students think about, expand, or stretch their learning approaches to include other learning styles as it will reward them with more learning opportunities.

### **1.6 What is Strategy Instruction?**

Strategy instruction refers to the ways in which language teachers instruct their students in becoming more effective learners. In other words, strategy instruction is explicitly teaching language learners in the classroom how to use LLS while learning a language.

### **1.7 Importance of Strategy Instruction**

Strategy instruction highly enhances the learning process of language learners. Moreover, it maximizes the outcomes of language learning. Through learning how to use LLS, students become more responsible, resulting in them improving their learning process and becoming more autonomous. Students will also be more encouraged to learn how to learn and their awareness will be raised, if they are instructed on how to use LLS. Through learning various LLS, students start diagnosing their own learning process and checking their strengths and weaknesses. Finally, strategy instruction can help language learners become aware of the strategies they already use, apply task-specific strategies that can make learning more efficient, monitor for strategy effectiveness, and draw on new learning strategies.

### **1.8 Exercises and Strategies**

It is highly recommended to teach LLS explicitly in the classroom. To fulfil this goal, suitable materials should be available for both teachers and students. The researcher has decided to use the exercises found in the students' course book (Language Leader, Elementary) for this purpose. Initially, the researcher conducted a study to discover how LLS are presented in this textbook, and he found the following: It can be clearly noticed that LLS are explicitly presented in the Study Skills lessons which are the last two pages (Lesson Four) of each unit wherein students are asked to follow the study skills (strategies) to improve their language learning. However, LLS are implicitly presented in most exercises, but unfortunately, these strategies are not referred to and students are not notified about them. This has encouraged the researcher to take advantage of this curriculum and establish a strategy instruction programme.

Exercises in the tables below have been chosen by the researcher based on their appropriateness for the study. The strategies have also been chosen by the researcher based on a lot of work in the field by experts such as Chamot and Cohen. The strategies chosen

for the intervention are recommended to be helpful for reading, writing, listening, speaking, and vocabulary proficiency.

## **2. To Do**

The second part of this booklet presents some very important guidelines to be considered prior to strategy instruction as 2.1 shows. You are supposed to apply a strategy instruction framework (Styles and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI)) as shown in the second section of this part. Additionally, the Learning Styles Survey (LSS) and Language Strategy Use Survey (LSUS) which were introduced to you are expected to be distributed among the students. Finally, the tables' content which is the primary material for you in this study is explained in the last section of this part.

### **2.1 Prior to SSBI Lesson**

As a participating teacher in the strategy instruction programme, you are expected to consider the following:

**Background of learners:** As a Saudi English teacher in Saudi Arabia, you may know your students' language background very well, but you may not know enough about how they use this language background. Therefore, consider their LLS use and repertoire, learning styles, and their age.

**Class context:** It is a good idea to identify and document which strategies students prefer and how they progress while learning new strategies. It is advisable to document that.

**Transferring strategies:** Encourage your students to try using the same strategies with other tasks, as some can be used for more than one task. For example, prediction can be used to predict what might appear next in a text while reading and to predict what a speaker might say next while listening.

**Strategy sequence or clustering:** It might be easy to teach strategies one by one, but in fact, many tasks require the use of more than one strategy. Thus, assist students in applying more than one strategy to accomplish a particular task. Sometimes, tasks require using one strategy followed by another, which is known as strategy sequence. However, in other cases, a task requires the use of more than one strategy at the same time, which is known as strategy clustering. As you will notice, most of the tasks chosen for this strategy instruction programme require strategy clustering.

### **2.2 Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction (SSBI) Framework**

This framework was designed by Cohen and Weaver in 2006 to help language teachers initiate strategy instruction programmes. It is mainly based on the idea that styles- and strategies- based instruction should become a unified entity. It proposes that LLS should be viewed from the perspective of language learners' learning styles, as it is believed that learning styles may prompt the use of particular learning strategies.

This framework consists of five steps to explicitly teach LLS in the language classroom which the researcher wants you to follow while teaching strategies:

1. **Strategy Preparation:** Check if students (1) possess knowledge of strategies and are aware of the importance of using them and (2) have the ability and desire to use these strategies. To do so, ask students in Arabic if they have good ways (strategies) to learn English and if they are ready to use these strategies.
2. **Strategy Awareness-Raising:** Explicitly, and in Arabic, raise students' awareness of their learning process, their learning styles, their already-in-use strategies and those suggested by you and their classmates, and their responsibilities towards their own learning.
3. **Strategy Instruction:** Explicitly, and in Arabic, name various strategies and teach students how, when, and why to use certain strategies to facilitate language learning. Strategies can be used separately, in sequence, or in clusters. Describe, model, and give examples of such strategies.
4. **Strategy Practice:** Give students the opportunity to apply the suggested LLS. Observe them practicing the strategies and provide some scaffolding.
5. **Personalization of Strategy (Strategy Evaluation):** Students should evaluate their use of the strategies and try to find ways to use them again in different tasks. Consider students' evaluation and try to evaluate taught strategies based on students' reaction towards strategies taught and their effectiveness.

### **2.3 Learning Styles Survey (LSS)**

This survey was constructed by Andrew Cohen, Rebecca Oxford, and Julie Chi in 2002. It aims to assess students' learning styles. It shows how language learners have different learning styles and helps them deepen their understanding of themselves through the 52 items spanning seven different learning styles. Having students take this survey will inform them on how they learn best. This survey will only be administered once prior to the strategy instruction. Kindly distribute the survey among the students and help them complete it. Remember that it is advisable that students stretch their learning styles as this assists them to draw on new strategies.

### **2.4 Language Strategy Use Survey (LSUS)**

This survey was also constructed by the same above-mentioned scholars in 2002. The purpose of this survey is to allow students to know more about themselves as language learners. It also helps them discover new strategies that help in mastering a new language. It aims to measure students' current strategy awareness and reflect on their strategy use. It has about 83 items divided into Reading Strategies, Writing Strategies, Listening Strategies, Speaking Strategies, and Vocabulary Strategies. This survey will be used twice to explore students' strategy awareness before and after the intervention. The first one will be administered prior to the intervention or strategy instruction and the other after the intervention. Kindly distribute this survey among the students and help them complete it.

### **2.5 Table content**

The tables below will assist you in finding the assigned exercises in the student's course book (Language Leader, Elementary). The assigned exercises are chosen by the researcher and distributed across 12 tables covering the 12 units of the course book. Each table shows

the lesson number, exercise and page number, type of skill, assigned strategy and its category, and the Arabic name or description of the assigned strategy.



Unit One: Cities					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
1	2: 6	Vocabulary	Group/Classify 14: Group your vocabulary [antonyms]	TBS	جمع المتضادات
1.1	8a, 8b: 7	Listening	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [Ask students to read the task before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
1.2	1a: 8	Vocabulary	Access information sources 18: Use flash cards	TBS	استخدم الفلاش كاردز
			Group/Classify 14: Create visual maps [semantic mapping]	TBS	ابن خرائط بصرية
			Background knowledge 5: Link word sounds to sounds in Arabic or English [beach/peach], [canon/قانون], [jar/جار], [fountain/mountain], [park/bark]	TBS	اربط الأصوات المتشابهة
			Transfer/Cognates 9: Use quick and easy cognates [cinema/سينما]	TBS	استخدم التوأم
1.2	2: 8	Reading	Make inferences 6: Infer the meaning of words and ideas based on clues	TBS	استنتج المعنى من التلميحات
1.2	7: 9	Speaking	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out in advance what you want to say	MCS	خطط لما ستقول
			Cooperate 19: Ask for help while speaking	TBS	اطلب المساعدة أثناء الكلام
			Find/Apply patterns 13: Figure out and model native language [use native language as in the example]	TBS	حاك متحدثي اللغة
1.2	8a, 8b: 9	Listening	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [match people with cities/Tick correct sentence]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Use selective attention 17: Skim listening	TBS	استمع للمهم
1.2	10: 9	Writing	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out what you are going to write	MCS	خطط لما ستكتب
			Find/Apply 13: Figure out and model native language [write similar to examples]	TBS	حاك متحدثي اللغة

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Remember that this programme aims to raise students' awareness of their learning process, their learning styles, and language learning strategies. Consequently, you should not urge students to use particular strategies. Show them various strategies and how to use them, but they should have complete freedom in deciding which one to use.
- Before working on the task, ask students if they know about the strategies and their importance (strategy preparation).
- Ask students to think of their learning process and convince them to take more responsibilities towards their learning. Remind them of their learning styles and encourage them to stretch them. Ask students about their strategies for completing the task and then suggest those in the booklet (strategy awareness-raising).

- Explicitly, and in Arabic, name the strategy, and instruct students on how to use it (strategy instruction).
- Apply strategies to the exercises, and ask students to always monitor their strategy use while practicing them (strategy practice).
- Ask students to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategy (personalization of strategy).
- In this unit, highlight the importance of planning strategies (plan how to accomplish the task), and ask students to learn new words through associating the sounds with similar ones in Arabic or English. This is an easy strategy for beginner learners.

