

T.C.
ORDU ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

İNGİLİZ DİLİ VE EDEBİYATI ANA BİLİM DALI



**EFFECTS OF SUPPORTING STUDENTS WITH INSTRUCTIONS ON
LANGUAGE LEARNING SKILLS: AN ACTION RESEARCH**

YAZAR

Çağla ATASOY ŞAL

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

DANIŞMAN

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ercan TOMAKİN

ORDU- 2024

TEZ KABUL SAYFASI

Çağla ATASOY ŞAL tarafından hazırlanan “**Effects of Supporting Students with Instructions on Language Learning Skills: An Action Research**” başlıklı bu çalışma, **28.06.2024** tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak, jürimiz tarafından **YÜKSEK LİSANS tezi** olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Başkan	Doç. Dr. Cüneyt ÖZATA Ordu Üniversitesi / Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi	İmza
Üye	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Semih OKATAN Kafkas Üniversitesi / Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi	İmza
Üye	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi, Ercan TOMAKİN Ordu Üniversitesi / Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi	İmza

ETİK BEYANI

Tez Yazım Kurallarına uygun olarak hazırladığım bu tez çalışmasında; tez içinde sunduğum verileri, bilgileri ve dokümanları akademik ve etik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi, tüm bilgi, belge, değerlendirme ve sonuçları bilimsel etik ve ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu, tez çalışmasında yararlandığım eserlerin tümüne uygun atıfta bulunarak kaynak gösterdiğimi, kullanılan verilerde herhangi bir değişiklik yapmadığımı, bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu, bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarını kabullendiğimi beyan ederim.

Çağla ATASOY ŞAL

ÖZET

İNGİLİZ DİLİ VE EDEBİYATI

ÖĞRENCİLERİ DİL BECERİLERİNİ ÖĞRENME KONUSUNDA YÖNERGELERLE DESTEKLEMENİN ETKİLERİ: BİR EYLEM ARAŞTIRMASI

ÇAĞLA ATASOY ŞAL

Bu eylem araştırmasının amacı, öğrencilere dil öğrenme becerileri konusunda yönergeler vermenin, öğrencilerin dil öğrenme becerileri ile İngilizce'ye olan algılarını ve İngilizce dersindeki akademik başarılarını nasıl etkilediğini araştırmaktır. Çalışma, Türkiye'de bir devlet ortaokulunda, 2022-2023 eğitim-öğretim yılının ikinci döneminde 6. sınıf öğrencilerinin ($n=14$) katılımıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Nitel ve nicel veriler, yarı-yapılandırılmış görüşmeler, gözlemler, öğretmen günlüğü ve İngilizce sınavları aracılığı ile toplanmıştır. Veri analizlerinin sonuçları, öğrencilerin eylem araştırması çalışması öncesinde dil becerilerini nasıl öğrenecekleri konusunda herhangi bir ön bilgiye sahip olmamalarına rağmen, bu beceriler konusunda yönerge almayı ve bu yönergeleri uygulamayı sevindiklerini göstermiştir. Aynı şekilde, verilen yönergelerin etkileri öğrenciden öğrenciye değişmiş ve İngilizce'de daha yetkin öğrenciler diğerlerine göre daha fazla yönerge uygulamıştır. Ayrıca bulgular yönerge vermenin öğrencilerin dil öğrenme becerileri ile İngilizce'ye olan algılarını olumlu olarak etkilediğini ve yönerge aldıktan sonra öğrencilerin akademik başarılarının da yükseldiğini işaret etmektedir. Bu çalışma, eylem araştırmaları yapmanın öğretmen ve öğrencilerin öğretme ve öğrenme süreçlerine fayda sağladığını da göstermiştir. Bu bulguların ışığında, gelecek çalışmalar için önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Eylem araştırması, Yönerge verme, İngilizce dersi, Dil öğrenme becerileri, Öğrencilerin algıları, Öğrencilerin akademik başarıları

ABSTRACT

ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

EFFECTS OF SUPPORTING STUDENTS WITH INSTRUCTIONS ON LANGUAGE LEARNIN SKILLS: AN ACTION RESEARCH

ÇAĞLA ATASOY ŞAL

This action research study aims to examine how giving students instructions on language learning skills affect their perceptions towards language learning skills and English; and their academic achievements in English lesson. The study was undertaken with 6th grade students ($n=14$) during the second term of 2022-2023 academic year in a state secondary school in Türkiye. The qualitative and quantitative data were collected through semi-instructed interviews, observations, teacher diary and English exams. The results of the data analysis have shown that although students did not have any pre-knowledge on language learning skills before this AR study, they liked receiving and implementing the instructions on these skills. Similarly, the impact of these instructions changed from one student to another and more competent students in English implemented more instructions compared to their less competent ones. Besides, the findings indicated that giving instructions positively affected students' perceptions on language learning skills and English; and their academic achievements improved better after receiving instructions. This study also revealed that undertaking action research would be beneficial for teachers and students in the teaching and learning processes. In the light of these findings, the recommendations were identified for future studies.

Key Words: Action research, Giving instructions, English lesson, Language learning skills, Students' perceptions, Students' academic achievements

TEŞEKKÜR

Öncelikle, yaklaşık üç yıl süren bu yolculukta olağanüstü desteğini ve yönlendirmelerini benden esirgemeyen danışmanım Sayın Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ercan TOMAKİN'e şükranlarımı ve içten teşekkürlerimi sunmak isterim. Bu tez çalışması, danışmanımın beni zor ve stresli zamanlarımda motive eden kıymetli dönütleri ve cesaretlendirmeleri olmasaydı tamamlanamazdı.

Akademik araştırma ve yazım konusunda öğrettikleri kıymetli bilgiler ile tez yazım sürecimi kolaylaştıran Sayın Prof. Dr. Turgay HAN ve Sayın Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Nilüfer AYBİRDİ TANRIVERDİ'ye de ayrıca teşekkür ederim. Bu süreçte, öğrettikleri sayesinde kendimi daha rahat ve özgüvenli hissettiğim aşıkardır.

Bu tez çalışmasının tam anlamıyla tamamlanması için zaman ayırıp yol gösterici ve değerli dönütlerde bulunan jüri üyelerim Sayın Doç. Dr. Cüneyt ÖZATA ve Sayın Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Semih OKATAN'a şükranlarımı sunmak istiyorum.

Bu çalışmanın temel taşı olan öğrencilerime de müteşekkir olduğumu belirtmek isterim. Çalışma sürecince göstermiş oldukları ilgi ve istek benim için çok önemliydi. Ayrıca, çocuklarının çalışmaya katılmasına izin veren velilerime de teşekkürü bir borç bilirim.

Son olarak, annem Nurhan ATASOY'a, babam Ahmet ATASOY'a ve ablam Eda ATASOY'a minnetlerimi sunmak isterim. Ne zaman ve nerede ihtiyacım olsa daima yanımdaydılar. Ayrıca, ne zaman umutsuzluğa düşsem, desteğini, cesaretlendirmesini ve sabrını benden esirgemeyen eşim Emre ŞAL'a özellikle teşekkür ederim.

Çağla ATASOY ŞAL

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
TEZ KABUL SAYFASI	ii
ETİK BEYANI	iii
ÖZET	iv
ABSTRACT	v
TEŞEKKÜR	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF PICTURES	xv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xvi
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. The Term ‘Instruction’ in Various Context	1
1.2. Dictionary Meaning	1
1.3. The Term ‘Instruction’ in Legal Documents	2
1.3.1. Constitutional Instruction	2
1.3.2. Legal act: The National Education Basic Law (NEBL)	2
1.4. The Term ‘Instruction’ in Educational Documents	2
1.4.1. The instructions in the national curriculum	2
1.4.2. The instructions in the English course books	4
1.5. Background of the Study	5
1.6. The Problem Statement.....	8
1.7. Importance of the Study.....	10
1.8. Aim of the Study	13
1.9. Research Questions.....	15
1.10. Summary.....	15
1.11. Outline of the Thesis.....	16
CHAPTER II: INSTRUCTIONS FOR EACH SKILL AND RELATED LITERATURE	17
2.1. Introduction.....	17
2.2. Skills in the Literature.....	17
2.2.1. Instructions for listening skill	18

2.2.2. Instructions for speaking skill.....	18
2.2.3. Instructions for reading skill.....	20
2.2.4. Instructions for writing skill.....	21
2.2.5. Instructions for vocabulary skill.....	22
2.2.6. Instructions for grammar skill.....	23
2.2.7. Instructions for pronunciation skill.....	24
2.3. Children’s Features.....	26
2.4. Teenagers’ Features.....	27
2.5. Summary.....	28
2.6. A Review of Instruction-Based Studies.....	28
2.6.1. Learning a skill.....	28
2.6.2. Learning to learn English.....	29
2.6.3. Instructed studies on language learning skills.....	30
2.6.4. Instructed studies on listening skill.....	33
2.6.5. Instructed studies on speaking skill.....	36
2.6.6. Instructed studies on vocabulary skill.....	39
2.6.7. Instructed studies on grammar skill.....	43
2.6.8. Summary.....	45
CHAPTER III: A BRIEF LITERATURE REVIEW: ACTION RESEARCH.....	46
3.1. Introduction.....	46
3.2. Origin and Development of Action Research.....	46
3.3. Definitions and Objectives of Action Research.....	48
3.4. Types of Action Research.....	51
3.5. Models of Action Research.....	52
3.6. The Action Steps/Plans.....	53
3.7. Action Research and Language Teaching.....	55
3.8. Major Features of Action Research.....	56
3.9. Summary.....	59
CHAPTER IV: ACTION PLANS AND RATIONALE.....	60
4.1. Introduction.....	60
4.2. A Short Revisit.....	60
4.3. Further Rationale for Instructions.....	62
4.3.1. Rationale for listening instructions.....	62
4.3.2. Rationale for speaking instructions.....	63

4.3.3. Rationale for vocabulary instructions	65
4.3.4. Rationale for grammar instructions	66
4.3.3. Summary	67
CHAPTER V: METHODOLOGY	68
5.1. Introduction	68
5.2. Research Design	68
5.3. Research Method	69
5.4. Research Context	70
5.5. The Participants	71
5.6. Study Material	72
5.7. Data Collection Tools	72
5.7.1. Semi-structured interviews	73
5.7.2. Classroom observations	74
5.7.3. Diary	75
5.7.4. Achievement tests (Exams)	76
5.8. Research Procedure	77
5.8.1. Planning phase	77
5.8.2. Action phase	78
5.8.3. Observation phase	79
5.8.4. Reflection phase	80
5.8.5. Action cycle	80
5.9. Data Analysis	81
5.9.1. Qualitative analysis	81
5.9.2. Quantitative analysis	81
5.10. Reliability	82
5.11. Validity	82
5.12. Summary	83
CHAPTER VI: RESULTS	85
6.1. Introduction	85
6.2. Overall Situation Before AR Study	85
6.2.1. General climate of the school	85
6.2.2. General climate of the classroom	86
6.2.3. Researcher's observations on language teaching session	86
6.2.3.1. Further classification of teaching patters before AR study	87

6.2.3.2. The frequency of patterns.....	88
6.2.4. The classroom observations on students’ language learning skills	89
6.2.5. Evidence from teacher diary	91
6.3. Participant Students’ Views on Language Learning Skills Prior to AR Study	93
6.3.1. Students’ pre-knowledge about learning a skill.....	93
6.3.2. Discussion.....	94
6.3.3. Students’ pre-knowledge about listening skill.....	95
6.3.4. Discussion.....	96
6.3.5. Students’ pre-knowledge about speaking skill	96
6.3.6. Discussion.....	97
6.3.7. Students’ pre-knowledge about vocabulary skill.....	98
6.3.8. Discussion.....	98
6.3.9. Students’ pre-knowledge about grammar skill	99
6.3.10. Discussion.....	99
6.3.11. Students’ pre-knowledge towards studying English.....	100
6.3.12. Discussion.....	101
6.3.13. Students’ perceptions towards English	101
6.3.14. Discussion.....	102
6.3.15. Summary.....	102
6.4. Students’ Knowledge of Skills after Instruction Training	102
6.4.1. Students’ knowledge of listening skill after instruction	103
6.4.2. Discussion.....	104
6.4.3. Students’ knowledge of speaking skill after instruction.....	104
6.4.4. Discussion.....	105
6.4.5. Students’ knowledge of vocabulary skill after instruction	106
6.4.6. Discussion.....	107
6.4.7. Students’ knowledge of grammar skill after instruction.....	107
6.4.8. Discussion.....	108
6.4.9. Students’ perceptions towards studying English after instruction.....	109
6.4.10. Discussion.....	110
6.4.11. Students’ general perceptions towards English after instruction.....	110
6.4.12. Discussion.....	111
6.5. Other Evidences from Various Sources after Instruction	111
6.5.1. Observational notes	111

6.5.2. Diary notes.....	116
6.5.3. Students’ perceptions towards instructions and instruction cards	117
6.5.4. Discussion.....	119
6.5.5. Students’ perceptions on receiving instructions from other course teachers	120
6.5.6. Discussion.....	121
6.6. Analyses of Pre and Post-Instruction Exam Results.....	121
6.6.1. Students’ pre and post-instruction listening success	122
6.6.2. Students’ pre and post-instruction speaking success	122
6.6.3. Students’ pre and post-instruction vocabulary success	123
6.6.4. Students’ pre and post-instruction grammar success.....	124
6.6.5. Discussion of pre and post-instruction overall results.....	124
CHAPTER VII: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	126
7.1. Introduction.....	126
7.2. Discussion.....	126
7.2.1. Discussion of the first research question	126
7.2.2. Discussion of the second research question’s first sub-question.....	128
7.2.3. Discussion of the second research question’s second sub-question	128
7.3. Conclusion	129
7.4. Limitations	130
7.5. Implications	131
7.6. Recommendations for Future Research.....	132
REFERENCES.....	135
APPENDICES	158
Appendix A: A review of several current English books	158
Appendix B: Some action research models	159
Appendix C: Pre-interview questions	160
Appendix D: Post-interview questions	161
Appendix E: Outline of observations.....	162
Appendix F: Reflection questions.....	163
Appendix G: Outline of teacher diary.....	164
Appendix H: Pre-exam questions	165
Appendix I: Post-exam questions	168
Appendix J: Permission to conduct study.....	172
Appendix K: Ethics committee approval.....	174

Appendix L: Consent form	175
Appendix M: Teaching patterns before AR study	176
Appendix N: The frequencies of patterns	178
Appendix O: Detailed presentation of data analysis before AR study	179
Appendix P: Detailed presentation of data analysis after AR study	181
CURRICULUM VITAE	184

LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
Table 1.1 Suggested testing techniques for the assessment of language skills.....	3
Table 1.2 Model English curriculum	3
Table 1.3 Suggested contexts and tasks/activities.....	4
Table 6.1 Classification of teaching patterns before AR	88
Table 6.2 The frequencies of patterns	88
Table 6.3 Students' pre and post-instruction listening success.....	122
Table 6.4 Students' pre and post-instruction speaking success	122
Table 6.5 Students' pre and post-instruction vocabulary success.....	123
Table 6.6 Students' pre and post-instruction grammar success	124
Table 6.7 Students' general pre and post-instruction overall success.....	124
Table 7.1 A proposal for 2 nd grade course book instructions.....	133
Table 7.2 A proposal for 3 rd grade course book instructions	134

LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
Figure 2.1 Kemmis and McTaggart’s action research model	52
Figure 4.1 Action plans for listening	63
Figure 4.2 Action plans for speaking	65
Figure 4.3 Action plans for vocabulary	66
Figure 4.4 Action plans for grammar	67
Figure 5.1 The overall action research process	79
Figure 5.2 A flow of action phase of the study	80

LIST OF PICTURES

	<u>Page</u>
Picture 1.1 A Page from an 8 Grader Student’s English Notebook.....	11
Picture 5.1 A Page from Researcher’s Observational Notes	75
Picture 5.2 A Page from Researcher’s Diary Notes	76
Picture 6.1 Instruction Cards in Students’ Pencil Cases.....	112
Picture 6.2 A Semantic Map by S6.....	112
Picture 6.3 S1’s Desk at Classroom and S13’s Desk at Home	112
Picture 6.4 An Example of Visual Dictionary by S8.....	113
Picture 6.5 A Page of S10’s Notebook	113
Picture 6.6 Students Playing Grammar Games at Break Times	114
Picture 6.7 Students’ Listening Strategies for Exercises in English Textbook	115
Picture 6.8 Instruction Cards on S9’s Bulletin Board.....	117

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AL	: Action Learning
AR	: Action Research
AS	: Action Science
BEI	: British Education Index
BoE	: Board of Education
CAR	: Classroom Action Research
CEFR	: Common European Framework Reference
CoHE	: Council of Higher Education
CS	: Case Study
EAR	: Educational Action Research
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ELT	: English Language Teaching
EPA	: The Educational Priority Area
ERIC	: Educational Research Information Centre
FOAR	: First Order Action Research
FTP	: Ford Teaching Project
GIST	: The Girls into Science and Technology
HCP	: Humanities Curriculum Project
IPA	: International Phonetic Alphabet
L1	: First Language
L2	: Second Language
LC	: Listening Comprehension
LGS	: High School Entrance Exam
LLSs	: Language Learning Skills
MA	: Master of Arts
MoNE	: Ministry of National Education
NEBL	: The National Education Basic Law
PAR	: Participatory Action Research
RIA	: Reflection in Action
ROA	: Reflection on Action
RP	: Received Pronunciation
SILL	: Strategy Inventory for Language Learners
SOAR	: Second Order Action Research
TOEFL	: Test of English as a Foreign Language
TR	: Teacher Researcher
UK	: United Kingdom

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of the study is to examine the impact of action research (AR) based on Kemmis and McTaggart's (1988, p.11) model that measures the effects of instructional support for students on language learning skills (LLSs) and academic achievement in English courses. To this end, this chapter first explains the term 'instruction' in different contexts to set the scene. Since the term has different meanings in different fields and disciplines, the basic meanings of the term in the dictionary and in the law are briefly explained. It also explains how the term 'instruction' is used in education and in educational documents such as English language teaching programs, English textbooks and various supplementary materials. It continues with the explanation of the background, importance, problem statement, aims of the study and the research questions to be answered in the study. Finally, the chapter summary and the outline of the thesis is presented.

1.1. The Term 'Instruction' in Various Context

1.2. Dictionary Meaning

In order to clarify what is meant by instruction, the basic meaning of the term was looked up in two types of dictionaries: the first is a Turkish dictionary compiled by the Turkish Language Association and the other is an English dictionary compiled by Oxford University. According to the former dictionary, the term 'instruction' means:

an order, ... directive given from the upper authorities to the lower authorities on a certain basis for the way to be followed in any matter, the document in which these commandments are written, official documents issued to clarify the issues not addressed in the regulations. (Turkish Language Association, n.d.)

In the Oxford Dictionary, the term means “*detailed information about how to do or use something*” (Oxford University Press, n.d.). From these definitions, it appears that an instruction is a command or explanation of how to do something. This definition is important in that we will see in sections ‘The instructions in the national curriculum (1.4.1.)’ and ‘The instructions in the English course book (1.4.2.)’ that whether there are sufficient number of instructions in the English curriculum and English textbooks for students to understand language skills such as listening, speaking and reading.

1.3. The Term ‘Instruction’ in Legal Documents

The English word ‘instruction’ means ‘eđitim, öđretim, açıklama, talimat, and yönerge’, but the definition of the Turkish words ‘yönerge, genelge, and talimat’ have similar or close meanings. Hence it is necessary to explain briefly what is meant by instruction in the legal and educational documents. From now on, these will be touched in short.

1.3.1. Constitutional Instruction

The 42nd article of the Constitution - the right and duty to education and training - states that “*No one can be deprived of the right to education and training*” and goes on to say: “*The scope of the right to education shall be determined and regulated by law*” (Turkish Const. Art. 42). This article is very broad and says nothing about the teaching of language skills such as listening, speaking and reading.

1.3.2. Legal act: The National Education Basic Law (NEBL)

The NEBL adopted in 1973, the Basic Education Law (BEL) adopted in 1997 and the 4 + 4 + 4 system adopted in 2012-2013 with Laws No. 222 and 1739 constitute the current educational application in Türkiye. As a result, foreign language education and its scope have changed from one law to another, as explained under the heading ‘Background of the Study (1.5.)’. To summarize, the instructions on education in the legal documents are very general and do not help our students to learn the required skills in the sixth grade.

1.4. The Term ‘Instruction’ in Educational Documents

The process of change in the education system was continued by the laws of 1943, 1958, 1961, 1964, 1973, 1978, 1981, 1992, 1997 and 1999 (Arslanoglu, 1997). Our aim here is not to analyze these in detail, but only to mention the changes that have taken place recently. Therefore, the relevant articles of the Constitution, the education laws and the general and specific objectives of the Turkish National Education System will be briefly touched upon.

1.4.1. The instructions in the national curriculum

Türkiye is among the countries that applies a formal national curriculum. It reflects the spirit of the Constitution and educational laws. Besides, there is a Board of Education (BoE) depending on the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and no course book is allowed to be used at schools without the approval of this board. The national curriculum

is also known as teaching program and there is a national curriculum for each lesson such as Turkish, Science, English and so on.

These teaching programs not only show what kind of topics should be taught in each lesson, week by week and month by month in schools, but they also contain some instructions on how to teach these topics unit by unit. Considered in terms of English, it shows the grammatical topics and vocabulary that must be taught in each unit. It also indicates which methods should be used in English lessons. Similarly, information on skills, strategies, values, competencies and assessment is also presented. For example, the teaching programs for primary and secondary schools adopted in 2018 include the following instructions for testing procedures for each skill. Table 1.1 below shows just one example.

Table 1.1 Suggested testing techniques for the assessment of language skills (MoNE, 2018, p.7)

Language Skills	Testing Techniques	Suggestions for Test Preparation
Speaking	Collaborative or singular drama performances (Simulations, Role-plays, Side-coaching), Debates Group or pair discussions, Describing a picture/video/story, etc., Discussing a picture/video/story, etc., Giving short responses in specific situations, ...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make sure you have prepared a reliable assessment rubric to assess students. • Anxiety and inhibition may cause problems: Provide a relaxing atmosphere in testing. • Encourage self- and peer assessment if applies (for higher proficiency grades).

In addition, the national curriculum provides *directions* on which skills to prioritize at different grade levels, as you can see in Table 1.2 below.

Table 1.2 Model English curriculum (MoNE, 2018, p.10)

Levels [CEFR*] (Hours / Week)	Grades	Skill focus	Main activities / Strategies
1 [A1] (2)	2	Listening and Speaking	TPR/Arts and crafts/Drama
	3	Listening and Speaking Very Limited Reading and Writing	
	4	Listening and Speaking Very Limited Reading and Writing	

Among other things, the curriculum/syllabus provides instructions on the *contexts and tasks/activities* to be used, as shown below.

Table 1.3 Suggested contexts and tasks/activities (MoNE, 2018, p.15)

SUGGESTED CONTEXTS AND TASKS/ACTIVITIES	
Contexts	Tasks/Activities
Advertisements, Biographical Texts, Blogs, Brochures, Captions, Cards, Cartoons, Catalogues, Chants, and Songs Charts, Conversations, Diaries/Journal Entries, Dictionaries, ...	Arts and Crafts, Chants and Songs, Competitions, Drama, Role Play, Simulation, Pantomime, Drawing and Coloring, Find Someone Who ..., Games, Guessing, ...

So far, it has been shown that the national curriculum provides information on methods, techniques, tests, contexts, activities and tasks. This raises the questions below:

- *Issue One: Is there sufficient information about how the skills (listening, reading, vocabulary, grammar, etc.) must be taught in English books?*
- *Issue Two: If there is no sufficient information, can I, as a researcher, support students with instructions on how to learn skills?*
- *Issue Three: If there is no sufficient instruction on learning skills, what is the impact of supporting the students with instructions on skill learning?*

The first issue is dealt with under the heading ‘Importance of the Study (1.7.)’, the second issue is dealt with in the Methodology section (Chapter Five) and the third issue is touched in the Results section (Chapter Six).

1.4.2. The instructions in the English course books

As mentioned earlier, English textbooks are not used in classrooms unless approved by the MoNE. These books contain some instructions on the reading parts (dialogues), exercises and activities. Some of them can be illustrated as follows. For example, an English textbook by Demirel and Şahinel (2005) contains the following instructions: “*Look at the pictures and listen to your teacher*” (p.1), “*Look at the chart below. Then fill in the blanks in the sentences*” (p.2). “*Translate these into Turkish*” (p.3). “*Complete the following sentences*” (p.3). “*Spell the words*” (p.4).

If we analyze these instructions, we notice that the first five instructions are about something general, but the last one is about a specific skill, namely pronunciation and spelling. This book does not provide an extra page of information about pronunciation rules in English. Here some issues about the articulation of sounds, letters and vocabulary in English appear. These are:

- Do English teachers *only* have to teach the pronunciation of new words? Or
- Do they need to teach *some* general rules for studying pronunciation?

- What are the students' perception of knowing some general rules about pronunciation?

We can see a similar instruction in another English course book. It contains the following instruction in Unit One – “*Match the activities with photos*” (Demircan et al., 2021, p.11). This activity is about knowing the meaning of the vocabulary given in the course book. Students can do this in two ways: Either they can look it up in the dictionary and learn the meaning at home, or the teacher can explain the meaning in the classroom. The issues to be covered here are:

- Does the English teacher have to teach *only* the Turkish meaning of the new English words? or
- Do they need to teach *some* general rules about how to learn vocabulary in general?
- What are the students' perceptions of knowing some general rules about vocabulary learning?

In conclusion, the instructions in the legal documents do not address our needs at all., English textbooks also have many instructions on reading, writing, speaking, listening, vocabulary and grammar activities, but these instructions do not say *how* to learn a particular activity or skill. They just say “*Do this, Do that, Match sound with picture*”, and so on. As a solution, there may be a small section or box in the unit that gives tips, hints or guidelines on *how* to learn the skill related to the activity. For example, if the activity is about vocabulary, there may be a tip box like this: “*Try to learn vocabulary not in isolation, but in phrases*” (McCarthy & O’Dell, 1999, p.2). The observations we have made in relation to English textbooks have led us to undertake this study. That is, this study assumes that students need to be supported with the knowledge of language learning skills step by step according to their level. Since the knowledge (instruction) about language learning is included in the resources of education, educational science and English language teaching (ELT), it seems necessary at this point to review how the understanding about teaching/learning skills in education, educational science and ELT has developed so far.

1.5. Background of the Study

The Turkish Education System, consisting of the MoNE and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE), has been affected by *the changes* since the foundation of the Turkish state in 1923. In the last 20 years, the English language curricula have been changed four

times (2006, 2013, 2017 and 2018) at primary level and six times (2004, 2007, 2008, 2014, 2017 and 2018) at secondary level (Baysal, Kara, & Bümen, 2022). An overview of all these changes is not possible due to time and space constraints. Only the changes from 1973, 1982, 1997, 2005, 2012 and 2018 are briefly discussed here.

The 1973 change required all trainee teachers to have a college degree and the 1982 change linked all higher education institutions to the CoHE. In this way, the training period for teachers was set at 4 years (Adem, 1995). In 1997, the duration of compulsory education was extended to eight years with Law No. 4306, which made English education compulsory in 4th and 5th grades. Therefore, learners were introduced to English at a younger age in order to increase their motivation and interest in English through a more communicative curriculum (Haznedar, 2010; Kırkgöz, 2008). In 2005, the duration of high schools was increased to four years and the English curriculum was based on a constructivist approach in the following year. This curriculum also focused on individual differences with a more modern and student-centered approach (Orakçı, 2012). In 2012, compulsory education was increased to twelve years, the 4+4+4 education system was accepted and primary and secondary schools were separated with Law No. 6287. With this change, English lessons became compulsory from the second grade and students were introduced to the English language at an earlier age (6-7 years). English teachers were appointed in elementary schools and students were given the opportunity to learn English from experienced teachers in their area. Finally, the MoNE introduced a new English curriculum in 2018. An intensive English teaching program for 5th grade was introduced as a pilot project in the 2017-2018 educational year and became optional for secondary schools in the following years.

In the meantime, these changes have necessitated improvements and updates to English textbooks. The curriculum and textbooks for English, which are adapted to the European Language Portfolio, were revised between 2011 and 2018 in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for Languages. Over the years, these books have changed from containing only grammar or vocabulary exercises to promoting four basic language skills. Thus, the quality and quantity of language skills exercises have increased over the years. In addition, the audio recordings of the books have been made *accessible* via the internet and can be listened on smart boards in the classroom. Moreover, online versions of the course books can be projected, and these skill-based interactive books appeal to both the eye and the ear. Similarly, the online

versions, answer keys or audio tapes of the course books can be made easily accessible with the QR codes on the first or last page of the book. Likewise, the publishers have brought out a large number of supplementary course books for those who want to learn English. Finally, these publishers have launched separate course books for each skill (e.g. reading book, vocabulary booklet). In short, English textbooks are richer and more multicultural in terms of visual design and content.

Apart from the laws enacted to improve initial teacher training and curriculum studies to polish English language teaching, pedagogical training courses have undergone several changes over the years. Initially, ELT teacher training was transferred to the Department of Foreign Languages at the Faculty of Education in 1982 with the Higher Education Law. BoE decided to change the method of appointing English teachers and required trainee teachers to have formation course certificate as of 2003. This meant that those who have not had that certificate were not appointed as English teachers. Therefore, those who have completed a degree in English Language and Literature, American Culture and Literature, English Translation and Interpreting and English Linguistics and have a training certificate are appointed as English teachers. In 2007, the English teacher training and development program was transformed into a new version that is harmonized with European Union standards. Trainee teachers were expected to assess themselves against the European Portfolio for Student Teachers. In 2010 and 2018, the teacher training programs were redesigned and these models are still used in teacher education departments.

Furthermore, in-service training courses for teachers and private courses for students also contribute to improving the teaching and learning process. In the former case, English teachers attend in-service training programs because pre-service teacher training may not be sufficient to acquire the required teaching skills (Balbay, Pamuk, Temir, & Doğan, 2018). Moreover, it is inevitable for English teachers to adapt to new technological and pedagogical developments in order to avoid problems in their professional life (e.g. Çakır, 2013; Daloğlu, 2004). Therefore, English teachers are also offered online or face-to-face training in order to develop professionally and personally.

In the latter, the word 'private' refers to training programs run by public schools, public education centers and private institutions. These programs are called 'Supporting and Training Courses' and are offered after formal classes. Likewise, public education centers offer free English courses for people of all ages as part of lifelong learning. Similarly,

private language course centers are among the other language learning facilities and have gained popularity in the last few decades.

Last but not least, the current state of methods and materials for teaching English seems to have been influenced by the advent of COVID-19, and some novel teaching methods such as flipped learning, blended learning or hybrid learning have emerged. That required the integration of technology into foreign language teaching. In addition, there are now many software and applications that English language learners can use on their cell phones or PCs to improve their main and sub-skills. Most of these software and web-based programs are free and can be used by language learners whenever they want.

No one can deny the importance of materials and the number and variety of ELT materials has increased in recent times. Many reusable, colorful and personalized materials are available. In this context, it is necessary to emphasize the importance of “instructional materials” for learning main and sub-skills. English textbooks for 2nd, 3rd grade, etc. are the main sources for teaching English in schools. These books are also materials. As already mentioned, these books have been revised several times. Nevertheless, the question arises as to *whether they have* sufficient instruction for students to learn language any specific skill. This will be discussed in ‘Importance of the Study (1.7.)’.

To summarize, many laws on teacher training were introduced. Besides, the English curriculum and textbooks have been revised several times in the last two decades. In addition, teacher training, in-service training and training courses have also been updated. New methods and materials have been used. However, the changes in laws, curriculum study, English textbooks and training courses, teacher training and teacher courses are not without problems. Therefore, the next title explains these problems, especially in relation to the topic of the study.

1.6. The Problem Statement

The problem statement becomes clearer if we briefly examine the above changes to see whether they contain any ‘instructions’ that show how students learn the main and sub-skills.

The change in 1973 required all trainee teachers to have a university degree, and it is possible that the ‘formation courses’ and ‘instructions’ were not well known in Türkiye at that time. The first pedagogical formation programme was implemented in 1979 (Turan, 2021). The change process in 1982 aimed to unify all higher education institutions

under one institution. Formation lessons became compulsory at the faculties of education. However, the problems with English curricula and textbooks remained unsolved as the English textbooks used in middle and high schools were full of mechanical exercises. That is, these books did not contain ‘instructions’ on how to learn the main and sub-skills. The change in 1997 with Law No. 4306 made basic education eight years long. At that time, all discussions and criticisms focused on the unification of primary and secondary schools into a single school and not on the creation and publication of textbooks and instructions in English to be used in these schools. In other words, the change focused on the length of schooling rather than on the creation of learning and supplementary materials to help students. Similarly, the change in 2005 focused on the length of high schools rather than providing students with guidance on how to learn. The current and most recent change in 2012 again focused on the 4 + 4 + 4 system. The English curricula have been revised twice, in 2011 and 2018, and currently the 2018 version of this program is being used in schools. Nevertheless, the English textbooks and the English curriculum do *not* contain any *instructions, guidance or study tips* on how to learn skills.

The point here is that if there is no guide, instruction or learning tip - not even one - on how to learn skills, the question is how students can know how to learn those skills by themselves. To do something, you have to know it. That is, you cannot do something without knowing it, and this was also noted by Bennett (1996, pp. 76-85), who saw a problematic relationship ‘between subject knowledge and teaching performance’. For him, “*appropriate knowledge would appear to be a necessary, but not a sufficient, basis for competent teaching performances*”. He maintained that “*teachers cannot teach what they do not know ..., but neither can they teach well what they know without the other knowledge bases for teaching ...*” (p.81). Therefore, it would be appropriate to say that if the teachers, who know more, cannot do what they do not know, can the students, who know less compared to the teachers, learn the main and sub-skills without knowing any learning tips or getting guidance and help?

The above-mentioned changes in the areas of law, school education, textbooks, materials, training courses, initial and in-service training show the problems at the local level, i.e. in Türkiye. However, there is also an international aspect of the problem. This aspect refers to the international English exams and students’ scores in these exams. For example, Türkiye’s English competence level was ranked 64th out of 113 countries from all over the world and 33rd out of 34 European countries, which means that Türkiye has a

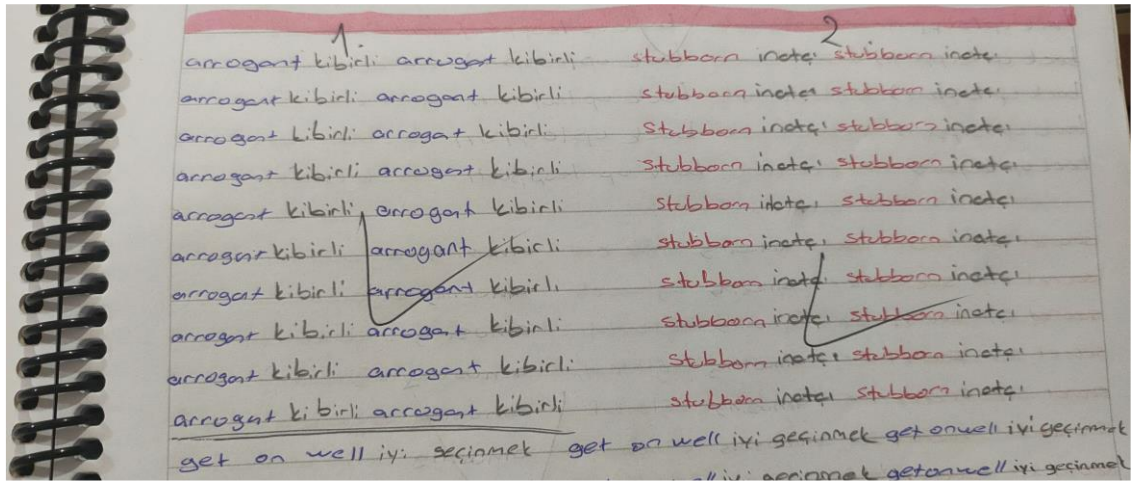
low and unsatisfactory proficiency level in English language learning according to the English Proficiency Index 2023 (EF EPI, 2023).

Despite all the changes and progress in the field of language teaching/learning, EFL students [also] still have difficulties in learning English. However, it should bear in mind that this inability to acquire or learn English is not due to just one or a few reasons. In fact, several factors can affect the language learning process, and perhaps one of the most important of these is that *students do not know how to learn a main or sub-skill*.

Students cannot go beyond what the teacher says or teaches in the language class. Unfortunately, they do not know the different strategies or do not use them effectively to achieve an appropriate level of proficiency in language skills and sub-skills. Likewise, teachers usually teach the subject according to the syllabus and do not spend much time teaching students how to learn or master a particular language skill or sub-skill. Nevertheless, it can be effective for students if language teachers teach instructions on language learning skills (e.g. speaking, writing, listening and reading) and sub-skills (e.g. vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar). An alternative solution could look like this: Some study tips on learning skills can be written either as a footnote or as a speech bubble in each unit while the English textbooks are being prepared. In this way, the written hints remain permanent even if teachers forget to give these instructions. As a result, at least some students try to follow them. Hence, the next part explains the importance of the study in terms of giving instruction.

1.7. Importance of the Study

Being important and effective in language learning, giving instruction to the learners on learning strategies may affect students' learning performance (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). Instructions can be provided in many ways. For example, they can be delivered orally by teachers to students. They can be written down in the English textbooks in the form of learning tips or learning guidelines as mentioned above. They can be prepared by the class teacher or the MoNE in written form, in the form of a few pages of a pocket-sized booklet. In reality, however, none of the English books currently used in schools contain the above-mentioned instructions (learning tips, guidelines). It is also not known whether current English teachers give their students learning tips. Of course, there may be some teachers who do that. Nevertheless, there are some teachers who still use outdated techniques to make students learn the new vocabulary of each unit in the English textbook. The following example is from the English notebook of an 8 grader student:



Picture 1. 1 A Page from an 8 Grader Student's English Notebook

An analysis of this student's notebook shows that each new word was written 10 to 20 times and 55 vocabularies were written in the same way between September 11 and December 15. This is not an extreme example; this student's English teacher has been doing the same thing for eight years. The following researches show the problems in primary and secondary schools as well as with EFL students at graduate level.

Özüdoğru (2017) notes that teachers write the English words on the board and ask students to write them in their notebooks, even though the second grade English curriculum aims to improve students' listening and speaking skills, not writing skills. Tekin-Özel (2011) found from classroom observations that teachers do not use different methods or techniques for teaching vocabulary, do not teach pronunciation, stress and intonation and do not do listening exercises. Kandemir (2016) states that in a 2nd grade class, the teacher writes several words on the board and the students write these words in their notebooks, but this contradicts with the curriculum, which aims to develop listening comprehension and speaking skills. In a study with seventh graders, Kozikoğlu (2014) states that despite the learner-centered English program, the teacher usually applies the question-answer technique and lectures on a topic by selecting certain activities from the textbook. The teacher also ignores the most important skills, skips some listening comprehension exercises in the textbook and only says the Turkish meanings of the words in the reading passages.

Moreover, EFL students do not have the appropriate proficiency in English speaking skill (Coşkun, 2016; Demir-Ayaz, Özkardaş, & Özturan, 2019) and even ELT candidate teachers struggle to speak the target language fluently (Dağtan & Cabaroğlu, 2021). Besides, language learners encounter different listening comprehension problems (Solak

& Altay, 2014; Ulum, 2015) and their reading (Khan, Shahbaz, & Kumar, 2020; Ökçü, 2015) and writing skills (Ekmekçi, 2017; Erkan & Saban, 2011) are inadequate to be fully competent in English. In addition, students face some challenges in developing language sub-skills like vocabulary (Boldan & Yavuz, 2017). Although grammar teaching is usually an important part of language teaching (Kara, Ayaz, & Dündar, 2017), language learners can still have problems understanding some grammar rules (Uyar, 2012).

As in Appendix A, a review of the current book (for 6th grade) units shows that none of the units contain instructions on how to study/learn major and sub-skills. Consequently, the lack of instructions in the textbooks and the fact that students do not know how to acquire a language skill have a negative impact on their academic performance.

This means that the students cannot go beyond what the teachers say or write on the blackboard. What English teachers usually do in class is to say or write down the first meaning of the new vocabulary and grammar rules and sometimes translate the sentences, let the students do the exercises of the unit and give feedback on the students' answers. At the end of the lesson, they give advice like this: "*Study hard, do your homework, solve the test questions*". From conversations with colleagues in the Teachers' Room and the minutes of the annual meetings, it appears that teachers usually complain about students' not speaking in English or not understanding what they hear in English. The question that arises here is: Can students learn a language skill without knowing how to acquire it? Moreover, it is seen in the review of the Thesis Centre of the CoHE that there are about 40 MA theses (to cite a few and recent ones, e.g., Akgül, 2023; Çil, 2022; Şahin-Özata, 2023) and 25 doctorate studies (to cite a few and recent ones, e.g., Ceylan 2023; Güler, 2022; Yılmaz, 2022); however, there have not been any AR studies that analyze the effects of giving instructions to students on LLSs even if there are a considerable numbers of AR studies in foreign language teaching or other educational areas.

To close this gap, the traditional way of teaching English (i.e. reading the text, explaining the Turkish meaning of new vocabulary, teaching the grammatical structures and working on worksheets/exercises) was modified in this AR study in such a way that students were taught or supported in their knowledge of the skills. In other words, the students were supported with knowledge about the main and sub-skills in the context of language learning. As mentioned above, the current teaching style of teachers can be summarized as teaching students the Turkish meaning of English vocabulary and grammar rules. It is known that "*foreign language learners (even adults) mostly like to be instructed about*

what they should do and teachers are supposed to present language learning strategies to the attention of learners without taking the subject matter into consideration” (Oxford, 1989, cited in Aydogan & Akbarov, 2014, p.13).

It follows that an AR study is needed to determine the impact of supporting students with instructions on language learning skills since giving instructions may have an impact on students’ perceptions towards English and academic achievements in English. To this end, action plans for student usage were implemented following an action-reflection cycle (Whitehead, 2008).

This AR study is important in that it shows that language teaching can be successful when theory (teacher instruction) is combined with practice (student performance) as described in the literature. It is also significant in that it shows teacher researcher’s self-reflection and development since AR is defined as “*a self-reflected inquiry*” in AR literature (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988, p.5). The study is prominent since it aims “*to improve practice rather than produce knowledge*” (Elliott, 1991, p.49). Last but not least, although the study was “*a small scale intervention*” (Cohen & Manion, 1994, p.186) and was undertaken with cooperation of only one classroom (6 graders), it is hoped that it may shed light and give inspirations for other studies in that instructions should be given not only to the language learners, but in other courses such as History, Science, Arts, etc.