Unit Two: Work and study					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
2	1a,1b : 14	Vocabulary	Group/Classify 14: Create visual maps [semantic mapping]	TBS	ابن خرائط بصرية
			Access information sources 18: Use flash cards	TBS	استخدم الفلاش كاردز
			Background knowledge 5: Pay attention to the meaning of part of a word [accountant, businessman, businesswoman, lecturer]	TBS	لاحظ معنى جزء من الكلمة
2.1	3, 4: 15	Reading	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read sentences in 3 before reading the text]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Make inferences 6: Infer the meaning of words and ideas based on clues [sentences from 3 and pictures]	TBS	استنتج المعنى من التلميحات
			Predictions 7: Predict what will come in the text	TBS	تنبأ بما سيأتي في النص
2.1	10a, 10b: 15	Speaking	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out in advance what you want to say	MCS	خطط لما ستقول
			Cooperate 19: Ask teachers and friends to correct you	TBS	صححوني
			Monitor 3: Correct yourself	MCS	صحح لنفسك
2.2	1a, 1b, 2, 3: 16	Reading	Selective attention 17: Scan the text	TBS	افحص النص
			Background knowledge 5: Check prior knowledge of the topic	TBS	استعن بخبرتك
			Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to read a passage [ask students to read questions in 2 and sentences in 3 before they answer]	MCS	خطط كيف تقرأ
2.2	7, 8: 17	Listening	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read questions before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Selective attention 17: Listen for keywords	TBS	استمع للكلمات الدالة
2.2	10: 17	Writing	Organize/Plan 1: Discuss what you want to write with someone before writing	MCS	ناقش ثم اكتب
			Find/Apply patterns 13: Figure out and model native language	TBS	حاك متحدثي اللغة
2.3	4, 5, 6: 18, 19	Listening	Inferences 6: Comprehend the message without understanding every word [for exercise 4]	TBS	افهم اجمالاً
			Selective attention 17: Distinguish one sound from another [for exercise 5]	TBS	ميز الاصوات المتشابهة
			Selective attention 17: Listen for keywords [for exercise 6]	TBS	استمع للكلمات الدالة

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Remember to go through the SSBI framework's five steps.

- Remind students to be more responsible for their learning.
- Direct students' attention to their learning styles and to stretching their styles which will allow them to learn new strategies.
- Encourage students to think about how they learn besides learning the content of the language.
- Remind students to always plan how to accomplish a particular task.
- For the reading exercises in this unit, explain what 'scanning a passage' is and ask students to practice it. Focus on explaining how prediction helps them understand the overall meaning while reading a passage; and encourage them to take advantage of clues such as the keywords in the text or pictures to comprehend the text. Remind students with the global learning style that they can benefit from these strategies.
- For the listening exercises in this unit, attract students' attention to focusing on keywords that deliver the message. Ask them to practice listening only to the keywords; and encourage students to grasp the main idea while listening. These strategies are a better fit for students with the global learning style.

Unit Three: Water					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
3	2a: 22	Vocabulary	Group/Classify 14: Place the word in a topic group [verbs used with water]	TBS	صنف المفردات بالموضوع
			Access information sources 18: Use a dictionary	TBS	استخدم القاموس
3.1	4a-4d: 23	Listening	Predictions 7: Try to predict what the speaker will say [4a]	TBS	تنبأ بما سيقال
			Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [let students read sentences in 4b before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Selective attention 17: Distinguish one sound from another [4c]	TBS	ميز الاصوات المتشابهة
			Selective attention 17: Skim listening [4d]	TBS	استمع للمهم
3.2	1a: 24	Vocabulary	Group/Classify 14: Create visual maps [semantic mapping]	TBS	ابن خرائط بصرية
			Transfer/Cognates 9: Use quick and easy cognates [dolphin, دلفين, tuna, تونا]	TBS	استخدم التوأم
3.2	2, 3, 4: 24	Reading	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [let students read questions in 2 before scanning the text]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Selective attention 17: Scan the text [to answer 2, 3 and 4]	TBS	افحص النص
3.2	11a: 25	Speaking	Real objects/Role play 12: Practice saying new expressions [how often do you ...?]	TBS	تدرب على النطق
			Real/Objects/Role play 12: Use gestures to get your meaning across	TBS	اومئ لإيصال رسالتك
3.2	11b: 25	Writing	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out what you are going to write	MCS	خطط لما ستكتب
			Monitor 3: Edit grammar and mechanics after your ideas are written	MCS	دون افكارك ثم حرر نصك
3.3	4a, 4b, 4c: 27	Listening	Selective attention 17: Skim listening [4a]	TBS	استمع للمهم
			Selective attention 17: Use both top-down and bottom –up listening strategies [4b]	TBS	استخدم المسح والتدقيق
			Inferences 6: Recognize different types of speech according to the speaker or setting [4c]	TBS	افهم من لحن القول

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Try to follow the five steps during strategy instruction.
- Remind students about their learning responsibilities and ask them to think carefully about their learning process.
- Instruct students to always consider metacognitive strategies such as planning, managing, monitoring, and evaluating their learning while learning how to use strategies.
- Praise students who suggest strategies and encourage them to continue using them.

- In this unit, while focusing on vocabulary, teach students how to use a dictionary and describe the types of dictionaries. Encourage students to start their own dictionaries. Using cognates is a very helpful strategy as there are some English and Arabic cognates. Instruct students to write cognates in a separate page in their notebooks. You may also ask them to create semantic maps, and encourage them to expand them (this strategy is recommended for students with the visual learning style).
- Remind students that they need to plan before starting most listening tasks. The planning may include reading questions or sentences or looking at pictures or graphs before listening. While listening, ask students not to listen to everything, but only to important words (recommended for students with the global learning style). Teach them how to skim through the listening (also recommended for students with the global learning style). Ask students to attempt predicting what the speaker may say next, as it is another listening strategy that will assist them in comprehending the overall meaning.

Unit Four: Leisure time					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
4	2a: 32	Vocabulary	Group/Classify 14: Create visual maps [semantic mapping] Transfer/Cognates 9: Use quick and easy cognates [film, فيلم; romantic, رومانسي; comedy, كوميدي; musical, موسيقي]	TBS TBS	ابن خرائط بصرية استخدم التوأم
4.1	3, 4, 5: 32, 33	Reading	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read items 1-5 before reading the text] Background knowledge 5: Check for prior knowledge of the topic Use selective attention 17: Read between the lines [5]	MCS TBS TBS	خطط لأداء التمرين استعن بخبرتك اقرأ ما بين السطور
4.1	8a, 8b: 33	Speaking	Cooperate 19: Ask questions to be involved in the conversation Real objects/Role play 12: Act out or draw the word Substitute/Paraphrase 10: Look for a different way to express the idea Talk yourself 20: Reduce your anxiety when speaking Cooperate 19: Ask for help while speaking	TBS TBS TBS TBS TBS	اسأل لتبدأ الحوار مثل الكلمات عبر بطريقة اخرى هدئ من روعك ساعدوني اتحدث
4.2	1a: 34	Vocabulary	Background knowledge 5: Create visual maps [semantic mapping] Background knowledge 5: Associate words to some physical sensation [basketball: act as throwing the ball into the basket]	TBS TBS	ابن خرائط بصرية اربط الكلمة بفعلها
4.2	2a-c: 34	Listening	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [let students look at the table in 2b and read sentences in 2c before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
4.2	7a, 7b: 35	Reading	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [let students read sentences in 7a before reading the text] Selective attention 17: Scan the text [7a] Selective attention 17: Identify keywords and sentences carrying main ideas [7b]	MCS TBS TBS	خطط لأداء التمرين افحص النص اعرف الكلمات الدالة (جمل او كلمات)
4.3	10b: 37	Writing	Organize/Plan 1: Plan what you are going to write to write Monitor 3: Go back to go forward Evaluate 4: Assess how well you have accomplished the task	MCS MCS MCS	خطط لما ستكتب تراجع لتتقدم قيم أداء التمرين

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Follow the SSBI's five steps to teach strategies.

- Encourage students to take more responsibility for their learning.
- Raise students' awareness of their learning process and learning styles.
- Remind students that they can learn new strategies from their classmates and encourage them to share ideas. This will increase their strategy repertoire.
- Association is a very helpful method that includes many strategies. One of them is acting out or drawing the word. Some students with a tactile or kinaesthetic learning style will be happy to use this strategy.
- With regard to reading strategies for this unit, before reading any text, remind students to use their previous knowledge of the topic. This may help them predict what will come next in the text and facilitate their understanding. Explain to them that there are some keywords or phrases that convey the overall meaning, and that they should identify them to comprehend the text. Ask students to keep using or practicing the reading strategies they have learnt before such as scanning the text and using clues (recommended for students with the global learning style).



Unit Five: Transport					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
5	1a: 40	Vocabulary	Group/Classify 14: Create visual maps [semantic mapping]	TBS	ابن خرائط بصرية
			Background knowledge 5: Link the word to the situation or place you first hear or see [BUS on a school bus; TAXI on a top of a taxi]	TBS	اربط بأول مرة
			Transfer/Cognates 9: Use cognates 9: Use quick easy cognates [boat: بوتي; bus: باص; lorry: لوري; motor: [تاكسي; taxi: تاكسي]	TBS	استخدم التوأم
5.1	4: 41	Reading	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to read a passage [let students read sentences in 4 before reading the passage]	TBS	خطط كيف تقرأ
			Selective attention 17: Scan the text	TBS	افحص النص
5.1	8: 41	Speaking	Self-talk 20: Encourage yourself	TBS	شجع نفسك
			Find/Apply patterns 13: Figure out and model native language [The Clio is faster than the Polo]	TBS	حاك متحدثي اللغة
			Cooperate 19: Ask teachers and friends to correct your mistakes	TBS	صحوني
5.2	1-4: 42	Reading	Manage 2: Be willing to make mistakes	MCS	استعد لعمل الأخطاء
			Selective attention 17: Skim the text [to answer 2a]	TBS	انظر سريعا الى النص
			Selective attention 17: Scan the text [to answer 3]	TBS	افحص النص
5.2	8a, 8b: 43	Listening	Selective attention 17: Use both top-down and bottom-up tactics [to answer 4]	TBS	استخدم المسح و التدقيق
			Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [let students read the table before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Selective attention 17: Use both top-down and bottom-up listening strategies	TBS	استخدم المسح و التدقيق
5.2	9: 43	Speaking	Manage 2: Accept some ambiguity in what you hear	MCS	تقبل بعض الغموض
			Cooperate 19: Ask for help while speaking	TBS	ساعدوني اتحدث
			Substitute/Paraphrase 10: Look for a different way to express the idea	TBS	عبر بطريقة اخرى
5.2	10:43	Writing	Self-talk 20: Encourage yourself	TBS	شجع نفسك
			Organize/Plan 1: Plan out what you are going to write	MCS	خطط لما ستكتب
			Find/Apply patterns 13: Figure out and model native language [use examples in track 1.37 page 149]	TBS	حاك متحدثي اللغة
5.2			Organize/Plan 1: Give yourself extra time to write.	MCS	تريث قليلا لتكتب

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Go through the SSBI's five steps, and do not forget to speak in Arabic while teaching strategies.
- Remind students of their learning responsibilities.
- Inform students that not every strategy will work for them as they have different learning styles.
- Remind students to cluster strategies as this may result in better learning.
- For the speaking exercises in this unit, ask students to encourage themselves to speak freely. Remind students that the classroom is a safe place to practice English (recommended for students with the extroverted learning style). Let students know that they will make mistakes when they speak, and that it is normal for them to do so, and encourage them to ask for correction. Explain to them that they can express themselves in different ways and let them try this.
- Teach students how to skim a passage. Skimming can give them a preliminary idea about the passage.

Unit Six: Food					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
6	1a: 48	Vocabulary	Access information sources 18: Use flash cards	TBS	استخدم الفلاش كاردز
			Background knowledge 5: Create visual maps [semantic mapping]	TBS	ابن خرائط بصرية
			Graphic organizers/Take notes15: Write new words	TBS	اكتب الكلمات الجديدة
			Transfer/Cognates 9: Use quick and easy cognates [broccoli: بروكلي; salmon: سلمون; sardines: ساردين]	TBS	استخدم التوأم
6	2: 48	Reading	Background knowledge 5: Check for prior knowledge of the topic	TBS	استعن بخبرتك
			Make predictions 7: Predict what will come in the text	TBS	تنبأ بما سيأتي في النص
			Summarize 16: write summaries [second paragraph is about Berries; last paragraph is about Drinks]	TBS	لخص
6.2	9: 49	Speaking	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Find/Apply patterns 13: Figure out and model native language	TBS	حاك متحدثي اللغة
			Personalize 8: Relate things to your life, experiences, beliefs, and feelings	TBS	شخص
			Substitute/Paraphrase 10: Make up new words to communicate the unknown words [seafood: salmon or sardines]	TBS	الف مفردات جديدة
6.2	3, 5: 50	Reading	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [let students read questions in 5 before reading the text]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Selective attention 17: Skim the text [to answer 3]	TBS	انظر سريعا الى النص
			Monitor 3: Reread for clarification [to answer 5]	MCS	كرر للتوضيح
			Evaluate 4: Decide how effective the strategies were in helping you accomplish the task	MCS	قرر فعالية الاستراتيجية
6.2	9a, 9b, 11: 51	Listening	Selective attention 17: Skim listening	TBS	استمع للمهم
			Predictions 7: Play the game of probabilities, inferences, and educated guessing	TBS	العب على الاحتمالات
6.2	12b: 51	Writing	Use selective attention 17: Listen for keywords	TBS	استمع للكلمات الدالة
			Organize/Plan 1: Discuss what you want to say before writing	MCS	ناقش ثم اكتب
			Use imagery 11: Create a mental picture of the scenery of your friend to help you remember what to write	TBS	تخيل
			Monitor 3: Make major revisions after your ideas are written	MCS	دون افكارك ثم راجع
			Manage 2: Accept feedback on your errors	MCS	تقبل تصحيح اخطائك

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### **Strategy instruction tips:**

- Encourage students to suggest strategies to achieve the given tasks and then share strategies from the booklet.
- Remind students to consider metacognitive strategies while doing tasks (recommended for all students, but highly recommended for students with the introverted learning style).
- Encourage students to stretch their learning styles. This will provide them with more learning opportunities. It is not easy to change learning styles, but explain to them that it allows them to use more strategies.
- Ask students to summarize paragraphs (one word or a few) while they are reading. This will support their comprehension. Tell students that they will sometimes need to reread the text to gain better understanding (recommended for students with the particular learning style).
- For the writing exercises in this unit, before beginning the task, advise students to discuss the topic with a friend (recommended for students with the extroverted learning style). This will facilitate their writing. Ask students to jot down their ideas as notes and then write their paragraphs. Encourage students to receive feedback on their writing from their teachers or classmates (recommended for students with the extroverted learning style). Explain to them that sometimes, imagining a situation is helpful while writing, as it facilitates the flow of writing. Advise students to draw mental pictures for the topic they are going to write about.

Unit Seven: Shopping					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
7.1	1: 58	Speaking	Personalize 8: Relate things to your life, experiences, beliefs, and feelings	TBS	شخص
			Cooperate 19: Ask teachers and friends to correct your mistakes	TBS	صحفوني
			Talk yourself 20: Reduce your anxiety	TBS	هدئ من روعك
7.1	2, 3: 58	Reading	Organize/Plan 1: Decide why you need to read a passage [title is interesting]	MCS	لماذا اقرأ
			Selective attention 17: Read between the lines	TBS	اقرأ ما بين السطور
			Monitor 3: Monitor ongoing understanding of the text	MCS	لاحظ فهمك المستمر للنص
			Monitor 3: Reread for clarification [to answer 3]	MCS	كرر للتوضيح
7.1	4a, 4b: 59	Vocabulary	Group/Classify 14: Place the word in a topic group	TBS	صنف المفردات بالموضوع
			Background knowledge 5: Associate words to some physical sensations	TBS	اربط الكلمة بفعلها
			Group/Classify 14: Group your vocabulary [parts of speech-verbs-]	TBS	جمع بأجزاء الكلام
7.2	1: 60	Vocabulary	Group/Classify 14: Place the word in a topic group	TBS	صنف المفردات بالموضوع
			Manage 2: Take a good look to at the new words	MCS	نظرة ثاقبة
			Background knowledge 5: Link sound of word to a sound in English [customer: custom; discount: account; price: prize]	TBS	اربط الأصوات المتشابهة
7.2	3-5: 60	Reading	Selective attention 17: Skim the text [to answer 3]	TBS	انظر سريعا الى النص
			Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the text [let students read only the first paragraph and choose the correct heading [to answer 4a]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Selective attention 17: Use both top-down and bottom-up tactics [to answer 4b and 5]	TBS	استخدم المسح و التدقيق
7.2	7a, 7b: 61	Listening	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read topics in 7a before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Inferences 6: Comprehend the message without understanding every word	TBS	افهم اجمالا
			Use imagery 11: Create a mental picture of the scenery of how people use the Internet for shopping	TBS	تخيل
			Manage 2: Try to stay in the conversation	MCS	لا تيأس
7.3	10:63	Writing	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out what you are going to write	MCS	خطط لما ستكتب
			Monitor 3: Go back to go forward	MCS	تراجع لتتقدم

			Manage 2: Be willing to make mistakes	MCS	استعد لعمل الأخطاء
			Talk yourself 20: Encourage yourself	TBS	شجع نفسك

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Raise students' awareness of the importance of using strategies and how strategies facilitate their language learning.
- Remind students that some strategies may work only for some students due to their learning styles and not for others. Similarly, some strategies may be applicable only for some tasks and may not be for others.
- Remind students to think about their learning process and to take more responsibility for their learning.
- For the vocabulary exercises in this unit, tell students to group new words by topic (recommended for students with the introverted learning style). This may help in retaining the vocabulary better. Another way to group words is by their parts of speech. This strategy increases their vocabulary size. Always ask students to take a good look at new words (recommended for students with the introverted learning style). This will help them find an appropriate strategy to learn these words.
- Before reading a text, it is recommended to let students think about why they should read the text.
- Teach students how to use the top-down (recommended for students with the global learning style) and bottom-up (recommended for students with the particular learning style) techniques while reading a text. In general, students will prefer to use either one of the two, but encourage them to use both.

Unit Eight: History and culture					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
8.1	1a: 66	Vocabulary	Group/ Classify 14: Create visual maps [semantic mapping]	TBS	ابن خرائط بصرية
			Use imagery 11: Create a mental image or picture that you associate with the word [draw a picture for a house and its garden and write down words on the picture]	TBS	تخيل
8.1	2a, 2b: 66	Reading	Inferences 6: Infer the meaning of words and ideas based on clues in the text [Turkish words in the title]	TBS	استنتج المعنى من التلميحات
			Predictions 7: Predict what will come in the text	TBS	تنبأ بما سيأتي في النص
			Selective attention 17: Skim the text [to answer 2b]	TBS	انظر سريعا الى النص
8.1	8a, 8b, 9: 67	Sp./Wr.	Cooperate 19: Ask for help while speaking [to answer 8b]	TBS	ساعدوني اتحدث
			Find/Apply patterns 13: Figure out and models native language [use info in the tables at pages 112, 117 to answer 9]	TBS	حاك متحدثي اللغة
			Monitor 3: Edit grammar and mechanics after your ideas are written	MCS	دون افكارك ثم حرر نصك
8.2	2a-4: 68	Reading	Selective attention 17: Skim the text [to answer 2a]	TBS	انظر سريعا الى النص
			Selective attention 17: Read between the lines [to answer 2b]	TBS	اقرأ ما بين السطور
			Monitor 3: Reread for clarification [to answer 3]	MCS	كرر للتوضيح
			Inferences 6: Infer the meaning of words and ideas based on clues in the text [to answer 4]	TBS	استنتج المعنى من التلميحات
8.2	8, 9a, 9b: 69	Listening	Inferences 6: Comprehend the message without understanding every word [to answer 8, 9b]	TBS	افهم اجمالا
			Selective attention 17: Skim listening [to answer 8]	TBS	استمع للمهم
			Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read sentences in 9a before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Manage 2: Accept some ambiguity in what you hear	MCS	تقبل بعض الغموض
8.2	11: 69	Speaking	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out in advance what you want to say [think of four positives and four negatives before speaking]	MCS	خطط لما ستقول
			Real objects/Role play 12: Use gestures to get your meaning across	TBS	اومي لإيصال رسالتك
			Monitor 3: Correct yourself	MCS	صحح لنفسك

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Quickly remind students about the importance and effectiveness of using strategies.