This point is stated by Koshy (2005) like this: One of the aims of an AR study is to “*provide examples of good practice in making use of research*” (p.30). Hence, the study may be a good sample for other EFL teachers who want to improve practice and find solutions to the problematic issues in their classes because the study is conducted by a teacher researcher. In addition, the teacher-researcher of the study is also deputy head teacher at the school where the AR study was conducted. Therefore, this study can also be a useful example for head teacher and deputy head teachers who have questions about the AR process. Thus, the study aims to support teachers of all subjects and school administrators who are looking for ways to meet the demands of teaching certain subjects in their classroom and to improve practice through the implementation of AR in general.

1.8. Aim of the Study

As noted in the studies mentioned above, there are many studies that highlight the problems of primary and secondary school students in relation to language teaching (Kandemir, 2016; Kozikoğlu, 2014; Özüdoğru, 2017; Tekin-Özel 2011). It was also found that EFL students at the graduate level have many problems with main and sub-

skills (Boldan & Yavuz, 2017; Coşkun, 2016; Khan et al., 2020; Solak & Altay, 2014, and others). Last but not least, current English textbooks from 2nd to 8th grade do not give any hints, study tips or instructions on how students should learn the main and sub-skills. Therefore, in this study, giving instructions was considered as a key component for participant students to engage them in their learning process by creating a supportive learning environment.

This AR study is based on the case study (CS) method and aims to support students with the knowledge of main and sub-skills in a secondary school. Educational AR is method that is used for many purposes and one of which was addressed by this study. Among the definitions in the literature Cohen and Manion's (1994) definition also serves for the purpose of this study. That is; "*AR is appropriate whenever specific knowledge is required for a specific problem in a specific situation.*" (p.194). Based on the AR literature, some action plans were created and the necessary changes were made to meet the needs of the 6th graders. As a result, the use of AR in this study and the implementation of action plans that included action steps for reflection allowed for a deeper understanding of the current situation and better teaching sessions.

Since "*improvement of practice*" (Elliott, 1980, p.36) and "*improvement of ...understanding*" (Carr & Kemmis, 1986, p.165) are the aims of AR, the study employed Kemmis and McTaggart's (1988) model of AR *planning, acting, observing and reflecting* with the hope that **a)** the participant students' level of English improves, **b)** the MoNE requires the course book authors to add a few study tips, clues, or instructions from now on by which the students would be able to learn main and sub-skills. The study searched whether AR could be a way to achieve these goals although the goal **b)** depends on the ministry. In terms of practicality reasons, Kemmis and McTaggart's model was considered compatible with the research methodology of the present study (see Chapter Five). Specifically, the study investigated how students consider theoretical information in the form of 'instructions' about skills and the extent to which they use this in relation to the acquisition of main and sub-skills. The data were collected qualitatively through observations, semi-structured interviews and diary entries by teachers-researcher. The quantitative data were collected through students' written exams and some statistical analysis was carried out on them.

1.9. Research Questions

The main aim of the present study is to investigate the effects of instructional support for language learners on language learning skills. It also aims to shed light on students' knowledge of language learning skills and methods for developing these skills, and provide data to help fill the research gaps in the existing literature.

In conclusion, this study attempts to answer the following questions:

- Q-1) Do the students have any pre-knowledge about learning language skills prior to the research?
- Q-2) Does giving instructions to students on language learning skills affect;
 - a) students' perceptions on learning skills and English positively?
 - b) students' academic achievement in English lesson positively?

1.10. Summary

It is obvious that the learning and teaching of English has gained importance in the Turkish education system in recent years due to numerous innovations in this field. However, it is an undeniable fact that Turkish students still face some challenges in learning English. The fact that they do not know how to develop their language skills or techniques is not a shortcoming of the students. Learners only try to memorize English words or grammar rules. It is the teacher's task to teach students not only the rule but also the learning methods for this rule. Therefore, the aim of this study is to demonstrate the effects of supporting students with instructions on their language learning abilities, thereby filling a gap in the relevant literature.

To this end, this chapter has examined the meaning of the term 'instruction' in the fields of law and education, including the English Teaching Program and English textbooks. At this point, the question arises as to what is meant by the term instruction in ELT. That is, instruction for main skills and sub-skills. In other words, what is meant by instruction for individual skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Of course, the students and academics in ELT are aware of the importance of the term 'instruction' for each skill. However, the readers of this study are not only those are the teaching staff in foreign language departments. Readers from other departments such as physics, chemistry, mathematics, Turkish literature, etc. can also read the study.

The question then arises again as to whether the readers of the other disciplines know the instructions for each language learning skill? They are probably not aware of the term because students of other disciplines excluding foreign language do not formally take a lesson similar to ELT during their education. Therefore, it seems to be a necessity to introduce the instructions for each skill. To this end, the next chapter is devoted to the explanation of the term instruction for each skill and a brief literature review of instruction-based studies.

1.11. Outline of the Thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters. The first chapter is introductory and begins with the dictionary meaning of the term ‘instruction’ and shows how it is used in legal and pedagogical documents. This is followed by information on the background to the study and the problem statement. Finally, the significance and aim of the study are explained together with the research questions. A brief overview of the study forms the final part of this chapter.

In the second chapter, the instructions for the main and sub-skills are briefly presented, together with the instruction-based studies for those working in disciplines other than foreign language.

The third chapter provides a critical overview of the AR literature and refers to the reasons and rationale of the study. In doing so, the development, objectives, types, models and action plans in general are briefly explained.

Chapter four presents the action model and the action plans of the study. The action model comes from Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) and the action plans are produced for the main and sub-skills.

The fifth chapter outlines the research method, design, participants, data collection and data analysis process. It not only provides an overview of the abstract literature, but also states the reasons for the selection of participants, schools, data collection and analysis.

The sixth chapter presents the findings and results based on the research questions. It reports on the qualitative and quantitative data analysis.

The thesis concludes with summaries of the previous chapters and discusses the results of the study. At the end, suggestions for further study and research are made.

CHAPTER II

INSTRUCTIONS FOR EACH SKILL AND RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

The word instruction can be understood in two ways, namely theoretically and practically. On the theoretical side (2.2.), the term *instruction* is explained to show what we mean by the terms instruction for the individual skills such as listening, speaking etc. It also explains the instructions for vocabulary and grammar, because without rules and words we cannot speak and listen. In the second part, some common characteristics of children and teenagers are pointed out. Finally, it stresses how important and necessary it is to interpret the theoretical instructions with regard to the abilities and characteristics of children and young people (adolescents).

On the practical side (2.6.), the literature review of instruction-based studies is presented. In doing so, some approaches to learning skills are presented and information about the ‘learning to learn English’ movement is presented. That is, this section mainly reviews the previous studies that show the effects of instruction to language learners on language proficiency.

According to the English language curriculum (MoNE, 2018), the English language curriculum in Grade 6 focuses on *listening* comprehension and *speaking*, while students only learn *reading* and *writing* to a limited extent. Yet, this chapter also includes the literature on reading and writing, vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation skills as well as above stated skills for the perfection of an MA study this is because vocabulary and grammar sub-skills form a basis for listening and speaking. The last part contains some conclusions from the literature review.

2.2. Skills in the Literature

Since much has already been written about the main and sub-skills in ELT in general, we will explain the skills in ELT directly. We know that there are main and sub-skills in language teaching. Therefore, the question “What is an instruction?” for a skill can be formulated as follows: It is a rule or statement that shows the way to teach or learn the skill. The instructions for the main skills are explained in the following sections.

2.2.1. Instructions for listening skill

Listening is usually considered the first and most difficult skill taught in literature (Demirel, 2004). It is difficult for language learners to improve this skill because there are many reasons that have a negative effect on listening. One of them is the catenation rule. For example, the sentence "What is it?" is usually pronounced as /wɒt iz it? in our country, but according to the "catenation rule", it is pronounced as /wo ti zit/ (URL-2, cited in Tomakin, 2023, p.35). So, students regard "wo, ti, zit" as new words as if they had not heard them before. In fact, these are not English words listed in the English dictionaries. In the above example, there is a vowel alternation and most students do not understand the sentence.

The aim in listening is to understand the native speech, to distinguish all the sounds, intonation patterns and voice qualities, to perceive the entire message, decode what the speaker has said and use the message and/or store it in the second language (Demirel, 2004, p.53). Some of the general *instructions* to teach the listening skill are:

- *Listening comprehension (LC) lessons must have definite goals...*
- *LC lessons should be constructed with careful step by step planning.*
- *LC lessons structure should demand active overt student participation.*
- *LC lessons should provide a communicative urgency for remembering in order to develop concentration.*
- *LC lessons should stress conscious memory work.*
- *LC lessons should teach, not test.*

Yaman (2015) counts some of the principles in teaching listening skill like this:

- *Students must listen to the either audio or visual messages in a context (p.316).*
- *In order to understand the nature of listening skill, spoken discourse must be known and understood (p.317).*

In short, the above rules, principles or instructions are theoretical and general. They do not provide much insight into how to promote 6th graders' listening comprehension. That is, these instructions need to be interpreted in terms of the children's general learning characteristics.

2.2.2. Instructions for speaking skill

Speaking is usually regarded as the second skill to be taught. Since it is a productive skill, thinking and pronouncing new sentences in another language is just as difficult as listening. The aim in teaching this skill to the students is to get them speak "*accurately*,

fluently and intelligibly” (Demirel, 2004, p.73), yet this skill is usually neglected and until recently the least time has been invested in improving speaking skills. As an observer and teacher-researcher, I can say that we used to assess this skill mainly with mechanical exercises in the form of repetition, question-answer and substitution exercises.

However, with the Regulation on the MoNE Assessment and Evaluation, published in the Official Gazette in 2023, the assessment of speaking ability has changed. According to the 5th Article of this Regulation, “*exams to be held in foreign language courses will be conducted as written and applied tests to measure listening, speaking, reading and writing skills*” (The Regulation on the MoNE Assessment and Evaluation, 2023). Now, each skill like listening and speaking is required to be measured separately.

The views on improving speaking skills are diverse and some of them are as follows. Demirel (2004), for example, states that meaningful exercises require thinking and the production of new sentences rather than the mechanical exercises mentioned above. He believes that dialogues, discussions, role plays, improvisations, storytelling and games can be used in learning this skill. He (ibid.) enumerates the steps of dialogue teaching. It is important here that we emphasize the importance of students knowing at least some of the instructions for learning a skill. However, it should be noted that *even* the author of the ELT book does not give any general statements or instructions for learning this skill.

The same is true for Cross (1995) who lists some language activities such as drama, role play, conversation cards and activities with information gaps, but makes no explicit statements about the ways of learning speaking skill. Nunan (2003, cited in Dağtan, 2015, p.343) states some tasks for the teachers before conversation lessons and two of them are important to cite here: “*Teachers must arrange the vocabularies and structures in the text according to students’ level. The instructions and explanations to be given must be proper in an understanding level.*”

Harmer (2000) gives the following instructions and activities for learning to speak:

- *Good speaking activities can and should be highly motivating (p.88).*
- *Students work in pairs.*
- *Students, in pairs, each have similar pictures, but with differences.*
- *Students make a list of the kind of things that people like or do (p.95).*
- *Students role-play a famous/business social occasion where they meet a number of people and introduce themselves.*
- *Students give a talk on a given topic and / or person.*
- *Students conduct a balloon debate where only one person can stay in the balloon...*

- *Students are presented with a moral dilemma e.g. a student is caught cheating in an important exam (p.96).*

Consequently, it is seen that some ELT books provide instructions while some other important ELT books do not provide instructions on how to teach/learn speaking skills. This shows how important it is to *support* students with knowledge of the instructions for the skills. This means that in one way or another, there must be hints, learning tips or guidance on how to learn a skill in students' mainstream English textbooks.

2.2.3. Instructions for reading skill

Reading is the third most important skill to learn (Demirel, 2004) and is considered as “receptive skill” (Pegem, 2017) since we receive/absorb information from an external source into our brain. This skill aims to ensure that students are able to read the texts and the reading sections in their English textbooks. It seems that there are at least two prerequisites for being able to decode the written texts.

To be able to read a text, a person must know sufficient number of vocabulary and grammatical structures. If the student reads something silently, s/he must know the grammar and vocabulary, but if s/he reads something aloud, s/he must also know the pronunciation. Knowledge of vocabulary and grammar therefore enables reading ability (Tomakin, 2008).

Many students want to read texts in English for professional reasons or for study purposes. In addition, exposure to English language is good for language learners. In this way, some of the language is imprinted in their memory as part of their language acquisition. In addition, reading texts provides a model for writing in English.

Last but not least, reading offers the opportunity to learn vocabulary, grammar (sentence structure), punctuation and paragraph writing. Depending on the reader's intention, reading is used in different ways, e.g. as scanning, skimming, intensive and extensive reading (Harmer, 2000). He (p.70) goes on listing features of teaching reading, but these do not appear to be instructions. Therefore, a brief review of them is necessary to show that even some of the references in the literature do not provide sufficient information/instruction for students to learn/teach reading skills. These are:

- *Reading is not a passive skill.*
- *Students need to be engaged with what they are reading.*
- *Prediction is a major factor in reading (p.70).*
-

- *Students are given a number of words from a text. In groups, they have to predict...*
- *Students have to match topic sentences with the paragraphs they come from...*
- *Students read a text and have to guess which of a group of people they think wrote the text (using the pictures provided). (lower, intermediate/advanced) (p.77).*

In short, it has been shown that some of the main ELT books do not contain clear rules/principles for teaching this skill. Some of the rules are very general, so 6th grade students may have difficulty understanding them. One last point about this skill is that MoNE does not require teachers to elaborately teach this skill at grade 6; therefore, no action plan was prepared and used for this skill.

2.2.4. Instructions for writing skill

Writing is the fourth and least utilized skill among others (Cross, 1995). Writing is also a productive skill that students use to create different types of materials such as essays, business or personal letters, postcards, emails and so on. Apart from this, writing can be used in the form of narratives, descriptions, definitions, comparisons, examples, and generalizations, but these types of writing are not taught in primary and secondary schools in our country. Therefore, no further information about these types is required since writing depend on students' *"age, interests and level"* (p.80). For Cross (1995), good writing is a result of reading. This means that reading and writing influence each other positively.

According to Harmer (2000), the reasons for teaching writing to students are reinforcement, language development and learning style. He (ibid.) explains that most students benefit from seeing language written down. In this case, the written form of the letters becomes an invaluable demonstration for the students as it helps them understand how the sentences are put together. Writing also helps students to show their actual language development process. That is, it helps students to recognize the extent to which they are progressing. Writing may help the students in improving their learning styles in that *"...for many learners, the time to think things through, to produce language in a slower way, is invaluable"* (p.79).

Some of the exercise type for teaching writing can be counted as follows. For Demirel (2004), the types of writing are controlled, directed, guided and free writing. Besides, Yaylı (2015) counts the types of writing such as structural, text-based, creative, processes, content and context, but does not offer any principle one by one for writing. Finally,

writing is one of the least stressed skill to be taught at grade 6 by the MoNE. Hence, no action plan was produced and used for this skill.

2.2.5. Instructions for vocabulary skill

McCarthy and O'Dell (1999) state that

English vocabulary has a remarkable range, flexibility and adaptability. Thanks to the periods of contact with foreign languages and its readiness to coin new words out of old elements, English seems to have far more words in its core vocabulary than other languages. (p.2)

They also state that “*there are about 500.000 words in English and an average native speaker uses 5.000 words in his/her everyday speech*” (McCarthy, & O'Dell, 2017, p.8). Considering the total number of words in English, it seems difficult to learn most of the vocabulary, but considering the daily use of the words by a native speaker, it seems easy to learn them. At this point, the question arises as to why our ELT students in the language departments cannot speak fluently even though they know more than 5.000 words?

In literature, vocabulary and grammar together with pronunciation, are generally regarded as sub-skills. We know the importance of vocabulary and grammar. Without them, the main skills become impossible. They are like the tires and gears of a car. A car can move without doors and seats, but it cannot move without tires This means that if we master vocabulary and grammar, we can activate main skills such as speak, listen, read and write (Tomakin, 2008).

The followings are some of the principles for teaching/learning vocabulary. In the final chapter, it is suggested (see Chapter 7) that these vocabulary learning tips can be included as speech bubbles in the English textbooks of students at each grade level.

McCarthy and O'Dell (1999, p. 2-4), in an upper intermediate and advanced word book, provide a list of instructions (study tips, guidelines) to teach the vocabulary skill. The headings of these vocabulary training principles are:

- *Try to learn the new words not in isolation, but in phrases.*
- *Write down adjectives together with nouns...e.g. a royal family.*
- *Write down verbs with the structure and nouns... e.g. to express an opinion.*
- *Write down nouns in phrases. ... e.g. in contact with,*
- *Write down words with their prepositions ... e.g. at a high level.*
- *Pictures, diagrams, word trees can help you learn.*

They also state that “*organizing words by meaning, diagrams, word-class, word-map*” and regularly revising them are also useful (p. 6-7). Redman’s (1999) suggestions are also important and two of them were cited here.

- *Practice saying the words silently in your head (without a noise) and also out loud.*
- *Revise for short periods, but do it often. Five minutes in a day is ... better than half an hour a week; but half an hour a week is probably better than two hours a month. (p.6)*

Last but not least, McCarthy and O’Dell (1999, p.5) state in a book for upper intermediate that “*you need to meet a word at least 7 times before you know it properly*”. This last reference shows the importance of giving *gradual* and *continuous* support to the students. It should be noted here that MoNE gives importance to listening and speaking skill at grade 6 and these two skills can be expressed with the knowledge of vocabulary. That’s why, action plans were also prepared for this skill. Knowledge of vocabulary is necessary to speak, but they must be united properly by grammar rules.

2.2.6. Instructions for grammar skill

There are many definitions of the word ‘grammar’ and its types in the literature. Harmer (1989), after giving the Longman Dictionary definition and its explanation in *Teaching and Learning Grammar*, states that “*grammar, then, is the way in which words change themselves and group together to make sentences*”. For Thornbury (2003, p.13) the basic meaning of it is “*a description of the rules for forming sentences, including an account of the meanings that these forms convey*”. It also “*adds meanings that are not easily inferable from the immediate context*”. In short, grammar “*makes up the skeleton of language*” (Harmer, 1995, p.153).

For Harmer (1989, p.3), grammar is taught in two ways: these are “*covert and overt*” teaching of the rules. In Thornbury’s (2003) view, the basic principles for grammar teaching are “*the E-Factor: Efficiency = economy, ease and efficacy) and the A-factor: appropriacy*” (p.25-26). Grammar is also “*taught inductively and deductively*” (p.29). Apart from these two, Cross (1995) states that “*eclectic method is the third one to teach the grammar*” (p. 28). For him, grammar is taught mostly in meaningful drills and these are divided into three as repetition, transformation and substitution ones. The principles of a drill are:

- *The learners must know what they are saying. Make the meaning evident as you present the structure.*
- *Let the learners hear the pattern several times. They need to internalize the forms.*
- *Break down a long utterance into shorter parts.*
- *Do not force individuals to speak until there has been some chorus repetition...*
- *Keep the drills brisk and short. 40-60 seconds is about right for each drill...*
- *Give clear gestures to show who is to speak, rather than using names.*
- *Show approval of well-formed utterances, but leave verbal praise until afterwards.* (Cross, 1995, p. 40-41)

Thornbury (2003) states three ways in teaching grammar and these are inductive, deductive and text rather than presenting principles as seen above. Also, Harmer (1995) states the same view as Thornbury by saying sometimes we teach rules or sometimes we allow students to discover the rules for themselves. It needs to be noted here that MoNE stresses importance listening and speaking skill at grade 6 and these two skills can be expressed with the knowledge of grammar. That's why, grammar was included in action plans.

2.2.7. Instructions for pronunciation skill

Pronunciation itself is difficult, and teaching pronunciation is even more difficult because English words are written in one way and read in another. Pronunciation and speaking skills influence each other positively or negatively. The pronunciation model commonly quoted in books, dictionaries and phonology books is called Received Pronunciation and is abbreviated as RP using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) (Cross, 1995). A common problem in understanding pronunciation is sound linking, which refers to “*words running into each other*”. When two words end and begin with the same consonant, it is more difficult to understand the pronunciation (e.g., I'm more than an hour late) (Jones & Wheeler, 1986, p.217).

The sounds in English consist of consonants and vowels, which are divided into two groups: the pure vowels and the diphthongs. The pure vowels have a single sound, while the diphthongs consist of two sounds. There are 12 pure vowels and 8 diphthongs, which result in 20 different vowel sounds in English, yet bear in mind that these numbers change from one source/dictionary to another/dictionary. The short vowel /ə/ (schwa) is the most common vowel in English and second most common vowel is the short /ɪ/ sound (Cross, 1995).

Many consonants have the similar phonetic symbol as the normal written alphabet. In teaching pronunciation, stress, intonation, pulse and rhythm are also important. Cross (1995) states that there are two approaches to teaching pronunciation: “*One way is to explain how the sound is made (manner of articulation). Once the learner can make the sound they will more easily perceive it aurally. The other way is to contrast two related sounds until such time as they begin to hear the difference.*” (p.215)

He continues listing types of exercises to practice pronunciation, such as “*minimal pairs, triplets, two phoneme contrasts, multiple contrasts, same or different, rhyming words*”, etc. In addition, Demirel (2004) explains the steps of teaching pronunciation like this: “*listening, diagnose, recognize, telling the sounds and correction*”.

Many of the references such as Bekleyen (2015), Çelik (2014), Demircan (1990), Demirel (2004), Harmer (1989), Harmer (1995), Harmer (2000), and Thornbury (2003) do not include any chapter or section in their books on the pronunciation and the teaching of it. It should be also added here that the MoNE do not present any information about pronunciation sub-skill for grade 6. However, some action plans were written for pronunciation under the heading of speaking skill since pronunciation directly affects the speaking skill.

Consequently, it has so far been established that there are four main skills in literature – listening, speaking, reading and writing – and three secondary skills – vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation–. It has also been noted that there are many instructions for each skill. However, a brief review of these instructions shows that some of these instructions are very clear and comprehensible at grade 6 level. For example, one of the instructions for teaching vocabulary was ‘Learn vocabulary in a sentence, word class or word map and it is easy to apply it’. Yet some of the instructions were general and were not easy to use while teaching to the students (e.g., The learners must know them, make the meaning evident as you present the structure). Hence, it seems to be a duty to interpret all the above instructions in terms of the learning principles of children and teenagers. Learning of foreign languages does not stop at primary and secondary school. It is also an obligation for high school students. The age range in formal language learning is between 6 and 18 years and a brief overview of the characteristics of children and young people is necessary here.

2.3. Children's Features

The topic of “children’s features” arises the question of “Who are the children in Türkiye?”. In legal terms, those who are until the age 18 are regarded as children (Turkish Penal Code, art. 6). According to the Oxford Learners’ Dictionary the word teenager is defined as “*a person who is between 13 and 19 years old*” (Oxford University Press, n.d.). There is another view about nature of the young. In this view, the people who are between 18 and 65 are young (Salık, 2017); however, the last view was not taken into consideration in this study.

A child’s development stages are: newborn (0-3 months), infancy (3-12 months), toddler (1-3 years), preschool (3-4 years), and school age (4-5 years) (Reding, 2023). Their cognitive development identified by Piaget is still regarded as accepted criteria and these are sensory-motor (0-18 months), pre-operational (18 month-7 year) and concrete operational stages (7-11 year). Their language development follows these steps: One-word stage (12-18 months), two-word-stage and telegraphic speech periods (24-30 months) (Bekleyen, 2016).

The general features of the children are:

- *Children are energetic and active.*
- *Their concentrations span is short.*
- *They have strong imagination.*
- *They are not afraid of making mistakes.*
- *They like colored environments.*
- *Group study with the children can start after certain age.*
- *They give importance to meaning rather than structures (Bekleyen, 2016, iii).*
- *They like attractive lesson materials (Shin, 2014, cited in Bekleyen, 2016, 48).*
- *They don't have any negative attitude while learning a foreign language (Burstal et al. 1974, p.126, cited in Mirici 2001, p.40).*

Scott and Ytreberg (1994, p. 2-3) and some other researchers count the features of children as below:

- *They understand the situations more quickly than they understand the language used.*
- *Their own understanding comes through hands, and eyes and ears.*
- *They ... have difficulty in knowing what is fact and what is fiction.*
- *They can be very reluctant to share.*
- *Children do not always understand what adults are talking about.*
- *Young children love to play, and learn best when they are enjoying themselves.*
- *Young children cannot decide for themselves what to learn.*

- *Young children are enthusiastic and positive about learning.*
- *Children learn by making the concepts, knowledge and skills they are taught their own* (Fisher, 1997, p.3).
- *Young children are quick to learn words, slower to learn structures... they also seem to learn phrases holistically* (Philips, 1993, p.74).
- *Children really enjoy learning and singing songs* (Philips, 1993, p.100).

Scott and Ytreberg (1994, p.1) divide the childhood into two main groups as the “*five to seven years olds and the eight to ten year olds*”. They also state that “*the five to seven years are all at level one, the beginner stage*”. What is needed here is that the principles of the main and sub-skills must be interpreted or adapted in terms of children’s features. Otherwise, these principles would not correspond to the needs of the children. Similarly, the action plans must be stated and interpreted in terms of children’s and teenagers’ features.

2.4. Teenagers’ Features

In section ‘Background to the Study (1.5.)’, it was stated that foreign language learning begins in the second grade and continues until the end of high school, the age of 18. Therefore, we must also take into account the particularities of teenagers in order to successfully apply the principles of main and sub-skills.

Demircan (1990) states that people undergo completely new physical, cognitive and emotional changes during adolescence. He cites Hilgard’s (1963, p.267) view posing that if emotional elements are not considered, only the cognitive elements may not be sufficient in teaching. He also states that emotional elements affect the communicative elements and vice-versa. Thus, it seems that although three elements are equally important, the emotional elements are a bit more important among others. The main features of teenagers (adolescents) are:

- *It is generally accepted that young learners and adults are very willing to play games* (Wright et al. 1990, p.2).
- *... older learners find working with current or well-known pop songs highly motivating* (Philips, 1993, p.100).
- *Children and adults do not always understand what they talk about. ... Adults usually find out by asking questions, but children do not always ask* (Scott & Ytreberg, 1994, p.3).
- *Independent, emotional, rebellious.*
- *Energetic, adventurous, risk-taking.*
- *Maturing physically, hormonal ... social.*
- *Intellectual growth* (Pearson, 2017).

2.5. Summary

In this chapter it was noted that instructions (learning tips, guidelines, etc.) are important and there are separate instructions for main skills and sub-skills. It was also found that for some skills there are simple and clear instructions (e.g. vocabulary training), while for other skills there are not enough instructions (e.g. pronunciation). Overall, it was found that the instructions are abstract rules or principles and therefore need to be interpreted with regard to the learning characteristics of children and young people.

2.6. A Review of Instruction-Based Studies

3.6.1. Learning a skill

It is clear that children can easily acquire their first language, but they experience a tough period when it comes to learning a foreign language. However, the process of learning the first language can be a guide to learning a foreign language, as most language programs include some introductory first language acquisition materials (Brown, 2002, p.57). First language acquisition can be seen as a type of skill acquisition (Christiansen & Chater, 2018). Thus, it would not be wrong to say that learning a language skill and acquiring competence in that skill are the essential components of foreign language acquisition.

To understand or utter a language, learners must reach a remarkable level of proficiency (Chater & McCauley, 2016). Knowing information is an intellectual exercise while using or practicing it in real-life contexts and language is a complex skill that involves reading, speaking, writing, and reading (Husain, 2015). Anderson (2009, pp. 244-245) mentions that “every learning process consists of a cognitive phase, an associative phase and an autonomous phase”. Learners memorize a set of facts related to the skill and repeat these facts while practicing the skill, but their use of the knowledge is still slow in the cognitive phase. Misunderstandings and errors in the cognitive phase are identified and corrected in the associative phase. Besides, the connections between what has been learned become stronger and the learner achieves success in performing the skill. Finally, in the autonomous phase, the learner performs the skill in a more automatic and faster way. The process becomes so automatic that little or no memory is required to perform a skill.

According to Ur (1998), learning a skill through classroom instruction involves 3 phases: Verbalization, automatization and autonomy. In the verbalization phase, the teacher presents the target material, e.g. vocabulary or a grammar structure related to the topic,

and the students are asked to verbalize it. In the automatization phase, students are expected to demonstrate the targeted behavior and teachers monitor their progress as students may have some problems at the beginning of the learning process and need to be corrected. They rehearse and practice the target learning until they can do it without thinking, i.e. automatically. In the autonomy phase, students reach to an expertise, create new information networks and develop their own learning skills. In other words, they become autonomous learners. Students have barely need teachers' instructions out of their guidance.

2.6.2. Learning to learn English

The education system, environment, psychology and practice have witnessed a remarkable innovation in recent years, and this innovation has paved the way for a shift from teacher-centered to student-centered teaching (Alam, 2016; Serin, 2018). It cannot be said that the roles of teachers and students have suddenly reversed, but it is clear that the role of the teacher has changed into a more guiding or mentoring position rather than an authority and knowledge presenter while students have become self-regulated and autonomous learners. Foreign language teachers and learners are also confronted with the same situation.

In traditional language learning, *teachers* play the main role in the teaching, learning and assessment process in the foreign language classroom. *They* are also seen as the unquestionably most important information providers while learners only absorb what they are taught by the teacher without questioning it. It seems that learning a foreign language currently only involves memorizing information such as grammar rules or vocabulary, but not putting the information into practice. As a result, learners have problems remembering the information in a short period of time. However, the process of language learning does not only involve receiving training in classroom; it is a lifelong endeavor. Therefore, achieving learner autonomy or independence is one of the key factors in language learning (Najeeb, 2013).

Most language teachers or educators agree that it is essential to improve students' LLSs, but instructing them about *how* to develop these skills or *how* to learn these skills still remains in secondary concern (Wenden, 1986). Training or informing students on LLSs aims to help learners 'how to learn' (Wenden, 1998). Teaching students how to learn creates an environment where learners are responsible decision makers throughout their learning process (Finch, 2001). Therefore, students have to take responsibility for their

own learnings and learn *how to learn* along with a guidance (Tzotzou, 2011). This guidance may be attributed to foreign language teachers together with other roles such as learner, facilitator, assessor, manager and evaluator (Archana & Usha-Rani, 2017).

Learning to learn English intends to help learners become more efficient in the English learning process, take more responsibility for their learning, consider the factors that influence their learning outcomes and explore the learning strategies that work best for them (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989). It is also clear that learning-to-learn approach may be helpful for less proficient learners to improve their language learning skills (Embi, 2004). Hence, the milestone of the curriculum should be to teach students how to learn according to a report in 1985 (Wirth & Perkins, 2013).

The following two studies are just a few examples of learning to learn motion. For example, one research paper suggests that students should first learn how to listen and then they can become more competent at listening (Vandergrift, 2004). In another study, it was pointed out that foreign language teachers can solve their students' speaking problems if they 'give some instruction or training on their discussion skills', activate group work, use simple language in the activities, choose interesting topics for students, and encourage students to use the target language (Ur, 1998, p.121-122).

2.6.3. Instructed studies on language learning skill

When reviewing the literature, it can be suggested that a profound teaching consists of "*teaching students how to learn, how to remember, how to think, and how to motivate themselves*" (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986, p.315). Teachers, instructors or educators want students to learn; however, they do not teach them how to learn (Norman, 1980). That is, giving instructions to the EFL students on how they can develop their language learning skills becomes a must for English language teaching process. Therefore, supporting students with instructions on *principles, strategies, methods and techniques* can improve students' competence and motivation in language skills. These can be illustrated as follows: First and foremost, students can be supported by providing them with the suggested *principles* of language learning in EFL. These are explained by Demirel (2004) as primary and secondary guidelines. For instance:

- *Consider the whole person.*
- *Keep the students involved.*
- *Rapport and motivate (Rapport involves establishing a classroom atmosphere in which students are stimulated to learn. This is between the teacher and students. But motivation entails the students' incentive to learn.*

- *Teach from known to unknown.*
- *Give the students a feeling of confidence.*
- *Don't teach all you know.*
- *Call on the students by name.* (p. 7-8)

Similarly, there are about 20 principles (instructions) like these, and it would be useful for students to know them during their studies. Another point on this issue is that Demirel (2004) is not the only source that explains principles in ELT. A final point about these principles is that they are general rules that cannot be used in 6th grade, but they can be used in all other grades, e.g. 7th or 8th grade. However, the problem is that they do not say anything about teaching speaking, reading or grammar skills specifically. Therefore, we need to look at strategies that may say something specific about student support.

Secondly, students can be supported by teaching them the language learning *strategies* in EFL. Research examining the effects of teaching language learning strategies on students' learning began in the 1970s with 'the good language learner' model proposed by Rubin (1975). From then on, there were different views on the strategies, but the final and much used version in ELT was proposed by Oxford (1990).

Some other descriptive researchers have emphasised the importance and benefits of strategy training. For example, Hismanoğlu (2000) states that knowing and using language learning strategies help language learners to develop their language skills and control their learning process. Kantaridou (2015) believes that learners who use language learning strategies are more motivated, successful and autonomous. A language teacher should introduce language learning strategies or tactics to learners and encourage them to use these strategies (Zare, 2012) because the use of strategies promotes learners' language proficiency and learning success (Gharbavi & Mousavi, 2012; Yang, 2007). It can be concluded that language learners, whether experienced or beginners, need to be instructed in the use of language learning strategies to promote their language learning and success (Kinoshita, 2003; Montaña, 2017).

Oxford (1990) has classified these learning strategies according to skill areas and provided some representative examples of strategies for improving language skills. As mentioned earlier, Oxford's (ibid.) classification has been widely used and includes six different types such as memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social. Strategy studies show that successful language learners use more language learning strategies than less successful ones (Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003).

Although the Oxford's (1990) questionnaire, known as the Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL), has been widely used, it has been criticized for the following reasons: There are other acceptable definitions and uses of the word strategy in the literature. The SILL articles do not equally deal with main and sub-skills. There are fourteen articles on vocabulary teaching and only one article on writing skills. In addition, at least six of these articles have been mistranslated into Turkish (Tomakin, 2022). A final criticism of the Oxford classification is that the articles of the SILL may not be easy to apply in 6th grade.

Thirdly, students can be supported by teaching them the approaches, methods and techniques of ELT. The approach is an axiom, a belief and an assumption for Anthony (1963) whereas it must relate to language and language learning for Richards and Rogers (1993). The method is an overall plan and an ordered account in Anthony's (1963) view whereas it refers to the structural, functional and interactive side of language for Richards and Rogers (1993). As for technique, it is implementational in the former view, but procedural and tactical in the latter. In short, the views on approach, method and technique seem to be abstract and theoretical. Hence, these cannot be used and applied by the 6th graders. However, they can be used with advanced level learners.

For example, English teachers can use communicative, natural, visual, audiovisual, humanistic, topical approaches in the classroom. Teachers can also use methods such as the new method, the reading method, the grammar translation method, collaborative language learning, the silent way, suggestopedia, etc. Teachers can use question-answer, debates, discussions, lectures, demonstrations, role-plays techniques.

Although the teaching of language learning principles, strategies, approaches, methods and techniques can have a positive impact on students' language proficiency, teachers encounter some problems when teaching these language learning tactics. Teachers usually rely on a pre-determined curriculum to teach the topics and assess the language outcomes. This can leave a language teacher with no time to teach language skills to their students. Trying to teach the entire content of an English book in a limited amount of time is no easy task. Similarly, it can be a challenge for teachers to motivate students to actively and independently participate in the language learning process. In addition, teachers are usually not trained in how to teach language learning strategies to their students, which can be a burden for them (Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson, 2007). In short, instructions, i.e. support, hints, study tips, can be in the form of principle, strategy,

approach, method and techniques; however, they should be provided for students by simplifying them according to students' grades.

2.6.4. Instructed studies on listening skill

Listening is one of the most important skills a language learner needs to master in order to communicate better in the target language. Nevertheless, it can be observed that listening exercises in textbooks or listening comprehension in general are neglected in language teaching (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). Recent studies have shown that listening comprehension skills do not develop naturally and language learners need to be trained in instruction on listening skill (Fathi, Derakhshan, & Torabi, 2020). Listening exercises in English courses usually focus on the accuracy of students' responses in exercises such as fill-in-the-blank, stringing sentences together, or choosing the correct option. The focus is on the product rather than the process and teachers only assess students' learning outcomes without teaching them how to develop their listening skills (Goh, 2010). However, providing guidance and teaching listening comprehension strategies can help students achieve better listening comprehension and use the target language more fluently. The core of the current situation in English textbooks is that they contain some listening texts, but no instructions, tips, hints, etc. to understand the text, song or tongue twister heard.

In an experimental study with 106 foreign language learners, Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) supported language learners in the experimental group with listening strategies such as researching the topic, making predictions about the listening texts before the listening activity, taking notes while listening and comparing the notes with the predictions and listing possible words to be heard during the listening activity, while the control group did not receive any instruction on listening skills. The study found that the language learners in the experimental group who used the language strategies while listening performed better than the learners in the control group who only listened without following any instructions. The research also showed that the use of listening strategies improved the academic performance of learners in lower proficiency compared to learners in higher proficiency.

In another quasi-experimental study by Coşkun (2010), 20 Turkish EFL students learned to use metacognitive listening strategies, such as translating key words or all words they had heard while listening, using prior knowledge about the topic, utilizing general idea to estimate the meaning of an unknown word in the listening task, setting goals and

monitoring their own satisfaction level in terms of comprehension while listening and focusing on the listening task, while the other 20 Turkish fellow students were not instructed on the skill of listening. Employing pre- and post-tests, the researchers found that training students on listening skills helped to improve their listening performance and that metacognitive listening strategies promoted the language learners' listening comprehension.

Likewise, Carrier (2003) instructed language learners on listening strategies in 15 sessions and taught listening strategies such as using symbols or abbreviations for note taking in limited time, understanding the whole sentence based on the key words in the notes, and focusing on emphasised utterances while listening. The research concluded that teaching listening comprehension tactics improved learners' listening comprehension and teaching listening comprehension strategies should be included in the foreign language curriculum.

In a similar study, Young (2012) asserted that language learners perceive listening as the most difficult language skill and that there is little chance of teaching this skill. Nevertheless, the researcher taught some of the listening strategies such as directing attention to the important parts or words and predicting the words that will appear in the listening texts. It concluded that teaching skill strategies did not interrupt to teach the subjects matters in foreign language curriculum. Besides, supporting students with these strategies moderately improved students' listening comprehension.

Moreover, Cross (2009) conducted a quasi-experimental study on the effects of listening comprehension instruction with EFL learners. Using BBC news videos, the researcher instructed learners to only watch the video, not write anything down, take notes after pausing the video to prompt learners' visual and auditory responses, review each other's information, and finally read the transcripts given to them to compare with their notes and monitor their learning. The researcher found that the experimental group showed significant progress in listening comprehension, but there was no significant difference between the performance of the experimental and control groups.

Furthermore, Zhang (2012) conducted a study with 56 EFL students who were divided into an experimental group and a control group to analyze the effects of teaching listening strategies on listening skills. The researcher offered the experimental group to use some listening strategies such as paying attention to the important parts of the listening exercises, linking the new information with the previous ones, writing down only

important information in the listening task, collaborating with classmates to discuss the information given in the listening task and evaluating their own answers, rewarding themselves for success in the task, inferring the words or topic in the listening task. As a result, it was understood that the experimental group who knew the listening strategies and used them in the listening tasks performed better than the control group who were taught with traditional listening styles. Furthermore, the study suggested that the issue of how EFL learners can learn to listen could be part of the English curriculum.

In addition to the research papers mentioned above, several master's and doctoral theses have also dealt with this topic. Odacı (2006), for example, separated the two prep-school classes as experimental who were directly taught listening strategies like predicting the topic after looking at the pictures or checking the context for finding the meaning of a word and as control who received indirect instructions to develop listening comprehension. The results showed that the experimental group used these strategies more frequently and scored better in the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) listening comprehension test. It was also concluded that the provision of explicit listening strategies improved the EFL students' listening comprehension skills while the provision of implicit instructions had no effect.

In a similar study, Hilaloğlu (2019) investigated the effects of explicit teaching of listening strategies on Turkish EFL learners' listening anxiety and listening skills. The researcher instructed the EFL learners in the experimental group to find and prepare themselves for the target of the listening task, focus on the listening task and disregard other distracting voices, imagine the events in the listening task while listening, and concentrate on the important parts and context in the listening task. These instructions were found to have a positive effect on students' listening comprehension skills and reduce EFL learners' anxiety at the least. In addition, students had a positive attitude towards learning how to listen.

In Clement's (2007) study, EFL students were divided into two groups, one intermediate and one advanced, who watched videos on listening comprehension development strategies sent through electronic media. They were given instructions such as linking newly heard information to old ones, predicting the topic using pictures and headings, noting important information or words using abbreviations, and comparing these notes with their peers. The researcher discovered that students responded positively to the web-based instructions and found this type of training useful for current and future listening

tasks. The results of the data analysis showed that there was no statistical difference between the two groups.

To summarise, it is clear from the above mentioned studies that the students who received training or tactics for *listening* achieved better grades and performance than the students who did not receive training or tactics. This shows the importance of supporting students with instruction on how to improve their listening comprehension. Similarly, it was expected that the 6th grade students who received instruction on listening comprehension would improve their listening skills and achieve better grades in the exams.

2.6.5. Instructed studies on speaking skill

Speaking is another important language skill that a language learner should acquire when learning a foreign language. Most EFL learners and teachers believe that speaking a language means knowing and acquiring the language. Therefore, the inability to speak a language can reduce a language learner's motivation to learn a foreign language (Bahrani & Soltani, 2012). Speaking, which is categorized as an active and productive skill, is also considered one of the most difficult skills among all language skills. Acquiring fluency in the target language therefore boosts a language learner's confidence, motivation and enthusiasm for that language.

There are many studies that shed light on the importance of speaking skills and the need for teaching this skill to EFL learners (Rao, 2019a). However, it is clear that little or no time is spent on teaching speaking skills in the language classroom. Similarly, EFL learners are usually unwilling to speak the target language, whether due to shyness, incompetence, fear or lack of confidence. However, teaching students effective speaking strategies, methods, techniques or tactics can increase their speaking competence and motivation. Some academic papers have shown that giving speaking instructions improves EFL learners' performance and motivation regarding speaking skills.