- Briefly, remind students about their responsibilities toward their learning and to consider their learning process and learning styles while completing the tasks.
- Ask students to practice the strategies they have learnt previously and assess their strategy use to check if there is any progress.
- For the speaking exercises in this unit, ask students to learn to plan what they will say before actually speaking. This will improve their confidence and fluency. Tell students that they can deliver their messages through gesturing when they cannot find the appropriate word. Help students figure out and model native speakers' language (recommended for students with the particular and introverted learning styles). They can use the examples in their books or other resources to practice it. Familiarize students to ask for help from their teachers or classmates while speaking (recommended for students with the extroverted learning style). This gives them extra time to speak and more opportunities to interact in English. Remind students to correct themselves while speaking without any worry (recommended for students with the particular learning style).



Unit Nine: Inventions					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
9.1	2, 3: 74	Reading	Background knowledge 5: Check for prior knowledge of the topic [to answer 2]	TBS	استعن بخبرتك
			Predictions 7: Predict what will come in the text	TBS	تنبأ بما سيأتي في النص
			Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to read the passage [read sentences in 3 before reading the text to answer 3]	MCS	خطط كيف تقرأ
			Monitor 3: Monitor ongoing understanding of the text	MCS	لاحظ فهمك المستمر للنص
9.1	9: 75	Speaking	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out in advance what you want to say [list verbs]	MCS	خطط لما ستقول
			Personalize 8: Relate situations to your life and experiences	TBS	شخص
			Real object/Role play 12: Practice saying new expressions to yourself	TBS	تدرب على النطق
			Talk yourself 20: Reduce you anxiety	TBS	هدئ من روعك
9.1	10a: 75	Writing	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out what you are going to write	MCS	خطط لما ستكتب
			Monitor 3: Edit grammar and mechanics after your ideas are written	MCS	دون افكارك ثم حرر نصك
			Substitute/Paraphrase 10: Look for a different way to express the idea like synonyms	TBS	عبر بطريقة اخرى
			Manage 2: Accept feedback on your errors	MCS	تقبل تصحيح اخطائك
9.2	1: 76	Vocabulary	Access information sources 18: Use a dictionary	TBS	استخدم القاموس
			Manage 2: Take a good look at the new words	MCS	نظرة ثاقبة
			Graphic organizers/ Take notes 15: Write new words	TBS	اكتب الكلمات الجديدة
			Group/Classify 14: Group your vocabulary [parts of speech: treat-ment; ill-ness; equip-ment]	TBS	جمع بأجزاء الكلام
9.2	2, 3: 76	Reading	Predictions 7: Predict what will come in the text	TBS	تنبأ بما سيأتي في النص
			Selective attention 17: Skim the text [to answer 2]	TBS	انظر سريعاً الى النص
			Selective attention 17: Identify keywords and sentences carrying the main ideas	TBS	اعرف الكلمات الدالة (جمل او كلمات)
			Monitor 3: Monitor ongoing understanding of the text	MCS	لاحظ فهمك المستمر للنص
9.2	6a- 8:77	Listening	Predictions 7: Play the game of probabilities, inferences and educated guessing [to answer 6a, 6b, and 8]	TBS	العب على الاحتمالات
			Selective attention 17: Skim listening [to answer 6b]	TBS	استمع للمهم
			Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read sentences in 7a and 8 before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
9.2	11:	Speaking	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out in advance what	MCS	خطط لما ستقول

	77		you want to say [choose an experience and plan how to talk about]		
			Substitute/Paraphrase 10: Make up new words in English to communicate the unknown words	TBS	الف مفردات جديدة
			Real object/Role play 12: Act out or draw the word	TBS	مثل الكلمات
			Evaluate 4: Assess how well you have accomplished the task	MCS	قيم اداء التمرين

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Quickly direct students' attention to the language learning process and their learning styles.
- Remind students to employ strategy clustering, which will facilitate the accomplishing of various tasks.
- For the writing exercise in this unit, encourage students to always plan their writing before doing it. Ask them to take notes and gather suitable information about the topic they are going to write about. Moreover, encourage them to read each other's work and check how ideas are expressed in different ways.
- For the speaking exercises in this unit, it is important for students to be comfortable while speaking; so, help them reduce their anxiety. Encourage students to create new words in English if they cannot remember the exact word. While speaking, ask students to act the word if they are unable to say or remember it (recommended for students with the kinaesthetic/tactile learning style).

Unit Ten: Money					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
10.1	1a, 1b: 84	Vocabulary	Access information sources 18: Use a dictionary	TBS	استخدم القاموس
			Background knowledge 5: Create visual maps [semantic mapping]	TBS	ابن خرائط بصرية
			Background knowledge 5: Link the word to the situation or place you first hear or see [cashpoint, cheque, credit card: the bank]	TBS	اربط بأول مرة
10.1	4, 5: 85	Listening	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read sentences in 4 before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Inferences 6: Comprehend the message without understanding every word [to answer 4]	TBS	افهم اجمالاً
			Selective attention 17: Use both top-down and bottom-up listening strategies [to answer 5]	TBS	استخدم المسح و التدقيق
10.1	10a, 10b: 85	Speaking	Find/Apply patterns 13: Figure out and model native language [use should and shouldn't for giving advice]	TBS	حاك متحدثي اللغة
			Use imagery 11: Create a mental picture of the scenery of Li, Veronica and Klara in 10b to help you give them advice	TBS	تخيل
			Real objects/Role play 12: Practice saying new expressions to yourself [using should and shouldn't]	TBS	تدرب على النطق
			Talk yourself 20: Encourage yourself	TBS	شجع نفسك
10.1	11: 85	Writing	Organize/Plan 1: Discuss what you want to say with someone else before writing	MCS	ناقش ثم اكتب
			Organize/Plan 1: Give yourself extra time to write	MCS	تريث قليلاً لتكتب
			Monitor 3: Make major revisions after your ideas are written	MCS	دون افكارك ثم راجع
			Manage 2: Accept feedback on your errors	MCS	تقبل تصحيح اخطائك
10.2	1: 86	Vocabulary	Access information sources 18: Use a dictionary	TBS	استخدم القاموس
			Group/Classify 14: Place the word in a topic group in English	TBS	صنف المفردات بالموضوع
			Group/Classify 14: Group your vocabulary [Antonyms: borrow X lend; get a loan X pay back]	TBS	جمع المتضادات
10.2	7a: 87	Reading	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read question in 7a before reading the text]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Predictions 7: Predict what will come in the text	TBS	تنبأ بما سيأتي في النص
			Summarize 16: Write summaries	TBS	لخص
10.2	8a, 8b: 87	Speaking	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read and decide before speaking]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين

		Cooperate 19: Ask questions to be involved in a conversation [by saying which one deserves a loan]	TBS	اسأل لتبدأ الحوار
		Substitute/Paraphrase 10: Make up new words in English to communicate the unknown words [getting money from the bank for loan]	TBS	الف مفردات جديدة
		Talk yourself 20: Reduce your anxiety	TBS	هدئ من روعك

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Highlight the importance of using strategies and remind students to think about their ways of learning and their learning styles.
- Encourage students to suggest strategies and share them with other students.
- Remind students about their language learning responsibilities.
- Advise students to apply the same strategy to different tasks.
- Inform students that sometimes, they might need to stop writing and work on it later.
- Instruct students to listen to everything (recommended for students with the particular learning style) sometimes, and to merely skim through (recommended for students with the global learning style) sometimes. Tell them that they in some cases, they might need to know more details to understand the overall meaning.
- Ask students to practice saying new expressions by themselves silently or out loud (recommended for students with the auditory learning style).
- Imagination helps students speak fluently. Thus, ask students to draw mental images of the content they wish to convey.

Unit Eleven: Homes					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
11.1	2, 3, 4: 92	Reading	Selective attention 17: Skim the text [to answer 2]	TBS	انظر سريعا الى النص
			Selective attention 17: Scan the text [to answer 3]	TBS	افحص النص
			Summarize 16: Write summaries [the first paragraph is describing gated communities to answer 4]	TBS	لخص
			Selective attention 17: Read between the lines [to answer 4]	TBS	اقرأ ما بين السطور
11.1	6a, 6b: 93	Vocabulary	Manage 2: Take a good look at the new words	MCS	نظرة ثاقبة
			Graphic organizers/Take notes 15: Write new words	TBS	اكتب الكلمات الجديدة
			Background knowledge 5: Link the word to the situation or place you first hear or see	TBS	اربط بأول مرة
11.1	11: 93	Speaking	Manage 2: Be willing to make mistakes	MCS	استعد لعمل الأخطاء
			Cooperate 19: Ask questions to be involved in a conversation	TBS	اسأل لتبدأ الحوار
			Substitute/Paraphrase 10: Look for a different way to express the idea	TBS	عبر بطريقة اخرى
			Monitor 3: Correct yourself	MCS	صحح لنفسك
11.2	1: 94	Vocabulary	Access information sources 18: Use flash cards	TBS	استخدم الفلاش كاردز
			Background knowledge 5: Create visual maps [semantic mapping for things at home]	TBS	ابن خرائط بصرية
			Background knowledge 5: Associate word to some physical sensation	TBS	اربط الكلمة بفعلها
11.2	3: 95	Listening	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [look at pictures and read the text before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Inferences 6: Recognize different types of speech according to the speaker or setting [three different speakers]	TBS	افهم من لحن القول
			Prediction 7: Try to predict what the speaker will say	TBS	تنبأ بما سيقال
			Manage 2: Accept some ambiguity in what you hear	MCS	تقبل بعض الغموض
11.2	8a: 95	Speaking	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [think of what to do to reduce energy before speaking]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Cooperate 19: Ask questions to be involved in a conversation	TBS	اسأل لتبدأ الحوار
			Real objects/Role play 12: Use gestures to get your meaning across	TBS	اومئ لإيصال رسالتك
			Cooperate 19: Ask teachers and friends to correct your mistakes	TBS	صحوني
11.2	10: 95	Writing	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out what you are going to write	MCS	خطط لما ستكتب
			Monitor 3: Go back to forward	MCS	تراجع لتتقدم

			Substitute/Paraphrase 10: Look for a different way to express the idea Monitor 3: Edit grammar and mechanics after your ideas are written	TBS MCS	عبر بطريقة اخرى دون افكارك ثم حرر نصك
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TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Remind students to practice the strategies outside the classroom. Encourage them to practice with friends or family members who are interested in learning the language.
- Ask students to associate new words with the place or the situation they first see or hear them.
- Encourage students to make their own flash cards or to buy some if they consider it helpful. Flash cards might suit learners with the visual learning style.
- Ask students to read what they have written before continuing their writing.
- Advise students to finish their first draft of writing and then review their grammar and spelling.

Unit Twelve: Travel					
Lesson	Ex. and Pg. #	Skill	Strategy	Strategy Category	اسم الاستراتيجية او وصفها بالعربي
12.1	2a, 2b: 100	Listening	Predictions 7: Try to predict what the speaker will say	TBS	تنبأ بما سيقال
			Inferences 6: Comprehend the message without understanding every word	TBS	افهم اجمالاً
			Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read Peter's form in 2b before listening]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Selective attention 17: Listen for keywords	TBS	استمع للكلمات الدالة
			Manage 2: Try to stay in the conversation	MCS	لا تياس
12.1	6, 7: 101	Reading	Organize/Plan 1: Decide why you need to read a passage [to know why these people are writing]	MCS	لماذا اقرأ
			Selective attention 17: Identify keywords and sentences carrying the main ideas	TBS	اعرف الكلمات الدالة (جمل او كلمات)
			Selective attention 17: Use both top-down and bottom-up tactics [to answer 7]	TBS	استخدم المسح و التدقيق
12.1	10: 101	Speaking	Organize/Plan 1: Plan out in advance what you want to say [choose some ideas and think about before speaking]	MCS	خطط لما ستقول
			Real objects/Role play 12: Act out or draw words	TBS	مثل الكلمات
			Paraphrase/Substitute 10: Make up new words in English to communicate the unknown words [a small ship for a boat; a huge land for a continent]	TBS	الف مفردات جديدة
12.2	1-3b: 102	Vocabulary	Manage 2: Take a good look at the new words	MCS	نظرة ثاقبة
			Use imagery 11: Create a mental image or picture that you associate with the word [link the word mountains to Afghanistan; dessert to Morocco; Pacific Ocean to Honolulu; pole to Antarctica]	TBS	تخيل
			Group/Classify 14: Group your vocabulary [synonyms in 3a]	TBS	جمع بالمرادفات
12.2	4, 5: 103	Reading	Organize/Plan 1: Plan how to accomplish the task [read questions in 4 before reading the text]	MCS	خطط لأداء التمرين
			Selective attention 17: Read between the lines [to answer 4]	TBS	اقرأ ما بين السطور
			Summarize 16: Write summaries [to answer 4]	TBS	لخص
			Monitor 3: Reread for clarification [to answer 5]	MCS	كرر للتوضيح
12.2	8a, 8b: 103	Speaking	Cooperate 19: Ask for help while speaking	TBS	ساعدوني اتحدث
			Real objects/Role play 12: Practice saying new expressions to yourself [as	TBS	تدرب على النطق

			practicing the question Have you ever ...?]		
			Find/Apply patterns: Figure out and model native language [use given examples]	TBS	حاك متحدثي اللغة
			Talk yourself 20: Reduce your anxiety [when talking to the class as in 8b]	TBS	هدئ من روعك

TBS: Task-Based Strategy; MCS: Meta-Cognitive Strategy

### Strategy instruction tips:

- Encourage students to continue using the strategies outside the classroom.
- Encourage them to always reflect on their learning and to think of new strategies that may facilitate their learning.
- Remember that the aim of the programme is to merely introduce LLS to students, and they have the choice to use their preferred strategies. Do not interfere in students' choice of strategy.
- Sometimes, students find it difficult to follow what a speaker is saying. Encourage them to do their best to stay in the conversation and help them familiarize themselves with speakers who talk a bit fast.
- Direct students' attention to groups of words that have the same meaning (synonyms). This will increase their vocabulary and help in their circumlocution.
- Ask students to associate new words with mental images in their minds. For example, the word *giraffe* could be linked to Africa; *shark* could be linked to the Pacific Ocean.



## Appendix D: Taught Strategies in the Teacher's Booklet

Metacognitive Strategies	Task-Based Strategies
<p><b>Organize/Plan your own learning</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Plan how to accomplish the task (R, W, L, S, V)</li> <li>*Plan out in advance what you want to say (S)</li> <li>*Decide why you need to read a text (R)</li> <li>*Plan how to read a passage (R)</li> <li>*Plan out what you are going to write (W)</li> <li>*Discuss what you want to say with someone else before writing (W)</li> <li>*Give yourself extra time to write (W)</li> </ul> <p><b>Manage your own learning</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Accept some ambiguity in what you hear and practice listening (L)</li> <li>*Try to stay in the conversation (L)</li> <li>*Be willing to make mistakes (S, W)</li> <li>*Accept feedback on your errors (S, W)</li> <li>*Take a good look at the new words themselves (V)</li> </ul> <p><b>Monitor your own learning</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Correct yourself (S, W)</li> <li>*Monitor ongoing understanding of the text (R)</li> <li>*Reread for clarification (R)</li> <li>*Go back to go forward (W)</li> <li>*Edit grammar and mechanics after your ideas are written (W)</li> <li>*Make major revisions after your ideas are written down (W)</li> </ul> <p><b>Evaluate your own learning</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Assess how well you have accomplished the learning task (R, W, L, S, V)</li> <li>*Assess how well you have applied the strategies (R, W, L, S, V)</li> <li>*Decide how effective the strategies were in helping you accomplish the task (R, W, L, S, V)</li> </ul>	<p><i>Use what you know:</i></p> <p><b>Background</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Link sound of word to a sound in English or Arabic (V) [deer, dear], [canal, قناة]</li> <li>*Pay attention to the meaning of part of a word (V) [restaurant, rest-ant]</li> <li>*Link the word to the situation or place you first hear or see (V) [STOP: red traffic sign; HAZARD: yellow electric shock]</li> <li>*Associate word to some physical sensation (V) [COUGH: act coughing; ITCH: act itching]</li> <li>*Check for prior knowledge of the topic (R)</li> <li>*Create visual maps [semantic mapping] (V)</li> </ul> <p><b>Inferences</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Comprehend the message without understanding every word (L, R)</li> <li>*Recognize different types of speech according to the speaker or setting (L)</li> <li>*Infer the meaning of words and ideas based on clues to meaning in the text (R, L)</li> </ul> <p><b>Predictions</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Play the game of probabilities, inferences, and educated guessing (L, R)</li> <li>*Try to predict what the speaker will say (L)</li> <li>*Predict what will come in the text (R, L)</li> </ul> <p><b>Personalise:</b> relate situations to your life and experiences (s)</p> <p><b>Transfer/Use Cognates</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Use quick and easy cognates (V) [Giraffe زرافه (ZARAFAH); Cotton: قطن (COTN)]</li> </ul> <p><b>Substitute/Paraphrase</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Look for a different way to express the idea, like using synonyms (S, W)</li> <li>*Make up new words in English to communicate the unknown words [AIR BALL instead of BALOON] (S)</li> </ul> <p><i>Use your imagination:</i></p> <p><b>Use Imagery</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Create a mental image or picture that you associate with the word (V) [DARK: remember the Arabic word دارك (DARUK) which means your house and imagine your house with no light] or create a mental image while doing a writing or speaking or listening task (V, W, S, L)</li> </ul> <p><b>Real objects/Role play</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>*Practice saying new expressions to yourself (S)</li> </ul>

	<p>*Use gestures to get your meaning across (S)          *Act out or draw the word (S)</p> <p><i>Use your organizational skills:</i></p> <p><b>Find/Apply Patterns</b>          *Figure out and model native speakers' language patterns when apologizing, requesting or complaining (S, W)</p> <p><b>Group/Classify</b>          *Place the word in a topic group in English (V) [excuse, pardon, apology]          *Group your vocabulary (V) [ parts of speech; theme or topic; synonyms and antonyms]</p> <p><b>Use Graphic Organizers/Take notes</b>          *Write new words (V)</p> <p><b>Summarize</b>          *Write summaries (R)</p> <p><b>Selective attention</b>          *Distinguish one sound from another; e.g. <i>sit</i> and <i>seat</i> (L)          *Listen for keywords (L)          *Skim listening (L)          *Use both top-down and bottom-up listening strategies (L)          *Skim the text (R)          *Scan the text (R)          *Use both top-down and bottom-up tactics (R)          *Read between the lines (R)          *Identify keywords and sentences carrying the main ideas (R)</p> <p><i>Use a variety of resources:</i></p> <p><b>Access information sources</b>          *Use a dictionary (V)          *Use flash cards (V)</p> <p><b>Cooperate</b>          *Ask questions to be involved in a conversation (S)          *Ask for help while speaking (S)          *Ask teachers or friends to correct your mistakes (S, W)</p> <p><b>Talk yourself through it</b>          *Encourage yourself [by saying: I can do it] (R, W, L, S, V)          *Reduce your anxiety (R, W, L, S, V)</p>
--	--

R: Reading; W: Writing, L: Listening; S: Speaking; V: Vocabulary. Strategies in **Bold** are general strategies from NCLRC (2004), strategies beneath are taken from Cohen *et al.* (2002a) LSUS and Paige *et al.* (2006).