For example, Tavakoli, Dastjerdi and Esteki (2011) investigated the effects of strategy instruction on EFL learners' oral production in terms of accuracy, fluency and complexity using pre- and post-tests. EFL teachers instructed 20 students in the experimental group on speaking skill for 8 lessons whereas 20 students in the control group received no instruction. These instructions included paraphrasing to replace the knowledge gaps during speaking, using a lexically close term instead of the unknown term, using general-purpose words such as 'thing, stuff', and using lexicalized filler words to gain time when a problem occurs during speaking. The results showed that the experimental group

achieved high levels of complexity, accuracy and fluency, and the strategy instruction had a positive effect on the students' oral performance.

In an experimental study, Moradi and Talebi (2014) divided the language class into two groups: the experimental group, which was instructed on speaking skills, and the control group, which exposed to traditional learning methods. They attempted to test the effectiveness of pre-speaking strategies on students' fluency and vocabulary during the speaking task. The researchers instructed the learners to paraphrase unfamiliar words by using synonyms or antonyms, give explanations and use non-verbal communication, use lexicalized filler words to gain time, ensure fluency and bridge the language gaps when speaking. They found that the experimental group scored higher on the post-test and concluded that instructing EFL students on speaking skills improved their fluency, accuracy and vocabulary knowledge.

Likewise, Mantra and Maba (2018) investigated the effect of folktales on students' speaking skills after observing in the pre-test that language learners' motivation and competence in speaking skills was insufficient. The researchers instructed the students to perform a speaking task by retelling a folktale and asked the students about their feelings and ideas about the folktale. From the post-test, they concluded that folktales instruction had a positive effect on the ELF students' motivation and speaking performance.

Similarly, Tsai (2018) tried to reduce EFL students' speaking anxiety by teaching them various techniques such as deep breathing and relaxing the body when they feel anxious while speaking, and to improve their speaking skills by instructing them some techniques such as asking for help from classmates or teachers to find out the meaning of a word, using a dictionary before a role-play task, using non-verbal communication, synonyms or descriptions for an unknown word, asking for repetition or trying to understand from the context if one did not understand part of the conversation, and using filler words to think about what to say. This experimental study with 105 EFL students has shown that the more students used the speaking strategy, the less anxiety they felt when speaking, and that the decrease in speaking anxiety had an effect on students' comprehension. Thus, language teachers should therefore teach EFL students the necessary strategies or methods for language learning.

Some thesis studies have also used instructions to develop students' speaking skills. For example, in a descriptive and experimental study, Atik (2006) taught EFL learners in the experimental group various speaking strategies, such as repeating, translating, using

gestures and facial expressions, inferring words, using synonyms or music, collaborating with peers, and asking for evaluation, while learners in the control group received no training. As a result, it was found that the instructed learners tried to continue communicating even when faced with some challenges and became more confident as a result. In addition, the speaking competence of the students in the experimental group improved significantly, so that speaking lessons should be part of the language learning process.

In another experimental study with 62 Turkish students, Keskin (2013) taught the students in the experimental group various speaking strategies such as paraphrasing, asking for repetition or clarification, reducing anxiety levels, planning and evaluating the speaking process, guessing the meaning of an unknown word, using gestures or body language to transfer knowledge, coining words, improving fluency with filler words, using equivalent words instead of unknown words, and translation as part of the speaking club. After the 14-week implementation period, it was found that the experimental group performed better in the post-test than the control group. It was therefore claimed that strategy instruction on speaking skills can improve students' speaking competencies.

Likewise, Eken (2018) gave instructions on speaking skills, such as continuously pronouncing new words, forming a sentence with a recently learned word or repeating the sounds of the target language to achieve correct pronunciation when speaking, drawing a picture when not knowing the equivalent of the word in the target language, asking for help to find the correct word or form a sentence correctly in English, de-stressing when feeling stressed for speaking in English, and seeking opportunities to speak English in the classroom. After the implementation period, it was observed that the students' perceptions, feelings and attitudes towards English and the English learning process were positive.

Among other examples, Ali (2022) used the Story Reenactment Strategy developed by Herrel and Jordan (2012) in an experimental study and instructed EFL students in the experimental group to read a story, tell the story, prepare and use decorations, and finally revive the story and assessed the students' repetitions of the story while the students in the control group used traditional methods. The results of the study showed that reviving a story increased EFL students' speaking proficiency, students evaluated the use of the strategy positively, and teaching and instructing listening strategies to language learners can improve their listening skill.

To summarise, it can be clearly inferred from the aforementioned studies that the students who received training or tactics on *how to speak* were able to shed their shyness, incompetence and anxiety and improved their speaking skills and motivation. It was also found that the students in the experimental groups who received training on speaking skills outperformed the students in the control group who did not receive training. That is, the students in the experimental had positive perceptions, feelings and confidence on speaking compared to the students in the control group. Overall, the above studies have shown that there is a need to *support* students with instructions on how to improve their listening skills.

2.6.6. Instructed studies on vocabulary skill

Vocabulary is one of the most important components that make up a language system. Several studies consider vocabulary knowledge as the core element in the language learning and teaching process (Alqahtani, 2015; Folse, 2004; Yazdi & Kafipour, 2014). It is also an undeniable fact that vocabulary contributes to the improvement of language skills such as speaking, writing, reading and listening (Dakhi & Fitria, 2019). According to Laufer (1998), the gap between native speakers and foreign language learners results from the different vocabulary knowledge of these two groups. It is therefore essential to acquire a large vocabulary when learning a foreign language. However, foreign language learners usually have difficulties in acquiring sufficient vocabulary to communicate, or they have problems memorizing and recalling a newly learned word. It is obvious that foreign language learners are not informed about appropriate vocabulary learning strategies. Therefore, it is necessary to support them with vocabulary learning instructions (Kıran, 2005).

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the effect of instructing strategies and techniques for learning and memorizing vocabulary. It appears that there are eleven instructed studies, seven of which are based on an experimental research design. For example, one experimental study with 24 EFL students examined the effects of vocabulary and reading skills training. Students in the experimental group were given strategies such as creating semantic maps, grouping and associating words, discussing with peers or trying to guess the meaning of an unknown word encountered while reading a text instead of quickly looking it up in a dictionary and taking notes, while students in the control group received no instruction on language skills (Döner, 2005). After the implementation process, it was found that the students in the experimental group tried to

guess the meaning of unknown words while the students in the control group generally checked the meaning of the words in the dictionaries, the students in the experimental group perceived the use of strategies positively, and that the students in the control group wasted their time translating or reading the sentences in detail while the students in the experimental group used the strategies and gained time.

In addition, an experimental study involving 76 students in the experimental group and 70 students in the control group attempted to demonstrate the effects of instructions on vocabulary learning (Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2009). Teachers instructed the students in the experimental group to preview new words before learning them, actually use and test the newly learned vocabulary, set themselves the goal of remembering a certain number of words, repeat the words in writing or orally, use affixes or word stems to determine the meaning, associate the word with its known synonyms or antonyms, group the vocabulary lexically, use vocabulary cards, and use mnemonics, collocations or media such as television or radio even though the students in the control group were taught the same words without any instruction in vocabulary knowledge. The results of the pre- and post-tests suggested that learning vocabulary techniques improved students' vocabulary knowledge and can increase their self-motivation.

In addition, in an experimental master's thesis, Uğurluel-Torun (2010) taught 50 language learners in the experimental group some vocabulary learning strategies such as using pictures to memorize a word, making different sentences with the new vocabulary, creating a story using the newly learned words, writing a poem using the word lists provided by the teacher, holding a competition with peers or working in pairs while the language learners in the control group did not receive any instruction on these strategies. When examining the effect of teaching vocabulary strategies on students' development, the researcher reached the conclusion that vocabulary acquisition improved with the teaching of vocabulary strategies and successful learners frequently used vocabulary learning strategies.

Moreover, in an experimental study with 20 students in the control group and 20 students in the experimental group, Ghorbani and Riabi (2011) investigated the effects of teaching different memory techniques on the storing newly learned vocabulary in long-term memory. The EFL students in the experimental group, who received information about memory strategies such as the use of abbreviations or pictures and the grouping of words, did not perform better than the control group in the post-test in terms of short-term

memory, but showed better performance in long-term memory. The results show that teaching memorization strategies to EFL learners had a positive effect on vocabulary learning and its retention in long-term memory.

Furthermore, in a similar experimental study, Rahimi (2014) attempted to explore the effectiveness of teaching different vocabulary learning strategies on learners' vocabulary size. 31 students in the control group were taught using conventional methods of vocabulary instruction. However, the 30 students in the experimental group were trained in various vocabulary acquisition strategies such as repeating the vocabulary or using it in a sentence, breaking the vocabulary into its components to analyze its root, prefix or suffix, guessing the meaning from the context, classifying words according to their types, making a list of new words related to the given word, and checking and assessing through 13 sessions. The results of the study offered that vocabulary instruction enhanced EFL students' vocabulary size.

The last two studies are also experimental. In the first study, Atasheneh and Naeimi (2015) focused on the effect of mechanical techniques as vocabulary learning strategy. In the implementation phase, instructors wrote the English words on the board, taught the pronunciation, and simply translated these words into the native language of 26 EFL students in the control group whereas 26 other EFL students in the experimental group received instructions on vocabulary learning such as using flashcards or they were instructed to repeat the newly learned words on the bus or in lines, i.e. in an environment other than the classroom. As a result, it was understood that instructing students' vocabulary work improved and expanded their vocabulary knowledge and size.

In the latter, Hassanzadeh, Tamjid and Ahangari (2019) taught the lexical interference model to the students and evaluated its effect on the students' vocabulary knowledge. The researchers instructed the experimental group to repeat the words that the teacher had previously determined from the reading texts, analyze these words by examining the affixes and word stem to predict the meaning of an unknown word, guess the meaning of a word by associating its sound and form with other words or using their prior knowledge, and evaluate themselves by asking questions about their guess while the control group received traditional instruction. The findings showed that the students in the experimental group acquired a larger vocabulary compared to their peers in the control group.

Non-experimental but instructed studies and their effects can be seen as follows: For example, in a study with 180 EFL students, Lai (2013) examined the effects of teaching

vocabulary learning strategies to students on their vocabulary knowledge. The researcher gave various tips and strategies for vocabulary skill such as using the context to guess the meaning, grouping words, using roots, prefixes and suffixes, using the newly learned word in a sentence, drawing pictures compatible with the word, finding synonyms and antonyms of the words, using word maps, saying the new word out loud while memorizing it, using English language media, labeling the objects in the target language, writing the word down over and over again, using bilingual dictionaries, practicing the spelling of the word, and learning a new word through group work. It has been found that students who have learned how to learn a new word change their learning habits and increase their vocabulary sizes.

Moreover, Yang and Liu (2014) conducted a study with 33 EFL learners to measure the effects of an intervention in which students were taught how to enlarge their vocabulary knowledge. Students were instructed to pay attention to the form, position, function, and meaning of the word while looking it up in the dictionary, learn other meanings of the word if available, take notes on the pronunciation, usage, definition, synonyms, and antonyms of the word, and form a sentence using the word. Using pre- and post-tests, the researchers found that informing students on vocabulary learning skills broadened their vocabulary and was therefore important for the language learning process. In addition, students developed a positive attitude towards vocabulary learning in this way. Phillips (2016) also conducted a study to observe the effect of vocabulary learning strategies such as semantic mapping and picture-word pairing to second grade students. The results revealed that students who use these strategies had greater vocabulary knowledge.

In addition, Ilter (2019) instructed students to use the vocabulary learning strategy developed by Graves (2006) - inferring word meanings from context- by exposing them to a short paragraph of words they did not know or were unsure of the meaning, underlining these words and trying to guess the meaning using the context clues strategy. The study found that EFL students who know and incorporate the vocabulary learning strategy into the learning process performed better in vocabulary tests and students were more aware of these strategies to acquire better vocabulary knowledge.

To summarize, the literature shows that language learners with a high level of vocabulary knowledge use more strategies, techniques or tactics to learn vocabulary (Fan, 2003; Yazdi & Kafipour, 2014). This means that instructing students on vocabulary knowledge can increase students' vocabulary and thus improving their other language skills.

2.6.7. Instructed studies on grammar skill

The role of grammar in learning a foreign language cannot be denied. Proficiency in grammar enables language learners to communicate effectively in the target language, and grammar serves as the root of a language, thus affecting the mastery of speaking, listening, writing and reading skills. Each grammatical rule has a different function in conveying and clarifying the meaning along with generating and paraphrasing sentences in different forms (Dalil & Harrizi, 2013). Therefore, foreign language teachers generally emphasise the teaching of grammar rules and spend the most of class time teaching grammar. However, grammar teaching does not go beyond the use of prescriptive methods rather than descriptive ones (Rao, 2019b). Both students and teachers face some challenges when it comes to EFL grammar teaching. However, the students' problems are greater (Al-Mekhlafi & Nagaratnam, 2011). Since students do not know how to learn or retain grammar, they only try to repeat and memorize the grammar rules from their books or notebooks, but cannot transfer these rules to other language contexts or remember them after a while. Therefore, teaching students how to learn grammar can be more effective than just striving to teach the grammar rules.

A review of the literature shows that the number of studies demonstrating the effect of instruction on grammar knowledge is few. It is also clear from the following studies that all attempted to measure the effect of instructions and most of them are based on an experimental and control group design. For example, in a doctoral thesis study by Gimeno (2002), teachers taught students 'conditionals' by instructing several cognitive and metacognitive grammar learning strategies, such as directing selective attention (e.g., reading for specific structures to learn new linguistic forms), self-observation and self-evaluation (e.g., checking the accuracy of grammar use), elaboration and inference (e.g., deriving a grammar rule from a text), deduction, repetition, translation, transfer (e.g., using the 2nd conditional to understand the 3rd conditional). The findings of the study revealed that students in experimental group outperformed their peers in control group in the post-test and less competent learners in the experimental group reached better results than the students in control group.

In another experiment by Fard (2010), who wanted to investigate the effect of strategy instruction on grammar, 66 participants were divided into one control group and two experimental groups. The control group received traditional grammar instruction, one experimental group was taught cognitive grammar strategies and the other experimental

group was taught metacognitive grammar strategies. These cognitive instructions included repeating the rule in order to learn it, combining and relating the new information with the existing one, translating from the target language to the mother tongue, recalling prior linguistic knowledge in order to understand better, while the metacognitive grammar strategies consisted of analyzing the new structures in a sentence or text, observing the relationship between the new and the old structures to make connections, predictions and inferences, self-observation and self-management. The results indicated that teaching cognitive grammar strategies had no significant effect on students' structural knowledge while metacognitive grammar strategies significantly influenced structural knowledge.

Faghih and Fard (2010) conducted a quasi-experimental study with 44 EFL learners who were divided into two groups. Both groups were taught the same grammar rules. However, the teachers did not give grammar instruction to the control group and taught some grammar strategies such as repeating to recall the target structure, combining previous knowledge with the new one to construct meaningful and longer structures, linking existing knowledge with new information, translating the target material, and using previous language knowledge to fully understand it. The results demonstrated that teaching grammar strategies did not lead to a statistically significant improvement in students' structural knowledge, but increased strategy use among language learners. These quasi and true experimental studies suggest that teaching grammar learning strategies improves students' language proficiency.

Besides, Nadeem and Kiran (2015) investigated the effect of grammar teaching or learning techniques or strategies on learners' proficiency in the English tenses. 40 EFL students were instructed to invent a story with a list of words using a particular tense, make a short movie or create a role play using tenses, prepare a short dialogue using a particular tense and present it to classmates in the classroom, and create a tense table with some information about the structure or rules of a particular tense and change the tense of a sentence by consulting another tense table. The findings clearly indicate that using all these techniques in the learning process improved students' efficiency in terms of grammar and English tenses. Moreover, the students developed a positive attitude towards English grammar.

In addition, Zekrati (2017) undertook a study with 300 EFL students whose language level ranged from elementary and pre-intermediate to intermediate, and attempted to investigate the relationship between the use of grammar strategies and performance. The

results of this study suggested that intermediate students used more grammar learning strategies than their elementary and intermediate peers. It also became clear that more proficient language learners used a wide range of grammar learning strategies while beginners relied on specific types of grammar strategies. In addition, teaching students *how* to learn a grammar rule is more effective than simply memorizing it. Thus, teachers should know these strategies and teach them to students.

2.6.8. Summary

A review of the literature has shown that

1. Learning a foreign language requires mastery of language skills.
2. The roles of teachers and students have changed. Pupils have become more active, autonomous and self-directed in the learning process while teachers have taken on the guiding role.
3. When learning a foreign language, students usually get stuck in the verbalization process. They have problems remembering what they have just learned because they do not know *how to learn* a language skill or they have not been *taught* a learning strategy, tactic or technique.
4. Learning a language is not limited to the classroom, but is a lifelong process. Thus, teaching students how to learn a skill or instructing them about language learning strategies, tactics or techniques can be more effective than simply giving a lecture on the subject, doing some classroom activities and setting homework.
5. Students who know how to learn become more independent learners.
6. Instructing students on language learning skills have mostly positive effects on language learners' academic achievements, perceptions and attainments, but some areas like grammar have been neglected for a while.

The first chapter explained the meaning of the term instruction in the dictionary, in legal and pedagogical documents.

The second chapter examined the instructions for each individual skill, the characteristics of the children and young people and the studies based on the instructions. That is, it reviewed instruction-based studies.

Since this instruction-based study was conducted through the use of AR to examine students' perceptions and academic performance, the next chapter was devoted to a brief literature review on AR.

CHAPTER III

A BRIEF LITERATURE REVIEW: ACTION RESEARCH

3.1. Introduction

The term action research (AR) is currently used as a joker term not only in teaching, but also in any kind of research. Its use in teaching is not limited to foreign/second language acquisition studies; it is used in all different disciplines related to teaching. Its use in research is not limited to any particular type of research tradition. It is used in both qualitative and quantitative research traditions. Perhaps because of this flexibility and commonality, Elliott (1991) states that AR combines teaching and research at the same time. Following the emergence of the term AR, several other terms similar to the definition of AR emerged in the literature that are also claimed to be an AR study. Therefore, a brief overview of these terms is necessary to show the difference between AR and other terms.

In the world and in Türkiye, AR is a famous research tradition and its popularity is increasing day by day, but it seems that AR studies are not without problems. For example, Cetin (2013) states that Burns' (2009) AR formula – Plan, Act, Observe, Reflect - was used in his study, yet this formula was originally from Kemmis and McTaggart (1988). Similarly, Yıldırım and Simsek's (2005, p.298) model of AR is similar to McBride' (1995) model that has eight stages. In the same way, Buyukozturk et al's (2010, p. 283) model resembles the model posed by Lewin (1948).

In order to explain what is AR and its elements in terms of research questions posed at the first chapter and lack of AR that has not investigated the effects of instruction on students so far, a brief, but concise review of the AR has been provided in the following section. The reason for this is that much has already been written about AR in the literature and countless AR studies have been conducted. This is not an abstract review, but it shows the relationship between AR and the research topic and process by examining the origin, development, objectives, models and types of AR.

3.2. Origin and Development of Action Research

There is more than one source about the origin of the word. The first possible source is Collier, who is credited with contributing to the development of AR as Commissioner of Indian Affairs from 1933 to 1945 (Nielsen, 2006). Another possible source is Moreno, who was a pioneer of group psychotherapy and sociometry in the 1920s (Gunz, 1996).

The third and much cited source is Lewin himself (Masters, 1995). Lewin's influence on AR can be analyzed in two ways. First, Lewin was a student of Wertheimer in the 1920s and may have been influenced by Gestalt psychology. Second, Lewin himself wrote his definition of AR in 1948. His definition may have come about after reading and studying Gestalt psychology for two decades.

The term AR was first used in education by Corey (1953) in America and the term - Educational Action Research (EAR) - was coined by Carr and Kemmis in 1986. Since then, this term has been used as an umbrella term in educational studies (McNiff, 1995). Apart from its first use in education and educational studies, a brief history of other terms related to AR follows: One of the terms is action learning (AL), which was developed by Reg Revans during World War II. It refers to "*learning from experience and sharing experience with others ...*" (Margerison 1994, p.109). In other words, it refers to learning by doing. Another term is action science (AS), which "*is a form of AR*" (Argyris, 1999). For Whyte (1991, p. 97), AS assumes that "*the beginning of learning new ways of thinking and feeling should precede embarking of new courses of action*".

These two terms – AL and AS – are not as popular as the term reflective practice (RP), which is the third term. It is used in the form of reflection in action (RIA) and reflection on action (ROA) (Schon, 1983, 1987). In the first case, someone becomes a researcher when they reflect in action; in the second case, someone can reflect on action when they reflect on what they have done. In other words, in RIA the teacher reflects immediately, whereas in ROA the teacher reflects later on. Last but not least, there are several terms in the literature such as classroom research, reflective practitioner, practitioner research, but Stenhouse's term –teacher researcher (TR) – has come to be used like AR (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995). Among these terms, the researcher prefers the terms AR and TR for researcher and reflection for evaluation.

If we review the development of AR studies, we can see that the government, the Schools Council (Elliott, 1991) and the Frankfurt School contributed to the development of AR studies in the United Kingdom (UK). The first AR studies emerged to improve the curriculum, particularly in Secondary Modern Schools (Elliott, 1991). Some of the projects took the form of AR and the most important of these are: The Humanities Curriculum Project (HCP) aimed to "*develop adolescent students' understanding of controversial issues (war, race, gender, family, society, etc.)*" and found that trained teachers tended to produce better results compared to untrained teachers (Elliott &

Adelman, 1973, p.8). The Ford Teaching Project (FTP) aimed to have teachers develop professional knowledge in their classrooms through inquiry/discovery methods. Teachers were found to develop more reflective practices and pedagogical theories than those in the HCP. The Girls into Science and Technology (GIST) project got students to choose more science and technology subjects. The idea for the GIST project came from outside the schools (Kelly, 1985). The Educational Priority Area (EPA) project covered small and economically underdeveloped mining towns around Liverpool, London and Birmingham. It was designed to raise educational standards, boost teacher morale, create a link between home and school and help communities develop a sense of responsibility (Midwinter, 1972). So, it seems that in the UK there are AR projects at government level, while in Türkiye the AR studies are conducted either as an article or as a postgraduate study.

AR was not only carried out in the UK, but also spread to other parts of the world such as Australia, America and Germany. In the UK, certain universities and some departments were dedicated to the study of AR. For example, John Elliott, Rob Walker, Dave Ebbutt, Barry MacDonald, Lawrence Stenhouse etc. worked on AR at the University of East Anglia. Jean McNiff, Jack Whitehead, etc. also worked at the University of Bath. Steven Kemmis and McTaggart worked at Deakin University in Australia. In Türkiye, AR method is applied by different disciplines and there are about 450 AR studies at the CoHE National Thesis Centre (URL- 4, 2024).

3.3. Definitions and Objectives of Action Research

It is obvious that every term or concept has a definition. AR also has its definition and its goals. If the literature is searched, one finds many definitions and goals for AR. Therefore, it was wise to limit these definitions to the field of education and the main personalities of AR.

Corey (1953) defines AR as follows: “*It is a process in which teachers attempt to identify the problems confronting students in the classroom and solve them in a scientific manner for the benefit of the learners.*” (p.6).

Kemmis and McTaggart (1988, p.5) define AR focusing on participation and emancipation:

Action research is a form of collective self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice

of their own social or educational practices, as well as their understanding of these practices and the situations in which these practices are carried out.

Elliott (1991, p. 69) describes AR as “*the study of a social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it...*”.

McNiff and Whitehead (2002, p.16) emphasize that “*it is a form of practice that involves collecting data, reflecting on action as represented by the data, generating evidence from the data, and asserting knowledge based on conclusions drawn from validated evidence*”.

The definitions differ from one researcher to another and among these definitions, an observation was made by Tomakin (2001) to refine and better understand these definitions. Ultimately, two types of definitions emerged. In the first type, researchers use the word ‘teacher’ in their definitions and state that AR must be implemented by teachers in schools (e.g., Ebbutt, 1985; McNiff, 1995; Nunan, 1989; Somekh, 1989; Zuber-Skerritt, 1992). In the second type, researchers offer a general definition of AR. They do not include the word ‘teacher’ in the definition, but later state that teachers must conduct AR (e.g., Carr & Kemmis, 1990; Elliott, 1991; Kemmis, 1985; Rapaport, 1970).

Tomakin (2001, p.67) saw a problematic relationship and deficiency in the above definitions and stated in his first definition that AR must be undertaken by teachers who are equipped with the knowledge of AR. He also emphasized that AR can be conducted by those who know the objectives, stages, models, data collection and data analysis procedures in AR. In other words, AR cannot be carried out by those who lack the knowledge of AR. His continuous and critical revision continued and the following definition was written in his diary (29/12/1999, p. 183).

AR in education must be undertaken by job holders. By job holders I mean those who serve in education. Now, I do not necessarily mean that teachers must undertake AR. It can be undertaken by teachers, head-teachers, deputy heads, the LEA etc. The important point is that AR must be undertaken by anybody into his/her task, work, job etc. For example, an AR study must not be undertaken by head-teachers about teaching if those heads are not actually teaching in classrooms. Similarly, an AR study must not be undertaken by teachers about school management if teachers do not serve as heads or deputy heads. Hence I replaced my previous definition of teacher by job-holder. However, I still hold the same ideas that those action researchers must know the stated requirements, mentioned in my previous definition.
Tomakin (2001, p.69)

It is true that teachers are in the best position to understand their classrooms and students because they are always with their students. Yet, head teachers or deputy head teachers

cannot put themselves in the shoes of others if they do not have an actual teaching role. The above definition and my positions – assistant principal and English teacher – are completely consistent with what I did as a teacher in the classrooms and how I worked as a deputy head in the school. The point here is that there may be famous figures or definitions of a term/concept in the literature. However, we, as researchers, need to critically examine them to see if they match our research questions, aims, methods or our role in the actual research process.

When it comes to the goals of AR and the literature review, the action researchers mentioned above have also defined the goals of AR. Tomakin (2001, p.68) refined these goals of AR formulated in the literature as follows: According to this analysis, the objectives were categorized into two groups, the first group stating that “AR deals with current and immediate problematic situations or practical problems”. For example, Rapoport (1970, p.444) states that “*AR provides practical solutions to urgent problematic situations for people and the goals of social science*”. In Corey’s view (1988, p.63), action researchers must deal with “*...the improvement of educational practice in which he is engaging*”. Besides, McKernan (1991, p.3), explaining AR and curriculum development, states that “*the aim of AR is to solve the immediate and pressing day to day problems of practitioners*”. Cohen and Manion (1996, p.188) make the same point by saying that AR deals with problems “*diagnosed in specific situations*”.

According to the second group, the aim in AR is “improvement of practice by bringing about changes”. For example, McNiff et al. (1996, p.2) state that “*AR ... helps practitioners to improve their professional practice in every type of workplace*”. Besides, Carr and Kemmis (1990, p.169) express that AR aims at “*the improvement of practice, situation and understanding...*”. In addition, Elliott (1991, p.49) states that “*the fundamental aim of AR is to improve practice rather than produce knowledge...*”. Furthermore, Zuber-Skerritt (1992, p.15) makes the same point as follows; the aims are “*improvement of AR, the improvement of the understanding of practice,... the improvement of the situation...*”.

In summary, there is no such distinction in the literature, but it was considered a useful classification. Last but not least, AR was also classified according to its types and models. In explaining these types, each type has its own objectives and this topic was handled in the next section.

3.4. Types of Action Research

There are different types of AR and different classifications by different scholars. These are diagnostic, participatory, empirical, experimental, technical, practical, and so on. In view of this, the present study can be considered as participatory action research (PAR). PAR, categorized by Lewin and his friends as one of the four types of AR, involves participants in the research process from the very beginning. It does not produce general principles, but some local facts for a particular community (Adelman, 1993). The main characteristics of PAR can be listed as “(1) the active involvement of researchers and participants in the co-construction of knowledge, (2) the promotion of self- and critical awareness leading to individual, collective and/or social change, and (3) the building of alliances between researchers and participants in the planning, conduct and dissemination of the research process” (McIntyre, 2008).

The present AR study is a participatory study because the researcher aims to improve practice at the local level rather than to establish general principles; the researcher is responsible for both the conduct of this study and the teaching process; participants are involved in the study throughout the research process (e.g., in deciding on the topic to be studied, the teacher conducting the study took field notes to write down her observations during lessons and shared opinions with her students the problems they face in learning English, or all participants had the right to express their opinions about the research process) and conducted research together; and the teacher conducting the study was aware of the need for changes in the teaching and learning environment.

In addition, this study can also be classified as classroom action research (CAR). AR can generally be applied in all areas. However, CAR, as the name implies, is conducted in the teachers’ own teaching environment, namely in their classrooms or schools. CAR can be defined as a method of determining what works best to improve student learning and it aims to improve teachers’ own teaching in their own classroom by focusing on a problem that occurs in their own classroom (Mettetal, 2001).

It can also be described as a reflective process in which teachers seek to examine and improve their teaching through the collection of data. Therefore, teachers’ professional development becomes inevitable at the end of the research process. Considering all these factors, it would not be wrong to say that the present research is a CAR since the teacher as a practitioner conducts the study in her classroom with her own students and tries to

improve her teaching practice along with the students' learning competencies, thus showing professional development as a result of the research activities.

3.5. Models of Action Research

It has been noted that there are various claims about the origin of AR. Yet, among these claims, it is only Lewin (1948, p.207) who first proposed an AR model. Since then, a number of AR models have appeared in the literature, such as that of Ebbutt (1985), Elliott (1991), McNiff (1995), Somekh (1989) etc. The possible reason for these models is that each action researcher has presented his/her AR model in the literature, implying that it is the best among the others. It is known in the literature that no study has investigated the effectiveness of AR models.

The model we used seems simple and practical. Since AR is a systematic process, researchers need to follow a research model to conduct, manage and guide the process and collect data according to a scheme. Therefore, the researcher used Kemmis and McTaggart's (1988) model in conducting this AR.

It appears that scientists in the literature have identified a general logic for performing and following an AR cycle. The general plan for all models can be summarized as follows: plan, act, observe and reflect. The major AR models in the literature can be found in Appendix B. As can be seen below, AR studies continue in the form of cycles. In this sense, AR is conducted systematically and rigorously, as opposed to experimental design, where a pre- and post-test is applied and the research process resembles a hit-and-run tactic.

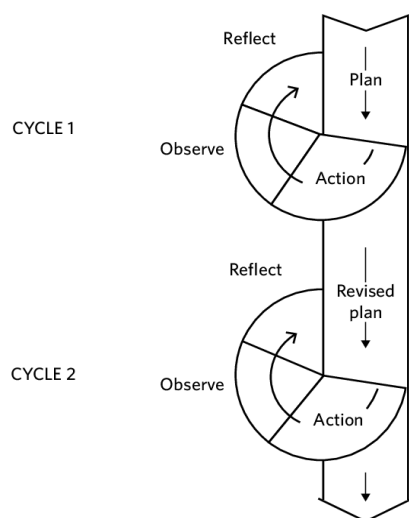


Figure 2.1 Kemmis and McTaggart's action research model

As shown in Figure 2.1, the model represents a spiral of action consisting of planning, action, observation and reflection. In addition, the new cycle can be continued with a revised plan, further implementation, observation and reflection (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988). The action steps of this spiral model can best be summarized as follows:

- develop a plan of critically informed action to improve what is already happening
- act to implement the plan
- observe the effects of the critically informed action in the context in which it occurs
- reflect on these effects on the basis of further planning, subsequent critically informed action and so on, through a succession of stages.

(Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988, cited in Burns, 2009)

The model allows researchers to discover a particular problem in the educational environment and be intentional about their choices in order to have a better perspective. However, the process is not as stable as the cycle suggests, but can be more flexible and explicit (Koshy, 2005). The success of an AR study is not measured by fidelity to the cycle of action; achieving a solution, improving pedagogical practice and developing professional skills are more important aspects of the research. Therefore, the researcher adapts some changes to the AR process as needed rather than sticking to the model.

2.6. The Action Steps/Plans

The key and prominent thing in AR studies is action plans or action step. McBride (1995) and Somekh (1989) use the term action steps whereas Elliott (1991) employs the term action plan. Yet, both of them are used interchangeably in the literature. Actions are the cornerstones of AR studies (Kemmis 1985; McNiff 1995). In Stenhouse's view (1985, p.58), actions are "the heart" of AR. The researcher brings about change in his/her teaching by actions. An important point was revealed by McNiff et al. (1996, p.17-18) by stating that actions must be "*informed, committed and intentional*". Carr and Kemmis (1990) state that educational actions are critical reflections.

In a study, there can be one action plan (Elliott, 1991) or a few action plans (Stronach, 1986, cited in McNiff, 1995, p.45). Tomakin (2001) agrees with Stronach's (1986) view in that using more than one action plan at a time and agrees with the idea of taking into account individual differences in the classroom. Action plans can be implemented by the researcher if it is first-order action research (FOAR), i.e. AR is conducted by the

researcher. Action plans can also be carried out by others. This type of AR is referred to as second-order action research (SOAR), where the action researcher commissions someone else to carry out the AR (Elliott, 1991; Hollingsworth, 1997).

We have seen in the goals of AR that it is used either to solve a current and immediate problem or to improve practice. If there is a problem, the action researcher can propose some theoretical views to solve the problem. Then the researcher can put their proposal into practice. Thus, the things that are used to solve the problem become action plans. For example, the researcher may find that the children have problems understanding the meaning of new English words. The researcher can then suggest solutions such as these:

When new English words are taught through drawings or illustrations, students understand them easily.

When new English words are taught through drama or animation, students understand them easily.

The above solutions become the action plans of researchers. Considering the problematic situation, there may not be a problem with the teaching practice, but the action researchers may want to improve the quality of their teaching sessions. They may think of ideas to improve their teaching practice and eventually put these imaginary ideas into practice. The things they implement to improve practice become their action plans. For example, the teacher may want to improve his/her teaching sessions by using cognates (tennis = tenis, radio = radio, academi = akademi, etc.). The teacher can also create action plans using prefixes and suffixes for advanced learners. The action plans can therefore be formulated as follows:

If cognates are used at the basic level, students understand English better and like it more.

If prefixes and suffixes are taught, students can infer the meaning of new English words.

This study has, of course, devised and drawn up a number of action plans. The problem with the teaching in the school is that there is an English textbook for each year, e.g. Year 2, Year 3 and Year 4, but no information on *how* the skills such as listening, speaking, vocabulary etc. will be taught. The researcher's observation is that the English teachers usually explain the Turkish meaning of new English words and grammar rules and pass the topic. The teacher who participated in this study assumed that students would be supported by instructions on language skills.

As explained in Chapter 1, the instruction can be summarized as the information of knowing and doing something. The action plans for this study can be formulated in general and specific terms. By general action plan, I mean that a general statement can be made that covers main and sub-skills. For example:

When students are supported with the knowledge of how to learn, they can understand English well and achieve better grades in exams.

By specific action plan, I mean that one or more step/action plans can be created for each skill. Since 6th grade students are mainly responsible for listening, speaking, vocabulary and grammar, we limit our action plans to four skills. The specific action plan for each skill and the rationale used in this study are presented in Chapter 4. In sum, action plans are important and they need to be clearly expressed in the AR studies. See Chapter 5 for more about the procedure and the study process.

3.7. Action Research and Language Teaching

Language learning and teaching has long been one of the most important trends in everyday life, education, business and social life. Similarly, AR is also becoming increasingly popular in the social sciences. There are many AR studies registered in the famous databases such as Educational Research Information Centre (ERIC), British Education Index (BEI) and CoHE National Thesis Centre. Since the number of AR studies at the CoHE is about 450, it is not possible to list them all here. As seen above, AR has its own literature. In addition, language teaching has its own corpus of approaches, methods and techniques. That is, both areas have their own theoretical views. At this point, it is necessary to take a look at the studies that employ AR. That is, AR in other disciplines and AR in language studies. As stated in section ‘Origin and Development of AR (3.2.)’, there are about 450 AR studies including 30 Master of Arts (MA) and 10 doctorates in language teaching. For example, Girgin (2020) used AR as a method in her study which aimed to investigate EFL students’ perceptions and motivations towards flipped classroom and Web 2.0 technology. Also, Gökmen (2014) used AR as a method in her study that aimed to find out how EFL teachers reflect on their teaching. It should be noted that other studies in MA are not mentioned here due to space and time constraints. The second observation about the studies is that AR was used as a subject to *teach* a topic in some studies. For example, Töngel (2023) investigated the effects of different seating arrangements in a high school using the principles of AR and

concluded that the AR teaching method is successful when students sit according to their preferences. In our study, AR was both a means of research method and teaching a topic. As already mentioned, AR has its literature. ELT also has its own literature. In this case, it seemed necessary to reconcile these two areas. To this end, the principles of AR-based language teaching were posed for the first time by Tomakin (2001). The study aimed to reconcile the theories of AR and ELT, and as a result, six suggestive principles were established. In doing so, the principles of AR were interpreted or adapted in terms of language teaching. In a sense, these principles are common points between AR and ELT. The summary of these principles can be formulated as follows, but the full story of these principles can be found in the author's study in Chapter 5: "*AR-based language teaching emphasizes individual learners, is responsive to learners' needs, uses qualitative approaches to development, does not rely on prescriptive rules, always consults learners, and is a democratic approach*" (pp.116-122).

3.8. Major Features of Action Research

AR can be considered as the most appropriate research model for the studies to be conducted in schools and educational contexts for the following reasons and characteristics.

Primary principle is *democracy* in that AR involves features of a 'democracy'. In Kemmis' (1985, p.40) view, democracy means "*freedom of discourse and true statements*". It means that participants have an equal right to express their views on the research, the process, the evaluation and the results, etc. AR follows a "*bottom-up rather than top-down process*" (Elliott, 1991, p.6; Kember, 2000, p.29). This means that the decision making process includes 'participation, discussion and agreement'. In research that uses a questionnaire and/or scale, permission is sought at the outset for ethical reasons, but during the analysis of the data and reporting of the results, those who have completed a questionnaire or scale are not usually consulted about the interpretation of the data and the overall findings. Nevertheless, AR differs from other types of research in this respect and decisions are made by all participants.

Another important principle is *collaboration* (Cohen & Manion, 1996; Elliott, 1991; Kemmis, 1985; Nunan, 1989). Some other studies use the term '*involvement*' instead of collaboration (Carr & Kemmis 1990; McNiff 1995). Although different sources use different terms such as cooperation and participation, there does not seem to be much difference between these two terms. There is always collaboration and AR involves the

participants from the beginning to the end of the research. There are no hierarchical relationships between participants. That is, the researchers and teachers do not have a superior position to the participating teachers or students. Nor do the children have a lower position than the teachers and researchers. At each stage of the research, all participants come together, discuss the data analysis and results, and arrive a conclusion together. In short, this feature of collaboration in AR is not emphasized in other types of research such as case studies, surveys or experimental studies.

AR can be regarded as *pragmatic* in that, as seen in the above section ‘Objectives and Aims of AR (3.3.)’, it either aims to improve the current situation or solve problems at classrooms and schools (Kemmis 1985; Köklü, 1993; Oja & Smulyan, 1989; Zuber-Skerritt, 1992). AR deals with real problems and real life situations; it determines a problem encountered in a specific context and pursue and enforce solutions within that context (O’leary, 2004, p.139). Real problems need to be effectively resolved without delay (Uzuner, 2005). Real situation and problems form the *naturalistic settings* and they are best studied and researched by those experiencing the problem (McKernan, 1996). In the present study, the researcher discovered that the students in her class did not know how to develop a language skill and therefore tried to solve this problem by teaching them how to learn or develop their language learning skills. Therefore, the study was conducted to solve this problem faced by the researcher in her real and natural classroom environment. In this sense the study is pragmatic.

AR studies are usually undertaken in the form of a *cyclical* [spiral] process and this is stated as a key feature of the AR (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1995; Kemmis, 1985; Nunan 1994). It is known that there is no cyclical process in the quantitative studies. As stated in the section ‘Origin and Development of AR (3.2.)’, each action researcher posed his/her definition of AR. In doing so, they also portrayed their AR models (see Appendix B). These models all display a cyclical process. Here the question arises *what is a cycle?* Or *what does a cycle consist of?* A cycle consists of a few steps to follow and these steps for Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) are *planning, acting, observing and reflecting* (see also above Figure 2.1). These four steps make up a cycle. Elliott states that (1991) an AR study must continue a few cycles and each cycle must continue throughout an academic year. On the other hand, Sanger (1986) states that an AR can be completed even in a week. Our observation is that it is difficult to undertake an AR study having long term cycles during MA studies because of time limitation.

AR is *self-reflection* and *critical* in the sense that it paves the way for questioning one's own work. We saw in the part 'Definitions and Objectives of AR (3.3.)' that the teachers can be reflective immediately while teaching or they can reflect later on after the teaching session. A teacher can change his teaching method because of a practical problem and check the effectiveness of this change through self-observation. The teacher's initial understanding of the problem may evolve during the assessment process, and action leads to reflection (Elliot, 1991). Teachers who take part in an AR study turn to be more reflective and critical in their practices (Aksoy, 2003). Becoming critical and reflective helps them to improve their teaching practice and ultimately their professional development. Similarly, the practitioner - researcher in this study is now examining her own teaching process. She tries to find out the problematic aspects she encounters in her own teaching environment, i.e. in the classroom.

Action research is a small-scale intervention (Cohen & Manion, 2007). It is criticized because of generalization problem. AR can be considered different from other traditional research methods since it concentrates on individual or small group professional practice rather than making generalizations (Özdemir, 2009). A review of the literature shows that there are some studies that include only one participant. For example, Korucu-Kıs (2014) examined the effects of AR on only one teacher' content knowledge, teaching practices, beliefs and attitudes throughout 11 weeks. Likewise, Laidlaw (1994) undertook a Ph.D. study to understand how her democratic principles worked while her student, Sarah, was trying to improve her understanding and actions with her pupils. In this respect, present study does not have a concern regarding the generalization of the findings of AR study to a wider population. The researcher tries to solve an immediate problem and improve the existing educational environment, not intend to provide generalizable findings. However, it will be a helpful and guiding study for foreign language learners or educators who experience similar problems in their learning and teaching environment.

There is a common (mis)understanding about the generalizability of the quantitative research findings in Türkiye. In a quantitative research starting with a hypothesis, the research hypothesis always refers to *the sample* while the null hypothesis refers to the population (Salkind, 2000). In that case, the finding must refer to or can be generalized to the sample, not to the population. In this sense, a quantitative research has a small scale finding like AR. Therefore, AR studies must not be criticized in terms of generalizability.