## Appendix E: CARLA Summer Institute

### UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Twin Cities Campus

Center for Advanced Research on  
Language Acquisition  
Global Programs and Strategy Alliance

140 University International Center  
331 17<sup>th</sup> Avenue Southeast  
Minneapolis, MN 55414 USA  
Phone: 612-626-8600  
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carla@umn.edu

### Certification of Clock Hours for Professional Development\*

This is to certify that I enrolled in the CARLA Program entitled:

*Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction · July 14–18, 2014*

I attended for 30 hours (30 hours maximum)

  
(Signature of attendee)

18 July, 2014  
(Date)

Ibrahim Alzahmani  
(Print name of attendee)

The *Improving Language Learning: Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction* summer institute was held **July 14–18, 2014** at the University of Minnesota in Minneapolis, MN. This institute was sponsored by the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) as a professional continuing education opportunity for second language educators.

If you have questions about this institute, please contact the CARLA office at (612) 626-8600.

  
Martha Nyikos  
Instructor

*\*This certificate is not valid without an instructor's signature.*

white copy to program participant · yellow copy to instructor



## **Appendix F: Themes of Structured Interviews**

### **Themes of students' structured interviews**

#### **A) Students' feedback on their strategy awareness before and after the programme**

1. Before this strategy instruction programme, have you ever heard about LLS? If yes, when and where?
2. Has the programme raised your awareness towards LLS? If yes, how? If no, why?

#### **B) Students' feedback on the effect of the programme on their learning process**

3. Before this programme, have you ever thought of the way you learn language through? for example how your brain processes new words in English. If yes, explain how? If no, why?
4. Has this programme changed your way of learning English? If yes, how? If no, why?
5. After doing this programme, do you think you can combine or cluster using strategies? In other words, do you think you can use more than one strategy to accomplish a task or to learn some new words? If yes, can you give an example? If no, why?

#### **C) Students' feedback on the effect of the programme on their language proficiency**

6. Your reading score in the post-test is higher/lower than your pre-test score, what do you think has helped you/has lowered your score? Any role for strategy instruction?
7. Your writing score in the post-test is higher/lower than your pre-test score, what do you think has helped you/has lowered your score? Any role for strategy instruction?
8. Your listening score in the post-test is higher/lower than your pre-test score, what do you think has helped you/has lowered your score? Any role for strategy instruction?
9. Your speaking score in the post-test is higher/lower than your pre-test score, what do you think has helped you/has lowered your score? Any role for strategy instruction?
10. Your vocabulary score in the post-test is higher/lower than your pre-test score, what do you think has helped you/has lowered your score? Any role for strategy instruction?

#### **D) Students' feedback on the effect of the programme on their learning styles**

11. When was the first time you identified your learning styles? And how did you feel after identifying your learning styles?
12. Do you think that items listed in the Learning Styles Survey or some of them properly describe you?
13. Do you think that identifying your learning style is helpful for the learning process? If yes, why? If no, why?
14. The Learning Styles Survey showed that your learning style is ..... can you remember some strategies that you preferred using?

#### **E) Students' feedback on the effect of the programme on their strategy learning**

15. What strategies have you learnt from the programme to deal with reading tasks? Why have you learnt them?
16. What strategies have you learnt from the programme to deal with writing tasks? Why have you learnt them?
17. What strategies have you learnt from the programme to deal with listening tasks? Why have you learnt them?
18. What strategies have you learnt from the programme to deal with speaking tasks? Why have you learnt them?
19. What strategies have you learnt from the programme to deal with new English words? Why have you learnt them?

## **Themes of teachers' structured interviews in the experimental group**

### **A) Teachers' previous background about LLS**

1. Before this programme, have you ever heard about LLS? If yes when and where?
2. Before this programme, have you ever taught LLS in your classroom? If yes, please give more details. (Explicitly or implicitly? In Arabic or in English?, when?, was it effective?)

### **B) Teachers' feedback on strategy instruction through a language textbook**

3. How did you find teaching LLS through a language textbook? Was it difficult/easy?
4. How did you find teaching LLS through a language textbook? Was it effective/ineffective?
5. After finishing this programme, how important is it to explicitly present LLS in language textbooks? And why?
6. In Language Leader, Lesson 4, at the end of each unit which is always titled by Study and Writing Skills, tries to present and teach LLS explicitly through the textbook, how did you find its helpfulness to students?
7. What do you recommend language curriculum designers and publishers to consider from LLS perspective?

### **C) Teachers' feedback on the Teacher's Booklet**

8. How was the role of the Teacher's Booklet in teaching LLS through a language textbook?
9. Did you manage to follow the Teacher's Booklet during the period of intervention? Was time to teach strategies in each unit enough?
10. What did you like/dislike about the Teacher's Booklet?
11. If you are going to teach another language textbook that does not explicitly teach LLS, would you design your own booklet to teach LLS?

### **D) Teachers feedback on the taught strategies**

12. How did you find the appropriateness of taught strategies to their corresponding exercises in the language textbook?

13. How do you believe it is helpful to students do a given exercise using more than one strategy?
14. Was teaching strategies time consuming? Why?

**E) Teachers' feedback on the Styles- and Strategies- Based Instruction Framework**

15. How did you manage to follow the Styles- and Strategies-Based Instruction framework's five steps in teaching strategies?
16. How did you find teaching strategies explicitly in the classroom in Arabic?

**F) Teachers' feedback on the strategy instruction programme**

17. Do you think that the strategy instruction programme raised students' strategy awareness? If yes, can you give examples? If no, why?
18. Do you think that the strategy instruction programme affected students' language proficiency? If yes how? If no why?
19. Do you think that LLS are needed to be taught in a separate programme or integrated in regular language classes? And why?
20. What advantages and disadvantages of teaching LLS explicitly in a language classroom?
21. Generally, how do you evaluate the effect of teaching LLS explicitly in the classroom?

**Themes of teachers' structured interviews in the control group:**

**A) Teachers' previous background about LLS**

1. Have you ever heard about LLS? If yes, when and where?
2. Do you explicitly teach LLS in your language classes? If yes, go to B; if no go to C?

**B) Teachers teaching LLS**

1. When do you usually teach LLS? Before/after accomplishing a task or whenever appropriate?
2. What language skill(s) (Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking, Vocabulary) do you mostly teach LLS for? And why?
3. Can you give examples for LLS you usually teach? And why particularly these strategies?
4. How do you teach LLS to your students in the classroom? Explicitly or implicitly? Why?
5. What language do you use while teaching LLS in the classroom? English or Arabic or both? Why?
6. Do you find teaching LLS in the classroom effective? If yes, in what way?

**C) Teachers not teaching LLS**

1. Why don't you teach LLS to students?
2. Do you pay attention to your students' way of learning?

3. From your point of view, what makes good language learners better than poor language learners?
4. If I have told you that there are techniques, tactics, actions, or behaviors we can teach to our students to be better learners; would you try to know more about them? And would you try teaching them to students?



## Appendix G: Students' Profiles

### Student Profile1: Abdul

*Style:* Visual

*Status:* Successful learner

*Pre- and post-LSUS:*

Options on LSUS	Pre	Post
I use this strategy and like it	27	44
I have tried this strategy and would use it again	41	35
I've never used this strategy	13	4
This strategy doesn't fit for me	2	0

*Pre- and post-tests scores out of 10:*

Language Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Total out of 100
Reading	6.25	10	
Writing	4.5	6.75	
Listening	8	7	
Speaking	8	9	
Vocabulary	8	8	
<b>Total</b>	34.75	40.75	75.5

*Strategies linked to style:*

- Flash cards
- Semantic mapping
- Watching speakers' gestures to understand meaning
- Use a dictionary

### Student Profile 2: Saad

*Style:* Auditory

*Status:* Less-successful learner

*Pre- and post-LSUS:*

Options on LSUS	Pre	Post
I use this strategy and like it	38	45
I have tried this strategy and would use it again	14	17
I've never used this strategy	22	12
This strategy doesn't fit for me	9	9

*Pre- and post-tests scores out of 10:*

Language Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Total out of 100
Reading	6.25	6.25	
Writing	0	1.25	
Listening	2	8	
Speaking	6	6	
Vocabulary	3	5	
<b>Total</b>	17.25	26.5	43.75

*Strategies linked to style:*

- Link sounds of new words to words in Arabic or English
- Check how the word is pronounced by native speakers
- Listen to the speaker's tone of voice to understand the situation of the speaker
- Use cognates
- Listen to stressed words or sentences to understand the meaning

### Student Profile 3: Khamis

*Style:* Kinaesthetic/Tactile

*Status:* Successful learner

*Pre- and post-LSUS:*

Options on LSUS	Pre	Post
I use this strategy and like it	19	39
I have tried this strategy and would use it again	16	17
I've never used this strategy	12	3
This strategy doesn't fit for me	36	24

*Pre- and post-tests scores out of 10:*

Language Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Total out of 100
Reading	8.75	10	
Writing	5	5.25	
Listening	6	9	
Speaking	6	8	
Vocabulary	9	10	
<b>Total</b>	34.75	42.25	77

*Strategies linked to style:*

- Act out new words
- Use semantic mapping
- Predict what a speaker might say
- Use gestures to get the meaning across
- Practice spelling of new words

#### Student Profile 4: Ghaith

*Style:* Extroverted

*Status:* Less-successful learner

*Pre- and post-LSUS:*

Options on LSUS	Pre	Post
I use this strategy and like it	19	54
I have tried this strategy and would use it again	35	22
I've never used this strategy	27	4
This strategy doesn't fit for me	2	3

*Pre- and post-tests scores out of 10:*

Language Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Total out of 100
Reading	3.75	5	
Writing	0	2.5	
Listening	6	8	
Speaking	6	8	
Vocabulary	3	3	
<b>Total</b>	18.75	25.5	44.25

*Strategies linked to style:*

- Attend out of class event to practice English
- Look at parts of new words particularly prefixes and suffixes
- Make association to learn new words

#### Student Profile 5: Nehad

*Style:* Introverted

*Status:* Successful learner

*Pre- and post-LSUS:*

Options on LSUS	Pre	Post
I use this strategy and like it	36	38
I have tried this strategy and would use it again	15	33
I've never used this strategy	6	7
This strategy doesn't fit for me	26	5

*Pre- and post-tests scores out of 10:*

Language Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Total out of 100
Reading	8.75	10	
Writing	2	3.25	
Listening	6	6	
Speaking	8	8	
Vocabulary	7	10	
<b>Total</b>	31.75	37.25	69

*Strategies linked to style:*

- Check prior knowledge of a topic
- Plan how to accomplish a task
- Place new words in a topic group

**Student Profile 6: Eisa***Style:* Global*Status:* Less-successful learner*Pre- and post-LSUS:*

Options on LSUS	Pre	Post
I use this strategy and like it	27	35
I have tried this strategy and would use it again	23	34
I've never used this strategy	19	11
This strategy doesn't fit for me	14	3

*Pre- and post-tests scores out of 10:*

Language Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Total out of 100
Reading	6.25	8.75	
Writing	3.5	5.25	
Listening	2	7	
Speaking	6	8	
Vocabulary	6	7	
<b>Total</b>	23.75	36	59.75

*Strategies linked to style:*

- Comprehend the message without understanding all details
- Accept some ambiguity while listening
- Infer the meaning of a sentence through provided clues
- Create mental images to associate with new words

**Student Profile 7: Turki***Style:* Particular*Status:* Less-successful learner*Pre- and post-LSUS:*

Options on LSUS	Pre	Post
I use this strategy and like it	19	47
I have tried this strategy and would use it again	24	32
I've never used this strategy	28	4
This strategy doesn't fit for me	12	0

*Pre- and post-tests scores out of 10:*

Language Skill	Pre-test score	Post-test score	Total out of 100
Reading	6.25	5	
Writing	1.75	5.25	
Listening	5	8	
Speaking	6	8	
Vocabulary	6	8	
<b>Total</b>	25	34.25	59.25

*Strategies linked to style:*

- Reread a text for clarification
- Correct myself while speaking
- Take a good look to new words
- Listen to particular details to help me understand

## Appendix H: Student Interview Sample

### A) Students' feedback on their strategy awareness before and after the programme

م: طيب يا خميس هل سمعت عن استراتيجيات تعلم اللغة قبل هذا البرنامج البرنامج المقصود فيه اللي هو تدريس الاستراتيجيات في الكلاسروم وحقيقة برنامج وان كان انه ما اشرنا له انه برنامج متكامل ولكنه كان مدمج يعني اشارك الاستراتيجيات ضمن تدريس اللغة الانجليزية فاعتبرناه برنامج سؤالي هل سمعت عن استراتيجيات تعلم اللغة قبل هذا البرنامج ؟

T: OK Khamis, before this strategy instruction programme, have you ever heard about LLS (by the programme, I mean teaching strategies in the classroom in other words integrating strategy instruction). Have you ever heard about LLS before being involved in this programme?

خ: لا

K: No

م: هل زاد برنامج تدريس الاستراتيجيات من وعيك باستراتيجيات تعلم اللغة؟

T: Has the strategy instruction programme raised your awareness towards LLS?

خ: نعم

K: Yes

م: كيف؟

T: How?

خ: كثير بالعكس الحين افكر في كل شيء باسويه افكر ان هذه استراتيجية كل شيء اسويه يعني الحين قاعد اقرا بتركيز الحين استراتيجية انا الحين ب يعني اي طريقة افكر انها ممكن تكون استراتيجية اي طريقة تكون يمكن انها تكون استراتيجية للحل يعني انا الحين لمن اتذكر ايش كنت اسوي قبل ما ادرس انجليزي في الكلية كنت اجرب بعض الافكار عفويا مثل تمثيل بعض الافعال الحركية كالقفز والسقوط والحبو بس البرنامج حق الاستراتيجيات نبهني اكثر اني افكر دائما في طرق جيدة لتعلم اللغة اثناء عمل اي مهارة لغوية . بالنسبة لي الاستراتيجيات صابرة جزء مهم لتعلم اللغة الانجليزية

K: Too much. Now, I think of everything I do while learning to be a strategy. Everything I do. Now when I read with more focus it is a strategy. Any way might be a strategy to accomplish a task. Now when I remember what I used to do while learning English before joining the college, I would spontaneously try some ideas such as physically acting the action of some verbs such as jump, fall, and crawl. But the strategies programme increased my awareness to always think of good ways when intending to accomplish any language task. For me, LLS have become a very important part for learning English.

### B) Students' feedback on the effect of the programme on their learning process

م: طيب قبل هذا البرنامج هل سبق ان فكرت في طريقة تعلمك للغة على سبيل المثال كيف يقوم عقلك بالتعامل مع المفردات الانجليزية الجديدة ؟

T: Okay. Before this programme, have you ever thought of the way you learn language through? For example how your brain processes new words in English?

خ: لا والله ما قد فكرت في طريقتي لتعلم اللغة. انا اتعلم اللغة وبس لانني ما اعرف كيف ممكن يشتغل المخ اثناء تعلم اللغة

K: No. I've never thought of my own way of language learning. I just learn the language because I don't know how the brain works while I learn the language.

م: طيب جيد يا خميس هل غير هذا البرنامج من طريقة تعلمك للغة الانجليزية ؟

T: OK. Good Khamis. Has this programme changed your way of learning English?

خ: نعم

K: Yes

م: كيف؟ كيف غير برنامج تدريس الاستراتيجيات من طريقة تعلمك للغة الانجليزية؟

T: How? How has the programme changed your way of learning English?

خ: في اعتقادي ان طريقي في تعلم اللغة تغيرت باتجاه الطريق الصحيح. فبرنامج تدريس الاستراتيجيات ساعدني في تغيير طريقي التقليدية لحل التمارين. في السابق كنت احل التمرين دون اي تخطيط ولكن بعد هذا البرنامج لابد ان افكر في استراتيجيات جيدة لحل التمرين.

**K:** I think that my way of language learning has changed to the right way. The strategy instruction programme helped me to change my traditional way of dealing with exercises. I used to accomplish an exercise without any planning, but after this programme, I need to think of good strategies to do the exercise.

م: جميل . طيب يا خميس بعد الاشتراك في هذا البرنامج هل تعتقد انك اصبحت قادر على دمج الاستراتيجيات في وقت واحد؟ بمعنى اخر هل تظن انك قادر على استخدام اكثر من استراتيجية في وقت واحد؟

**T:** Cool. Okay Khamis. After doing this programme, do you think you can combine or cluster using strategies? In other words, do you think you can use more than one strategy to accomplish a task or to learn some new words?

خ: تقصد استخدام اكثر من استراتيجية اثناء تعلم اللغة؟

**K:** Do you mean using more than a strategy while learning language?

م: نعم اثناء تعلم اللغة او اثناء اداء احدى المهارات او حل احدى التمارين

**T:** Yes. During learning language or accomplishing a task or doing an exercise

خ: نعم

**K:** Yes

م: اعطني مثال على ذلك؟

**T:** Give me an example on that?

خ: تعلمت من البرنامج ان استخدم اكثر من استراتيجية في نفس الوقت. مثلا في ال speaking ابادر بفتح محادثات باللغة الانجليزية ولما واجه صعوبة في الكلام باستخدام كلمات معينة احاول استخدام كلمات ثانية اعرفها او استخدم بعض الحركات الجسدية لتوصيل الفكرة او اطلب المساعدة من الشخص المتحدث معي

**K:** I have learnt from the programme to use more than one strategy simultaneously. For instance, in speaking, I initiate conversations in English and when I find it difficult to express myself, I try expressing myself in other ways using other familiar words or use gestures to deliver my message or ask the interlocutor for help

### **C) Students' feedback on the effect of the programme on their language proficiency**

م: جيد جيد لو نلاحظ درجاتك يا خميس في الاختبار الاول قبل ما نبدا ندرس استراتيجيات والاختبار المقدم بعد ما انتهى برنامج تدريس الاستراتيجيات فلو نلاحظ درجاتك في ال reading القراءة تحسنت تتوقع فيه سبب معين لتحسن درجتك في الاختبار الثاني ؟ هل هناك اي دور لتدريس الاستراتيجيات؟

**T:** Good Good. When we consider your reading score Khamis in the pre-test before we start strategy instruction and compare it to your post-test score after the end of strategy instruction we can notice that your reading score improved. Is there any reason for this improvement in the post-test? Is there any role for strategy instruction?

خ: نعم استراتيجيات القراءة التي تعلمتها اثناء برنامج تدريس الاستراتيجيات كان لها دور في تحسن مستواي في القراءة باللغة الانجليزية

**K:** Yes. The reading strategies which I learnt through the strategy instruction programme played role in improving my reading in English.

م: طيب يا خميس في ال writing الكتابة درجتك تحسنت بشكل بسيط جدا ربع درجة افضل في الاختبار الثاني من الاختبار الاول هل هناك سبب معين لهذا التحسن؟ ام هل هناك دور لاستراتيجيات الكتابة التي تم تدريسها في البرنامج؟

**T:** Okay Khamis. In writing your score slightly improved, just a quarter of a mark higher in your post-test. Is there any reason for this improvement? Is there any role for the writing strategies taught in the programme?