3.9. Summary

Claims about the origin of AR are varied, but it appears that the first model of AR was put forward by Lewin. The definitions of AR are broad and there is no specific definition of AR except Tomakin (2001). Along with AR, there have appeared different terms which have similar meanings with AR such as action learning, action science and teacher researcher. When we look at the development of AR, it can be said that AR was transferred to educational science in the middle of the 20th century and is still used not only in Türkiye but all over the world. Its popularity is increasing day by day and there are about 450 AR studies in the CoHE National Thesis Centre, excluding the published articles. AR mainly aims to solve current problems and improve the situation in educational environment rather than making generalizations. Thus, it employs a/a few action plans to reach these aims depending on the problem or situation. The models of AR are diverse, and the AR model of Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) was used in the study for practical reasons. In addition, there are different types of AR, and PAR and CAR were used in this study for practical reasons again. AR has many distinguishing features such as democracy, participation, collaboration, practicality, self-inquiry and professional development. Having explained the concise literature of AR, the next chapter explains the rationale of action plans.

CHAPTER IV

ACTION PLANS AND RATIONALE

4.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to present the action plans of this study, because AR consists of action plans or action steps. Therefore, readers may wonder which action plans are used in the study. The explanation of the action plans is also important in terms of evaluation and reliability. That is, the explanation of the action plans reveals the researcher's evaluation criteria. This allows readers to compare the action plans and results and come to the same conclusions. In this way, the reliability of the study is increased. To this end, the following section first briefly revisits the term 'instruction' and then explains the action plans used.

4.2. A Short Revisit

The study aimed to support students with instructions on how to learn language skills. The reason for this was that the English textbooks used by primary, secondary and high schools did not contain information, *instructions, learning tips or guidance* on how to learn specific skills such as speaking, vocabulary or grammar.

In the first chapter we saw that an instruction means to tell/show someone how to do something. In this sense, the instructions for the speaking skill were aimed at helping the participating students to speak more in English. Likewise, the vocabulary instructions aimed to help students learn more English words. The listening instructions aimed to help students understand more of what they hear. Similarly, the grammar instructions were aimed at putting the words learned in the correct order and using them when speaking. In general, the instructions aimed to help students improve their overall English.

We also saw in the second chapter from section 2.2. that there are many written instructions for each skill in the literature, but they are all theoretical. The question is whether we can use these theoretical guides when creating the action plans in our study or is it better to make a selection of theoretical instructions that correspond to the *level* and *wishes* of the students? In the second chapter, from section 2.6, we have seen that there are some useful findings that emerge from instruction-based studies. That is why, the sections on the characteristics of children and young people have been included in the second chapter.

The literature review shows that there are two types of instruction. The first is about how to teach a language skill. In other words, they are learning tips, instructions and rules for learning skills, which were dealt with in the second chapter. The second type of instruction is about classroom management, lesson explanations, assessments, etc. Examples of this type of instruction are: Sit down, be quiet, open your book, look at page 10, ask the question and answer it. There are many guides like this that can be used in the classroom. In this sense, Harmer (2000, p.4) points out the importance of instructions by saying that “*They must be kept as simple as possible and must be logical*”. Similarly, Scrivener (1999, p.97) shows the importance of giving an instruction like this: “*I have met a number of teachers who say that they would like to give instructions for activities in English (...) but find that there are often so many problems with comprehension that it seems impossible*”.

Richards and Lockhart (1996) reveal the influence of giving instruction in a mini action research project cited in their book. The main points can be quoted as follows:

I teach a very large English class (44 students) in a secondary school. The students in my class are very hard-working. They are very good at rote learning, but are not used to communicative activities. Whenever I try to set up pair work or group work... it takes the students a very long time to organize and get started on the task. As a result, the bell would often ring before the students finish the activities... I planned to do two things differently in my class...First, ... Next I planned to monitor my instructions to make sure the directions given to the students were clear and students could understand what they were supposed to do. ...” [after arranging study groups and directions] ... (pp.126-127).

In the reflection part the teacher says “from this information, it seems that the original plan I had put into operation was effective. I had achieved my objectives of moving students into their groups more quickly and giving clearer instructions (p.128).

As seen above stated quotes and examples, we (also) stated our instructions as simple, logical, theory-based and research-based. The instructions were prepared in the form of flash cards; one side had the English version of instructions and other side had the Turkish version of them. Besides, these instructions are explained and exemplified whenever needed. Observation and diary notes were taken about how they were used by the students.

4.3. Further Rationale for Instructions

It is important to remember one point in the curriculum: 6th grade students are mainly responsible for listening comprehension and speaking skill. Reading and writing skills are not particularly required for them. Since listening and speaking skills are taught /learnt through vocabulary and grammar, the review of these skills has been included to explain the rationale (why).

4.3.1. Rationale for listening instructions

First of all, the literature was reviewed to designate the instructions on listening skill. Several studies have shown that listening to audiobooks has a positive effect on students' listening comprehension skills (Kartal & Şimşek, 2017; Mohamed, 2018; Talalakina, 2012) and their perceptions of English listening (e.g. Al-Jarf, 2021; Çarkıt, 2020). It is enjoyable and easy for language learners and has recently gained popularity (Rodgers, 2016). Audiobooks are suitable to be listened to anywhere and anytime and can be easily purchased over the internet (Gündüz, 2009).

Previous studies have also shown that listening to English songs improves students' listening skills and increases their enthusiasm to participate in listening activities, which leads to a more enjoyable and attendant environment for English classes (e.g. Arevalo & Alberto, 2010; Rahbar & Khodabakhsh, 2013; Rezaei & Ahour, 2015; Solihat & Utami, 2014; Şefik, 2012). Songs in the target language can be regarded as excellent authentic material with which students are frequently confronted in their everyday lives. Their rhythmic and repetitive nature together with the melody soothes listening anxiety. Classroom observations also show that English songs motivate students in terms of their engagement and enjoyment in learning a foreign language.

In addition to listening to audiobooks and songs, making inferences about the topic by controlling the speaker's gestures and body language or tone of voice and stress is another way to develop listening comprehension (Cohen & Henry, 2019). These nonverbal codes give the listener a clue to understand the context of the speech. For example, Dahl and Ludvigsen (2014) have explored that paying attention to the speaker's gestures has a significant impact on students' listening comprehension. The way of saying something can express the meaning more effectively than a word itself.

Besides inferring from non-verbal cues, other cues such as the setting of the conversation (e.g. a phone conversation, a conversation between a mother and daughter at home, a

commercial, an interview) or visuals and titles in the listening exercises serve to capture the general idea or topic of the conversation (Nihei, 2002). A language learner can activate their prior knowledge of the topic by using these tips to predict and become aware of what the speaker(s) will be talking about.

Moreover, determining the purpose before a listening task and choosing a strategy according to that purpose will help students succeed in the task (Brown, 2001). For example, if a listening task requires listeners to fill in the blanks, it would be more sensible for them to listen for specific information and not struggle to understand the meaning of each word or phrase while students need to pay attention to a gist or general idea and take notes by using key words or abbreviations to arrive at a general idea if the task is about general points of the topic. Hence, the use of strategies helps learners to develop listening skills. In conclusion, based on the above researches, the theoretical review of instruction in Section 2.2. and the instruction-based studies in Section 2.3., the next action plans for listening comprehension were created.

- 1- Listen audiobooks and English songs
- 2- Make inferences about the topic by using non-verbal clues such as gesture, body language, tone or stress of the speaker
- 3- Make predictions about the topic by using peripheral clues such as setting, picture or title of the conversation
- 4- Determine the purpose of listening task and choose the most appropriate strategy

- 1- Sesli kitap ve İngilizce şarkı dinle
- 2- Konuşmacının jest ve mimikleri, vücut dili, ton ve vurgusu gibi sözel olmayan ipuçlarını kullanarak konu hakkında çıkarımda bulun
- 3- Konuşmanın geçtiği ortam, fotoğraflar veya konuşmanın başlığı gibi çevresel ipuçlarını kullanarak konu hakkında tahminlerde bulun
- 4- Dinleme metninin amacını belirle ve en uygun stratejiyi seç

Figure 4.1 Action plans for listening

4.3.2. Rationale for speaking instructions

Secondly, the literature was reviewed to identify the instructions on speaking skills. Considerable number of studies have shown that storytelling helps students to improve their speaking skills (e.g., Bin As, 2016; Inayah, 2015; Zuhriyah, 2017). By using their own words, students as storytellers have a chance to express themselves and gain confidence in speaking the target language. With the advent of technological developments, digital storytelling has also become a trending learning tool for students. Digital storytelling is a process in which students can create a story using images and

recording their own voice in digital media. In this way, they have the opportunity to hear their own voice in the target language, which can encourage them to speak more. Numerous studies support that digital storytelling increases students' motivation and engagement and improves their oral skills (Abdelmageed, Mohamed, & El-Naggar, 2018; James, Yong, & Melor, 2019; Kallinikou & Nicolaidou, 2019; Nair & Melor, 2022; Yang, Chen, & Hung, 2022).

In addition to digital storytelling devices, speech recognition applications also help language learners to develop their speaking skills (Bahadorfar & Omidvar, 2014). It is a fact that students are less motivated to speak the target language if they do not know how to pronounce a word even if they know its meaning. These devices display the pronunciation of the word and ask users to record their own voice to pronounce the same word. They provide feedback on their success in pronouncing the word. Users can also listen to their own recordings and compare them with the device's pronunciation. In this way, students have the opportunity to repeat and internalize the pronunciation of a word in a fun way and become more confident and less anxious when speaking English.

Moreover, communication strategies help students to develop speaking skills. These strategies include asking someone to repeat something if you have not understood or heard something clearly (e.g. Sorry, Can you repeat?), requesting someone to clarify something you are not familiar with (e.g. What?, What do you mean?) or asking them to confirm something you are not sure you have understood (Do you mean?, Right?, Is that so?), using filler words (e.g. Well, Hm, Okey, Now? Well, Hm, Okey) or repeating something you or the person you are talking to has just said (e.g. So you are saying, I mean), using paraphrases or using synonyms or antonyms of a word you cannot remember during the conversation or describing that word (the thing we wash our hands for soap), using saver words (e.g. staff, thing, make, do) and using non-verbal expressions to express yourself. (Brown, 2001, Cohen & Henry, 2019). In conclusion, considering the above cited researches, the theoretical review of instruction in Section 2.2. and the instruction-based studies in Section 2.3., the following action plans for speaking skills were created.

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1- Retell a story by yourself or use digital storytelling devices 2- Use speech recognition applications to improve your pronunciation 3- Use communication strategies <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) Requesting someone to repeat something if not comprehending or hearing something clearly (e.g., Sorry, Can you repeat?) b) Requesting someone to clarify something that you are unfamiliar with (e.g., What?, What do you mean?, What does that mean exactly?) c) Requesting them to confirm something you are not sure to understand (e.g., Do you mean ..?, Right?, Is that so?) d) Using fillers (e.g., Well, Hm, Okey, Now let me see) e) Repeating something that you and your speaking partner has just said (e.g., So you are saying, I mean) f) Paraphrasing or using synonym or antonym of a word you can not recall during conversation or describing this word (e.g., the thing we wash our hands for soap) g) Using all staff words (e.g., staff, thing, make, do) h) Using non-verbal expressions to express yourself 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1- Bir hikayeyi yeniden canlandır veya dijital hikaye anlatma yöntemlerini kullan 2- Telaffuzunu düzeltmek için ses tanıma uygulamaları kullan 3- İletişim stratejilerini kullanın <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) Konuşmayı net bir şekilde duymadıysanız ya da anlamadıysanız karşınızdakinden tekrar etmesini talep edin (örn., Pardon, Tekrar edebilir misiniz?) b) Karşınızdakinden bilmediğiniz bir şeyi açıklamasını talep edin (örn., Ne?, Ne demek istiyorsun?, Tam olarak neyi kastediyorsun?) c) Anladığın emin olmadığınız şeyi karşınızdakinden doğrulamasını talep edin (örn., Şunu mu demek istedin?, Doğru mu?, Bu böyle mi?) d) Konuşurken takıldığımız yerlerde dolgu kullanın (örn., Şey, Himm, Tamam, Şimdi bir bakayım) e) Kendi söylediğin veya karşındakinin söylediği bir şeyi tekrar et (örn., Yani ... Diyorsun, .. demek istedim) f) Konuşma esnasında hatırlamadığın bir kelimenin zıt anlamısını, eş anlamısını veya benzer anlamısını kullanın veya o kelimeyi tarif edin (sabun için elimizi yıkadığımız şey) g) Nesnelerin veya eylemlerin yerine geçebilecek kelimeler kullan (örn., Şey, Yapmak) h) Kendini ifade etmek için sözel olmayan ifadeler kullan
--	---

Figure 4.2 Action plans for speaking

4.3.3. Rationale for vocabulary instructions

Thirdly, the researcher reviewed the literature to determine the instructions on vocabulary knowledge. Some of the reviewed studies have found that exposure to authentic texts such as stories (e.g., Al-Dersi, 2013; Arjmandi & Aladini, 2020; DeCarrico, 2001) or song lyrics (Çevikbaş & Yumurtacı, 2018; Lestari & Hardiyanti, 2020) helps language learners to guess the meaning of a word in context and to grasp and recall it in the long term. Wondering the meaning of a vocabulary while reading a story or listening to an English song and looking it up in the dictionary entails permanent learning and thus improved vocabulary retention. English stories and songs can be considered as one of the most prominent medium for vocabulary learning and are suitable for children and young learners as reading stories or listening to songs can be considered as entertaining activities for them.

Together with these activities, playing vocabulary games is another attraction for learners, as they show great interest in these games at all ages. Previous studies support that vocabulary games increase students' vocabulary and improve their memorization skills (Al Masri & Al Najar, 2014; Bakhsh, 2016; Kabiri & Ghafoori; 2014). It is not only educational, but also a fun way to learn new vocabulary and increases learners' motivation to learn a new vocabulary.

Furthermore, vocabulary learning methods such as grouping words, semantic mappings, using the word in a sentence, analyzing its affixes to infer its meaning, finding its synonyms and antonyms, attaching English labels to objects, using technical aids in English, and creating visual dictionaries help students to increase their vocabulary (Ghazal, 2007; Gu, 2019; Hamzah, Kafipour, & Abdullah; 2009). In summary, the following action plans for speaking skills were created based on the above researches, the

theoretical review of the instructions in chapter 2.2. and the instruction-based studies in chapter 2.3.

1- Read English stories and listen to English songs	1- İngilizce hikayeler oku ve İngilizce şarkılar dinle
2- Play word games	2- Kelime oyunları oyna
3- Use vocabulary learning methods	3- Kelime öğrenme metotlarını kullan
a) Grouping the words	a) Kelimeleri gruplama
b) Semantic mapping	b) Kelimeleri anlamsal olarak haritalandırma
c) Using the word in a sentence	c) Kelimeyi cümle içerisinde kullanma
d) Analyzing its affixes to infer meaning	d) Kelimenin anlamını tahmin etmek için eklerini analiz etme
e) Finding its synonym and antonyms	e) Kelimenin eş ve zıt anlamlılarını bulma
f) Putting English labels on objects	f) Eşyalara İngilizcelelerinin yazılı olduğu etiketler koyma
g) Using technological devices in English language	g) Teknolojik aletleri İngilizce dilinde kullanma
h) Preparing visual dictionaries	h) Görsel sözlükler hazırlama

Figure 4.3 Action plans for vocabulary

4.3.4. Rationale for grammar instructions

Finally, the literature was reviewed to detect instructions on grammatical knowledge. A number of studies have shown that language games improve students' grammar knowledge and skills and increase their motivation to learn a new rule in English (e.g., Iaremenko, 2017; Yaccob & Yunus, 2019; Yolageldili & Arıkan, 2011). Learners can easily and freely access these games in online environments and learn structures in a fun way. The researcher has also observed in her teaching practice that students are more willing and motivated to participate in English lessons when they play online games related to the topic during class time. For example, the researcher and the students played online games about irregular verbs in the simple past tense and the students memorized most of the irregular verbs without realizing it.

Moreover, coding grammar rules with everyday and authentic terms used in Turkish or using formulas can improve grammar retention (Tomakin, 2014). The use of codes or formulas is very common in other subjects such as history, geography or Turkish language and literature for all age groups and these codes and formulas are usually imprinted in the learners' memory. They can also be used in English lessons when learning a grammar rule. For example, 'wish clauses' have been coded as 'I wish I had a fish in my dish' for years and this coding attracts students' attention. The researcher has also observed in her classroom that the coding technique helps students to recall the grammar rule even if that rule was taught a long time ago (e.g., the name of a private bank was coded for the suffix -ing in the present continuous tense).

It is also clear that using the newly learned grammatical rule when forming a sentence helps learners to internalize the rule and therefore not forget it in a short time (British

Council, 2015). Forming a sentence and using it e.g., during a conversation increases grammar retention as grammar skills cannot be improved in isolation from other skills (Brown, 2001). This individually written sentence can also be a model of the grammar rule for the learners. So, learners can benefit from self-written example sentences for each grammar structure when trying to learn and memorize a rule. As a result, the following action plans for speaking skill were used based on the above researches, the theoretical review of instructions in chapter 2.2. and the instruction-based studies in chapter 2.3.

1- Play online grammar games	1- Online dil bilgisi oyunları oyna
2- Use codes or formulas to internalize the rule	2- Kuralı içselleştirmek için kodlar veya formüller kullan
3- Use the newly-learned rule in a sentence	3- Yeni öğrendiğin kuralı cümle içerisinde kullan

Figure 4.4 Action plans for grammar

4.4. Summary

To summarize, this chapter was dedicated to explaining the rationale for action plans. The action plans or steps of the present study were prepared by considering the previous research mentioned here and in Chapter 2. Besides, students' age groups or grades and the characteristics of these ages and grades were regarded as important points. Teacher researcher's classroom observations also affected the decision-making period while choosing the instructions.

Having explained the concise literature in Chapter 3 and action plans in Chapter 4, now it is turn of the method of the study. Hence the next chapter will explain *how* AR and action plans have been put into practice.

CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the research model of the present study is presented in detail. First, it gives a comprehensive explanation on the research design and method. Then the research context, the participants and the study material of this study are illustrated. Details of the instruments and procedures used to collect data in the study are also provided. Next, information about the data analysis process is provided. Finally, the reliability and validity of the study are presented and a summary of the chapter is given in the end.

5.2. Research Design

This AR study followed a mixed methods research design using both qualitative and quantitative approaches to demonstrate the impact of supporting students with instructional support on their language learning skills. There are two main reasons for using the mixed research method in this study. The first reason is that the focus of the researcher and the research questions to be answered require the researchers to combine qualitative and quantitative approaches in the same study (Mills, 2011) although the general view is that the qualitative methods are more appropriate for conducting an AR study in social settings. The main research questions of this study seek to answer whether students have prior knowledge of language learning skills and whether the instructions they are given regarding these skills affect their perceptions and academic performance, as outlined in sections 1.8. (Aim of the study) and 1.9. (Research questions). Hence, using qualitative methods to determine the effects of instruction on students' perceptions and using quantitative methods to determine the effects of instruction on students' academic success is appropriate for the present AR study.

The second reason for using a mixed research method for this study is to increase the reliability and validity of the study through data triangulation. According to Ivancova (2014), mixed methods research is beneficial because using a variety of qualitative and quantitative data sources helps to ensure the credibility, transferability and validity of the study. The researcher sought to support the qualitative and quantitative data sources in a collaborative and complementary manner by triangulating interviews, observations, diary entries and exam notes. Thus, the use of mixed methods in the study would be a more effective and evidence-based way of demonstrating the impact of instruction on student

perceptions and achievement. This was discussed in more detail in the next sections (see 5.7. Data collection instruments and 5.10.11. Reliability and validity).

5.3. Research Method

The present AR study was conducted using a case study (CS) method. However, this explanation is not sufficient and needs to be more detailed as the reader might ask the question ‘To what extent is this an AR study and to what extent is it a case study?’ Therefore, the researcher has tried to give a clear explanation of the research method.

This study is an AR that attempts to show the effects of giving instructions to students on language learning skill. The study implemented Kemmis and McTaggart’s (1988) AR model, which consists of four phases (planning, acting, observing, reflecting) and embodied action plans that were used to provide students with LLSs instructions throughout the foreign language learning process. The researcher of the study dealt with a real-life problem that students faced in language learning and this process was handled with the cooperation between the participant students and teacher research. Besides, this study was small-scaled and did not aim to generalize, but only to improve practice. Last but not least, the researcher of the present study sought to improve her teaching process. All of the above are characteristics of AR and reflect the AR part of the study.

When it comes to explaining the CS part of the study, it should first be explained what is meant by ‘case’. For this study, the definition by Neuman (2014) can be considered the most appropriate: “*Case-study research examines many features of a few cases. The cases can be individuals, groups, organizations, movements, events, or geographic units*” (p.42). As for the pedagogical elements, a student, a teacher, a group, an organization are the examples of cases (Punch, 1998). From these examples, it is understood that cases are pre-selected and has a boundary (border) (Adelman et al., 1984). They further state that the researcher begins his/her research with an issue or problem, draws a boundary for the issue/problem and this boundary/border becomes the researcher’s case. According to these definitions, the cases of this study may be the students as *groups*, the teacher researcher as *individual*, the school and classroom 6/A as *organizations* or *geographical units*; and teaching students how to learn language skills by giving them instructions as *movements* or *events*.

5.4. Research Context

The present study was conducted in a small-sized state secondary school in Ordu, Türkiye. There was only one classroom for each grade level, namely grades 5/A, 6/A, 7/A and 8/A. The study was conducted in grade 6/A in the second semester of the 2022-2023 school year. The classroom consisted of a total of 16 students, including 8 males and 8 females. Grade 6 students had 3 hours of English lessons per week as English is a compulsory lesson according to the English curriculum updated by MoNE (2018). In addition to compulsory lessons, secondary school students choose a total of 6 hours of elective lessons in the previous school year, of which 2 hours were allocated to English as an elective subject. In total, the students had 5 hours of English lessons per week.

During the academic year, the students used a course book and additional material provided free of charge by the MoNE. The course book contained 10 units on various topics such as holidays, weathers, emotions, occupations and democracy; and illustrated corners for grammatical rules, games and simple writing, reading, speaking and listening exercises. Supplementary resource consists of two test sections for each of the 10 units. In addition to the course book and supplementary resource, digital materials were also used via the smart board in the classroom.

The students had a total of four exams, two for the first semester and two more for the second semester. The exams consist of sections such as 'Fill in the blanks', 'Matching', 'True or false', 'Grouping' and 'Completing the sentence or paragraph'. While undertaking this study, practical exams were not compulsory according to the regulation on primary education, thus students' speaking and listening skills were assessed on the basis of classroom observations.

The English teacher also served as the researcher of the study and was responsible for teaching only 6/A class at the school, as she primarily serves as the deputy head in addition to her work as an English teacher. By serving as both teacher and deputy head, the researcher had the advantage of closely observing the students, diagnosing their needs in their own learning environment, and adapting the available curriculum to meet the needs of all students (Shagoury & Power, 2012, p.3). Teachers, as researchers, have daily access to students, classrooms, the school, and their own teaching, giving them more time to conduct a longitudinal study (McCutcheon 1981, cited in Tomakin, 1996, p.68). This access becomes easier when one takes on a role in school management. The researcher has eight years of teaching experience, two years of management experience and two

years of research experience. All these factors facilitated to undertake an AR study in the professional environment of the researcher in the present study.

5.5. The Participants

As mentioned in the previous section, the total number of students in class 6/A was sixteen. However, the study consisted of fourteen ($n=14$) students, of which eight ($n=8$) were female and six ($n=6$) were male. Namely, the female students outnumbered the male students. Before conducting the study, the researcher informed the students about the research process and announced that their participation was on a voluntary basis. As a result, two students ($n=2$) from the rest of the class were not present for the present study. All other students in the class were willing to participate in the present study.

The volunteer students were selected from class 6/A because it was more advantageous to conduct an AR study in teacher researcher's own teaching environment. The teacher who conducted the study was well informed about all the students in the school as she was also involved in the school administration. However, only an insider (Hopkins, 1996) has the ability to obtain detailed information about the members of the class by observing students' learning abilities, performance, attitudes or personal differences in a more flexible class time. As mentioned in the literature (Elliott, 1988), the outsiders are not favored. First, conducting an AR study as an outsider in other English teachers' classes can be a burden to the research since students and teachers may not feel comfortable being observed by an outsider. Secondly, it can be problematic to request from another teacher to undertake an AR because these teachers may not have research experience or may worry about falling behind the curriculum. For this reason, the teacher researcher acted out the role of both participant and researcher.

All the participants were taught at the same classroom and were twelve years old. Besides, all the participants were the students in the teacher-researcher's English course and they learn English as a foreign language. The participants differ by their academic achievements in English course. Likewise, the perceptions towards English language and learning English vary among them. Their cultural background show similarity, yet some of them live in the school's neighborhood while others come from near residential areas by transportation.

Participants were selected using the convenience sampling method, which is practical when including participants "*who are available or volunteer or can be easily recruited and are willing to participate in the research study*" (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). As

one of the most common sampling types in second language (L2) research, convenience sampling is suitable for classroom research because participants meet certain requirements such as “*geographic proximity, availability at a certain time, ease of access, or willingness to volunteer*” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 99).

5.6. Study Material

The first study material in this study is certainly the textbooks provided free of charge by the MoNE at the beginning of the first semester. As described in detail in the previous section ‘Research Context (5.4.)’, teacher researcher and participant students have to use these course books to teach and learn language skills. However, the course book does not include any instructions or learning tips on how to learn language skills. During the study, the teacher used the textbook as a source for her observations. The teacher assigned homework on this book and checked it in due time. She also had the students do the language learning exercises from the course book to observe whether or not they followed the teacher's instructions on language learning.

Apart from the course book, the main study materials in the present study are ‘instruction cards’ in the form of ‘flashcards’ since the study aims to show the effects of instructions to students on language learning skills. The reason for using flashcards was to make the instructions more concrete for young learners and their practicality to carry in students’ pockets or pencil cases. Flashcards are mainly used in vocabulary training. However, if you look up its definition, you will understand that a flashcard is “*a cardboard consisting of a word, a sentence, or a simple picture on it*” (Komachali & Khodareza, 2012, p.137). Therefore, it can be used to write a sentence on and a flashcard on which an instruction is written can be interesting, practical and easily accessible for students. The flashcards were designed using thick and colorful paper and each flashcard contained a few instructions on different language learning skills. The English version of the instructions was written on one side of the flashcards while the Turkish translation was written on the other side of it (see Chapter Four).

5.7. Data Collection Tools

In this study, qualitative data were collected to deeply examine students’ beliefs about the effects of receiving instructions on LLSs while quantitative data were used to monitor changes in their competencies related to these skills. To accomplish this goal, the researcher employed a variety of data collection instruments. This enabled the teacher researcher to triangulate different types of sources. In other words, triangulation allowed

the researcher to check the consistency of data collected from different sources and with different data collection instruments; and to ensure the trustworthiness of the data by reducing bias by cross-comparing the data (Clark, Porath, Thiele, & Jobe, 2020).

5.7.1. Semi-structured interviews

The interview provides researchers with sound data and can be used at any stage of a study. It is an advantageous data collection technique for an AR study as it enhances collaboration between the researcher and participants. It also makes participants feel more comfortable as the researcher has the opportunity to answer and clarify participants' questions in minds during the interview compared to the questionnaire.

In the present study, the researcher's goal was to gather adequate and in-depth information with a small number of participants to measure the effects of instruction on language learning skills through an AR. When deciding what type of interview to use, the researcher considered the aim, nature and participants of the study and opted for a semi-structured interview. In this type of interview, a set of questions about the topic is prepared in advance. Yet, the researcher does not have to stick to the same order when asking the questions and can ask follow-up questions as the interview progresses. A semi-structured interview offers flexibility for both the researcher and the research process.

During the study, the teacher-researcher interviewed each participant individually. Before beginning the interview, participants were informed of the reason for the interview and given assurances of confidentiality and anonymity. They were also reassured with questions such as 'How are you today?' or 'How is it going?' and expressions such as 'Please, feel comfortable.' or 'Your answers will not create a perception or affection towards you.' at the beginning of the interview.

The interview questions were prepared taking into account the scope of the topic and the research questions. The researcher designed the questions that were directly related to the topic and enabled her to collect the necessary data. The researcher also made sure to use open-ended and easy-to-answer questions rather than directive, judgmental and restrictive ones. Finally, the researcher pre-interviewed four 6th grade students from another secondary school in the same town as part of a pilot study to understand the quality of the research questions and the students' reactions to these questions. Similarly, the researcher discussed the interview questions with 2 other English teachers who works in the same school with her and lectured the participants when they were 4th and 5th graders.

The interviews were conducted in the researcher's own room since the teacher researcher also acts as deputy head teacher. This ensured a private and quiet place for the interview process. Each interview lasted almost ten minutes and each participant was interviewed in two steps: The study had two main questions stated in Chapter 1 (see 1.9.). The study also had pre and post instruction questions, see pre-instruction questions in Appendix C before the action process to explore students' prior knowledge of LLSs and see post instruction questions in Appendix D after the action process to determine the impact of using instructions to learn these skills. The pre-interview consists of 7 questions while the post-interview consists of 12 questions.

5.7.2. Classroom observations

In addition to interviews, observation is another data collection instrument used in the present study to depict human behavior and manners. It enables the researchers to monitor non-verbal actions while the interview depends on the verbal utterances of the participants. Therefore, the data obtained from observation can support or contradict the interview data. In this study, the teacher observed the participants' behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions in their natural settings, i.e., in their classes and at school, throughout the research process. These observations took place not only during lessons, but also outside lessons, e.g. at lunchtime or during the break. Classroom observations facilitated data collection for the researcher as the teacher had sufficient time and flexibility to observe her students in her own classroom environment. However, observations outside the classroom were limited as the teacher had other duties such as preparing administrative documents or supervising other students during breaks.

Since the teacher researcher is considered a member of the community she is observing, she also acted as a participant observer. The participants did not have the impression of being observed by a stranger and therefore behaved naturally in class. The researcher took notes to record her observations. However, she used abbreviations or key words instead of writing down everything she observed because if she spent too much time on her notes, she might miss other opportunities in the classroom. These drafts were organized and detailed after school (see Appendix E). The researcher also did not prefer audio recording or video recording the lessons as she did not want the students to get the impression that they were being observed and behave differently.

The observations consisted of a three-stage process. In the first stage, the teacher-researcher observed the classroom to identify the problem underlying the students'

language learning errors. These observations were exploratory and were conducted during the planning phase of the AR. In the second stage, the researcher observed the changes that resulted from the implementation of the action plan. These observations also helped the researcher to support and complete the data collected with other data collection tools and were conducted in the acting and observing phase of the AR. The researcher reflected on her own observations throughout the research process and answered questions in the reflection form in the final phase (see Appendix F). In the reflecting phase of the AR, the teacher researcher evaluated the action plans as a whole and reported her observations. The Picture 5.1 is an example page from researchers' observational note.

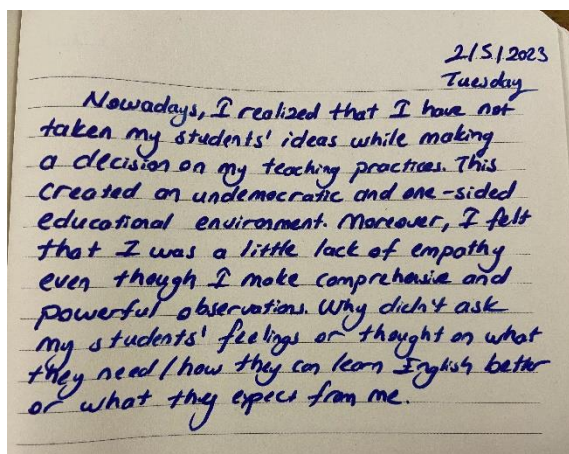
DATE: 5/5/2023		
INSTRUCTIONS STUDENTS USE DURING CLASS TIME	INSTRUCTIONS STUDENTS USE IN BREAK TIMES	ACHIEVEMENT IN ENGLISH AND LANGUAGE LEARNING SKILLS
In today's listening exercise, I saw that some students (e.g., S7, S8, S9) were writing notes next to the pictures in the course book before listening the audio. They were trying to predict the topic of the listening task by using pictures of it.	Students (e.g., S6, S7, S9, S10) asked my permission to use smart board for listening English songs during break time. After second English lesson, some of them (e.g., S1, S5, S11) played a word game named 'Scrabble' in the break time.	I asked them the meaning of the word 'reader' in English text in the course book. S2 said that 'read' means 'okumak', thus 'reader' means 'okuyucu'. I asked how she can know that. She reminded me the previous examples I gave such as 'swim-swimmer' and 'write-writer' and she said she inferred the meaning of the word from '-er' suffix. Before this study, there was no one who can make inferences like this.
EAGERNESS TOWARDS ENGLISH AND LESSON	OTHER OBSERVATIONAL NOTES	
In our first lesson, I saw that the English labels on objects in the classroom had changed. After I asked the reason to my students, I was really shocked because S11 who normally were not interested in English lesson said that he rewrote all the labels since the old ones were too little. It was impressive for me to see him spending time and effort for this. I see that his eagerness towards English is getting more positive.	I see that my students generally keep the instruction cards in their dossiers, backpacks and pencil cases. My other observation is that they are more curious about the English speaking skill and I think they fear less to make pronunciation mistakes.	

Picture 5.1 A Page from Researchers' Observational Notes

5.7.3. Diary

Teachers' journals or diaries can also be considered an effective means of data collection in this study. Keeping a journal helped the teacher to monitor what was happening in her classroom on a daily basis and to identify strengths and weaknesses in her teaching. It enabled the researcher to identify the problem in her teaching practice, find a practical solution to this problem and evaluate the success of the action plans. The teacher researcher witnessed a continuous change in her perception towards her teaching environment and reflected on her personal experience in her classroom. As an AR is a self-reflective inquiry and promotes personal development, it is common for teacher

researchers to keep records of their practices in the form of diaries. In this AR study, the teacher researcher kept a regular diary from the planning to the reflection phase. The diary included field notes, accounts of critical events in the classroom, and teacher self-assessments of her teaching practice (see Appendix G). The Picture 5.2 is an example page from researchers' diary notes.



Picture 5.2 A Page from Researcher's Diary Notes

5.7.4. Achievement tests (Exams)

Exams can be seen as one of the most concrete ways of assessing students' language learning competences. Since the study was conducted in the second semester of the school year, the teacher administered two exams to the participants in this study. The first exam consisted of questions from Unit 6 - Occupations and Unit 7 - Vacations (see Appendix H) while the questions in the second exam consisted of Unit 8 - Bookworms and Unit 9 - Save the Planet in the course book (see Appendix I). Both exams lasted 2 lessons-time, with the first lesson dedicated to the written part and the second lesson to the practical part of the exam.

The researcher spoke to the participants individually during the oral part of the test. The first test was used to assess the participants' speaking, listening, writing, reading, grammar and vocabulary skills while the second test served to determine whether there were any change or improvement in these skills regarding the results of the first test. As the English curriculum dictates, 6th grade students have limited exposure to writing and reading; therefore, the amount of writing and reading in both exams was limited in comparison to other skills. However, it should be noted that exam results are not the only criterion for academic performance. Therefore, classroom observations were also considered when examining student competencies.

5.8. Research Procedure

In an AR study, it is crucial to describe the procedure of the study. Therefore, the action steps of the present study are described in detail below:

5.8.1. Planning phase

Planning is the first phase of the AR study. In this phase, the researcher identified the problematic situation and developed an overall plan to improve the practice in the research context. She observed these problems: First, the students tended to forget the vocabulary they had actually learned (e.g., they did not remember the vocabulary from the previous unit and sometimes even the vocabulary they had learned a week ago). Second, they were not able to speak in the target language even if they had good grades in the exams (e.g. they felt stressed when the teacher asked questions in English). Third, they mostly could not understand what they heard in English; and finally, they had problems in applying grammar rules (e.g. they confused or misused the structures). Hence, she decided to investigate the source of the problem.

Initially, the teacher made small-scale conversations with her students about their problems in learning foreign language and their solutions outside the classroom, e.g. during breaks or at lunchtime. She also observed their reactions to oral questions in the target language, their methods for solving problems during lessons, their roles and contributions in group works, their explanations for their incorrect or correct answers, their recollection of what they had previously learned and the linking of this learning with what they had newly learned during lessons, their performance in language skills and homework.

In addition, as described in 5.7.3, she kept a diary of her students' actions or behavior in class and their attitudes towards the subjects. All this collected data led the teacher to believe that her students do not actually know *how* to acquire or develop their foreign language skills. What they do is just making an effort to memorize the vocabulary or grammar structures in the relevant unit before the exam and forget them after a while. It also became clear that the language teachers, including the teacher who conducted the study, do not spend time informing the students about tactics and strategies on how to improve their language skills.

After determining the problem, the researcher attempted to analyze it and specify the details. Ethical concerns were covered permission from local authorities (see Appendix

J) and research ethics committee approval (see Appendix K) was obtained from the authorized institutions. The students were informed about the research process and that their participation depends on their own will; their identity, personal information or data will be kept confidential; and they can withdraw from the study at any time. Hence, volunteer students were selected as classroom participants and their parents signed a consent form (see Appendix L) to allow their participation.

After obtaining the necessary permissions, the teacher interviewed the students about how they learn English, acquire or develop a language skill and what they think about English in general. She analyzed the data obtained from the interviews and found that students do not know how they learn English or develop a language skill, that they generally do not use any technique or strategy to develop their skills, and that they are not guided on this topic by their teachers at school or in language courses.

Next, the teacher reviewed the literature to deepen her understanding of the topic in question, explain the rationale for this topic, identified the research questions, and determined the most appropriate research method and procedures for data collection and analysis. In addition, the literature review was helpful in creating a plan to address the relevant issue in the classroom.

Finally, the teacher-researcher produced action plans. Taking all these factors into consideration, the researcher decided to provide students with written instructions (e.g. tactics, study tips or techniques) for language learning and evaluate their effects on students' academic performance and perceptions.

5.8.2. Action phase

The second phase of the study lasted three weeks. Once the problem and the action steps had been defined, the teacher-researcher made some arrangements in the school environment to implement this plan smoothly. First, a pre exam was administered to the students to assess their language learning competencies. This test was divided into two sections, a written and a practical part, and was conducted in two lessons, i.e. in eighty minutes.

Next, the teacher researcher reviewed the literature to identify language learning instruction. The researcher also consulted two other researchers who had doctorates in ELT methodology to get an expert opinion on the instructions to ensure reliability and then prepared flashcards/instruction cards to give the students the instructions written on

them (see section 4.3. for instruction cards). The instructions were organized according to language areas (e.g. instructions on listening comprehension, instructions on speaking, instructions on vocabulary and instructions on grammar). Each of the two groups of instructions was presented to the students for one week. In addition to the written instructions and those presented on flashcards, the teacher also provided information on these instructions during breaks and negotiated with her students. The action phase was illustrated in Figure 5.1 below:

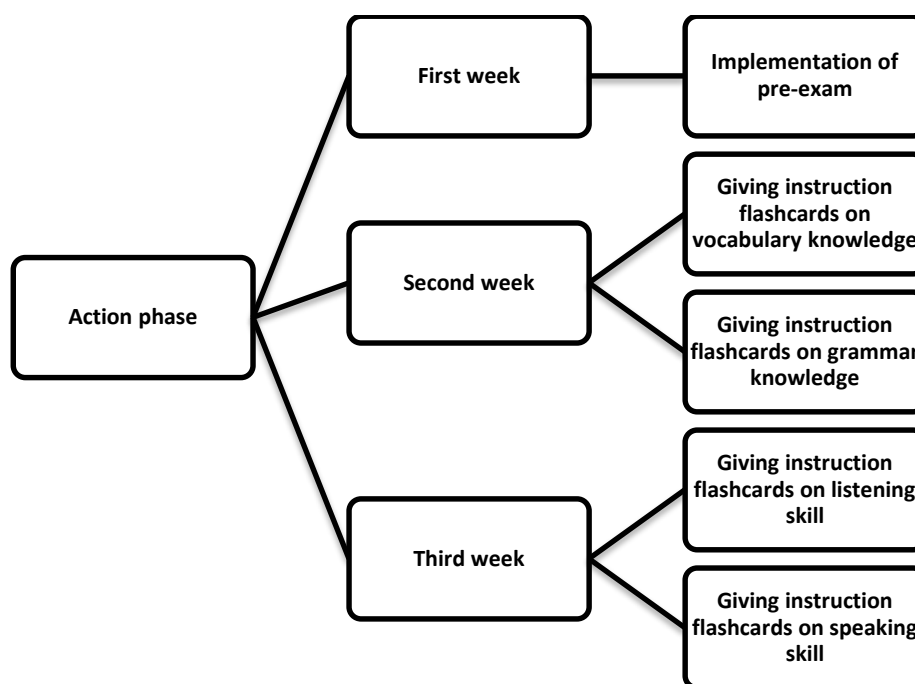


Figure 5.1 A flow showing action phase of the study

5.8.3. Observation phase

In this phase, the teacher observed the students for four weeks. She noted her observations about the students' use of instructions in class. For example, students' notebooks were checked regularly to see if they were using an instruction to memorize vocabulary. Similarly, the researcher completed observation forms for each class to find out whether students were using instructions during speaking or listening activities in class. In addition to the observation forms, the teacher also kept a diary to record the students' behavior or attitude towards the instructions given, the frequency of using the instructions, and their opinions or questions about using the instructions.

In order to thoroughly investigate the changes in the students' perceptions towards receiving language learning instructions, the teacher researcher interviewed the participants for one week after the four-week observations. In addition, the researcher

kept a diary to observe the overall educational environment. To determine the changes in the students' language skills, a two-hour, namely eighty-minute post exam was conducted after the interviews.

5.8.4. Reflection phase

Reflection is the last phase of AR. In this phase, the teacher researcher analyzed the data collected from the observation notes, teacher diaries, student post-interviews, and post-tests. All the data collected were used to reflect whether students' perceptions or competencies in English language teaching changed after receiving instructions on language learning skills. The researcher also reported on these changes and evaluated the action plans and their successes. In addition, the teacher researcher also answered the reflection questions related to the process before and after the research to interpret the success of the actions taken. Figure 5.2 summarizes the action research process.

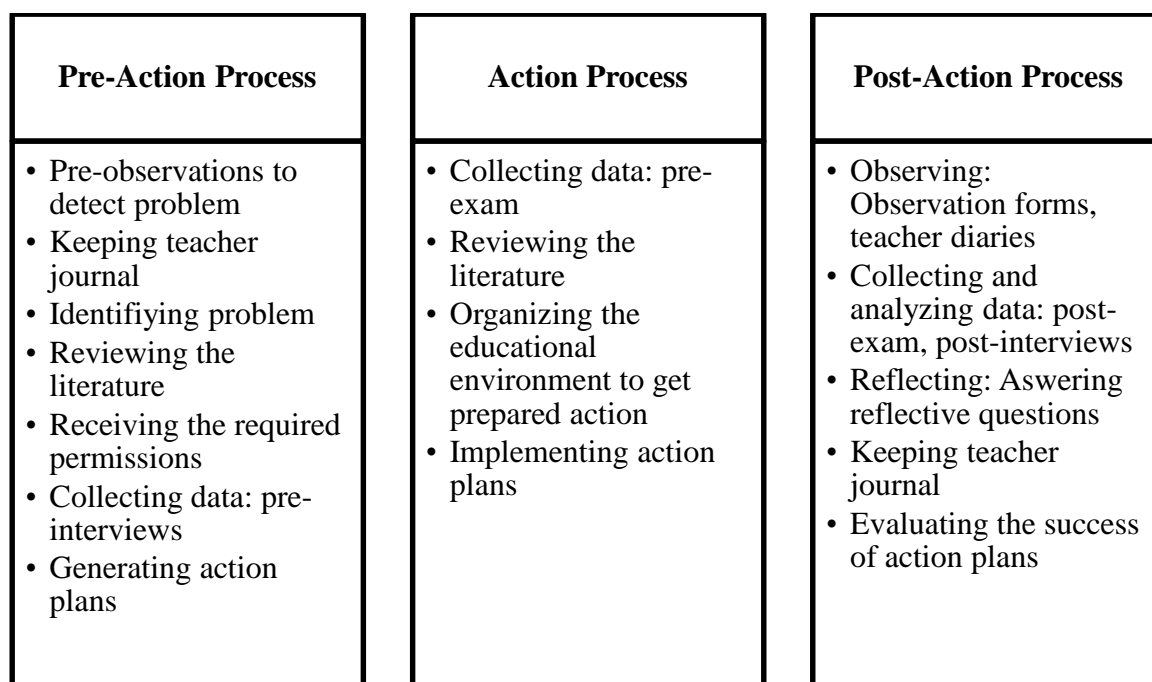


Figure 5.2 The overall action research process

5.8.5. Action cycle

In an AR study, the action cycle should also be mentioned, among other things. The questions of what an action cycle is and what the difference is between action plans (steps) and action cycles must be clarified in every AR study. To start with the action step, the suggestions to solve a problem or improve a situation are called action plans. To illustrate, this study suggested 'using a new word in a sentence, grouping the words, etc.' to convey vocabulary knowledge as action plans. To explain the cycle, we need to look at the AR

model. For example, Kemmis and McTaggart's (1988) model consists of four stages: Plan, Act, Observe and Reflect. When an action researcher goes through these four phases, the completion of these four phases results in a cycle. Similarly, Whitehead's (1989) model has five phases, namely: I experience a problem, I imagine a solution, and so on. When a researcher completes these five phases, it results in a cycle. This study uses the model and cycle of Kemmis and McTaggart (1988). As a reminder, you will find the action plans and action cycle of this study in Chapter Four.

5.9. Data Analysis

As the data was collected using both qualitative and quantitative data collection instruments, the data analysis process was divided into two categories, namely qualitative and quantitative analysis.

5.9.1. Qualitative analysis

The qualitative data were analyzed through content analysis, which refers to “determining the presence of specific words, themes, or concepts within specific qualitative data (Columbia Mailman School of Public Health, 2024). First, the collected data were organized and folded according to their type. The teacher diary and classroom observations were organized according to their dates, the pre- and post-exam papers and oral exam scales were filed, and the recordings of the semi-structured interviews before and after the test were each transcribed. The recordings were listened again and any errors that had occurred during transcription were corrected. The data were summarized, reduced or grouped to facilitate the process of data analysis in the necessary cases according to Miles and Huberman's (1994) model of qualitative data analysis.

The next step was to encode the data. The data was broken down into its individual parts, examined in detail, grouped according to similarities or differences and given code labels. These codes were examined to form categories and eventually themes according to Strauss and Corbin (1990). In addition, the researcher was coded as “R” while the participants were coded as "S1, S2, S3, ..." during the transcriptions and analyses. The content analysis was also supported by direct quotes and summaries from the teacher's diary, observation sheets or students' thoughts.

5.9.2. Quantitative analysis

The quantitative data were analyzed using graphs comparing the difference between the participants' pre and post exam results. In this way, it is possible to illustrate whether the

given instructions improved the students' overall exam results in English. The data from the pre- and post-instruction results was then grouped according to language learning ability. In this way, it would be easier to determine which language learning skills the participants made progress in and vice versa.

5.10. Reliability

Reliability was defined by Joppe (2000, as cited in Golasfhani, 2003) as "*the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study*" and he continued "*if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable*". However, this may not work for qualitative research undertaken in educational sciences since "*premises of naturalistic studies include the uniqueness and idiosyncrasy of situations, such that the study cannot be replicated – that is, their strength rather than their weakness.*" (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993, p.332). This is also in line with Walker's (1989) view that the reproducibility of educational situations is not always possible. This view makes sense in that as we, educational researchers, are dealing with people as 'cases' and their perceptions may change over time, taking into account their emotional states or personalities. Therefore, it would not be reasonable to hope that we will get the same results even if we use the same methods on the same sample.

However, all of these above situations do not mean that reliability does not need to be considered when conducting this AR study. The researcher made systematic observations in different contexts (e.g. classroom, corridor, school garden, etc.) and at different times so as not to miss any point during data collection. Moreover, the researcher did not ignore to consult the ideas of her coworkers and advisors during the investigation.

5.11. Validity

In an AR study, validity is an important issue, which is defined as "*the degree to which scientific observations actually measure or record what they purport to measure*" (Pelto & Pelto, 1978, p.33) and it can be ensured by considering four criteria: Credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

In this study, the credibility of the research was ensured by using a range of different data sources. The data obtained from the interviews was supplemented by teacher diaries, observations and exams; namely, data triangulation enabled the researcher to look at the overall picture from different angles. As the teacher conducting the study had access to

the school and classroom, she was able to observe the participants on a regular basis. Because she was familiar with the environment and the participants in the study, the researcher was able to develop a deep understanding of the atmosphere during data collection, which increased the credibility of the study.

The researcher has improved the transferability of the study by describing the context and research process in detail. In this way, individuals not participating in the present study can evaluate this research in terms of the similarities with their own situation and the degree of transferability of the research findings to their own educational setting (Stringer, 2007). Thus, the results of the study can be applied to other similar situations rather than generalized.

The dependability of the study was ensured through the use of reliable data collection tools and careful analysis of the collected data. The interview questions were presented to an expert and conducted on other 6th grade students to assess the feasibility of the questions before embarking on the present study. The research teacher kept a diary to ensure that no detail was overlooked during data collection. Similarly, the researcher consulted with other English teachers in the school where the study was conducted about the validity of the data collection procedures. The coding of the data was also cross-checked by another ELT expert to ensure the interpretation of the data.

The confirmability of the research was enriched by precautions against the personal bias or partiality of the researcher in the interpretation of the research results. These precautions can be exemplified as the audio recording of the data during the semi-structured interviews in order to transcribe them accurately, and the use of quotations from the participants' responses in the interviews or the teacher's diary and observation sheets to support the findings with an explicit account of the relevant data.

5.12. Summary

Given the nature and context of the study, implementing a research design that incorporates both qualitative and quantitative research approaches would be the most appropriate and feasible method for the present study. Moreover, this study is mainly an AR study as the title of the study suggests, but it can also be considered a CS study if some aspects of the study are considered. In this study, the transferability of the study is more appreciated as other teachers or researchers facing the same problems in their classrooms can be convinced to transfer the study to their own classrooms. It can be inferred that the validity of the study is more important than the generalization of the

results. Therefore, it is essential to elaborate the four main phases of the study (planning, acting, observing and reflecting) and to give a clear account of the participants and the research context. Also, the use of reliable, valid and diverse data collection tools (to allow triangulation of data) and improving the reliability of data collection and analysis are considered a must for this study. This variety of data sources can help readers understand whether the data collected with one instrument supports or contradicts the data collected with other instruments.

Having explained objectives, AR, action plans and method so far, it is now time to reveal whether supporting students with instructions affects their learning and success. Therefore, the next chapter is a reflection of applications with pros and cons.

CHAPTER VI

RESULTS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the present study in detail. First, the research results are presented together with the teacher diary and the observations in order to describe the situation before the AR study and to answer the first research question. Then, the results of the post-instruction are revealed together with the teacher diary, pre-post exam results and observation notes; and the results of the pre- and post-instructions are compared. This will answer the second research questions a) and b). Finally, it presents a conclusion for the chapter.

6.2. The Overall Situation before AR Study

This part aims to illustrate the portrait of the educational environment and the students' views before the beginning of the present AR study. It should be noted that the learning and teaching context must be well defined prior to the AR study in order to clearly identify the problematic issue and determine the most appropriate solution to this problem (Ebbutt, 1985; Elliott, 1991, Hopkins, 1996).

As described in the previous section, the situation prior to the AR study was researched using four instruments: 1) a broad classroom observation, 2) a teacher diary and 3) pre-interviews with the participants, and 4) the first written-exam. The data collected with these instruments were analyzed and reported according to a coding system. An in-depth analysis of the school, the classroom and the language teaching and learning procedures helps the reader to assess the pedagogical atmosphere before embarking on the AR study. The following sections provide information on the general climate of the learning environment, following the pattern from the general to the specific.

6.2.1. General climate of the school

As stated in the school context of the previous section (see 5.4.), this study was conducted in a secondary school in the province of Ordu. The school has a long history dating back to the 1930s. The school was founded as a primary school and was converted into an elementary school after the introduction of eight years of compulsory primary education in 1997. Subsequently, the primary school were split into primary and secondary schools in 2011 and the school where the AR study was conducted still serves as both a primary and secondary school. This means that both schools share the same building.

The building has three floors and the secondary school is located on the third floor of the building. The teachers' room, lunchroom, canteen, toilets and school garden are shared by the primary and secondary school students and teachers. Both schools not only share the same building, but also the same head teacher. However, each school has its own deputy head, one for the elementary school and one for the secondary school. The primary school has 220 students and 11 teachers, while the secondary school has 90 students and 8 teachers. There is 1 English teacher in the elementary school and 1 English teacher in the secondary school. However, the deputy head of the secondary school is also an English teacher and compulsorily teaches at least 6 hours of English in the secondary school. So, it would not be wrong to say that the secondary school has two English teachers. In addition, the primary school English teacher can be appointed to the secondary school if necessary, or vice versa. Therefore, English teachers are generally familiar with both primary and secondary school students.

The school is located in a neighborhood near the city center. Some of the students attend the school from this neighborhood while a considerable number of students are transported to the school from the surrounding neighborhoods. Thus, it can be said that the students have different parental or cultural backgrounds.

6.2.2. General climate of the classroom

Classroom 6/A, where the study was conducted, demonstrates the characteristics of a typical state school. There is a smart board with a whiteboard and a chalkboard, and students sit on their personal chairs in rows in front of these boards. The smart board has an internet connection and can play audio files. From the classroom window, one can see the school garden and this can sometimes be distracting for students during lessons as they wonder what is happening in the garden or who is playing football there when they hear voices. The classroom is bright enough to prevent students from getting sleepy during class. Students and teachers can display important announcements or subject materials on the bulletin boards in the classroom. Some students reside in the school's neighborhood while others come from other neighborhoods or villages.

6.2.3. Researcher's observations on language teaching sessions

Prior to the AR study, the teacher made observations about how she teaches English and how students respond it by taking regular notes during and after class. After coding the data obtained from these observation forms, it has revealed that the teacher and students generally repeat the following patterns: Greeting, filling class register, preparing and

checking homework, preparing the smart board, revision, explanation, use of target language, use of native language, group work and role play, audial practice, task-based practice, feedback, grammar or vocabulary games, using web 2.0 tools, question and answer, use of smart and white board, exams, using gestures, silence, and extracurricular talks. The following is a brief explanation of the first six patterns (See Appendix M for the history of the other patterns).

Greeting: All students stand up when the teacher enters the classroom. At the beginning of the first lesson, the teacher greets the students with "Good morning" or "Good afternoon", "How are you today?" etc. and the students respond. The teacher then asks them to sit down and all the students take their seats.

Filling in the class register: It is compulsory for teachers to record attendance and fill in the class register. Therefore, the teacher fills in the class register in every lesson.

Preparing and checking homework: The students present and the teacher checks the students' homework that she assigned them in the last lesson. The teacher assesses the homework by marking it with a plus (+) or minus (-) before starting the lesson. Examples of this pattern are S7 9/3/2023, S3 9/3/2023, S4 10/3/2023, etc.

Preparing the smart board: The teacher prepares the smart board almost every lesson.

Revision: The teacher often revisits the previous material before teaching a new topic at the beginning of the lesson in order to make a connection between the previous and the following topic. Most students look in their course books or notebooks to remember the topic of the previous lesson. For example, S1 14/3/2023, S3 14/3/2023, S5 14/3/2023, S12, 14/3/2023, etc.

Explanation: This pattern can also be described as *the use of the mother tongue*. All students use their first language (L1) unless the teacher forces them to speak English. Students usually need explanations of the grammatical rules and meanings of new English words. Reading texts are also explained to them if they are unable to understand the text. For example, S11 17/3/2023, S12 17/3/2023, S 13 17/3/2023, S14 17/3/2023, etc.

6.2.3.1. Further classification of teaching patterns before AR study

The above patterns of language teaching can be further summarized and divided into larger categories to reduce and clarify the collected data. This classification is displayed in Table 6.1 below.

Routine patterns	Written patterns	Teacher-based patterns	Student-based patterns
Greeting Filling the class register Checking homework Preparing smart board Explanation Feedback	Filling the class register Task-based practice Use of smart board Use of white board Written exams	Greeting Checking homework Revision Use of target language Use of native language Feedback Use of web 2.0 tools Question and answer	Group work Audial practice Task based practice Grammar/vocab. Games Extracurricular talks Question answer Use of mother language Use of native lang. Silence Preparing homework

Table 6.1 Classification of teaching patterns before AR

As you have seen above, some of the patterns (e.g. greeting, use of the target language, etc.) are very common. In addition, the above 25 patterns can be further classified as, for example, auditory patterns (e.g., answering questions), visual patterns (e.g., using the smart board), skill-based patterns, object-based patterns, person-based patterns, etc. Nevertheless, it was concluded that the above analysis was sufficient for the remainder of the study.

4.2.3.2. The frequency of patterns

The observational data prior to AR was also recorded to assess the frequency of these patterns and to understand which patterns are most and least used by teachers and students in the classroom. The researcher collected all observation forms and evaluated how often a pattern was repeated in the classroom. The frequencies of the patterns is shown in Table 6.2 below (See Appendix N for the complete list).

	Commonly-used Patterns	Uncommonly-used Patterns
R	explanation, use of native language, smart and white board, and gestures, task-based practice, question-answer, feedback	use of target language, group work or role play, audial practice, grammar and vocabulary games, using web 2.0 tools
S1	use of native language, preparing homework, task-based practice	use of target language, audial practice
S2	using web 2.0 tools, grammar and vocabulary games, question and answer	silence, group work and role play

Table 6.2 The frequencies of patterns

6.2.4. The classroom observations on students' language learning skills

The teacher-researcher made observations and recorded them after each lesson to illustrate the language learning situation of the participants before the AR process. The observations about the situation in the classroom before the AR study can be summarized as follows:

- Students generally focus on getting good grades rather than learning a foreign language (e.g. S3, S5, S11, S12). When the teacher teaches a new topic or provides new information, they ask if the exam questions will relate to that topic. If the teacher's answer is yes, they show more interest; if the answer is no, they are not attentive enough to understand the new topic. Most students do not practice speaking and listening as they consider these skills unnecessary because the school exams do not require assessment of these skills in the pre-AR stage.
- Some students are very interested in learning a foreign language (e.g. S2, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10) while some others seem to have no interest (e.g. S3, S5, S11, S12). The rest seem to be neutral and not so eager to learn English (S1, S4, S13, S14). All unwilling students are male while all willing students are female. The neutral students are both female and male.
- Students are generally more eager and participative when online games or competitions are integrated into lessons. Yet, these types of activities are limited due to the limitations in class time.
- Students usually do their homework with the help of online dictionaries or translation websites. Even if the teacher orders them to translate a text from Turkish to English or vice versa, they all use these websites instead of trying to translate by themselves. They are not aware of how translation affects their language learning skills.
- All students believe that language learning consists of only learning new vocabulary. They do not realize that learning a language requires the mastery of four skills (e.g. listening, speaking, etc.).
- All students use their prepared speech texts during the pair work. They simply read aloud what they have written in their notebooks in turn. This means that they cannot speak English without looking at their written material.
- Most students ($n=9$, e.g. S1, S3, S4, etc.) do not understand what the teacher (me) or the people in the listening exercises are talking about. They think that the people

in the audio files or podcasts speak too fast to understand them and their accent is different from the Turkish people who speak English. Most of them ($n= 11$, e.g. S1, S3, S4, etc.) do not listen any audio activities while the others (e.g. S2, S7, S9) only listen to songs in English or other foreign languages such as Korean.

- Most students ($n= 9$, e.g. S11, S12, S14, etc.) do not remember previously learned vocabulary or language structures. Some students (e.g. S3, S5, S11, S12) even forget newly learned vocabulary after a short time. Majority of them ($n=7$, e.g., S6, S7, S8, etc.) memorize the vocabulary or structure which will be asked in the exams and forget them after exams.
- Only a few students (e.g. S2, S7) ask questions about the topics, some of them (e.g. S2, S6, S7, S8) ask for further information on the topic or ask about the meaning of a vocabulary word. Most of them ($n= 8$, e.g. S4, S5, S11, etc.) are satisfied with the information given by the teacher.
- Only three of the students (S2, S7, S10) can infer the meaning of a new vocabulary or structure from the previously learned vocabulary and rules. The others ($n= 11$, e.g. S6, S13, S14, etc.) are generally unable to make connections between structures and guess the meaning of a new vocabulary.
- Some students do not want to answer a question or speak; not because they do not know anything, but because they do not know/remember the pronunciation of a vocabulary word. Most of them think that the rest of the class will make fun of them if they mispronounce a vocabulary.
- All students are obsessed with the unknown or unremembered vocabulary when they write, hear, read or speak something in English.
- The teacher must call most students' attention to the issue of LLSs. Students usually did not know what was 'speaking' or 'listening'. For example, at the beginning of the first semester, they do not all understand the instructions (what they have to do) for a listening comprehension exercise or a speaking task. However, for six of them (e.g. S2, S6, S7), this situation has changed over time and they have started to understand when the teacher tells them to do, e.g. a speaking or reading task.

The following statements can be derived from the above observations. These are:

- All students are weak in four skills. Most of them see English as a tool. That is, they learn it to pass the exams.

- The eager students are female, but they all like online vocabulary and grammar games. They like using online dictionaries and translation websites.
- They see vocabulary learning as language learning; they learn new vocabulary for temporary reasons (exams) and forget it afterwards.
- They cannot understand listening and speaking exercises; they do not know the pronunciation of words. Their cultural understanding prevents them from speaking, e.g. by laughing when pronouncing words incorrectly.
- Only three students can understand the meaning of vocabulary and grammatical rules.
- In addition, there is no research-based teaching or learning among the above.

6.2.5. Evidence from teacher diary

In addition to the researcher's observations, the notes in the teacher's diary also reflect the situation of foreign language teaching before the AR study. It can be said that the most problematic situation was that the teacher wanted to do more speaking and listening comprehension exercises and support her teaching with various educational games and web-2.0 tools, but was under time pressure due to the intensive curriculum. The following extract from the teacher's diary shows her desperation in dealing with teaching time:

I prepared a Kahoot quiz to assess students' understanding of Unit 5 and 6. I asked them to bring their smartphones/ PCs to run the game.... I explained the rules of the game and the quiz game began. All the students were excited and competitive and tried to do their best while playing Kahoot and wanted to play again. Yet, I had to say that we did not have enough time to play more games. (diary, 16/3/2023, p. 7)

Another reference concerns the unwillingness of the students. Some students (e.g. S3, S5, S11, S12, etc.) are not eager to learn English, which is not worth investing time in, as they do not (want to) use it in their daily lives. This situation also demoralizes the teacher as she tries to teach a subject that falls within her area of competence and is confronted with dissatisfaction. This becomes clear from the following excerpt:

I see that the English lessons after lunch are rather boring for the students. A considerable number of them are already reluctant to speak or answer a question during the lesson. At first, I have to attract attention to the lesson. However, whatever I do or say is not enough. Some of them keep saying 'learning English is pointless'. This also affects my mood. I fall into despair when I am faced with a dissatisfied student. (diary, 24/3/2023, p.8)

As a teacher, I tried to draw the attention of these bored students to the lesson by making the following movements, changes of tone, jokes and facial expressions. These are recorded in the diary:

I usually walk around the classroom during lessons instead of sitting at the teacher's desk to check the students' exercises or draw their attention to me. I also set the tone when teaching instead of using a monotone. I use different facial expressions or gestures to get their attention, and sometimes I even sing a song to make them smile. (diary, 9/3/2023, p.5).

However, there are also positive comments about some students (e.g. S2, S6, S7, S9, S10) who show great interest in English lessons. The teacher has noticed this: “*Certain names are very keen on participating in the flow of lesson. They carry out all the tasks they are given with pleasure and this also pleases me*” (diary, 24/3/2023, p.8).

The researcher also noted that students do not have sufficient knowledge of Turkish language and vocabulary; therefore, they do not understand and compare the rules of Turkish and English grammar and the teacher is obliged to explain the rules in both grammars. For example, most of the students ($n= 6$, e.g. S3, S11, S14, etc.) do not know the meaning of the Turkish word ‘cömert’, but the English teacher tries to teach the English equivalent ‘generous’. The following note shows the same problem:

Today's topic was 'simple past tense'. I started with a question about how we can form sentences in the simple past tense in Turkish and asked the students to say a simple sentence in the past tense. However, some students (e.g. S5, S11) were able to make a simple sentence with the simple past tense in Turkish and this situation scared me. I think students should make connections between the rules of native and target language and they cannot understand English without truly knowing their own language. (diary, 7/3/2023, p.4).

The teacher researcher also has difficulty in finding time when she assigned students to role-play activities in class. In her diary she stated that:

I grouped proficient students with non-proficient ones. I told them to ask each other and answer where and when they were born and gave them five minutes to prepare themselves. Some groups worked well together while others faced problems such as giving all the responsibility to just one group member.... The competent student in the group urged the other group member to be volunteer. So, this kind of matching can be beneficial for some students and undesirable for others (diary, 3/3/2023, p.3).

Due to the level of the students, I sometimes had to speak in Turkish and I criticize myself for using my mother tongue during class. This situation was reflected as follows:

..., greeted the students and took attendance in English. I gave simple instructions such as 'Open your books', 'Be quiet' and 'Look at the blackboard'. However, I started speaking in Turkish to explain the simple past tense. The students also often used their mother tongue. Some of them (e.g. S3, S5, S11) even refused to answer the questions in English. I know that I should use the target language more often, but the students' reactions hinder me. (diary, 14/3/2023, p.6)

To summarize, it can be concluded from these written notes that the teacher faced with a number of problems arising from time constraints/curriculum, students' unwillingness, lack of Turkish language skills, conducting group work and using the mother tongue. These excerpts show the routine classroom explanations at state schools. The teacher tried to cope with the current or instant problems while actively teaching as these were the goals of AR studies.

6.3. Participant Students' Views on Learning Language Skills prior to AR Study

This part aims to answer the first research question of the study. This research question investigates whether the participating students have prior knowledge about language learning skills before AR. In presenting the participant students' views obtained through semi-structured interviews, the teacher-researcher adhered to Wolcott's view that requires to "get rid of data" in qualitative analysis (Wolcott, 1990, p.18). Yet, the researcher added quotes as evidence when interpreting the data and then offered a discussion of the themes. Detailed presentation of the data analysis can be found in Appendix O.

6.3.1. Students' pre-knowledge about learning a skill

The interview question was designed to find out whether students were informed/instructed by anyone about how to learn a language skill (e.g. listening, speaking, etc.). Some students indicated that they receive advice from their parents ($n=6$) or teachers ($n=3$) on what they should do to improve their language skills. The most common advice students receive is to solve multiple-choice questions in test books ($n=4$). The quote from S10 illustrates the situation: "*I have not received such information, but my father and mother generally say that if I do test, I can be more successful and understand better.*" (int. 30/3/2023).

Students' responses about learning a skill have shown that the advice they received from their parents or teachers focused on using translation programs or dictionaries to learn new vocabulary ($n=2$), repeating vocabulary by writing or reading it several times ($n=1$), reading books ($n=2$), and studying lessons ($n=2$). S2 gave examples:

I said that I try to memorize a word in the book by reading it from the book, closing the book and repeating the word. My mother told me to do that. She said that she used to do the same thing and could memorize the words and if I do the same, I can memorize a word. She said, "You can read a book", I read books, but I could not find a book written in English. If I found one, I would translate it into Turkish and memorize it. My aunt also told me to read some words in a sentence and write these words or sentences in my notebook, then I could understand them better. (int. 27/3/2023)

The students' other examples again focused on vocabulary and reading. These advices include hanging word cards to the places they can see all the time ($n=1$), asking questions about a topic they do not understand ($n=1$), repeating topics they have already learned ($n=2$), and improving pronunciation to be able to communicate in English ($n=2$). S8 stated that:

For example, my mother suggests me to read over a word or topic after teacher has taught it.... My teacher in English course told me to write the words on cards and hang or put them somewhere I can see them clearly so I can learn their meaning. She said that if I see these words all the time, I can memorize them (int. 29/3/2023).

The rest of the students remarked that they did not receive instructions/advice from anyone ($n=5$). For example, S13 told that "*I have not received any advice or instructions on how to learn language skills*" (int. 31/3/2023).

6.3.2. Discussion

The data shows that students generally did not receive help/advice on how to improve their language skills. Students take advices from their families or teachers. However, these advices are mostly general and far from reflecting a pedagogical approach. Families or teachers constantly exhort the students to study hard. Yet, they do not provide them any guidance on how to study/learn. S4's statement clearly reveals the current situation: "*Everyone told me to study lesson, but they did not tell me how to study*" (int. 28/3/2023).

It is also not surprising that the most common advice given to students (S7, S9, S10, S14) is to 'solve as many multiple-choice questions as possible'. The high school entrance exam (LGS) consists of only multiple-choice questions and does not assess students' speaking, writing or listening skills. Student success on this type of exam is the most precious thing for families and teachers. Under these circumstances, students are usually told that they must solve e.g., at least 100 questions a day. So, students might think that learning foreign language instead of answering the exam questions is a waste of time.

Advice from parents, aunts, uncles, etc. can be misleading for students. For example, repeating vocabulary by writing or reading it over and over again is not an effective way to learn it. Nevertheless, S2 was advised by her mother to use this classical technique and an example was seen in Picture 1.1 on page 11. This has resulted in student's spending her time in vain for temporary memorizing vocabulary and forgetting it after a short time. It would not be wrong to say that these advices are generally related to all the other lessons. For example, reading books (S2, S7), asking questions (S9) and reviewing previous topics (S7, S8) can be prescribed for any lesson. Therefore, these advices cannot be seen as a recipe for improving students' foreign language skills. Rather, they are general instructions that can be given by anyone. However, the use of translation programs or dictionaries (S1, S9), the improvement of pronunciation (S3, S7) and the preparation of word cards (S8) can be considered as specific advice for language learning. However, there is not enough information or instruction on why and how to use these programs or dictionaries and how to improve their pronunciation. Therefore, these advices cannot be considered as useful for learning a skill. One point is that only one advice-hanging word cards- is consistent with the vocabulary learning instructions explained in chapter two.

It should also be noted that a considerable number of students (S5, S6, S11, S12, S13) stated that they did not receive any guidance on how to improve LLSs while others claimed that they did (even though this guidance cannot actually be considered as proper). To summarize, the students followed the advice of their parents and some others about vocabulary learning and reading a book in terms of prior knowledge, ignoring their weaknesses. They did not reveal anything about listening comprehension, speaking and grammar skills, which will be our next focus from now on.

6.3.3. Students' pre-knowledge about listening skill

The interview question was designed to find out what the students thought about their listening comprehension skills. The data analysis showed that all students ($n=13$) except one think that they have problems understanding conversations/podcasts or songs in English. Most of them can only understand the conversation at a low speed ($n=7$), they have problems in understanding some vocabulary during the speech ($n=4$), and they are affected by physical factors such as external voices during the conversation or the sound quality of the smart board during a listening exercise in class ($n=2$). In addition, some students note that they generally do not understand a conversation at all ($n=2$) while

others said that they slightly understand someone speaking English ($n=3$). For example, S1 said that *“I can understand a little, but some words echo when we do listening exercises from the recordings on the smart board. I could understand some of the words, but there are too few”* (int. 27/3/2023).

Only a few of the students indicated that they can generally understand while listening English ($n=1$) or understand it with the help of clues such as photos or key words ($n=2$). S2’s response is an example of this: *“If I understand a few words in a sentence while listening, I can understand what the sentence means”* (int. 27/3/2023).

6.3.4. Discussion

All results affirm that students do not feel confident when it comes to learning how to listen. They are aware of their lack of competence in listening. However, they accept this and do nothing to change it. Half of the students (S6, S7, S9, S10, S12, S13, S14) complain about the speed of the speakers when they listen and try to understand them or complete a listening comprehension task in the course book during class time. Some of them (S1, S3) blame various problems on the quality of the voice or the noise while others (S3, S5) directly admit that they are unskilled in listening. Only one student (S2) believes that she performs well in the listening tasks and only two students (S7, S8) use listening comprehension techniques. Given the results, it can be said that the students do not know how to improve their listening comprehension. They generally accept that they cannot understand a conversation in English, but they do not know *how* to solve the problem.

6.3.5. Students’ pre-knowledge about speaking skill

The interview question explored the students’ thoughts and abilities in relation to their speaking skills. Most of the students think that they are not able to speak English ($n=10$). Some of them think that they are not good at speaking as they cannot form sentences even if they have vocabulary knowledge ($n=4$) while some others cannot speak English as they do not have the required vocabulary ($n=2$). A great number of students directly mentioned that they could not speak English ($n=6$). Several students indicated that they feel very excited or shy when they try to speak English and have problems with pronunciation ($n=3$), so they prefer not to speak ($n=2$). The quote from S8 could be a good example to explain the situation:

I think speaking English is a funny and enjoyable activity. However, I cannot speak English properly because the spelling and pronunciation of English words are different and I cannot memorize the pronunciation of

a word. If I do not know how to pronounce a word, I feel shy and cannot speak English. Moreover, if I do not know the meaning of some words in a sentence, I have to think hard about how to form a sentence (int. 29/3/2023)

On the other hand, only one student (S9) feels confident about her speaking ability and defends that she can speak English well enough to express herself. Three of the students stated that they can only express themselves in English using the vocabulary they have learned. For instance, S7's opinion is that *"I can introduce myself, but I cannot give many details. I cannot introduce myself as I do in my native language. I can talk about the topics I have learned before and I can speak with the words I have learned before"* (int. 29/3/2023).

6.3.6. Discussion

It is a pity that nine of the students (e.g., S1, S4, S5, S8, etc.) did not feel competent in their speaking skills. For some, the reason for this was the feeling of excitement or boredom when trying to speak English (S8, S10, S14), inability to form a sentence (S1, S5, S8, S14), insufficient vocabulary knowledge (S13, S14) and mistakes in pronunciation (S8, S14). These students know the reason for their lack of speaking skills, but they do not know how to overcome this problem even if they are aware of it. Moreover, five of the students (S3, S4, S5, S11, S12) did not give an excuse for their lack of speaking skills. This could mean that they have no idea or do not care about the reason why they cannot speak English. So, it can be argued that most of the students do not know how to improve their speaking skills.

S9 argued that she can speak English without any problem; however, this is a disputable issue. This comment may be the result of self-esteem of the student since she is more successful than most of other students in classroom regarding speaking skill and she may perceive herself as a competent speaker of English. Three of the students (S2, S6, S7) indicated they can talk about the topics they have learned in lessons. This shows that the students rely on the vocabulary they have learned when they try to initiate a conversation in English. They *do not know how to react*, for example, if they forget or do not know the meaning of a word in English. If they have enough vocabulary, they believe they can speak, if they do not have enough vocabulary to speak, they prefer to remain silent. However, speaking English accurately or fluently does not mean knowing every word in English. Students assume that they can speak English very well if their vocabulary

knowledge of a topic is sufficient. This shows that they are not proficient when it comes to speaking skills.

6.3.7. Students' pre-knowledge about vocabulary skill

This interview question examined how students learn/remember English vocabulary. The data showed that most students try to memorize English vocabulary by reading ($n=5$), writing ($n=8$) and repeating ($n=4$) newly learned words several times. The opinion of S13 is an example of this: *"I repeat the vocabulary two or three times if I have forgotten it. I read the vocabulary aloud to memorize it, sometimes 5, 10 or 20 times. It varies from word to word"* (int. 31/3/2023).

Some other students learn English vocabulary by looking it up in dictionaries ($n=3$). For example, S6 said that *"I see some English words while surfing on the Net. I wonder what they mean in Turkish and search for their meaning on the Internet. If I search for the meaning of a word myself, I can memorize the word more easily"* (int. 28/3/2023).

Other ways used by students to memorize/learn English vocabulary include using vocabulary lists ($n=1$), listening to English songs ($n=1$), practicing with a friend or family member ($n=1$), and using vocabulary applications (apps) or online vocabulary games ($n=1$). The following example is from S2: *"There are some word lists at the end of the course book and I am trying to memorize these words. ... Also, when I listen to English songs, I try to memorize the meaning of the words in the lyrics. I check the Turkish meanings of the lyrics"* (int. 27/3/2023).

6.3.8. Discussion

The data shows that students generally use similar techniques for learning / memorizing English vocabulary and it would not be wrong to say that their memorization techniques are not very effective when it comes to learning permanently. Writing down, reading or repeating vocabulary may be helpful for upcoming exams, but this vocabulary is forgotten after a while. Only a few students (S2, S4, S8) use a different vocabulary technique than their friends. S2 uses vocabulary lists at the end of the course book and listens English songs along with reading vocabulary a few times. S4 practices the newly-learned vocabulary with his family members in addition to reading the vocabulary written on the notebook or looking up dictionary to learn its meaning. S8 uses online channels for vocabulary learning. This indicates that even students who use different techniques from others apply for familiar techniques like reading the vocabulary a few times. However,

the quotes above show that some students implicitly use vocabulary learning techniques, but most of them are not aware of the instructions mentioned in chapter two.

6.3.9. Students' pre-knowledge about grammar skill

The interview question investigated how the participant students learn a new grammatical rule. Most students learn a grammatical structure by checking the notes on the topic in their notebooks ($n=8$), revising the topic a few times ($n=9$), and listening to their teacher's explanations in class ($n=5$). Students generally gave similar answers to S5: *"They taught us the rules of grammar in class. For example, they taught us where to use the suffix '-ing'. But sometimes, I might forget where it belongs. So, I read over the rules which I write them down in my notebook when I get home."* (int. 28/3/2023).

Other activities performed to learn a grammar rule are solving multiple choice questions on grammar ($n=3$), using formulas or connotations to memorize the rule ($n=3$), doing grammar exercises ($n=2$), asking for help from someone ($n=3$), using translation websites ($n=2$), attending English classes ($n=1$), watching lecture videos on the Net ($n=1$), and doing nothing ($n=1$). For example, S8 stated that:

I also attend an after-school English class where the teacher reviews the topics I have learned at school that day. I do some tests at home or in the English class. I ask my teacher questions about my wrong answers in the tests. But before I go to the English class, I study with my mother at home or I use a translation program. (int. 29/3/2023)

6.3.10. Discussion

The data analysis demonstrates that students learn English grammar in a similar way. They usually listen to their teacher's grammar instructions (S2, S3, S4, S5, S10) and repeat what they have written in their notebooks or course books ($n=9$, e.g. S12, S13, S14, etc.). This shows that students generally rely on their teacher's statements or interpretations when learning grammar. It can be concluded that students are incompetent in self-control and the teaching is teacher-centered rather than student-centered.

Another indication of external help are the students' statements such as *"I watch lecturing videos on the Net. After I repeat the subject matter in my notebook, I answer the test questions"* by S13 (int. 31/3/2023) and *"my downstairs neighbor is an English teacher and she tutors me in these rules"* by S14 (int. 31/3/2023). Their advice from private English classes, family members or other English teachers and online lectures shows that

they do not know how to learn or study a grammar rule in English. This shows that there is a need to support them with guidance.

A student's confession (S11) of doing nothing to study or learn a grammatical rule in English possibly shows the student's dislike of the English language. It should also be noted that he gave short answers to all the questions.

6.3.11. Students' pre-knowledge towards studying English

The interview question asked how the participants generally study English. The analysis of the data revealed that most of the students ($n=12$) use written aids such as English course books, notebooks and test books when learning English. English course books are used to review the glossary list at the end of the book to learn vocabulary ($n=2$) or to review the topics in the book ($n=4$) and to practice the activities in the book ($n=2$); multiple-choice questions in test books are solved to prepare for exams ($n=7$); and English notebooks are used to revise the written topics ($n=8$). For instance, S3 stated that:

I open my exam book and close the door to block out the noise, because if it's loud, I cannot study. I put a glass of water on my desk. I take my phone to check the time because I do not have a watch. I do tests in my test books. I study for half an hour and then have a ten-minute break. If I have an exam, I might study with my textbook or with the books the teachers have given me. I study the topics we have learned from my course book. If I do not have an exam, I study English occasionally, but not much. (int. 27/3/2023)

Repeating the information on the way home after school or during an English exam ($n=6$) and trying to memorize the information ($n=5$) are among the other common activities of students when learning English. An example of this is S5: "*I learn English by memorizing. I check what I have written in my notebook and course book. I read over the topics we learned in class*" (int. 28/3/2023). In addition, the majority of students ($n=8$) use technological means to learn English. A considerable number of students use online dictionaries to look up an unknown vocabulary ($n=6$) while some of them use online translation software or applications ($n=3$) and watch educational videos on the topic on the Net ($n=3$). S1 indicated that:

I study English especially when I have an exam. For example, I search for the words "first term first English exam" on the internet and watch videos. I learn by watching videos on the exam topics. When I do not have an exam, I do not do anything else to study English. (int. 27/3/2023)

Only a few students listen to English songs ($n=2$), read short captions on the Net ($n=1$), practice speaking in front of the mirror ($n=1$), use post-it to take notes ($n=1$), mark important points in the course or in their notebooks ($n=1$), get help from the teacher, a friend or a relative ($n=2$), translate English texts into Turkish ($n=2$) and do homework ($n=2$). For example, S8 mentioned that:

My mother helps me when I study English. First I memorize English words in my notebook and my mother asks me the meaning of these words. My mother asks me the Turkish meaning of an English word or she asks me the English meaning of a Turkish word. (int. 29/3/2023)

6.3.12. Discussion

On the whole, it can be said that the students use similar learning techniques. Most of them use dictionaries to look up the meaning of a word, study with an English course book or a notebook, repeat or review what is written in these books, and try to memorize rules or vocabulary. Similarly, most of them do not think about how to improve their LLSs. Instead, they just try to memorize rules or vocabulary by looking them up in dictionaries or books. Likewise, most of them answer multiple-choice questions in the test book. They were made to believe by teachers or family members that they have to solve test questions as many as possible to be successful and get into a good high school or college in the Turkish education system. This belief influences their study habits since they have to correctly answer 10 multiple-choice questions in LGS to reach this goal.

It is also an annoying fact that students' learning techniques are not directly related to LLSs. That is, they generally do not practice four skills. Except for three of them (S2, S7, S14), the remaining students do nothing to improve their language learning skills, possibly they do not know the rules or learning tips about the skills. Finally, the frequent use of web-based tools shows that students' learning habits have changed. Technology is becoming more integrated into education and Generation Z loves to use it in all aspects of life. Thus, it is better to organize more technology-based lessons / curricula for students

6.3.13. Students' perceptions towards English

The interview question attempted to determine the students' general perceptions towards the English language. Half of the students ($n=7$) have a positive attitude towards English classes. Some of them ($n=3$) stated that the topics in the course book are fun and interesting. The rest remarked that they like listening English songs ($n=3$) and hearing the pronunciation of English speakers ($n=3$). For example, S2 said that "*I like to learn*

and speak another language. I listen to English songs at home. I also listen to Russian or Italian songs. I like English. I like the pronunciation of English words." (int. 27/3/2023).

However, some students directly state that they do not like English in any way ($n=3$) and find English difficult to learn ($n=1$). Others seemed to be neutral about their feelings towards English ($n=5$). Some of them believe that English can be helpful at abroad ($n=3$) and in finding a good job ($n=3$). S8 claimed that *"When we grow up, knowing English can be an advantage for us. It can help us get a good job. Or if we go abroad, we can speak fluent English and communicate with the people there."* (int. 29/3/2023).

6.3.14. Discussion

From the data analysis, it can be concluded that the students who have a positive attitude towards English (S1, S2, S5, S8, S11, S13, S14) do not directly enjoy learning English. They only like English textbooks, songs and the pronunciation of vocabulary. It should also be noted that S1 loves the themes in the textbook, but has some difficulties in English lessons. In addition, S4 and S12 do not enjoy English under any circumstances. This could be due to their prejudice towards English as they have no reason for their dislike of English. Similarly, some students (S3, S6, S7, S9, S10) are aware of some benefits of learning English, but this does not mean that they are fully aware of the subject.

6.3.15. Summary

It was found that students generally do not have the knowledge of the instructions on the main and sub-skills and English textbooks do not contain supporting knowledge about learning skills. So, after creating learning tips or instruction cards for each skill and explaining their importance several times, the next part will explain whether these instructions influenced students' perception, success or not; if so, to what extent? If not, what are the possible causes? The next part is dedicated to answering these questions.