خ: طبعا استراتيجيات الكتابة المقدمة في البرنامج كانت مفيدة في تحسين الكتابة لكن الكتابة تحتاج الكثير من الوقت والتعود لكي تتحسن بشكل افضل

**K:** Of course the writing strategies presented in the programme were helpful in improving writing however writing requires extra time and practice to be well-improved

م: جيد طيب في ال listening يعني مهارة السماع درجتك تحسنت بشكل كبير يعني في الاختبار الثاني درجتك كانت اعلى من الاول بكثير هل كان هناك دور لاستراتيجيات السماع المقدمة في البرنامج ؟ ام هناك سبب اخر لهذا التحسن؟

**T:** Good. OK. In listening your post-test score was much higher than your pre-test score. Was there any role for the listening strategies presented in the programme? Or was there any other reason for this improvement?

خ: اعتقد انا تحسنت في ال listening لاني اصبحت اتابع التلفزيون واستمع للراديو لفترات طويلة باللغة الانجليزية

**K:** I think my listening improved so much because I have been watching TV and listening to radio in English for long hours

م: جميل يا خميس طيب درجتك في الاختبار الثاني افضل من الاختبار الاول في مهارة ال speaking او المحادثة ما هو السبب برأيك ؟ ام هل هناك دور لاستراتيجيات التحدث التي تعلمتها اثناء البرنامج؟

**T:** Cool Khamis. OK. Your post-test score is better than your pre-test score in speaking, what is the reason do you think? Or is there any role for the speaking strategies you learnt through the programme?

خ: اظن ان استراتيجيات ال speaking التي تعلمتها في البرنامج كانت جزء من تطوري في ال speaking لكن ممارسة التحدث بالانجليزي داخل الكلية كان هو السبب الرئيسي لتحسن مستواي

**K:** I believe that the speaking strategies I learnt through the programme were part of progress in speaking, but practicing English inside the campus of the college was mainly behind my progress

م: طيب يا خميس درجتك في اختبار المفردات الاول ممتازة حيث حصلت على تسع درجات من عشرة وحصلت على درجة كاملة في اختبار المفردات الثاني ما هو السبب برأيك ؟ هل كان لتدريس استراتيجيات المفردات في برنامج تدريس الاستراتيجيات اي دور في تحسن درجتك؟

**T:** OK Khamis. You had an excellent score in your pre-test vocabulary as you scored nine out of ten and then you scored a full mark in your post-test vocabulary, what is the reason do you think? Is there any role for the vocabulary strategies taught in the strategy instruction programme?

خ: طبعا نعم استراتيجيات تعلم المفردات هي افكار ذكية للتعلم المفردات بشكل سريع

**K:** Of course yes, vocabulary strategies are intelligent ideas for quick learning

#### **D) Students' feedback on the effect of the programme on their learning styles**

م: اذا نتذكر يا خميس بداية الترم عملنا استبيان لمعرفة انماط التعلم متى كانت اول مرة عملت فيها استبيان لمعرفة انماطك التعليمية؟ وما هو شعورك بعد معرفة انماطك التعليمية؟

**T:** If you remember Khamis, we have completed a survey to identify learning styles at the beginning of the semester, when was the first time you identified your learning styles? And how did you feel after identifying your learning styles?

خ: صراحة هذه اول مرة اعبئ فيها استبيان واتعرف من خلاله على انماط التعلم. حقيقة اصلا انا اول مرة اسمع عن انماط التعلم هذه معك يا استاذ ولكن كان شعور بالنسبة لي ممتاز اني عرفت عن نفسي بعض الاشياء ما كنت اتخيلها اصلا

**K:** Frankly, it was the first time ever I completed a survey to identify my learning styles. Actually, this is the first time ever I hear about learning styles from you teacher but it was an excellent feeling to know something about myself which I have never imagined

م: طيب يا خميس هل تعتقد ان كل العناصر المذكورة في استبيان انماط التعلم او بعض تلك العناصر فعلا تصف حالتك بشكل صحيح؟

**T:** OK Khamis. Do you think that items listed in the Learning Styles Survey or some of them properly describe you?

خ: لا اذكر الان بشكل جيد ولكن اعتقد ان اغلبها كان يوصف طريقتي في التعلم بشكل قريب جدا من الواقع

م: جميل طيب هل تعتقد ان معرفة نمطك التعليمي مفيدة للعملية التعليمية ؟  
T: Cool. OK. Do you think that identifying your learning style is helpful for the learning process?

**K:** I didn't understand the question can you say it again?

**T:** Definitely. Now you identified your learning styles, do you think that it is important for the learner to identify his learning styles while learning?

**K:** Of course. Certainly. Identifying learning styles is important as the learner will know more about himself for instance when I identified that I am a kinaesthetic/tactile learner, this raised my awareness about my behaviours and how I can learn English better

**T:** And this is what made me allow you to move freely in the classroom while your classmates were sitting down hhhhhhhhhh

**K:** hhhhhhhhhhhh this is true teacher I swear that I was getting very bored when I sit down for a long period of time

**T:** OK Khamis. You have just mentioned that your learning style is kinaesthetic/tactile can you remember some strategies that you preferred using?

**K:** I liked many strategies in this programme but I remember that I liked to practice new action verbs by acting them out, and I liked using semantic mapping, and I liked predicting what the speaker might say, and also I liked using gestures to get meaning across and practicing the spellings of new words

**T:** Cool Khamis. Now I will ask you what strategies have you learnt from the programme to deal with reading tasks? Why have you learnt them?

**K:** I have learnt some beneficial strategies I can use while reading a passage in English such as prediction and using prior knowledge about the topic I am reading. This strategy is an essential strategy we may use but we are unaware of its benefit

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**T:** OK. What are the strategies you have learnt from the programme to deal with writing, I mean writing strategies you have learnt from the programme? Why have you learnt them?

**خ:** بالنسبة لاستراتيجيات الكتابة تعلمت انه من المفيد ان اناقش الموضوع مع احد الاشخاص قبل الكتابة عنه. هذه الاستراتيجية تساعدني على كتابة كثير من النقاط عن الموضوع قبل الكتابة الفعلية. وايضا تعلمت ان اصحح الاخطاء اللغوية والملائية بعد كتابة كامل النص

**K:** For writing strategies I have learnt that discussing a topic with someone before writing is helpful. This enables me to write many notes before I write. I have also learnt to edit grammar and mechanics after I finish writing the whole paragraph

**م:** حلو طيب ماهي استراتيجيات السماع التي تعلمتها من البرنامج للتعامل مع الانشطة السمعية؟ ولماذا تعلمتها؟

**T:** Cool. OK. What are the listening strategies you have learnt from the programme to deal with listening tasks? Why have you learnt them?

**خ:** ال listening strategies ؟

**K:** Listening strategies?

**م:** نعم

**T:** Yes

**خ:** علمني برنامج الاستراتيجيات ان استمع للمهم فقط اذا اردت فهم الفكرة اجمالا دون الحاجة للانتباه للتفاصيل. وايضا تعلمت ان اصغي اكثر للكلمات الدالة التي قد توصل المعنى

**K:** The strategies programme taught me to skim listening if I want to get the main idea and without paying attention to details. I also learnt to listen for keywords that may convey the meaning

**م:** طيب ياخاميس ماهي ال speaking strategies او استراتيجيات التحدث التي تعلمتها من برنامج تدريس الاستراتيجيات للتعامل مع الانشطة الكلامية؟ ولماذا تعلمتها؟

**T:** OK Khamis. What strategies or speaking strategies have you learnt from the strategy instruction programme to deal with speaking tasks? Why have you learnt them?

**خ:** لل speaking تعلمت استراتيجيات جيدة. مثلا تعلمت ان اسأل المتحدث الآخر ان يساعدني اثناء الكلام. وهذه الاستراتيجية شجعتني ان اكون اكثرطلاقة بالانجليزي. ايضا علمني البرنامج ان امثل او ارسوم الكلمات التي لا اعرفها بالانجليزي كي اوصل رسالتي. استخدمت هذه الاستراتيجية قبل البرنامج دون ان اعرف انها استراتيجية تعلم ولكني استخدمها الان للتعبير عن نفسي جسديا حينما لا استطع التعبير كلاميا

**K:** For speaking, I have learnt good strategies. For example I have learnt to ask for help while speaking. This strategy encouraged me to be more fluent in English. The programme also taught me to act out or draw words to deliver my message. This strategy was used unconsciously before this programme, but now I will continue using it to express myself if I couldn't in spoken language

**م:** جميل الان ماهي استراتيجيات المفردات التي تعلمتها من خلال هذا البرنامج للتعامل مع المفردات الانجليزية الجديدة ؟ ولماذا تعلمتها؟

**T:** Cool. Now what are the vocabulary strategies you have learnt from the programme to deal with new English words? Why have learnt them?

**خ:** كان فيه مجموعة استراتيجيات مفيدة لتعلم المفردات اخذناها في البرنامج. واحدة منها استراتيجية التوأم بين الكلمات العربية والانجليزية مثل كلمة camel . ايضا تعلمت ان اعمل نظرة ثابتة للمفردات الجديدة . هذه الاستراتيجية تمكني من تهجي الكلمة . ايضا تعلمت استراتيجية رسم الخرائط البصرية والتي ساعدتني ان اتعلم الكثير من المفردات الانجليزية مع بعض

**K:** There are many useful vocabulary strategies I have learnt through this programme. One of them is using Arabic and English cognates such as camel . I also learnt to take a good look at new words. This strategy enables me to check the spelling. I also learnt to draw semantic maps that assisted me to learn many new English words together

**م:** طيب شكرا جزيلا لك ياخاميس على المشاركة في هذه المقابلة هل ترغب في اضافة اي شيء؟

**T:** OK. Thank you so much Khamis for your participation in this interview. Would you like to add anything?

خ: لا ماعندي شيء اضيفه شكرا لك

**K:** No I have nothing to add thank you

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