6.4. Students Knowledge of Skills after Instruction Training

This part aims to explain how the participant students perceive English language teaching in general and how their academic performance changed after receiving instruction cards on how to improve their LLSs. Thus, the second research question was answered through this section. The data obtained from the post-interview questions were presented in the same way as the data obtained from the pre-interview questions. Namely, the researcher used the technique to get rid of the data and added the quotes from the participating students to present the data. Detailed display of the data analysis is found in Appendix P.

6.4.1. Students' knowledge of listening skill after instruction

The interview question investigated whether the students could understand the listening comprehension exercises better and whether there was a change in their listening comprehension after receiving instructions on listening comprehension skills. The data analysis showed that most of the students ($n=12$) integrated the listening comprehension instructions given by the researcher into their listening comprehension study. A great number of them started practicing listening skill by listening English songs ($n=11$). For example, S11 stated that *“I started listening English songs and checking the lyrics. I found out that some lyrics contain slang words; so I stopped listening to these songs and looked for other songs to listen.”* (int. 18/5/2023). Some of the students also made a habit of listening to English audiobooks to accompany the stories they read ($n=8$). S10 indicated that: *“I listened to the audio recordings of the storybooks while I read them. Listening to a native speaker is very different from listening to someone who has learned English as a second or foreign language”* (int. 18/5/2023).

On the other hand, only a few students started to use listening instructions such as making inferences about the topic based on nonverbal cues such as gesture, body language, tone of voice or speaker's emphasis ($n=1$) and making predictions about the topic based on peripheral cues such as setting, picture or title of the conversation ($n=2$). For example, S8 said that:

I made predictions about the subject by looking at the picture before listening to a task in the course book. Before I received instructions, I never paid attention to these clues. But now I consider these clues before listening and can solve the listening task more easily (int. 17/5/2023).

Even some of them ($n=2$) indicated that they have not followed any instruction on listening skill. However, there are also some students who use their own techniques while practicing listening in addition to the teacher's instructions. The following quotations are good examples of this:

I listened to the audio recordings of the storybook and while I was listening to the audio recordings, I recreated the events in the book in my mind. For example, I read ‘Tom Sawyer’. He was so naughty and adventurous, so it was fun to replay the story in my head while I was reading and listening to it (int. with S7, 17/5/2023).

I listen to the audio books and try to read aloud and speak like the speaker while listening to the audio recordings (int. with S9, 17/5/2023).

Finally, a good number of the students ($n=9$) feel better at listening skills after receiving listening instructions. For example, S10's statements were as follows: *"Before the instructions, I could fill 2 out of 6 blanks when listening, but now I can fill 4 out of 6 blanks. I feel better in my listening skills."* (int., 18/5/2023). However, the rest of the students ($n=5$) do not feel that their listening comprehension has improved.

6.4.2. Discussion

It became clear that all students have not used the listening instructions they have received from their teacher. As mentioned earlier, only two students (S3 and S12) did not use the instructions. The remaining students were interested in using the instructions in their listening exercises. In particular, students such as S2, S7 and S8 used almost all of the listening instructions.

The situation before AR was as follows: These students did nothing to improve their listening comprehension before the study because they were not aware that listening comprehension was an important part of language learning. That is, they just tried to memorize some vocabulary or grammar structures before the exams to get good grades and forgot them after a while. None of them paid any attention to listening even though this skill is required by the 6th grade curriculum. Compared to the situation before the AR study, most students have gained a new perspective on learning to listen and are now more aware of the importance of listening and how to do it. They loved listening to English songs and audio books more than the teachers' expectations. This could be due to the fact that they enjoy listening to a native English speaker. Evidence for this could be the quote from S6, which is similar to S10's statements above: *"I liked the pronunciation of the speakers of audiobooks"* (int. 16/5/2023).

Moreover, the fact that S7 and S9 combine their own listening-learning techniques with the teacher's instructions is an important sign of the positive results of the instructions. That is, some students who are better informed about how to learn become more confident learners and this confidence may lead them to suggest creative ideas on how to learn language skills.

6.4.3. Students' knowledge of speaking skill after instruction

The interview question investigated whether the students could understand the speaking exercises better and whether their speaking skills changed after receiving instructions on speaking skills. The data collected showed that a large number of students ($n=12$) use

speech recognition applications to improve their pronunciation, thus feeling more confident when speaking English. To illustrate this, S6's statement can be presented:

I felt insecure when I spoke English because I did not trust myself with my pronunciation. But now my pronunciation is getting better because I started using speech recognition apps. I record my voice. If I mispronounce a word, the app gives me one star and if I pronounce a word correctly, the app gives me five stars (int. 16/5/2023).

The use of other techniques is as follows: Some students indicated that they retell a story themselves ($n=3$) or use digital storytelling apps by choosing characters, recording their voices for those characters, and creating a story ($n=2$). Regarding S9's view: *"I create a character that looks like me and make it speak in English by recording my voice. The character moves its mouth, legs, arms, hands etc. I can record this as a video and share it with my friends"* (int. 16/5/2023).

As happened in section 6.6, some students ($n=3$) stated that they developed their own learning techniques for speaking in addition to their teacher's instructions. The reflections of S6 can be cited as an example: *"I try to speak to my father at home in English. For example, we talked about what we should do to protect the environment while my father fixed the on/off buttons of the sockets in the house"* (int. 16/5/2023).

Conversely, some negative examples also exist. Some students ($n=2$) stated that they did not use any speaking instructions. For example, S8 expressed her thoughts as *"I did not follow your instructions on using speech recognition apps, so I have not made any progress with my pronunciation. I still feel stressed when I speak English."* (int. 17/5/2023). Besides, some others ($n=4$) feel that their speaking skills have not improved as they have not implemented the instructions or are not sure if this skill has developed.

In general, some students ($n=10$) felt that their speaking skills improved significantly or imperceptibly after receiving instructions because they felt more confident and practiced this skill more often in everyday life. As a final example, S13 remarked that: *"I think my speaking skills are getting better. I used to stutter when I tried to speak English, but that stutter has gone away now"* (int. 16/5/2023).

6.4.4. Discussion

From all these analyses, it is clear that the most commonly used instruction for listening skills is the use of speech recognition apps. Considering that the students also used the digital storytelling apps to improve their speaking skills, it is not hard to guess that using

technological opportunities helps students develop their speaking skills. However, it should also draw the readers' attention that none of the students was willing to use the communication strategies instructed by the teacher researcher. Most of them stated that these strategies were difficult to use. Considering this, it can be said that the students did not want to implement the instructions that they found difficult to apply.

6.4.5. Students' knowledge of vocabulary skill after instruction

The interview question investigated the extent to which students' perceptions and learning styles of vocabulary changed after receiving vocabulary instruction. The data analysis shows that all the students ($n=14$) used a range of techniques. For example, majority of them started to learn vocabulary by putting English *labels* on the objects in their rooms or classrooms ($n=9$) and playing vocabulary games in the classroom or at home with their friends or other family members ($n=9$). The statements of S14 can clearly illustrate this: *"I started playing word games and that improved my vocabulary knowledge"* (int. 19/5/2023).

Moreover, a considerable number of them read English storybooks and looked up unknown vocabulary in them ($n=8$). They also explored listening to English songs and checking the meaning of the lyrics ($n=8$). For example, S9 stated that *"I started listening to English songs and liked them a lot. I can remember some words from these songs when the teacher asks me the meaning of a word in class."* (int. 17/5/2023). Likewise, some of them learned vocabulary by preparing visual dictionaries ($n=6$) while few of them started to use their technological devices in English ($n=2$) and found synonyms or antonyms of vocabulary ($n=1$). The case of S7 illustrates this: *"I think about the synonyms of the words we have learned. For example, I think about the synonym of 'rubbish'. We have learned its synonyms like 'garbage' or 'litter'. So, I try to memorize all these words together"* (int. 17/5/2023).

Furthermore, some students grouped vocabulary or used semantic mappings to learn new words ($n=3$) while others analyzed the affixes of vocabulary to infer their meaning ($n=1$). For instance, S2 emphasized that: *"I analyzed the affixes of a word. For example, the prefix re- gives the meaning of 'again' when you add a word like play-replay."* (int. 15/5/2023). Another student (S7) used the newly learned vocabulary in a sentence by saying: *"I read the story book. I read one page ... I checked the Turkish meaning of a word I do not know from the glossary at the end of the storybook and made a sentence with this word"* (int. 17/5/2023).

6.4.6. Discussion

The above analyses show that all participant students showed interest in vocabulary learning instructions given by teacher. A group of them ($n=7$, e.g., S2, S6, S7, etc.) were better at implementing these instructions in their English lessons while some others (e.g., S3, S5, S11, S12) did not use these instructions as frequently. This means that the students in the first group used more vocabulary instructions compared to the others.

Supported with the observation data and the analyses of the exams, it can be concluded that the more successful and enthusiastic the students are in learning English, the more inclined they are to use vocabulary instructions. S7 can be cited as an example of this. This student is diligent and eager to learn and is also one of the students who follow more vocabulary learning instructions compared to others. S3 can be the opposite example as this student is generally not an English learner and does not show much interest in following vocabulary instructions.

Another point that should be discussed here is the instruction preferences of the participant students. Students mostly preferred to read English story books, listen English songs, play word games, put English labels on objects and prepare visual dictionaries while analyzing affixes of vocabulary to intervene its meaning, finding synonyms and antonyms of vocabulary, and using technological devices in English were the least used vocabulary instructions among students.

Last but not the least, all instructions were implemented by all students in one way or another. In the pre-stage phase of the study, they used to memorize the vocabulary by repeating it from e.g., a vocabulary list, a course book or a notebook. But now, they are more aware of how they can learn vocabulary permanently and follow the instructions for learning vocabulary.

6.4.7. Students' knowledge of grammar skill after instruction

The researcher tried to find out how and to what extent the students' grammar learning changed after the instruction. The data collected revealed that most of the students used the identified instructions, while only a few of them used other techniques. For example, half of the students ($n=7$) started to play online grammar games through their smartphones or tablets and the smart board in the classroom and use the new rule when forming new sentences. S8 mentioned that:

I started playing grammar and vocabulary games. I downloaded a game into my cell phone. There are question bubbles and I answer these questions after popping a bubble. If I answer correctly, I get extra points, but if I answer incorrectly, I am eliminated. I liked that so much (int. 17/5/2023).

The views of S13 also support this: *“I use the grammar rule in a sentence. For example, I wrote sentences with ‘should or shouldn’t’ using the sentences you wrote on the board”* (int. 19/5/2023).

Another thing that students implemented after receiving instruction on grammar is the use of codes or formulas to internalize the newly learned structure ($n=5$). Students presented various examples of coding or formulas. The following quotes could be some examples:

I coded the affix ‘more’ in the comparative as the Turkish word “mor”, which means purple in English and is my favorite color (int. S5, 16/5/2023).

I have coded the difference between the prepositions ‘over’ and ‘on’ as follows: ‘Over’ is a longer word than ‘on’, so there can be a space between the objects when we use ‘over’ (int. S7, 17/5/2023).

I formulized the use of the interrogative and negative forms of the simple past tense as $did+v1$ and $didn’t + verb1$. I automatically wrote the verb I after seeing ‘didn’t’ in exams (int. S10, 18/5/2023).

On the other hand, some students ($n=4$) did not use any instruction on any grammar. However, some others ($n=2$) used their own techniques to learn grammar in addition to the instructions given. For example, S9 said that *“When I get home, I talk to my mother about the rule I learned that day, and I tell her how to make a sentence with that rule”* (int. 18/5/2023). S2’s comments also support this idea:

I use the newly learned rule in a sentence. For example, I wrote ‘was/were’ in a sentence as ‘I was in the library’. I wrote these sentences on a blank piece of paper and hung them on my bulletin board in my room. I read these sentences every day (int. 15/5/2023).

6.4.8. Discussion

The data analysis revealed that not all students were interested in using grammar instructions in their English studies. Most of them (e.g., S1, S2, S4, S5, S6, S7, etc.) preferred to use more or less grammar instructions while some others (e.g., S3, S11, S12, S14) were not concerned about using these instructions. Once we identified the students who frequently used grammar instructions in their studies, it became clear that these students were also good and willing students in English. For example, S10 was already good at learning new grammar rules in English; however, this student implemented all of

the teacher's grammar instructions without thinking that she had no problems in learning the grammar rules and therefore did not need to use these grammar instructions. Another example could be S11. This student did not use any of the grammar instructions even though he is not a successful student in English. So, it can be said that more successful students who are more willing to learn are more likely to use more grammar strategies when learning English.

When discussing the most preferred grammar knowledge instructions, it becomes clear that all grammar knowledge instructions were implemented in a similar way by the students. Students mostly preferred to use the newly learned grammar structure in a new sentence. However, other instructions were used just as frequently. A final point is that S2 and S9's development of their own grammar learning techniques shows that giving instructions and teaching students "how to learn a skill" can serve as a model for them. Apart from implementing the teacher's instructions, these students developed new formulas to learn grammar on their own. To summarize, both the teacher's instructions and some students' own technique seemed to be useful in learning grammar even though some of the students did not use instructions at all.

6.4.9. Students' perceptions towards studying English after instruction

As mentioned in previous section, most students indicated that their English studies had changed somewhat. Therefore, it seemed necessary to find out how these changes are perceived by the students. Therefore, the researcher here tried to find some answers to this question. It is clear from the data obtained with this interview question that a considerable number of the students ($n=10$) have positive perceptions towards the changes in their English study habits. Most of them ($n=8$) see these changes as useful for themselves. For example, S10 stated that:

Knowing how to improve my skills has changed my learning habits. I think this change in my learning habits is positive. For example, I had not read English storybooks before the instructions, but now I read and I enjoy it. I have also learned new words. For example, I learned that 'orphan' means 'öksüz' in Turkish and I never forget it (int. 18/5/2023)

Moreover, some of them ($n=6$) felt that they enjoyed learning English more after implementing some instructions. For example, S14 stated that "*I could not imagine that I can learn new words by playing games. I used to get bored when learning English, but now it is more fun to learn English with games*" (int. 18/5/2023). Similarly, several students found learning English more enjoyable ($n=5$) and easier ($n=4$). S6 mentioned

that *“It was harder to understand some subject matters in English, but having instructions made it easier to learn something”* (int. 16/5/2023).

Other students ($n=4$) seemed to be neutral as they think that their study habits have not changed or have changed only a little. The statements of S5 may be a good example of this: *“I must say that I have not fully implemented all the instructions you have given us. I do not think my learning habits have changed much. Therefore, I cannot comment on what I think about these changes”* (int. 18/5/2023).

6.4.10. Discussion

It appears that students are generally satisfied with the changes in their English learning habits. This may be due to the fact that they generally liked the instructions given to them in Chapter Two. It should also be noted that this was the first time that the students were given instructions with flashcards by their teacher. Therefore, these instructions must have caught their attention.

6.4.11. Students’ general perceptions towards English after instruction

The interview question investigated the changes in students’ English studies and proficiency in general after they received the flashcards. The data showed that most of the students ($n=10$) felt that their study of English had changed significantly. A considerable number of them reasoned that after receiving the flashcards, they learn English in a way that is more focused on listening ($n=9$), more focused on games ($n=9$) and more focused on reading ($n=7$) For example, S2 stated that:

I used to study English with a textbook, but now I have started playing grammar and vocabulary games. I have started using speaking strategies. I have started to pay attention to speakers’ gestures and try to infer what they mean, even if I do not understand them. I now listen to English audio recordings.... English songs. I read an English story book 4 times and translate it. I have started to code vocabulary or grammar rules (int. 15/5/2023).

Besides, a reasonable number of students think that they have started to learn English in a more practical ($n=6$), more speaking-oriented ($n=6$) and more technological way ($n=5$). The utterances of S10 can be an example of this:

... and use codes to learn new grammar structures in English. For example, I have coded the word ‘borrow’ in English so that I can easily memorize it by evoking its letters. I used speech recognition programs after you instructed me. I have labelled the items in my room in English. So I can say

that there are differences in my English study before and after the instructions (int. 18/5/2023).

The others ($n=4$) expressed that their English studies had changed slightly or not at all. For example, S11 stated: “*My English studies have not changed much, I sometimes prepare picture dictionaries and play word games*” (int. 18/5/2023).

6.4.12. Discussion

It can be mentioned that receiving instruction cards has noticeably changed the way students learn English in general. Students used to learn English only by repeating what was written in their course books or notebooks and by repeating the English vocabulary or structures they had to memorize, as indicated in section 6.3.12. It can be said that their English study was more focused on course books, notebooks and memorization. Thus, they only focused on a few language areas instead of considering all LLSs. For example, since students did not *know* that they should improve their listening comprehension to be able to communicate with others in English, they also did not know that they should do listening exercises and *how* to do that. But now, students have turned into more caring persons for all language skills. They have become more self-conscious on the issue that learning English is not just about memorizing a few words or rules, but it includes acquiring skills in language areas such as listening and speaking.

Last point is about unwilling students. The students who asserted that they did not change/slightly changed their English studies after receiving instruction cards (S3, S5, S11, S12) generally feel unwilling towards learning English; thus, they do study it thoroughly before and after giving instructions.

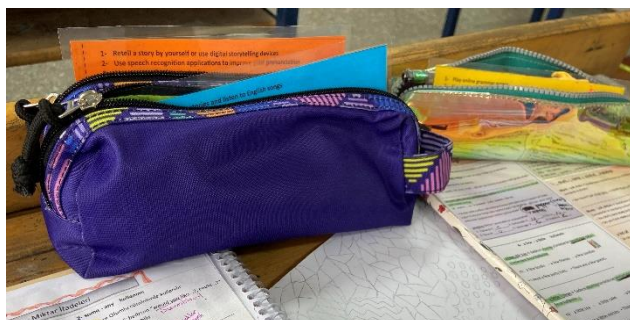
6.5. Other Evidences from Various Sources after Instruction

6.5.1. Observational notes

These classroom observations provide visual evidence of students’ positive statements about the use of instruction cards. The observations were conducted both in the classroom and during breaks. In short, they illustrate what has changed and the extent to which students’ attitudes can be supported through visual means and diary logs.

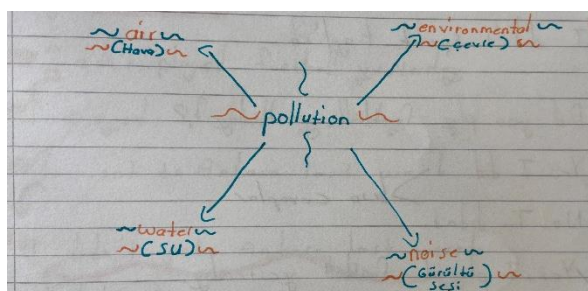
The students generally liked the colors and the stiffness of the cards. They carried the instruction cards in their pencil cases, backpacks, and between the pages of their course books or notebooks, but most of them kept the cards in their pencil cases on their desks so that they could refer to them whenever needed. None of them lost these cards during

the semester. This is amazing because usually students forget or lose e.g. official documents, worksheets etc. that they received from their teachers at some point. The following Picture 6.1 shows an example of an instruction card in a pencil case:



Picture 6.1 Instruction Cards in Students' Pencil Cases

The students generally implemented the vocabulary instructions with pleasure. Some of them (e.g., S6, S7, S9, S10) grouped or semantically mapped the words they learned and indicated that it is easier for them to memorize these words in this way. This is illustrated in the Picture 6.2 taken from S6's notebook:



Picture 6.2 A Semantic Map by S6

It was also observed that all students put English labels on the objects in the classroom or on their personal belongings. The items such as the smart board, desks, tables, bookshelf, door, windows, bulletin boards, wardrobes trashcans and coat hanger are labeled with colorful and remarkable drawings. S1's and S13's desks can be good examples of this labeling as show in Picture 6.3 below.



Picture 6.3 S1's Desk at Classroom and S13's Desk at Home

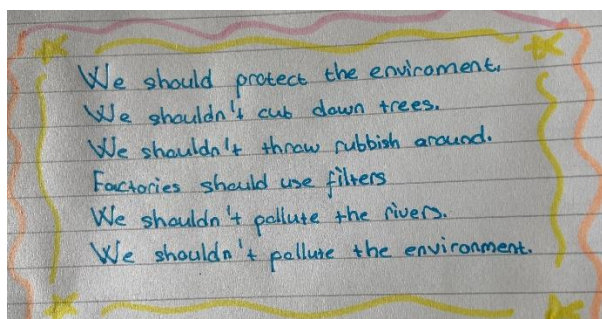
Another observation concerned the students' creation of a visual dictionary to memorize an English word. It seemed that they liked to draw and paint pictures. Almost all the students, especially the females, loved to draw and paint pictures. A visual dictionary created by S8 is an example of this:



Picture 6.4 An Example of Visual Dictionary by S8

Students' vocabulary knowledge improved after being supported with instructions. It was observed that some students used vocabulary above their level. For example, S7 learned some words such as 'graveyard, court, robber' while reading 'The Adventures of Tom Sawyer'. Similarly, S14 used the vocabulary she had learned in the English songs such as 'pressure, numb' since her vocabulary improved when listening to the English songs. Moreover, the students wrote the lyrics of the English songs they have listened. For example, on the bulletin board in S9's room, there was a piece of paper with the lyrics of an English song, which I gave to the students during the lesson and asked them to fill in the gaps in the lyrics while listening the song.

The researcher also took some notes about implementation of the grammar instruction. Some students used the newly-learned grammar rule in a sentence. Sometimes, I told them to write sentences orally and sometimes they wrote in their notebooks without getting directive from me. The following Picture 6.5 taken from S10's notebook can be an example for this.



Picture 6.5 A Page of S10's Notebook

The most common observation made at school is that all students like to play vocabulary and grammar games. During breaks, I have observed that students sometimes turn on the

smart board and played grammar games related to the topics and vocabulary they have just learned. These games can be group or individual games and students often request that we play these games during class as well. The following Picture 6.6 shows a moment from a break time.



Picture 6.6 Students Playing Grammar Games at Break Times

Students were better at deriving a rule themselves and illustrating it. Before this AR study, they had difficulty in understanding a rule even when the teacher presented it explicitly, but now they can make good inferences. As an example:

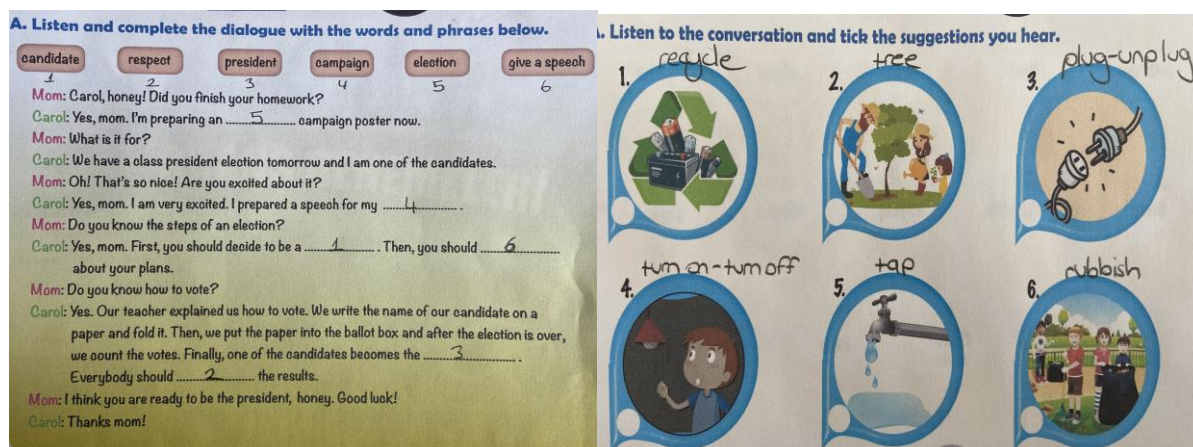
I wrote 'plug' and 'unplug' on the board and said that plug means 'fişi takmak', unplug means 'fişi çıkarmak' in Turkish. S2 inferred that the prefix -un- gives the word the meaning 'not' and gave 'known-unknown' as an example. Then S8 gave 'healthy-unhealthy' as another example (obs. 5/5/2023).

Moreover, a few students tried to produce codes or formulas to learn a grammar rule. A section in teacher diary presents an example for these codes:

"I taught the prepositions of place - in, on, at - and S7 told me a previously produced code on preps as 'Saatler 'ata binmiş, 'on' günde aya inmiş'. She expressed that she knew we put 'at' before the clocks but couldn't remember that she should use 'on' before the days; however, she could remember the rule after coding it" (diary, 18/4/2023, p.12).

Regarding listening skill, it is observed that some of them (e.g. S1, S5, S11) determined the purpose of listening and chose the most appropriate strategy to be used before listening. For example, they wrote down only the first letter of the missing word and completed it after listening if the listening exercise is 'listen and fill in the gaps' type. Similarly, they numbered the words given for the exercise and write down the numbers instead of writing down the words in detail to save time. Moreover, they are more

conscious about using peripheral clues such as setting, picture or title of the conversation. Some of them (e.g., S2, S7, S8, S9) took notes before the listening exercises. These are shown in Picture 6.7 taken from course book exercises.



Picture 6.7 Students' Listening Strategies for Exercises in English Textbook

In addition, students were more competent in listening skill. Before the instructions, they needed to listen an audio file at least three times, but now they generally say that listening to the audio file twice is sufficient unless the audio file is very difficult for them to understand.

I usually find that the students really enjoy listening to English songs. They love the lessons with exercises relating English songs. This affection for English songs also continues during the breaks. This is evident from the teacher's diary: *"At the end of the course, the students asked me for permission to use the smart board during the breaks to listen to English songs"* (diary, 20/4/2023, p.13).

Finally, as to speaking skill, it is observed that mostly used instruction is retelling a story with other friends in the classroom. The teacher doubles up all the students and they often create a story and talk with their group mate in front of other friends in the classroom.

Students have started to speak English more often in class and during breaks. They used to be unwilling to speak English in class and speak reluctantly and forcedly only if teacher ordered them. However, after being supported with instructions, they are now more eager to speak English in class or in everyday life and they sometimes speak without hesitation or without teacher's help. This can be illustrated in the following diary entry: *"S11 dropped a piece of paper while he was walking to the board. Then, S10 said to him in English: 'Your paper is under the teacher desk'. Normally, this reaction would be in Turkish"* (diary, 28/4/2023, p.16).

6.5.2. Diary notes

As a teacher researcher, I continued to take notes for my journal to record developments in my teaching and students' learning practices after instruction. These notes were generally shared in previous section to support my observations. However, in this section, some other important notes from the diary are presented so as not to omit any important point. Two of these notes is related to teacher researcher's teaching process and the others regards the students. The first point is that the teacher researcher created a more democratic and participatory teaching/learning environment for the students after the AR study, which is consistent with the democratic feature of AR (Kemmis, 1985). This is mentioned in a diary log like this:

I started to ask my students' opinions on how they can learn English better or what they expect from me. I did not expect that they may have brilliant ideas; however, I saw that it is favorable for me to get students' ideas since they have the leading role in learning environment (diary, 2/5/2023, p.17)

The second point concerns the changing roles of students and teachers. According to the AR study, the teacher researcher is no longer just an information provider, but also a guide or mentor for students. This can be seen in diary: "*By giving them instructions on how to learn the language, I showed them how to learn English. Therefore, the students became more active learners and I became their guide in the learning process*" (diary, 10/5/2023, p.19).

The students, who are generally not interested in English lessons, have become more enthusiastic in implementing the instructions. Part of the teacher's diary supports this:

We played blind man's bluff, which involved 'prepositions of place'. Students gave the blindfolded student instructions such as 'It's in front of the bookshelf' to help him find the hidden object. Even students who are not generally interested in English, such as S3, S5, S11 and S12, were extremely eager to give English instructions. Even when they could not remember the meaning of various English words, they asked others for help, such as 'What is 'altunda' in English?' to participate in the game (diary, 21/4/2023, p.14).

These activities also caught the attention of some shy and reluctant students. For example, as a teacher researcher, I often observed some reluctant students such as S5 and S11 meticulously spending a lot of time implementing various instructions such as putting English labels on objects and creating visual dictionaries. Similarly, some students generally had a desire to do activities that they did not normally do in our lessons. This situation was recorded in an observation notebook as follows: "*There was a dialogue*

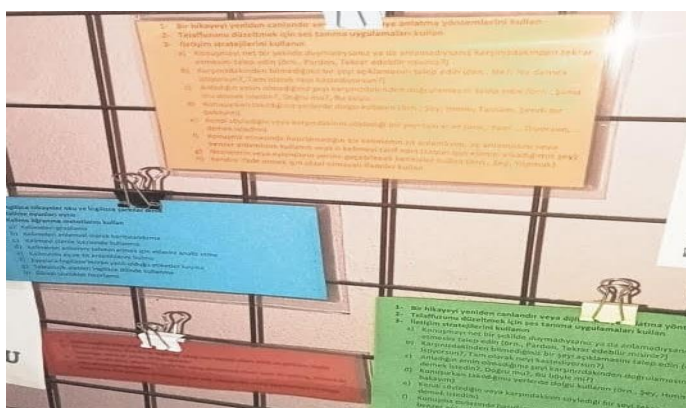
with blanks and the students were asked to fill in the blanks as they listened to this conversation. After they completed this task, all the students asked me to have them act out this dialogue in front of the blackboard” (diary, 25/4/2023, p.15).

6.5.3. Students’ perceptions towards instructions and instruction cards

The analysis of the data showed that all students ($n=14$) generally rated these flashcards positively and considered them useful, aesthetic, practical and rich in content. Eight of the students ($n=8$) found them useful to improve their LLSs. For example, the following excerpt shows S9’s reasoning: *“I think these instruction cards are useful. For example, it says that I can improve my vocabulary if I listen to English songs... the vocabulary stays in my memory if I listen to an English song and check what is in the song...”* (int. 17/5/2023).

Again, eight of them liked the *aesthetic* and *physical appearance* of these cards. Some of them ($n=6$) liked the colours and some others ($n=5$) liked the stiffness of the cards. For example, S5 stated that *“I liked their colors. They are very durable. I poured coffee over them twice, but nothing happened”* (int. 16/5/2023).

Because they are so handy, some students carried these cards with them e.g., in their backpacks while others hung them on e.g., bulletin boards as seen in Picture 6.8, wardrobes in their rooms. S4 said that *“I hung these instruction cards on my wardrobe in my room. Whenever I change my clothes, I see these cards on my wardrobe and read them”* (int. 16/5/2023).



Picture 6.8 Instruction Cards on S9’s Bulletin Board

Several students ($n=3$) think that the instruction cards have a rich content and certain students ($n=2$) find these cards practical. S8 mentioned this:

The cards are two-sided; English instructions on one side and the Turkish version of these instructions on the other. If there was only the English version of the instructions, I might have trouble understanding what it says. So I think these cards are very practical” (int. 17/5/2023).

The question arises as to *is/are there any instruction(s) students liked much or disliked.* This question was answered according to each skill. Data analysis has shown that students’ favorite listening instructions were listening English songs ($n=8$) and audiobooks ($n=3$) while using speech recognition applications ($n=7$) and digital storytelling devices ($n=1$) are counted as the idol speaking instructions. S10’s expressions is a good example: *“I used speech recognition programs to improve my pronunciation. I repeated the vocabulary I heard in the app, recorded my voice and listened how I pronounced the vocabulary. Repeating and hearing my own voice was helpful for my pronunciation” (int. 18/5/2023).*

Besides, playing vocabulary games ($n=5$), labeling objects in English ($n=3$), reading English storybooks ($n=3$) and using technological devices in English ($n=1$) were among the students' favorite vocabulary instructions. For example, S7 stated that *“I like labeling objects. e.g., I did not know the meaning of ‘askılık’ in English, but I learned it after I put the English label on it” (int. 16/5/2023).* When it comes to grammar instructions, it can be said that the students’ favorite instructions were playing grammar games ($n=6$), using codes or formulas to internalize the rule ($n=4$), and using the newly learned rule in a sentence ($n=1$).

There are various reasons for disliking the instructions, which are explained below. Four of the students ($n=4$) found it *difficult* to apply communication strategies such as using filler words (e.g., good, hmm, okay, right, etc.), asking someone to clarify something they are not familiar with (e.g., what do you mean? what? etc.). As an example, S11 specified that *“I cannot remember what to say when I do not understand someone who speaks English, and what words I should say when I do not know the meaning of a word in English” (int. 18/5/2023).*

Similarly, some students ($n=2$) stated that they faced with some *technical problems* when using the speech recognition program. S13 explained this by saying *“Using the voice recognition application was difficult for me because there were some problems with recording my own voice” (int. 18/5/2023).* In addition, some students had difficulty in retelling a story ($n=3$) and analyzing the affixes of a word to infer its meaning ($n=2$). Other instructions that students had difficulty with were listening to audio books ($n=1$)

and making predictions based on peripheral cues ($n=1$). For example, S7 stated that she could not understand the pronunciation of some words when listening to the audiobook and said, “*I had to constantly rewind the recordings*” (int. 17/5/2023).

In spite of these problems faced in the implementation of the instructions, several students ($n=4$) indicated that they liked all the instructions and implemented these instructions with pleasure.

6.5.4. Discussion

The students generally liked to receive instruction cards. They carried them in their pencil cases and backpacks or hung them on the bulletin board or wardrobe in their rooms to see whenever they wanted. This can be considered as evidence of this preference. The use of vivid and different colors for each language skill, the laminating of these cards to secure them, and the Turkish translations of the instructions on the back side of the cards may have an impact on students’ willingness to keep and store these instruction cards.

The reason that some instructions are more attractive to students is as follows: First, some of these instructions often involve the use of technology. Given that children and young learners are so keen to use technology and technological devices, it is inevitable that they will like technology-based instructions. We know that cell phones that have course-based programs installed can be more involved in the classroom. Secondly, it is a fact that children like to play, as described in the title of ‘Children’s Features’ in Chapter Two. It is therefore not difficult to guess why they like to play grammar and vocabulary games. Thirdly, it may be more interesting for them to learn by practicing rather than doing mechanical exercises. That's why, they liked e.g., labelling objects in the classroom or in their rooms at home in English instead of e.g., doing the ‘fill in the blanks’ exercises. Finally, reading books or listening to music is very popular with children and young learners. So it is natural for them to have interest in reading English storybooks and listening to English songs.

The following comments can be made on the unpopular instructions. Considering that the way of learning and knowing varies from person to person, it is extremely normal that some students struggle to implement some instructions while others do not face any problem in applying the same instructions. For example, listening audiobook may be challenging for some of them and may be enjoyable for some others. Moreover, students mostly have problems in using communication strategies. These strategies can be conceived as hard to apply since students found memorizing these expressions; and even

they memorize, it is hard for them to remember during speech since they feel nervous when trying to speak English.

In summary, the observations explained above, the diary entries and the positive attitudes towards the instruction cards indicate that the study largely achieved its aims, apart from the negative aspects.

6.5.5. Students' perceptions on receiving instructions from other course teachers

The researcher also investigated whether the students received any instructions from other course teachers. The vast majority of students ($n=11$) indicated that other teachers have not given instructions about how they learn these subjects. However, some of them ($n=3$) stated that they received some instructions from only the math teacher at school. These instructions can be described as follows:

“The math teacher said that drawing shapes can be helpful in solving a math problem” (int. with S6, 16/6/2023).

“Our math teacher coded the formula as ‘2 pire çemberin etrafında dolaşıyor’ when calculating the perimeter of a circle. That’s all. They always say ‘solve the multiple choice questions in your test books’” (int. S7, 17/6/2023).

“My math teacher said we can cut out a piece of paper and shape it into a prism or cube. There is no one else to give instructions on how to learn a lesson” (int. S10, 18/6/2023).

Without exception, all students ($n=14$) stated that they would like to receive instruction from other teachers for other school subjects such as math, social studies, science, Turkish language, etc. Most of them ($n=10$) believe that receiving instruction is helpful for learning a particular subject. The statement of S12 can be cited as an example of this view: *“It would be beneficial for us if we received instructions for other subjects, because the instructions from English lessons have proved useful for us.”* (int. 18/5/2023). In addition, some of the students ($n=4$) think that receiving instructions will be helpful for learning particularly difficult subjects. For example, S7 stated that:

I think other teachers should also give instructions. For example, I am not good at Turkish grammar and I do not remember historical events in social studies lessons. If the teachers of Turkish language and social studies would give instructions like you, I might be more successful in these subjects (int. 17/5/2023).

6.5.6. Discussion

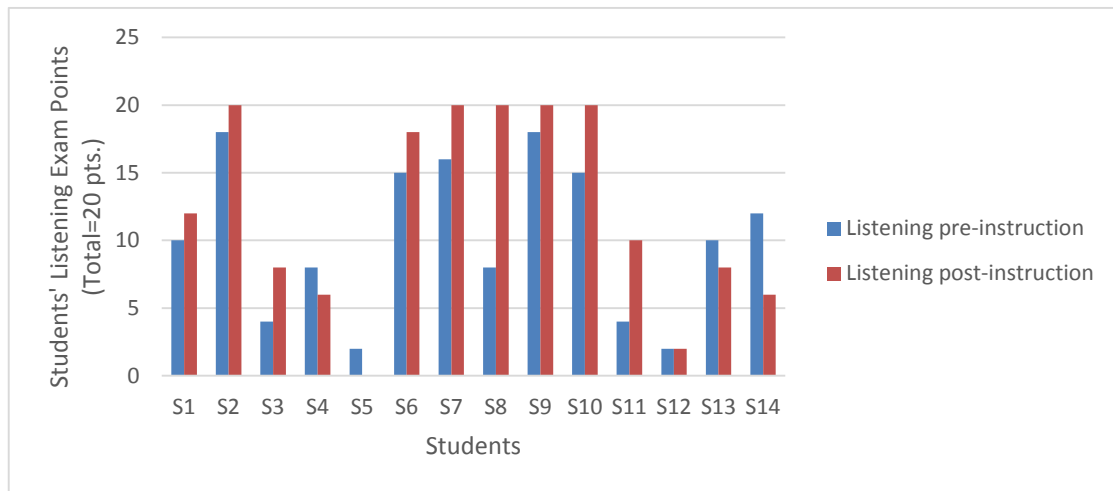
It is clear that the students have a positive attitude towards receiving instructions of other teachers at the school. They feel that they can overcome the challenges they face in learning difficult courses or subjects if they are taught by these teachers. It is evident that the students have not forgotten the instructions of the mathematics teacher. It also seemed that the students were satisfied with the instructions from the English classes. Therefore, they ask to receive instructions for other subjects, as well. In view of all this, other course teachers are encouraged to give instructions to students for their own lessons in school. In addition, the instructions can be included in some parts of the course book as it is being prepared/printed. For more on this topic, see the ‘Implications’ and ‘Recommendations’ sections in Chapter Seven.

6.6. Analyses of Pre and Post-Instruction Exam Results

The analysis of pre- and post-instructional exams can be considered as a crucial part of this study since the present AR study aims to find out whether the students’ academic performance shows progress and indeed aims to improve the students’ academic performance in terms of LLSs. It should be noted that the students were given instructions on speaking and listening comprehension as well as vocabulary and grammar sub-skills. Since all language learning skills are interrelated and influence each other, and good vocabulary and grammar skills have a significant impact on good reading and writing skills, the pre- and post-instruction test results also include writing and reading skills. When the results were presented, the successes in the areas of listening, speaking, vocabulary and grammar were explained. Since each skill is evaluated individually, skills in the following tables (6.3, 6.4, 6.5, 6.6) were evaluated as 20 points out of 100 points. In addition, writing and reading skills were evaluated as 10 points out of 100 points.

6.6.1. Students' pre and post-instruction listening success

Table 6.3 Students' pre and post-instruction listening success



As can be seen in Table 6.3 above, 9 out of 14 students (S1, S2, S3, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10, S11) scored higher on the post-listening comprehension exam than on the pre-listening exam. The most dramatic increase between these two exams can be seen in S8's exam scores while S1 made minimal progress in the post-instruction exam. A closer look at the table shows that the exams of S12 before and after the instruction show no differences while the exams of S4, S13 and S14 show a downward trend. In addition, S5 was unable to score a single point on the post-test although he was able to score a few points on the pre-test. What is striking about the figures in this table is that S2, S7, S8, S9 and S10 achieved the highest exam scores (=20 points) in the post-instruction listening exam.

6.6.2. Students' pre and post-instruction speaking success

Table 6.4 Students' pre and post instruction exam results

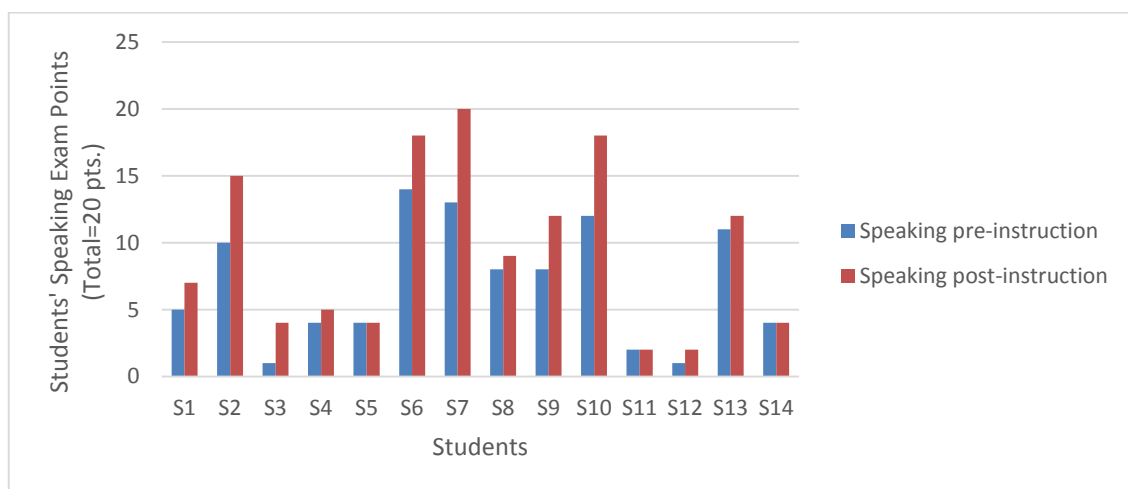
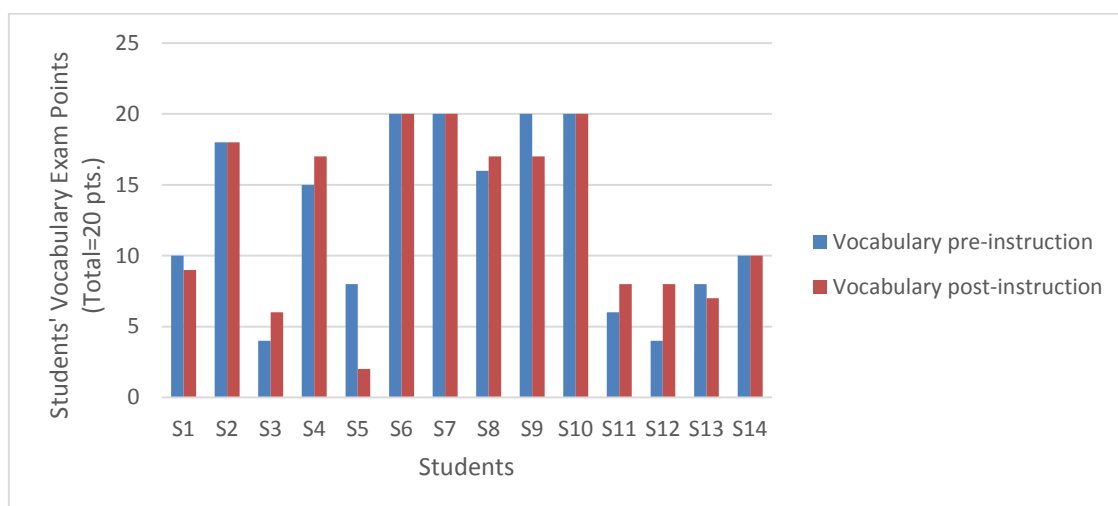


Table 6.4 shows that all students, with the exception of S5, S11 and S14, have made progress in speaking skills. Some of them (e.g. S2, S6, S7, S9, S10) have improved significantly while others (S1, S3, S4, S8, S12) have made hardly any progress. If we compare the results of the two exams, we can see that S7 has made the greatest progress in speaking skills of all participants while S4, S8 and S12 have improved their skills slightly. What stands out in this table is the stability of the language success of three students before and after the instruction. S5, S11 and S14 achieved the same score in the exams before and after the instructions, which indicates that there is neither an upward nor a downward trend. It should also be noted that none of the participant students scored lower in the post-test.

6.6.3. Students' pre and post-instruction vocabulary success

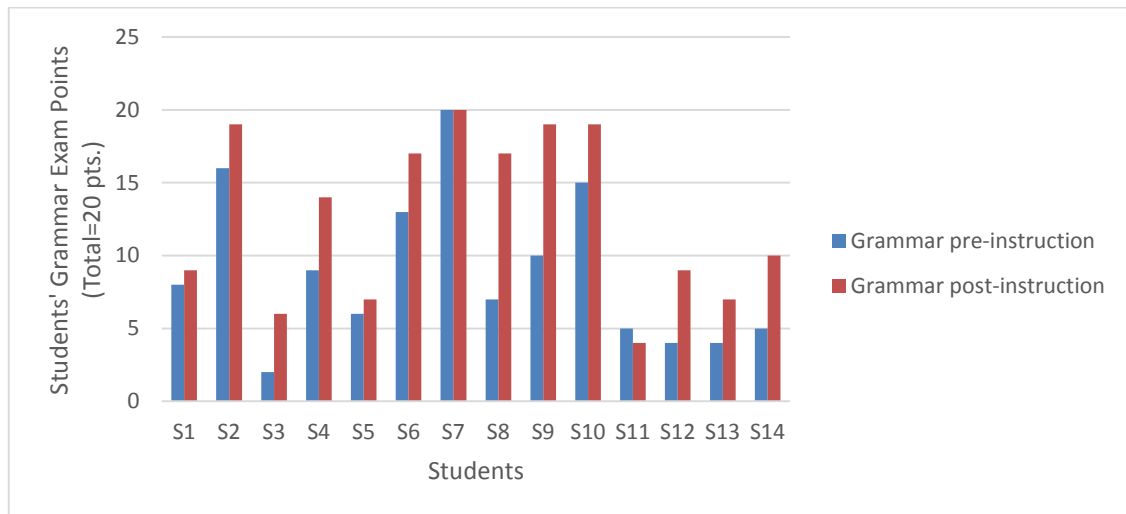
Table 6.5 Students' pre and post-instruction exam results



A look at Table 6.5 shows that five students (S3, S4, S8, S11, S12) achieved a higher score in the post-vocabulary exam compared to their pre-exam results. The most impressive increase can be observed for S12 in the post-exam in vocabulary. Another point to consider is the equality of the scores of five students (S2, S6, S7, S10, S14) before and after the instruction in vocabulary test. They achieved the same score in the pre- and post-tests. However, it is significant that three of them (S6, S7, S10) have already achieved the highest score in the exams (=20 points). Besides, four of the students (S1, S5, S9, S13) received lower marks in the examinations after the instruction in vocabulary exam although this decline between the examinations before and after the instruction vocabulary test cannot be regarded as significant.

6.6.4. Students' pre and post-instruction grammar success

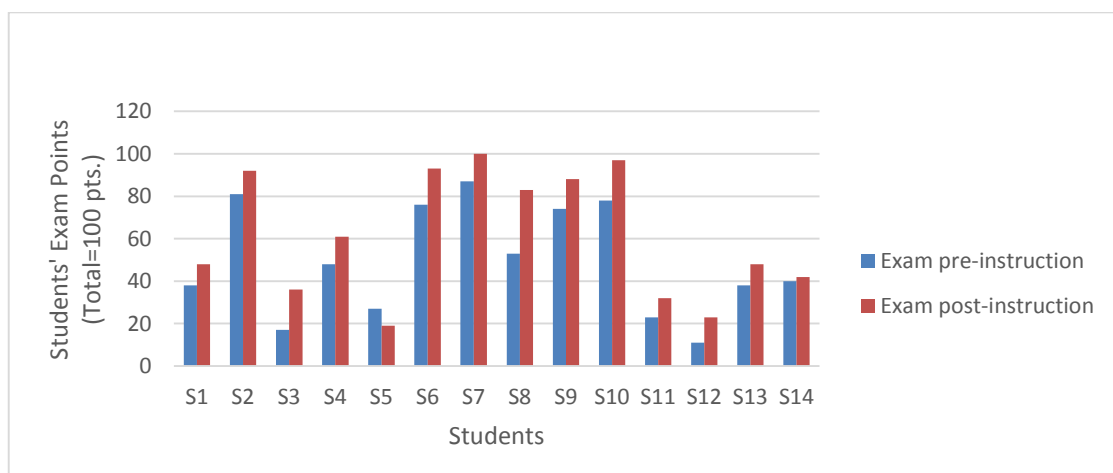
Table 6.6 Students' pre and post-instruction exam results



The data in Table 6.6 demonstrates that all students, with the exception of S7 and S11, improved their grammar knowledge after receiving the flashcards according to the results of the post-instruction grammar exam. The highest improvement is observed in the grammar exam results of S8 while S1 and S5 experienced the least improvement in grammar knowledge. The results also show that S2, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10 have higher scores than S1, S3, S5, S11, S12, S13 and S14. Moreover, S7 achieved the same results in the grammar tests before and after the instruction. However, this does not mean that she is not making any progress in the area of vocabulary knowledge since she achieved the highest score in both grammar tests (= 20 points). It is also an interesting result that only S11's grammar point decreased in the post exam compared to the point of pre exam.

6.6.5. Discussion of pre and post-instruction overall results

Table 6.7 Students' general pre and post-instruction success



Examining Table 6.7, it is clear that all students except S5 have made progress in the post-exam. The most noticeable increase can be seen in S8 while the smallest increase can be observed in S14. It can also be assumed that S2, S6, S7, S8, S9 and S10 have higher exam scores than S1, S3, S5, S11, S12, S13 and S14. These results are consistent with the classroom observations, the teacher diary and the semi-structured follow-up interviews since the students with higher exam scores implemented more language learning instructions than the students with lower exam scores.

After analyzing the general results of the pre- and post-exams, the changes in individual language learning skills were examined and presented separately and in detail. It is clear from the pre- and post-exam results that students generally improved their language learning skills after receiving instruction. However, S5 is the exception to this improvement. This student's post-instruction results show a downward trend, with the exception of grammar and speaking skills. This could be due to the fact that he does not implement the instructions or is generally unwilling to participate in the lessons.

Classroom observations and exam results suggest that students who do not implement the instructions thoroughly have made little or no progress in their academic performance in terms of LLSs. Besides, students such as S2, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10 who scored higher in the pre-instruction exam showed further progress in LLSs in the post-instruction exams. This could be due to the fact that students who are more proficient in language learning and seem to be dedicated to learning English tend to strictly implement their teachers' instructions as they are more conscious and self-directed throughout the learning process.

Another indicator of the situation is that students such as S3, S11 and S12 had rather low scores before the instruction and also achieved low scores after the instruction even if they improved. The reason for this could be that they do not implement the instructions (the classroom observations and the data from the post-exam confirm this). If we take a closer look at the exam results, we can see that the most noticeable improvements are in grammar skills, while the least impact of the instructions is seen in vocabulary skills. This suggests that the *instructions* are similar to *compasses* or *navigators* that show students (someone) *where*, *how* and *when* to go, just as our skills instruction cards did.

CHAPTER VII

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

7.1. Introduction

The last chapter of the present study starts with the discussions of the research questions and sub-questions. Then, it gives a brief summary of the results emerging from this AR study and presents the conclusions drawn from this study. Finally, the limitations of the study, implications and recommendations for future research are offered to the readers.

7.2. Discussion

The purpose of the present AR study was to show the effects of supporting students with instructions on language learning skills. In the light of this aim, the following research questions and sub-questions were needed to be answered:

- ★ Do the students have any pre-knowledge about learning language skills prior to the research?
- ★ Does giving instructions to students on language learning skills affect;
 - c) students' perceptions on learning skills and English positively?
 - d) students' academic achievement in English lesson positively?

The required data were qualitatively and quantitatively collected with various data collection tools during the research process. The results of these data were discussed below considering the research questions of the study.

7.2.1. Discussion of the first research question

★ Do the students have any pre-knowledge about learning language skills prior to the research?

Students' pre-knowledge about learning language skills were examined by means of semi-structured pre-interviews with students and the collected data was supported with teacher researcher's observations and notes in her journal. Results indicated that students generally did not have any pre-knowledge about learning language skills prior to this AR study. They did not know how they could develop their language learning skills; and unfortunately there was no one who informed students on learning language skills or give them any tips or teach them any techniques for them to improve their language learning skills. They were only told by their teachers or families to study hard, solve multiple choice questions, read a lot of books, do their homework and continuously repeat what

they learned in classroom; however, these advices were too general and related to all other lessons, as well. Therefore, it can be said that they were not told how to learn English, but were given general advices and were misguided. This finding was in line with some previous studies (e.g., Dunlosky et al., 2013; Kiewra, 2010) which suggested that students did not know/were not taught how to learn. It seemed that the reasons behind this for teachers were the limitations in class times and the intensity of learning outcomes which students have to acquire after English lessons according to the English curriculum; the reasons for families were their insufficiencies in English lesson; and the reasons for both teachers and families were their expectations from the students with regards to going a good high school and this was only possible if they were successful at test exams or written exams.

Besides, students were not aware of the fact that the language skills and sub-skills could not be isolated from each other and they all should have the same value for language learners. As a matter of fact, they only focused on memorizing new vocabulary and grammar rules and ignoring other skills such as speaking, listening, reading and writing as also stated in several studies by Leong and Ahmadi (2017), Hahn (2006) and Ulum (2015). Even if they only cared about learning vocabulary or grammar rule, they did not know how to do this. They only temporarily memorized the vocabulary or grammar rule by revising or repeating them five times, ten times etc. and the memorized information would be forgotten after a while. Likewise, they felt inadequate in language learning skills like speaking and listening; however, did nothing to improve these skills because they did not know how to do that.

Students' English studying habits also did not include all the language learning skills and they only studied English to have good written exam marks instead of studying for improving their language skills and gaining competence in English in general. They generally used written tools such as course books, notebooks or test books to revise the subject matters or solve test questions. This showed that they ignored studying language skills such as listening and speaking. This once again proved that they were not knowledgeable on language learning skills. If not, they would be aware of the fact that they also needed to study or practice these language learning skills.

7.2.2. Discussion of the second research question's first sub-question

- ★ Does giving instructions to students on language learning skills affect students' perceptions on learning skills and English positively?

Students' perceptions on learning skills and English after AR study were revealed with semi-structured post-interviews and the data were triangulated with teacher's observational and diary notes. Findings uncovered that receiving instructions on language learning skills positively affected students' perceptions on learning skills and English lesson; and there are some studies which reached similar results (e.g., Abdi, & Varzandeh, 2014; Ali, 2022; Clement, 2007; Eken, 2018; Hilaloğlu, 2019; Naadem, & Kiran, 2015; Siegel, 2012; Yang, & Liu, 2014; Ying-Chun, 2013). All the students liked to receive instruction cards from their teacher and they were eager to receive instruction cards from other teachers for other lessons, as well.

Students generally liked to implement instructions given by their teachers on language skills. In accordance with that, their study habits have shown changes, as well. Students began to study English by taking into consideration all language learning skills and became more conscious on how to study these skills as receiving instructions. These changes in study habits were positively perceived by the students and they were eager to implement these instructions at classroom or their homes. Studying English and language learning skills became funnier, easier and more enjoyable for them after receiving instructions.

Receiving instructions also increased students' eagerness towards getting English assignments. As students felt more confident in learning language skills, their willingness towards English and other things related to English directly increased. Likewise, students felt more enthusiastic and motivated towards English lessons in which they can implement the instructions such as listening English songs, preparing visual dictionaries, reading English storybooks etc. given by teacher. Therefore, instructions made English lessons more enjoyable and interesting for students. These findings were supported by Bahrani and Soltani (2012), Martha and Maba (2018).

7.2.3. Discussion of the second research question's second sub-question

- ★ Does giving instructions to students on language learning skills affect students' academic achievement in English lesson positively?

The effects of giving instructions to students on language learning skills on their academic achievements emerged with English exams implemented to students before and after the AR study and the findings were supported with teacher observations and diary. Results showed that students' academic achievements improved after implementing the instructions on language learning skills regarding the pre and post exam results. This finding was in agreement with some other researches in the literature (e.g., Atik, 2006; Çoşkun, 2010; Gimeno, 2002; Hassanzadeh et al., 2019; İlder, 2019; Keskin, 2013; Liu, 2013; Odacı, 2006; Rahimi, 2014; Tavakoli et al., 2011; Young, 2012). Students who were already more competent in English compared to others in the classroom before the AR showed more progress after implementing AR plans in comparison with their less competent friends. That is, the students who showed unsatisfactory academic results before the AR also displayed progress; however, their progress was not superior to those competent ones. This may be originated from the fact that more successful students used more instructions on LLSs while less successful ones used less instructions. This finding was in line with Uğurel-Torun (2010), Green and Oxford (1995), Zekrati (2017), and Griffins (2003).

When the progress in each language skill was particularly examined, the most striking increase was seen in grammar sub-skill and this was respectively followed by speaking skill, listening skill and vocabulary sub-skill. However, exam results can not be the only criteria for evaluating the academic achievements of the students. The observations also showed that students exposed to speaking and listening English more frequently and enjoyably. They also deduced some grammar rules in English along with learning more and more vocabulary even beyond their levels.

7.3. Conclusion

When all above mentioned results are taken into consideration, it can be concluded that supporting students with instructions on language learning skills positively affects their perceptions towards English and their academic achievements in English. Receiving instructions grows their interest and eagerness in English lesson. It also arises students' awareness towards language learning skills and sub-skills; and they become more conscious about what they should do to/ how they can improve these skills.

Moreover, instructed students move forward being active learners and become self-controlled since they know how to study and improve their language learning skills. They even develop their own learning techniques or strategies after receiving instructions.

However, it should be kept in mind that the effect of each instruction changes from student to student. Some students may like instructions including technology use while others love instructions related to mentation. Likewise, vocabulary instructions may be more appealing for some while speaking instructions are more desirable for others. These distinctions can be associated with the individual differences in learning. Furthermore, the frequency of instruction usage also changes from student to student. It is true that uninterested students towards English become more concerned towards it after receiving instructions; nevertheless, they use less instructions compared to their friends who are more interested towards English. That is, the more the students are interested towards English, the more they use instructions. Likewise, the same distinction is valid between the successful and unsuccessful students in English. That is, the more the students are accomplished in English, the more they use instructions.

When it comes to the implementation of action research, it is concluded that AR is an extremely favorable process regarding both teachers and students. It creates a democratic environment in classroom since students are taken their ideas in decision making process, thus leading them become more self-confident towards learning English. It also gives the teachers a chance to evaluate and improve their teaching practices while trying to figure out the problems faced in teaching and learning processes. It is also a pleasure and satisfactory for teachers to take a significant step to solve problems and reach a consensus with their students in their classrooms.

Considering all of these, giving instructions on language learning skills will be helpful for students to improve their English and English learning process. Giving instructions for other school subjects will also be beneficial for students to learn these subjects better. Moreover, applying AR studies in teaching environment positively affects the teaching and learning practices at this environment.

7.4. Limitations

The present action research study has several limitations. First of all, an AR study does not yield generalizable results. Therefore, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to a wider population. However, this situation may not be considered as a burden since the present study does not target to prove or reject a hypothesis and reach a theory. Likewise, the findings of the study may be a guide for other 6th graders' English teachers who face the similar problems and desire to improve their teaching environment.

Second limitation was related to the participants' reactions. As previously mentioned, having both teacher and the researcher role in an AR study proposes many advantages for the researcher; however, the participants may tend to act in an unrealistic way during the interviews to impress the teacher researcher. Yet, the teacher researcher tried to handle this problem by relieving the participants about their concerns and continuously reminding them that this is a research and does not affect their marks and their teacher's thoughts on them. Moreover, the teacher researcher of the study knows the participants so well that she can understand their fake reactions.

Thirdly, the instructions given on language learning skills were limited to speaking and listening skills, and vocabulary and grammar sub-skills. That is, reading and writing skill were not included in the present AR study. The reason behind was the fact that the 6th graders should expose limited writing and reading according to the English curriculum; therefore, these skills were not focused in this study.

Finally, time limitations also forced the teacher researcher while undertaking this AR study. Teacher researcher had to manage the subject matters in the syllabus, thus a limited time was allocated to research process. However, this drawback was overcome by benefitting from every single opportunity to observe and interview the participants or make small talks with them. As being also the deputy manager of the school, the teacher researcher had a chance to make use of break times or class times in which other teachers were absent because of their health problems or meetings.

7.5. Implications

This AR study generally focused on the effects of giving instructions regarding language learning skills on students' perceptions towards English and their academic achievements in English lesson. Throughout the study, I, as a teacher researcher of the study, gained insight into my teaching practices and understood that I needed to choose the most appropriate teaching techniques or methods for students by consulting my students' thoughts, as well. I also understood that I needed to find solutions to my students' problems faced during learning or my problems faced during teaching together with my students and I needed to take action instead of just complaining. Therefore, this study may be a good example for teachers who want to self-evaluate their teaching practices and seek solutions to the same problems in their teaching environments.

Moreover, I, as a teacher researcher, also work as the deputy head of the school where the present study was undertaken and this study may encourage the education directors to

undertake AR studies in their schools to solve problems involving all the issues related to school context. Thus, next AR studies may be conducted with greater populations since it may be advantageous in some ways to undertake an AR study as an education director.

Finally, the findings of the present study may also encourage teachers of other school subjects such as math teachers, science teachers, Turkish language teachers, social studies teachers to give instructions on their own subject matters. Since this study has explored that giving instructions has positive effect on students' perceptions towards English and academic achievements in English, teachers of other fields can consult instructions to improve students' learning practices.

7.6. Recommendations for Further Research

The findings of the present AR study necessitate giving several recommendations for the further studies of EFL teachers, researchers and policy-makers.

The recommendations for EFL teachers who want to support their students with instructions on language learning skills:

- ❖ Students should be comprehensively observed in-class and out-of-class times to reveal their pre-knowledge on language learning skills and their perceptions towards English before giving them instructions.
- ❖ The instructions should be determined according to the students' levels, requests and needs along with a sound literature review and children's or teenagers' features.
- ❖ The instructions should be explicit and interesting for students.
- ❖ The range of instructions according to the language learning skills should be determined according to the skill focus (e.g., primarily speaking, limited reading, very limited writing) of student groups (e.g., 4th grades, 5th-6th graders and 7th and 8th graders) specified by the MoNE in English curriculum.
- ❖ Before receiving instructions, students should feel that their ideas are important for teacher and they have an important role in learning and teaching environment.
- ❖ Along with giving written instructions, teachers should orally explain these instructions to students and the instructions should be implemented by teachers whenever needed to guide students.
- ❖ Teachers should focus not only on students' academic achievements, but also on their willingness towards English while giving instructions.

The recommendations for researchers who want to undertake a study regarding the effects of giving instructions on language learning skills for students:

- ❖ The results of this study may change according to the grades of the participant students. Therefore, further research may be undertaken at either primary school or higher education levels since this study was undertaken at secondary school level.

- ❖ The teacher researcher of the present study gave instructions on speaking and listening skills, and grammar and vocabulary sub-skills. Therefore, further research may examine the effects of giving instructions on reading and writing skills.
- ❖ Similarly, one skill e.g. speaking can be supported and investigated in a long term at various schools – primary, secondary, high school – and a general conclusion can be reached in this way.
- ❖ This research was limited to one semester. However, longer periods may be attributed to the field work, observations and implementation process in the future researches to strengthen the validity and reliability of the study.

The recommendations for policy makers and MoNE are listed below:

- ❖ The course books should include sufficient number of *instructions* on *how* a language skill can be learned in the form of study tips or advices.
- ❖ These *study tips* or *advices* should be appropriate for students’ ages and levels. Likewise, they should be adapted considering the children’s and teenagers’ features since these course books are used from 2nd grade (at the ages of 7 or 8) to 12th grade (at the ages of 17 or 18).
- ❖ The instructions must be repeated *cumulatively*; that is, the instructions in year 2 English book must repeat in year 3 and so on.
- ❖ *Sample* and *representative* instructions in the English books of primary schools for the years 2 and 3 may be like the following tables below.
- ❖ Also Turkish version of them can be provided.
- ❖ Similarly, instructions for other lessons, too, such as Science, Mathematics, History and so on may be provided.

Table 7.1 A proposal for 2nd grade course book instructions

<i>Grade 2</i>	<i>Instructions for Vocabulary</i>	<i>Learn vocabulary not in isolation, learn it in a sentence.</i> <i>Learn vocabulary with mind-map.</i> <i>Learn vocabulary by drawing or by acting.</i>
<i>Grade 2</i>	<i>Instructions for Grammar</i>	<i>Let the learners hear the patterns several times.</i> <i>Break down a long utterance into shorter parts.</i>

Table 7.2 A proposal for 3rd grade course book instructions

Grade 3	Instructions for Vocabulary	<p><i>Learn a new word not in isolation, learn it in a sentence.</i> <i>Learn a new word with mind-map.</i> <i>Learn a new word by drawing or by acting.</i> <i>Learn new verbs with a noun, e.g. to express an opinion.</i> <i>Organize words in diagrams or word class.</i></p> <p>.....</p>
Grade 3	Instructions for Grammar	<p><i>Let the learners hear the patterns several times.</i> <i>Break down a long utterance into shorter parts.</i> <i>Keep the drills brisk and short.</i> <i>Use forward or backward chain.</i></p> <p>.....</p>

- ❖ ELT teachers should be supported with in-service trainings or online courses on how they can help students to be autonomous and conscious learners who are aware of English study techniques or tips instead of just receiving information from teacher.
- ❖ Experts in foreign language teaching field can be invited to the schools to guide students on how to learn a language skill.
- ❖ In pedagogical formation courses, teacher researcher concept should be adopted along with giving information on action research and scientific research process.

REFERENCES

- Abdelmageed, Mohamed, & El-Naggar, Z. (2018). Digital storytelling enhances students' speaking skills at Zewail university of science and technology in Egypt. *Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education International Conference*, 278-287.
- Abdi, G., & Varzandeh, O. (2014). EFL learners' attitudes towards communication strategies: A qualitative investigation. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)*, 5(1), 167-175.
- Adelman, C. (1993). Kurt Lewin and the origins of action research. *Educational Action Research*, 1(1), 7-24.
- Adelman, G., Jenkins, D., & Kemmis, S. (1984). 'Rethinking case study' in Bell, J. Et al. (eds.) *Conducting small-scale investigations in educational management* (pp., 93-102). London: P.C.P.
- Adem, M. (1995). *Demokratik, laik, çağdaş eğitim politikası*. Safak Matbaacılık.
- Akgül, Ö. T. (2023). *Improving ELT teacher candidates' technological pedagogical content knowledge: An action research*. [Masters' dissertation]. İzmir Democracy University.
- Aksoy, N. (2003). Eylem araştırması: Eğitimsel uygulamaları iyileştirme ve değiştirmede kullanılacak bir yöntem. *Kuram ve uygulamada eğitim yönetimi*, (36), 474-489.
- Al Masri, A., & Al Najjar, M. (2014). The effect of using word games on primary stage students achievement in English lanvguage vocabulary in Jordan. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 4(9), 144-152.
- Alam, M. (2016). Constructivism: Paradigm shift from teacher centered to student centered approach. *The International Journal of Indian Psychology*, 4 (1), 51-59.
- Al-Dersi, Z. E. (2013). The use of short-stories for developing vocabulary of EFL learners. *IJ-ELTS: International J ournal of English L anguage & T ranslation S tudies*, 1(1), 72-86.
- Ali, O. K. A. (2022). *The impact of story reenactment strategy in teaching novel on speaking and reading fluency of university level EFL students*. [Masters' dissertation, Karabük University].<http://acikerisim.karabuk.edu.tr:8080/xmlui/bitstream/handle/123456789/1965/10471865.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>

- Al-Jarf, R. (2021). Mobile audiobooks, listening comprehension and EFL college students. *International Journal of Research*, 9(4), 410-423.
- Al-Mekhlafi, A. M., & Nagaratnam, R. P. (2011). Difficulties in teaching and learning grammar in an EFL context. *International Journal of Instruction*, 4(2), 69-92.
- Alqahtani, M. (2015). The importance of vocabulary in language learning and how to be taught. *International Journal of Teaching and Education*, 3(3), 21-34.
- Anderson, J. (2009). *Cognitive Psychology and its implication seventh edition*. Worth Publishers.
- Anthony, E. M. (1963). Approach, method and technique. *ELT Journal*, XVII (2), 63-67. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/XVII.2.63>
- Archana, S., & Usha-Rani, K. (2017). Role of a teacher in English language teaching (ELT). *International Journal of Educational Science and Research (IJESR)*, 7(1), 1-4.
- Arevalo, R., & Alberto, E. (2010). The use of songs as a tool to work on listening and culture in EFL classes. *Cuadernos de Lingüística Hispánica*, (15), 121-138.
- Argyris, C. (1999). *On organisational learning*. Blackwell.
- Arjmandi, M., & Aladini, F. (2020). Improving EFL learners' vocabulary learning through short story oriented strategy (SSOS). *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 10(7), 833-841. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1007.16>
- Arslanoglu, I. (1997). *Türk eğitim sistemi*. G. U. Eğitim Fakültesi.
- Atasheneh, N., & Naeimi, M. (2015). Vocabulary learning through using mechanical techniques vocabulary learning strategy. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(3), 541-548. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0503.13>
- Atik, B. B. (2006). *The effect of strategies-based instruction on speaking skills of high school students*. [Masters' dissertation, Çukurova University]. <http://libratez.cu.edu.tr/tezler/5765.pdf>
- Aydoğan, H., & Akbarov, A. A. (2014). The role of gender, age, academic achievement, LLS and learning styles at tertiary level in EFL classes in Turkey. *Journal of Second and Multiple Language Acquisition*, 2(1), 11-24.
- Bahadorfar, M., & Omidvar, R. (2014). Technology in teaching speaking skill. *Acme International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, 2(4), 9-13.

- Bahrani, T., & Soltani, R. (2012). How to teach speaking skill? *Journal of Education and Practice*, 3(2), 25-29.
- Bakhsh, S. A. (2016). Using games as a tool in teaching vocabulary to young learners. *English Language Teaching*, 9(7), 120-128.
- Balbay, S., Pamuk, İ., Temir, T., & Doğan, C. (2018). Issues in pre-service and in-service teacher training programs for university English instructors in Turkey. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 14(2), 48-60.
- Baysal H., Kara Z., & Bümen N. (2022). Articulation in English language curricula: A systematic analysis from basic education to secondary education. *Education and Science*, 47(209), 381-412. <https://doi.org/10.15390/EB.2022.10735>
- Bekleyen, N. (2015). *Dil öğretimi*. Pegem Akademi.
- Bekleyen, N. (2016). *Çocuklarda yabancı dil öğretimi*. Anı Yayıncılık.
- Bennett, N. (1996). Learning to teach: The development of pedagogical reasoning, in McBride, R. (ed.), *Teacher Education Policy* (pp. 76-85). Falmer Press.
- Bin As, A. (2016). Storytelling to improve speaking skills. *English Education Journal*, 7(2), 194-205.
- Boldan, M. N., & Yavuz, F. (2017). The challenges of vocabulary learning for Turkish students in EFL context: A literature review. *1st Eurasian Conference on Language and Social Sciences*, 57-64. <https://doi.org/10.35578/eclss.52750>
- British Council. Learning new grammar. Retrieved in April 12, 2023, from <https://learnenglishteens.britishcouncil.org/exams/grammar-vocabulary-exams/learning-new-grammar>
- Brown, D. H. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language*. Pearson Education.
- Brown, H. D. (2002). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Pearson Education.
- Burns, A. (2009). *Doing action research in English language teaching: A guide for practitioners*. Routledge.
- Büyüköztürk, S. et. al. (2010). *Bilimsel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. Pegem Akademi

- Çakır, İ. (2013). Mesleki gelişim etkinliklerinin İngilizce öğretmenlerine olan katkısı. *Uşak Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 6(ÖYGE Özel sayısı), 122-130. <https://doi.org/10.12780/UUSBD178>
- Çarkıt, C. (2020). Evaluation of uudiobook listening experiences of 8th grade students: An action research. *Educational Policy Analysis and Strategic Research*, 15(4), 146-163. <https://doi.org/10.29329/epasr.2020.323.8>
- Carr, W. & Kemmis, S. (1990). *Becoming critical: Education knowledge and action research*. The Falmer Press.
- Carr, W., & Kemmis, S. (1989). *Becoming critical: Education, knowledge and action research*. Falmer.
- Carrier, K. A. (2003). Improving high school English language learners' second language listening through strategy instruction. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 27(3), 383– 408.
- Çelik, S. (2014). *Approaches and principles in language English as a foreign language (EFL) education*. Eğiten Kitap.
- Çetin, M. (2013). *An action research on e-mentoring: A supplementary tool for professional development of EFL teachers working at MNE schools*. [Masters' dissertation, Çağ University]. CoHE Thesis Centre. <https://tez.yok.gov.tr/UlusalTezMerkezi/tezDetay.jsp?id=CobAU8Q7aNoUighynbQ9kg&no=FYvShESlkQONq-Zxq9fnWg>
- Çevikbaş, G., & Yumurtacı, N. (2018). Effects of songs on the development of vocabulary among first grade EFL learners. *Language Teaching and Educational Research*, 1(2), 101-120.
- Ceylan, E. (2023). *A pathway for improving classroom language of pre-service English teachers: An action research study* [Unpublished Doctoral dissertation]. Dokuz Eylül University.
- Chater, N., & McCauley, S. M. (2016). Language as skill: Intertwining comprehension and production. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 1-31.
- Christiansen, M. H., & Chater, N. (2018). Language acquisition as skill learning. *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences*, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cobeha.2018.04.001>
- Çil, E. (2022). *Teacher questions in 6th grade EFL classes: An exploratory action research in online learning environments during the Covid-19*. [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. Uludağ University.

- Clark, J. S., Porath, S., Thiele, J., & Jobe, M. (2020). *Action Research*. New Prairie Press.
- Clement, J. (2007). *The impact of teaching explicit listening strategies to adult intermediate- and advanced-level ESL university students*. [Doctoral dissertation, Duquesne University].
https://dsc.duq.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?params=/context/etd/article/1431/&path_info=etd_CISOMODE_print_CISOPTR_32997_filename_index.pdf
- Cohen, A. D., & Henry, A. (2019). Focus on the language learner: Styles, strategies and motivation. In Schmitt, N., & Rogers, M. (eds.), *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (pp.165-189). Routledge.
- Cohen, L. & Manion, L. (1996). *Research methods in education*, (4th edition). London: Routledge.
- Cohen, L. & Manion, L. (2007). *Research methods in education*, (6th edition). London and New York: Routledge Falmer.
- Constitution of Republic of Türkiye (Act. No 2709), *Official Gazette of Republic of Türkiye* 17863, (November 9, 1982). Retrieved November 17, 2022, from https://www.anayasa.gov.tr/media/7258/anayasa_eng.pdf
- Corey, S. M. (1953). *Action research to improve school practice*. New York: Teachers' College, Columbia University.
- Corey, S. M. (1988). Action research, fundamental research and educational practice. In Kemmis, S. & McTaggart, R. (eds.) *The action research reader*, (3rd edition) (pp. 63-65), Victoria: Deakin University.
- Coşkun, A. (2010). The effect of metacognitive strategy training on the listening performance of beginner students. *Research on Youth and Language*, 4(1), 35-50.
- Coşkun, A. (2016). Causes of the "I can understand English but I can't speak" syndrome in Turkey. *Journal on English Language Teaching*, 6(3), 1-12.
- Cross, D. (1995). *A practical handbook of language teaching*. Phoenix, ELT.
- Cross, J. (2009). Effects of listening strategy instruction on news videotext comprehension. *Language Teaching Research*, 13(2), 151-176.
- Dağtan, E. (2015). Konuşma Becerisinin Öğretimi, in *Dil Öğretimi* (pp.333-349). Pegem Akademi.

- Dağtan, E., & Cabaroğlu, N. (2021). Status of English speaking skills in Turkish ELT departments: A nationwide survey. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7(1), 359-382. <https://doi.org/10.32601/ejal.911454>
- Dahl, T. I., & Ludvigsen, S. (2014). How I see what you're saying: The role of gestures in native and foreign language listening comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98(3), 813-833. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540.2014.12124.x>
- Dakhi, S., & Fitria, T. N. (2019). The principles and the teaching of English vocabulary: A review. *Journal of English Teaching*, 5(1), 15-25. <https://doi.org/10.20472/TE.2015.3.3.002>
- Dalil, Z., & Harrizi, M. (2013). *The importance of grammar in second language teaching*. [Unpublished Manuscript]. Universite Hassan II.
- Daloğlu, A. (2004). A professional development program for primary school English teachers in Turkey: Designing a materials bank. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 24(6), 677-690. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2004.04.001>
- DeCarrico, J. S. (2001). Vocabulary teaching and learning. In M. Celce-Murcia, *Teaching English as second or foreign language Third Edition*. Heinle & Heinle.
- Demir-Ayaz, A., Özkardaş, S., & Özturan, T. (2019). Challenges of English language teaching in high schools in Turkey and possible suggestions to overcome them. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 5(1), 41-55. <https://doi.org/10.32601/ejal.543778>
- Demircan, et al. (2021). *Ortaokul ve İmam Hatip Ortaokulu İngilizce 6 Ders Kitabı*, Devlet Kitapları. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Yayınları.
- Demircan, O. (1990). *Yabancı dil öğretim yöntemleri*. Can Ofset.
- Demirel, Ö. (2004). *ELT methodology*. Pegem Publication.
- Demirel, Ö. & Şahinel, S. (eds.) (2005). *Passport to English*. Pegem
- Döner, A. (2005). *Adult language learners' attitudes to the strategy training on vocabulary and reading in the classroom*. [Masters' dissertation, Uludağ University] CoHE Thesis Centre. <https://acikerisim.uludag.edu.tr/server/api/core/bitstreams/a09b875f-703a-4ea1-8327-004452bdd223/content>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford University Press.

- Dunlosky, J., Rawson, K. A., Marsh, E. J., Nathan, M. J., & Willingham, D. T. (2013). Improving students' learning with effective learning techniques. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest*, 14(1), 4–58. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1529100612453266>
- Ebbutt, D. (1985). Educational action research: Some general concern and specific quibbles. In Burgess, R. G.(ed.) *Issues in educational research qualitative method* (pp.145-172). The Falmer Press.
- EF EPI. (2023). EF English Proficiency Index. Education First. Retrieved in January 10, 2024, from <https://www.ef.com.tr/epi/regions/europe/turkey/>
- Eken, E. (2018). *The effects of strategy training on 5th grade students' speaking strategy use*. [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. Uludağ University.
- Ekmekçi, E. (2017). The flipped writing classroom in Turkish EFL context: A comparative study on a new model. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 18(2), 151-167. <https://doi.org/10.17718/tojde.306566>
- Elliott, J. & Adelman, C. (1973). Reflecting where is the action: The design of the Ford Teaching Project. *Education for Teaching*, 8-19.
- Elliott, J. (1988). Educational research and outsider-insider relations. *Qualitative Studies in Education*, 1(2), 155-166.
- Elliott, J. (1980). Action research in schools: Some guidelines', in *The Theory and Practice*, CARN Bulletin, No. 4, pp. 36-46.
- Elliott, J. (1991). *Action research for educational change*. Open University Press.
- Ellis, G., & Sinclair, B. (1989). *Learning to learn English*. Cambridge University Press.
- Embi, M. A. (2004). Development and evaluation of an ESL web site on learning-to learn English. *CALL-EJ Online*, 6(1), 1-25.
- Erkan, D., & Saban, A. (2011). Writing performance relative to writing apprehension, self-efficacy in writing, and attitudes towards writing: A correlational study in Turkish tertiary-level EFL. *Asian EFL Journal*, 13(1), 164-192.
- Faghih, E., & Fard, F. E. (2010). The effect of cognitive strategy-based grammar instruction on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' development of both structural knowledge and strategy use. *Journal of Language and Translation*, 1(2), 11-22.

- Fan, M. (2003). Frequency of use, perceived usefulness, and actual usefulness of second language vocabulary strategies: A study of Hong Kong learners. *Modern Language Journal*, 87, 222-241. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00187>
- Fard, E. F. (2010). The effect of cognitive and metacognitive strategy-based grammar instruction on intermediate Iranian EFL Learners development of structural knowledge. In Reinelt, R. (ed.) (2010) *The new decade and (2nd) FL Teaching*, (pp. 31 – 57). The initial phase Rudolf Reinelt Research Laboratory EU Matsuyama, Japan.
- Fathi, J., Derakhshan, A., & Torabi, S. (2020). The effect of listening strategy instruction on second language listening anxiety and self-efficacy of Iranian EFL learners. *Sage*, 10(2), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244020933878>
- Finch, A. E. (2001). English conversation: Self-assessment in the language class.
- Fisher, R. (1997). *Games for thinking*. Nash Pollock Publishing.
- Folse, K. (2004). The underestimated importance of vocabulary in the foreign language classroom. *CLEAR News*, 8(2), 1-4.
- Gharbavi, A., & Mousavi, S. A. (2012). Do language proficiency levels correspond to language learning strategy adoption? *English Language Teaching*, 5(7), 110-122.
- Ghazal, L. (2007). Learning vocabulary in EFL contexts through vocabulary learning strategies. *Novitas-ROYAL*, 1(2), 84-91.
- Ghorbani, M. R., & Riabi, N. K. (2011). The impact of memory strategy instruction on learners' EFL vocabulary retention. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(9), 1222-1226. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.1.9.1222-1226>
- Gilakjani, A. P., & Ahmadi, M. R. (2011). A study of factors affecting EFL learners' English listening comprehension and the strategies for improvement. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(5), 977-988. <https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.2.5.977-988>
- Gimeno, V. V., (2002). *Grammar learning through strategy training. A classroom study on learning conditionals through metacognitive and cognitive strategy training*. [Unpublished Doctoral Thesis]. València University.
- Girgin, P. (2020). *An action research: EFL students' perceptions and motivations towards flipped classroom and web 2.0 technology*. [Unpublished Master's Thesis]. Çağ University.

- Goh, C. (2010). English language teaching materials: Theory and practice. In N. Harwood, *English language teaching materials: Theory and practice* (pp. 179-206). Cambridge University Press.
- Gökmen, M. (2014). *Developing EFL instructors' reflective teaching through collaborative action research and peer observation*. [Unpublished Master's Thesis]. Çağ University.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), 597-607.
- Graves, M. F. (2006). *The vocabulary book: Learning and instruction*. Teachers College Press.
- Green, J. M., & Oxford, R. (1995). A closer look at learning strategies, L2 proficiencies, and gender. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 261-297. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587625>
- Griffiths, C. (2003). *Language learning strategy use and proficiency: The relationship between patterns of reported language learning strategy (LLS) use by speakers of other languages (SOL) and proficiency with implications for the teaching/learning situation*. [Doctoral Thesis]. University of Auckland.
- Gu, Y. (2019). Vocabulary learning strategies. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal1329.pub2>
- Güler, S. (2022). *Transforming inter-and transcultural constructs of in-service language teachers through participatory action research in Türkiye*. [Unpublished Doctoral Thesis]. Çukurova University.
- Gündüz, N. (2009). Contributions of E-audiobooks and podcasts to EFL listening classes. *Selçuk University Journal of Faculty of Letters*, (21), 249-259.
- Gunz, J. (1996). Jacob L. Moreno and the origins of action research. *Educational Action Research*, 4(1), 145-158.
- Hahn, J. (2006). Exploring Korean EFL university students' perceptions of grammar instruction. *English Teaching*, 61(3), 29-43.
- Hamzah, M. S., Kafipour, R., & Abdullah, S. K. (2009). Vocabulary learning strategies of Iranian undergraduate EFL students and its relation to their vocabulary size. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 11(1), 39-50.
- Harmer, J. (1989). *Teaching and learning grammar, Keys to language teaching* (First ed.). Longman.

- Harmer, J. (1995). *The practice of English language teaching* (8th ed.). Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2000). *How to teach English*. Longman.
- Hassanzadeh, Z., Tamjid N. H., & Ahangari, S. (2019). The effect of lexical inference strategy instruction on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary depth and breadth. *Cogent Education*, 6(4), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1614750>
- Haznedar, B. (2010). Türkiye'de yabancı dil eğitimi: Reformlar, yönelimler ve öğretmenlerimiz. *International Conference on New Trends in Education and Their Implications ICONTE*, 747-755.
- Herrel, A., & Jordan, M. (2012). *50 strategies for teaching English language learners* (4th ed.). Pearson.
- Hilaloğlu, N. (2019). *The effect of explicit listening strategy instruction on Turkish EFL learners' listening anxiety and listening comprehension*. [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. Gaziantep University.
- Hilgard, E. (1963). Motivation in learning theory. In Koch, S. (ed) *Psychology: A study of science*, vol.5, McGrawhill Book Co.
- Hismanoğlu, M. (2000). Language learning strategies in foreign language learning and teaching. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 6(8).
- Hitchcox, G. & Hughes, D. (1995). *Research and the teacher* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Hollingsworth, S. (1997). Teachers as researchers. In Keeves, J. P., *Educational research methodology and measurement: An international handbook* (2nd edition) (pp. 247-250). Pergamon.
- Hopkins, D. (1996). *A teacher's guide to classroom research* (2nd ed.). Open University Press.
- Husein, N. (2015). Language and language skills. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/274310952_Language_and_Language_Skills
- Iarenenko, N. V. (2017). Enhancing English language learners' motivation through online games. *Information Technologies and Learning Tools*, 59(3), 126-133.
- İlter, İ. (2019). The efficacy of context clue strategy instruction on middle grades students' vocabulary development. *RMLE Online*, 42(1), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19404476.2018.1554522>

- Inayah, R. (2015). Improving students' speaking skill through storytelling technique (An experimental study in a senior high school in Bandung). *ELTIN Journal: Journal of English Language Teaching in Indonesia*, 3(1), 25-37.
- Ivankova, N. V. (2014). *Mixed methods applications in action research from methods to community action*. SAGE Publications
- James, P. R., Yong, K. L., & Melor, Y. (2019). Hear me out! Digital storytelling to enhance speaking. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 9(2), 190–202. <https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARBS/v9-i2/5533>
- Johnson, R. B., & Christensen, L. (2014). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches* (5th ed.). SAGE.
- Jones, H., & Wheeler, R. (1986). *A training course for TEFL*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Kabiri, R., & Ghafoori, N. (2014). The impact of playing word games on young Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning and retention. *Journal of English Language Pedagogy and Practice*, 7(14), 67-82.
- Kallinikou, E., & Nicolaidou, L. (2019). Digital storytelling to enhance adults' speaking skills in learning foreign languages: A case study. *Multimodal Technologies and Interaction*, 3(3), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.3390/mti3030059>
- Kandemir, A. (2016). *İlkokul 2. sınıf İngilizce öğretim programının katılımcı odaklı program değerlendirme yaklaşımıyla değerlendirilmesi*. (Unpublished Masters' Thesis). Pamukkale University, Denizli.
- Kantaridou, Z. (2015). Language learning strategies. In A. P. Joyce, *Foreign Language Learning Strategy Instruction: A Teacher's Guide* (pp. 16-32). Saita publications.
- Kara, E., Ayaz, A. D., & Dündar, T. (2017). Challenges in EFL speaking classes in Turkish context. *European Journal of Language and Literature Studies*, 3(2), 66-74.
- Kartal, G., & Şimşek, H. (2017). The effects of audiobooks on EFL students' listening comprehension. *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, 17(1), 112-123.
- Kelly, A. (1985). Action research: what it is and what can it do. In Burgess, R. G, *Issues in educational research: Qualitative method* (pp. 129-151). The Falmer Press.
- Kember, D. (2000). *Action learning and action research*. Kogan Page.

- Kemmis, S. (1985). *'Action research' the international encyclopaedia of education: Research and studies*. Pergamon Press.
- Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (1988). *The action research planner* (3rd ed.). Deakin University Press.
- Keskin, S. (2013). *The impact of strategy instruction on learners' use of speaking strategies* [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. Trakya University.
- Khan, R., Shahbaz, M., & Kumar T. (2020). Investigating reading challenges faced by EFL learners at elementary level. *Register Journal*, 12(2), 277-292. <https://doi.org/10.18326/rgt.v13i2.277-292>
- Kiewra, K. A. (2010). How classroom teachers can help learn and teach them how to learn. *Theory into Practice*, 41(2), 71-80. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4102_3
- Kinoshita, C. Y. (2003). Integrating language learning strategy instruction into ESL/EFL lessons. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 19(4).
- Kıran, B. (2005). *Strategy training in vocabulary acquisition: An action research*. [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. İstanbul Kültür University.
- Kırkgöz, Y. (2008). Curriculum innovation in Turkish primary education. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 36 (4), 309-322. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13598660802376204>
- Köklü, N. (1993). Eylem araştırması. *Ankara University Journal of Faculty of Educational Sciences*, 26(2), 357-365. https://doi.org/10.1501/Egifak_0000000478
- Komachali, M. E., & Khodareza, M. (2012). The effect of using vocabulary flash card on Iranian pre-university students' vocabulary knowledge. *International Education Studies*, 5(3), 134-147. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v5n3p134>
- Korucu-KıS, S. (2014). Professional development journey through action research: A case of A primary school teacher in an EFL context. *The International Journal of Educational Researchers*, 5(2), 30-46.
- Koshy, V. (2005). *Action research for improving practice a practical guide*. Paul Chapment Publishing.
- Kozikođlu, İ. (2014). Ortaokul 7. sınıf İngilizce öğretim programının değerlendirilmesi. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 14(1), 361-375.

- Lai, Y. (2013). Integrating vocabulary learning strategy instruction into EFL classrooms. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL*, 10(1), 37-76.
- Laidlaw, M. (1994). The democratising potential of dialogical focus in action enquiry. *Educational Action Research*, 2(2), 223-241. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0965079940020207>
- Laufer, B. (1998). The development of passive and active vocabulary in a second language: Same or different?. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(2), 255-271. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/19.2.255>
- LeCompte, M. and Preissle, J. (1993) *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research* (2nd ed.). Academic Press.
- Leong, L., & Ahmadi, S. (2017). An analysis of factors influencing learners' English speaking skill. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, 2(1), 34-41.
- Lestari, I. W., & Hardiyanti, N. (2020). Vocabulary learning autonomy through incorporation of English songs: Indonesian EFL students' perspectives. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 26(2), 94-104. <https://doi.org/10.17576/3L-2020-2602-07>
- Lewin, K. (1948). Action research and minority problems. In Lewin, G. W (ed.) *Resolving social conflicts: Selected papers on group dynamics* (pp. 201-216). Harper & Row Publishers
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Sage Publications.
- Mantra, I. B. N., & Maba, W. (2018). Enhancing the EFL learners' speaking skill through folktales based instruction. *SHS Web of Conferences* 42(4):00017. <https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/20184200017>
- Margerison, C. J. (1994). Action learning and excellence in management development. In Mabey, C & Iles, P., *Managing learning* (eds.). Open University Press.
- Masters, J. (1995). The history of action research, in I. Hughes (ed) *Action Research Electronic Reader*, The University of Sydney, on-line <http://www.behs.cchs.usyd.edu.au/arow/Reader/rmasters.htm>
- McBride, R. (1995). 'Action research', *an introduction to qualitative research: A handbook for teachers*. Translated by V. Buresova, Liberec, Czech Republic, University of Liberec Press, 24-43.
- McCarthy, M. & O'Dell, F. (1999). *English vocabulary in use (Upper-intermediate and advanced)*. Cambridge University Press.

- McCarthy, M., & O'Dell, F. (2017). *English vocabulary in use, upper-intermediate and advanced* (4th ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- McIntyre, A. (2008). *Participatory action research*. SAGE.
- McKernan, J. (1991). *Curriculum action research: A handbook of methods and resources for the reflective practitioners*. Kogan Page.
- McKernan, J. (1996). *Curriculum action research: A handbook of methods and resources for the reflective practitioners* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- McNiff, J. (1995). *Action research: Principles and practice*. Routledge.
- McNiff, J., Lomax, P. & Whitehead, J. (1996). *You and your action research project*. Routledge.
- McNiff, J., & Whitehead, A. J. (2002). *Action research: Principles and practice* (2nd ed.). Routledge.
- Mettetal, G. (2001). The what, why and how of classroom action research. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 6-13.
- Midwinter, E. (1972). *Priority education: An account of the Liverpool project*. Cow & Wyman.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Sage Publications.
- Mills, G. E. (2011). *Action research: A guide for the teacher researcher*. Pearson.
- Ministry of National Education (MoNE) (2018). MoNE English course curriculum (Primary school 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th grades. Retrieved in March 10, 2023, from <http://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/ProgramDetay.aspx?PID=327>
- Mirici, İ. H. (2001). *Çocuklara yabancı dil öğretimi*. Gazi Kitabevi.
- Mizumoto, A., & Takeuchi, O. (2009). Examining the effectiveness of explicit instruction of vocabulary learning strategies with Japanese EFL university students. *Language Teaching Research*, 1-44. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168809341511>
- Mohamed, M. M. (2018). Using audiobooks for developing listening comprehension among Saudi EFL preparatory year students. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 9(1), 64-73. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0901.08>

- Montaño, J. (2017). Learning strategies in second language acquisition. *US-China Foreign Language*, 15(8), 479-492. <https://doi.org/10.17265/1539-8080/2017.08.001>
- Moradi, Z., & Talebi, S. H. (2014). The effect of pre-speaking strategies instruction in strategic planning on Iranian EFL students' awareness as well as students' fluency and lexical resources in speaking. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1224-1231. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.537>
- Naadem, M., & Kiran, S. (2015). Grammar teaching-learning techniques or strategies. *International Journal of English and Education*, 4(3), 566-573.
- Nair, V., & Melor, Y. (2022). Using digital storytelling to improve pupils' speaking skills in the age of COVID 19. *Sustainability*, 14(15), 1-19. <https://doi.org/3390/su14159215>
- Najeeb, S. S. (2013). Learner autonomy in language learning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1238 – 1242. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.183>
- Neilsen, E. H. (2006). But let us forget John Collier: Commentary on Davide Bargal's 'personal and intellectual influences leading to Lewin's paradigm on action research'. *Sage Journals*, 4(4), 389-399. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1476750306070102>
- Neuman, W. L. (2014). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (7th Ed.). Pearson.
- Nihei, K. (2002). How to teach listening. *ELT Journal*, 64(2), 1-27.
- Norman, D. A. (1980). Cognitive engineering and education. In D. T. Tuma, & F. R. (Eds.), *Problem solving and education*. Erlbaum Publishers.
- Nunan, D. (1989). *Understanding language classrooms, a guide for teacher initiated action*. Prentice Hall.
- Nunan, D. (1994). *Research methods in language learning* (3rd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- O'leary, Z. (2004). *The essential guide to doing research*. SAGE Publications.
- Odacı, T. (2006). *Açık dinleme anlama stratejileri eğitiminin strateji kullanımı ve dinleme anlama düzeyi üzerindeki etkisi [The effect of explicit listening comprehension strategy training on listening comprehension strategy use and listening proficiency level]* (Unpublished Masters' Thesis). Anadolu University, Enstitution of Educational Sciences, Eskişehir.

- Oja, S. N. Smulyan, L. (1989). *Collaborative action research: A developmental approach*. The Falmer Press.
- Ökçü, D. (2015). Effects of task-based instruction on reading comprehension of Turkish EFL learners. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 3(2), 23-37.
- Orakçı, Ş. (2012). *İlköğretim 7. Sınıflar için uygulanan 2006 İngilizce öğretim programının öğretmen görüşlerine göre değerlendirilmesi* (Unpublished Master's Thesis), Gazi University, Institute of Educational Science, Ankara.
- Oxford University Press. (n.d.). Instruction. In *Oxford Learner's Dictionaries*. Retrieved November 17, 2022, from https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/instruction_1?q=instruction
- Oxford University Press. (n.d.). Teenager. In *Oxford Learner's Dictionaries*. Retrieved November 17, 2022, from <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/teenager?q=teenager>
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Özdemir, A. (2009). *An action research on how to become a reflective teacher: Critical incidents from a Turkish primary school*. [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. Çukurova University.
- Özüdoğru, F. (2017). İlkokul ikinci sınıf İngilizce öğretim programı kapsamında dinleme ve konuşma becerilerinin öğretimi. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, (42), 189-210. <https://doi.org/10.21764/efd.96650>
- Pegem. (2017). *İngilizce ÖABT tamamı çözümlü soru bankası*. Pegem Akademi.
- Pelto, P. J., & Pelto, G. H. (1978). *Anthropological research: The structure of inquiry*. Cambridge University Press.
- Phillips, M. (2016). *The effects of visual vocabulary strategies on vocabulary knowledge*. [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. Marshall University.
- Phillips, S. (1993). *Young learners*. Oxford University Press.
- Punch, K.F. (1998). *Introduction to social research*. SAGE.
- Rahbar, S., & Khodabakhsh, S. (2013). English songs as an effective asset to improve listening comprehension ability; Evidence from Iranian EFL learners. *International Journal of*

Applied Linguistics & English Literature, 2(6), 63-66.
<https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.2n.6p.63>

- Rahimi, S. (2014). The effect of vocabulary learning strategy instruction on the depth of vocabulary knowledge. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, 5(4), 91-102.
- Rao, P. S. (2019a). The importance of speaking skills in English classrooms. *Alford Council of International English & Literature Journal (ACIELJ)*, 2(2), 6-18.
- Rao, P. S. (2019b). The role of grammar in English language teaching (ELT) techniques. *Research Journal of English (RJOE)*, 4(2), 239-249.
- Rapoport, R. N. (1970). Three dilemmas in action research. *Human Relations*, 23(6), 499-513.
- Redman, S. (1999). *English vocabulary in use: Pre-intermediate & intermediate*. Cambridge University Press.
- Rezaei, M., & Ahour, T. (2015). The effect of listening to English songs on Iranian EFL Pre-intermediate learners' listening comprehension. *Journal of English Language Pedagogy and Practice*, 8(16), 159-176.
- Richards, J. C. & Lockhart, C. (1996) *Reflecting teaching in second language classrooms*. CUP.
- Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (1993). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Rodgers, M. P. (2016). Extensive listening and viewing: The benefits of audiobooks and television. *The European Journal of Applied Linguistics and TEFL*, 5(2), 43-57.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, (9), 41-51.
- Rubin, J., Chamot, A. U., Harris, V., & Anderson, N. J. (2007). Intervening in the use of strategies. In A. D. Cohen, & E. Macaro, *Language Learner Strategies: 30 Years of Research and Practice* (pp. 141-160). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Salkind, N. J. (2000). *Exploring Research*, (4th ed.). Prentice Hall International.
- Sanger, J. (1986). *Six Day of Action Research Workshop in the Valencia Area*. CARE, Norwich.
- Schon, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner, how professionals think in action*. Basic Books.
- Scott, W. A., & Ytreberg, L. H. (1994). *Teaching English to children*. Longman.

- Scrivener, J. (1999). *Learning teaching, teacher development series*, (ed.), Adrian Underhill, Macmillan Heinemann.
- Şahin-Özata, H. (2023). *An action research study on 6th grade students' engagement in an online flipped EFL class*. [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. Ordu University.
- Şefik, M. (2012). Teaching listening skills to young learners through 'listen and do' activities. *English Teaching Forum*, 50(3), 10-17.
- Serin, H. (2018). *A comparison of teacher-centered and student-centered approaches in educational settings*. *International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies*, 5 (1), 164-167. <https://doi.org/10.23918/ijsses.v5i1p164>
- Shagoury, R., & Power, M. M. (2012). *Living the questions, second edition: A guide for teacher researcher*. Stenhouse Publishers.
- Siegel, J. (2012). Second language learners' perceptions of listening strategy instruction. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7(1), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2011.653110>
- Solak, E., & Altay, F. (2014). Prospective EFL teachers' perceptions of listening comprehension problems in Turkey. *The Journal of International Social Research*, 7(30), 190-198.
- Solihat, D., & Utami, P. L. (2014). Improving students' listening skill by using English songs. *ENGLISH REVIEW: Journal of English Education*, 3(4), 1-10.
- Somekh, B. (1989). Action research and collaborative school development. In McBride, R. (ed.), *The in-service training of teachers* (pp. 160-176). The Falmer Press.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research, grounded theory procedures and techniques*. London, N. Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Stringer, E. T. (2007). *Action research* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Talalakina, E. V. (2012). Audiobook in Advanced ESL Classroom: Developing Critical Listening. *International Conference "ICT for language learning' 5th Edition*.
- Tavakoli, M., Dastjerdi, H. V., & Esteki, M. (2011). The effect of explicit strategy instruction on L2 oral production of Iranian intermediate EFL learners: Focusing on accuracy, fluency and complexity. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(5), 989-997.

- Tekin-Özel, R. (2011). *İlköğretim İngilizce dersi öğretim programlarının uygulanmasında karşılaşılan güçlüklerin belirlenmesi (Ankara ili örneği)*. (Unpublished Masters' Thesis). Ankara University, Ankara.
- The Regulation on the MoNE Assessment and Evaluation, *Official Gazette of Republic of Türkiye* 32304, (September 9, 2023). Retrieved January 14, 2023, from <https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2023/09/20230909-2.htm>
- Thornbury, S. (2003). *How to teach grammar*. Longman.
- Tomakin, E. (1996). *Action research: A feasibility study at secondary and high schools in Turkey*. [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. University of Essex.
- Tomakin, E. (2001). *An investigation of the introduction of action research in English language classrooms and the barriers to its use: A case study of seven teachers in three schools in Ordu*. [Unpublished Doctoral Thesis]. University of East Anglia.
- Tomakin, E. (2008). Dört becerinin temel problemleri ve çözüm önerileri. 22. *Ulusal Dilbilim Kurultayı*, 187-205.
- Tomakin, E. (2014). Teaching English tenses (grammar) in the Turkish texts; A case of simple present tense: Isıl maketi iter. *International Journal of Learning and Development*, 4(1), 115-131. <https://doi.org/10.5296/ijld.v4i1.5154>
- Tomakin, E. (2022). Dil öğrenme stratejileri: Bir uygulama ve farklı bir yorum. *10th International Conference on Social Sciences & Humanities*, 398-412. <https://www.ispecongress.org/sosyal-bilimler>
- Tomakin, E. (2023). Tertiary Level students' learning English: Dependent and independent learners. *Asya Studies Academic Social Studies*, 7(23), 27-39.
- Töngel, P. (2023). *Effects of action research on students' different seating arrangements and their academic achievements*. [Unpublished Master's Thesis]. Ordu University.
- Tsai, C. (2018). The effects of communication strategy training on EFL speaking anxiety and speaking strategy among the community college adult learners in Taiwan. *International Forum of Teaching and Studies*, 14(2), 3-19.
- Turan, R. (2021). Türkiye'de ortaöğretime öğretmen yetiştirmede uygulanan pedagojik formasyon programları üzerine bir inceleme (1979-2021). *Journal of Social, Humanities and Administrative Sciences*, 7(47), 2572-2587.

- Turkish Language Association. (n.d.). Yönerge. In *Güncel Türkçe Sözlük*. Retrieved November 17, 2022, from <https://sozluk.gov.tr/>
- Turkish Penal Code (Act. No 5237), *Official Gazette of Republic of Türkiye* 25611, (September 26, 2004). Retrieved January 16, 2024, from <https://www.mevzuat.gov.tr/mevzuat?MevzuatNo=5237&MevzuatTur=1&MevzuatTertip=5>
- Tzotzou, M. D. (2011). Self-instruction in the EFL context: Learning how to learn a foreign language. *ASPECTS Today*, (29), 10-14.
- Uğurluel-Torun, Y. (2010). *The effects of strategy training on learners' vocabulary development*. [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. Gaziantep University.
- Ulum, Ö. G. (2015). Listening: The ignored skill in EFL context. *International Journal of Humanities Social Sciences and Education (IJHSSE)*, 2(5), 72-80.
- Ur, P. (1998). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge University Press.
- Salık, E. (2017, December). Dünya sağlık örgütü 18-65 yaş arasını genç kabul ediyor, o zaman omurgamız için dans. Uplifiers. Retrieved January 16, 2024 from <https://www.uplifters.com/dunya-saglik-orgutu-18-65-yas-arasini-genc-kabul-ediyor-o-zaman-omurgamiz-icin-dans/>
- Reding, M. (2023, April). What are the child development stages?. CDP Online College Knowledge Base. Retrieved January 16, 2024 from <https://cpdonline.co.uk/knowledge-base/safeguarding/child-development-stages/>
- Pearson, E. (2017, September). 10 typical characteristics of teenagers. How to Adult. Retrieved January 9, 2024 from [https://howtoadult.com/10-typical-characteristics-teenagers-12960.html /](https://howtoadult.com/10-typical-characteristics-teenagers-12960.html/)
- Columbia Mailman School of Public Health, (2024). Content Analysis. Retrieved March, 28, 2024 from <https://www.publichealth.columbia.edu/research/population-health-methods/contentanalysis#:~:text=Content%20analysis%20is%20a%20research,words%2C%20themes%2C%20or%20concepts>
- Uyar, Y. (2012). *Using LI to enhance the grammar learning and having only English policy in EFL classes*. Retrieved in March 12, 2023, from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED538967>

- Uzuner, Y. (2005). Özel eğitimden örneklerle eylem arařtırmaları. *Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Özel Eğitim Dergisi*, 6(2), 1-12.
- Vandergrift, L. (2004). Listening to learn or learning to listen? *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24, 3-25. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190504000017>
- Vandergrift, L., & Tafaghodtari, M. H. (2010). Teaching L2 learners how to listen does make a difference: An empirical study. *Language Learning*, 60(2), 470-497. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2009.00559.x>
- Walker, R. (1989). The conduct of educational case studies: Ethics, theory, and procedures. In Hammersly, M., *Controversies in classroom research*, 163-195.
- Weinstein, C. E., & Mayer, R. E. (1986). The teaching of learning. In Wittrock, M. E., (M.C. Eds.) , *Handbook of research on teaching*. Macmillan.
- Wenden, A. (1998). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy*. Prentice Hall.
- Wenden, A. L. (1986). Incorporating learner training in the classroom. *System*, 14(3), 315-325. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X\(86\)90028-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(86)90028-X)
- Whitehead, J. (1989). Creating a living education theory from questions of the kind, ‘how do I improve my practice?’. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 19(1), 41-52.
- Whyte, W. F. (1991). *Comparing participatory action research and action science, participatory action research*. Sage.
- Wirth, C. R., & Perkins, D. (2013). *Learning to learn*. 1-29.
- Wolcott, H. F. (1990). *Writing up qualitative research*. Sage.
- Wright, A., Betteridge, D., & Buckby, M. (1990). *Games for language learning*. Cambridge University Press.
- Yacob, N. S., & Yunus, M. M. (2019). Language games in teaching and learning English grammar: A literature review. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 10(1), 209-217. <https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.26>
- Yaman, ř. (2015). Dinleme becerisinin öğretilimi. In *Dil Öğretilimi* (pp.309-332). Pegem Akademi.

- Yang, C., & Liu, X. (2014). Vocabulary learning strategy instruction with Chinese EFL learners: An intervention study. *International Review of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 6(2), 186-200.
- Yang, M. (2007). Language learning strategies for junior college students in Taiwan: Investigating the ethnicity and proficiency. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 9(2), 35-57.
- Yang, Y.-T. C., Chen, Y.-C., & Hung, H.-T. (2022). Digital storytelling as an interdisciplinary project to improve students' English speaking and creative thinking. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 35, 840-862. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2020.1750431>
- Yaylı, D. (2015). Yazma becerisinin öğretimi. In *Dil Öğretimi* (pp.287-307). Pegem Akademi.
- Yazdi, M., & Kafipour, R. (2014). A qualitative study of vocabulary learning strategies applied by Iranian undergraduate EFL learners in real learning setting. *English Language Teaching*, 7(7), 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v7n7p1>
- Yıldırım, A & Simşek, H. (2005). *Sosyal Bilimlerde Nitel Araştırma Yöntemleri*. Seçkin.
- Ying-Chun, L. (2013). Integrating vocabulary learning strategy instruction into EFL classrooms. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL*, 10(1), 37-76.
- Yılmaz, M. (2022). *Action research as a tool for change: EFL instructors' perceptions of teacher agency and conceptualization of an effective teacher*. [Unpublished Masters' Thesis]. Çukurova University.
- Yolageldili, G., & Arıkan, A. (2011). Effectiveness of using games in teaching grammar to young learners. *Elementary Education Online*, 10(1), 219-229.
- Young, L. (2012). Listening strategy instruction in a higher French class. *Scottish Languages Review*, 25, 7-18.
- Zare, P. (2012). Language learning strategies among EFL/ESL learners: A review of literature. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2(5), 162-169.
- Zekrati, S. (2017). The relationship between grammar learning strategy use and language achievement of Iranian high school EFL learners. *Indonesian EFL Journal*, 3(2), 129-138. <https://doi.org/10.25134/ieflj.v3i2.660>
- Zhang, Y. (2012). The impact of listening strategy on listening comprehension. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(3), 625-629. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.3.625-629>

Zuber-Skerritt, O. (1992). *Professional development in higher education, a theoretical framework for action research*. Kogan.

Zuhriyah, M. (2017). Storytelling to improve students' speaking skill. *English Education: Jurnal Tadris Bahasa Inggris*, 10(1), 119-134.


APPENDICES

Appendix A: A review of several current English books

B. Listen to the dialogue again.
Write True (T) or False (F) and correct the False statements.

1. Alan feels moody on rainy days.	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Barbara likes reading on sunny days.	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Alan feels scared on stormy days.	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Barbara likes reading on rainy days.	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Alan is energetic on sunny days.	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. It is rainy next weekend.	<input type="checkbox"/>

Look at the pictures and say the answers.

<p>1 </p> <p>Where is Robert? <u>He is at the cafe.</u></p>	<p>2 </p> <p>Where is your brother?</p>
<p>3 </p> <p>Where is Sally?</p>	<p>4 </p> <p>Where is the cat?</p>

Match them.

<p>1 </p>	<p>2 </p>
<p>3 </p>	<p>4 </p>

Can I join you?

Leave your books here.

Stay in the line.

Take the ball.

Activity 3. Read the directions and write the names of the places.

The cinema is between the cafe and the restaurant.

The police station is opposite the restaurant.

The fire station is next to the police station.

The post office is near the fire station.

1	2	3
cafe		
post office	cinema	fire station
police station	restaurant	

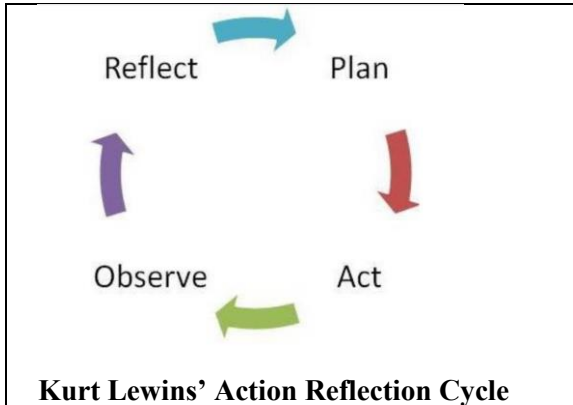
Activity 2
Put the words/ phrases into the correct order.

- I / my photos / post / three times / a week / my website / on / .
.....
- check / e-mails / my / once a day / / / .
.....
- I / listen to / can't / the music / my PC / from / .
.....
- we / Why don't / at one o'clock / online / chat / / ?
.....
- the Internet / you / Do / connection / mean / ?
.....
- do / you / How / online / often / go / ?
.....

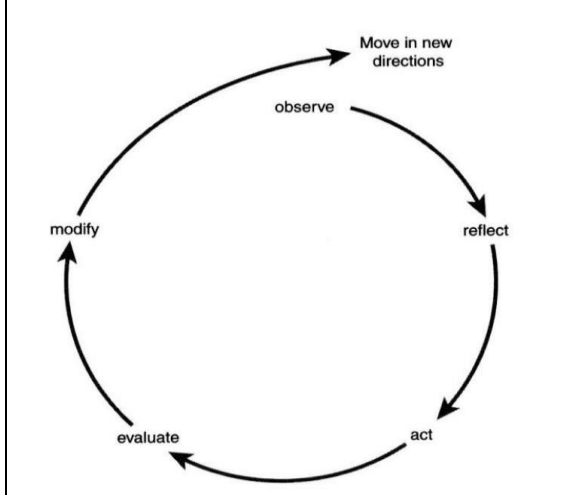
7 Do the quiz!

- Bill:** I like watching sitcoms. They are usually _____.
a. ridiculous b. funny c. scary d. dull
- _____ are educational and interesting.
a. Series
b. Commercials
c. Soap operas
d. Documentaries
- Tom:** _____ do you watch the news?
Sue: Every day.
a. What b. Who c. How often d. How
- Kate:** I _____ a quiz show last night. It _____ exciting.
a. watched / is
b. watched / was
c. watch / was
d. watch / is

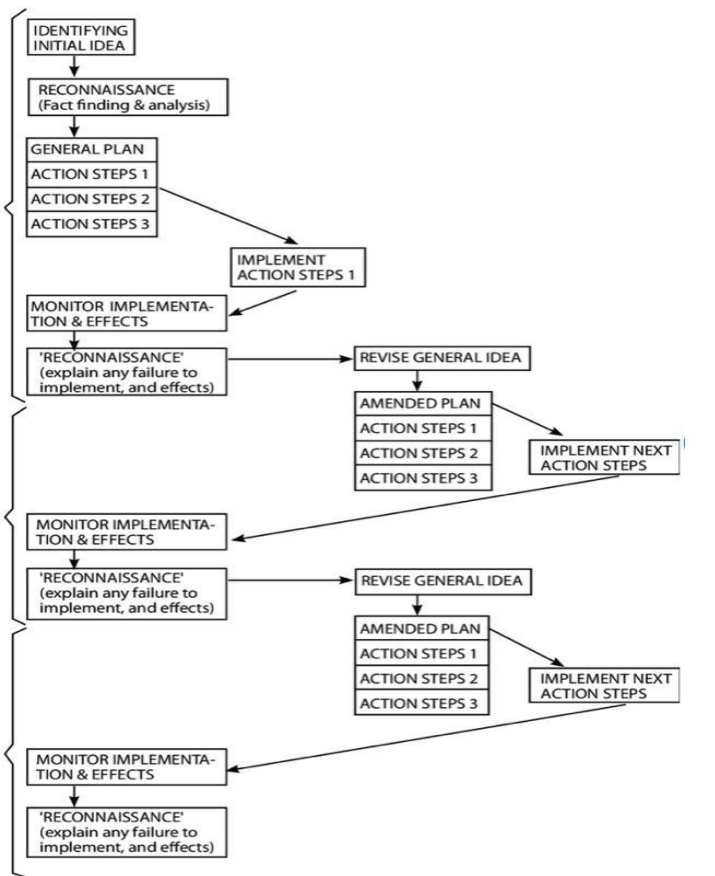
Appendix B: Some action research models



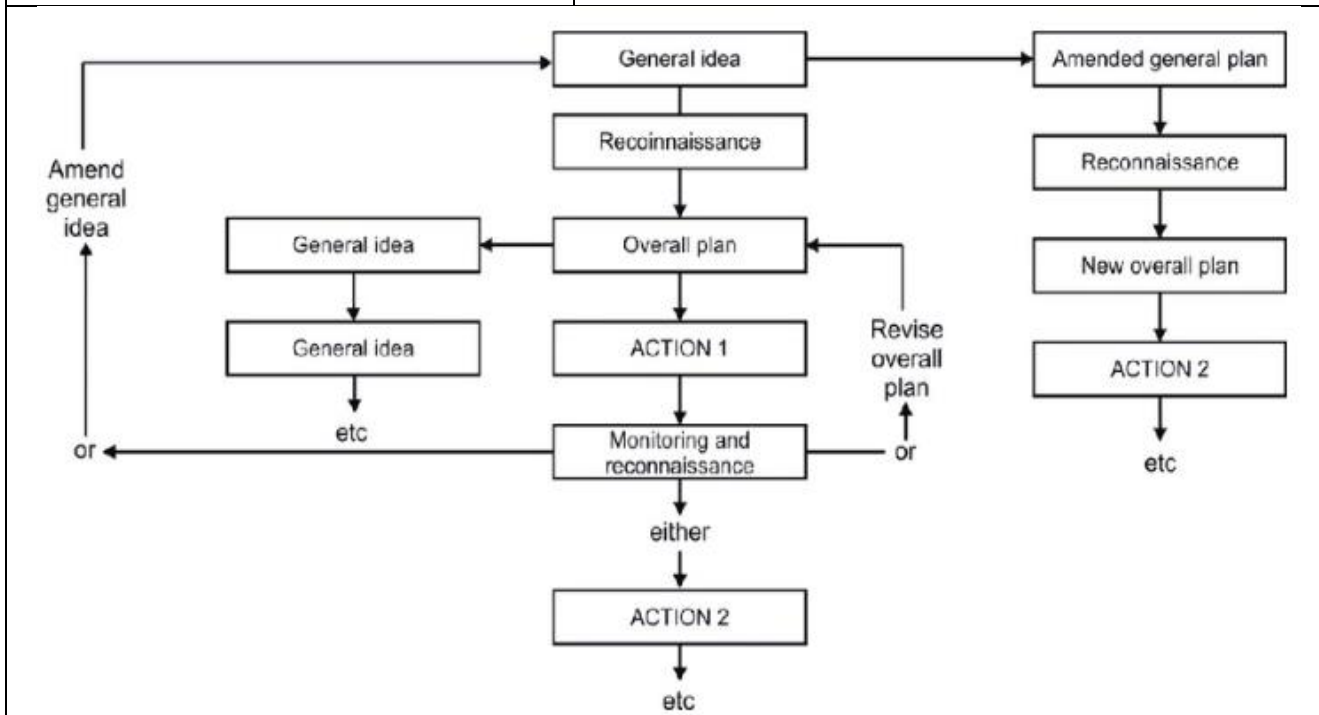
Kurt Lewins' Action Reflection Cycle



Whitehead and Mcniff's Action Reflection Cycle



Elliot's Action Research Model



Ebbutt's Action Research Model

Appendix C: Pre-interview questions

[Bu sorular öğrencilere uygulamadan önce sorulacaktır]

- 1) How do you study English in general? - *Genel olarak İngilizceyi nasıl çalışıyorsun?*
- 2) Is there any aspect of English you like most? If yes, give an example. - *İngilizcenin çok sevdiğin bir yönü var mı? Cevap evetse bir örnek ver.*
- 3) Can you understand English vocabulary/phrases in listening exercises (songs/podcasts/conversations) in the book? - *Kitaptaki İngilizce dinleme parçalarındaki (şarkılar/sesli bloglar ve karşılıklı konuşmalar) kelime ve deyimleri anlayabiliyor musun?*
- 4) Can you speak English? Can you introduce yourself in English? - *İngilizce konuşabiliyor musun? Kendini İngilizce tanıtabilir misin?*
- 5) How do you memorize English vocabulary? Give an example. - *İngilizce kelimeleri nasıl ezberliyorsun? Bir örnek ver.*
- 6) How do you learn a new grammatical rule in English? Give an example. - *Yeni bir gramer kuralını nasıl öğreniyorsun? Örnek ver.*
- 7) Did someone else tell you any information about how the skills to be learnt? - *Becerilerin nasıl öğrenileceğiyle ilgili birisi size önceden bilgi verdi mi?*

Appendix D: Post-interview questions

[Bu sorular öğrencilere uygulamadan sonra sorulacaktır]

- 1) Can you understand listening exercises better? Is there any change in your study? - *Dinleme alıştırmalarını daha iyi anlayabiliyor musun? Herhangi bir değişiklik var mı?*
- 2) Is there any improvement in your speech practice? What are the things you can talk about? You, your family, friends, school, lessons...? - *Konuşma pratiğinde bir ilerleme var mı? Şu konulardan hangisi hakkında konuşabilirsin? Kendin, ailen, arkadaşların, okul, dersler?*
- 3) After receiving instruction card, how do you learn vocabulary? Is there any change, give an example. - *Yönerge kartlarını aldıktan sonra, kelimeyi nasıl öğreniyorsun? Bir değişiklik var mı, bir örnek ver.*
- 4) How do you study grammar? Is there any change before and after? - *Grameri nasıl çalışıyorsun, öncesi ve sonrası arasında bir değişiklik var mı?*
- 5) Do you think having instructions on language skills changed your study habit? If yes, give an example. - *Dil becerileri konusunda bilgi sahibi olmak çalışma şeklinizi değiştirdi mi? Cevap evetse, örnek ver.*
- 6) Can you compare your English studies with your previous studies after receiving instruction cards? - *Yönerge kartlarını aldıktan sonraki İngilizce çalışmanı önceki çalışmalarınla karşılaştırır mısın?*
- 7) Is there any instruction among others you liked and applied easily? If yes, give an example. - *Yönergeler arasında sevdiğin ve kolay uyguladığın bir yönerge var mı? Varsa örnek ver.*
- 8) Is there any instruction that is hard to apply? If yes, give an example. - *Uygulaması zor yönerge var mı? Varsa örnek ver.*
- 9) What do you think about instruction cards you received in general? - *Genel olarak yönerge kartları hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?*
- 10) Did you receive any instruction about how to study mathematics, science, etc.? - *Matematik, Fen Bilgisi gibi diğer dersleri nasıl çalışacağınız konusunda yönerge aldınız mı?*
- 11) If not, do you want to take it how to study? - *Eğer almadıysanız, nasıl çalışacağınız konusunda yönerge almak ister misiniz?*
- 12) Do you think having instructions on language learning skills improve academic achievement? *Becerilerin öğrenilmesi konusunda yönerge almak başarıyı etkiler mi?*

Appendix E: Outline of Observations

No	Date(s)	Topic	Page(s)
1	01-27/3/2023	General climate of the school	1
2	01-27/3/2023	General climate of the classroom	2-3
3	14/3/2023-6/4/2023	Teacher's teaching practices before AR	4
4	14/3/2023	Students' focus (getting good grades) before AR	5
5	16/3/2023	Students' eagerness in learning English before AR	6
6	16/3/2023	Students' unwillingness in learning English before AR	6
7	17/3/2023	The effect of time limitations	7
8	21/3/2023-6/4/2023	Students' homework practices	7
9	7/3/2023-6/4/2023	Students' awareness of language learning skills	8
10	23/3/2023	Students' pair-works	9
11	24/3/2023	Students' incompetence in listening skill	10
12	28/3/2023	Memorizing vocabulary or grammar rules	11
13	30/3/2023	Students' sense of wonder	12
14	4/4/2023	Students' ability of making inferences before AR	13
15	14/3/2023-6/4/2023	Students' unwillingness in speaking	14
16	16/3/2023-6/4/2023	Students' fear of pronunciation	14
17	16/3/2023-6/4/2023	Students' obsession with unknown vocabulary	15
18	16/3/2023-6/4/2023	Students' knowledge of listening and speaking	16
19	7/3/2023-6/4/2023	Academic achievements on speaking skill before AR	17
20	7/3/2023-6/4/2023	Academic achievements on listening skill before AR	18
21	7/3/2023-6/4/2023	Academic achievements on grammar skill before AR	19
22	7/3/2023-6/4/2023	Academic achievements on vocabulary s. before AR	20
23	7/4/2023	Students' wonders in implementation process	21
24	7/4/2023-12/4/2023	Students' reactions to the instruction cards	22
25	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' implementations of vocabulary instructions	23
26	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' implementations of grammar instructions	24
27	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' implementations of speaking instructions	25
28	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' implementations of listening instructions	26
29	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' eagerness towards English after AR	27
30	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Academic achievements on speaking skill after AR	28
31	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Academic achievements on listening skill after AR	29
32	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Academic achievements on grammar skill after AR	30
33	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Academic achievements on vocabulary skill after AR	31
34	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' English studies after AR	32
35	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' English studies at home after AR	33
36	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Effects of instructions on students' family members	34
37	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' ability of making inferences after AR	34
38	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' willingness towards speaking Eng. after AR	35
39	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' attitudes in break-times after AR	36
40	1/5/2023-19/5/2023	Shy students' attitudes after AR	37
41	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Students' homework practices after AR	38
42	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Different activities students have been doing since AR	39
43	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Mostly-used vocabulary instructions	40
44	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Mostly-used grammar instructions	41
45	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Mostly-used speaking instructions	42
46	7/4/2023-25/5/2023	Mostly-used listening instructions	43

Appendix F: Reflection questions

[Bu sorular uygulama sonrası arařtırmacı tarafından cevaplanacaktır]

1) What is the researcher's observational notes on the effectiveness of the instructions in general? – *Arařtırmacının genel olarak yönerge vermenin etkililięiyle ilgili gözlemleri nelerdir?*

2) What are the researcher's observations about students' educational background/interest/eagerness/academic achievement in English lessons *before* the implementation process? – *Arařtırmacının uygulama öncesi öğrencilerin İngilizce eğitim durumları/ilgileri/istekleri/akademik başarıları hakkındaki gözlemleri nelerdir?*

3) What are the researcher's observations about students' interest/eagerness/academic achievement in English lessons *after* the implementation process? – *Arařtırmacının uygulama sonrası öğrencilerin İngilizce eğitim durumları/ilgileri/istekleri/akademik başarıları hakkındaki gözlemleri nelerdir?*

Appendix G: Outline of teacher diary

Number	Date	Topic	Page
1	1/3/2023	Student attitudes in break times before AR	1
2	2/3/2023	Problems in present exam system	2
3	3/3/2023	Problems in role-playing activities	3
4	7/3/2023	Students' insufficiencies in Turkish language	4
5	9/3/2023	Teacher's attempt to attract students' attention	5
6	14/3/2023	Teacher's native language usage	6
7	16/3/2023	Managing class-time	7
8	24/3/2023	Students' willingness towards English before AR	8
9	24/3/2023	Students' unwillingness towards English before AR	8
10	28/4/2023	Students' situations in quantitative lessons before AR	9
11	28/4/2023	Students' situations in verbal lessons before AR	9
12	4/4/2023	Other teachers' thought on participant classroom	10
13	7/4/2023	Teacher's thoughts on instruction cards	11
14	18/4/2023	Students' producing codes or formulas	12
15	20/4/2023	Listening English songs in break times	13
16	21/4/2023	Playing word and grammar games	14
17	25/4/2023	Some activities that students created	15
18	28/4/2023	Students' eagerness in speaking English	16
19	2/5/2023	Teacher's attempt to create a democratic environment	17
20	5/5/2023	Integration of daily life learnings' into English class	18
21	10/5/2023	Teacher's role in classroom after AR	19
22	10/5/2023	Students' role in classroom after AR	19
23	19/5/2023	Taking photos	20
24	23/5/2323	Teacher researcher's role as deputy principal	21
25	25/5/2023	Students' willingness towards English after AR	22
26	25/5/2023	Students' unwillingness towards English after AR	23

Appendix H: Pre-exam questions

-PART ONE-

VOCABULARY SECTION (20 PTS.)

A) READ THE SENTENCES AND FIND THE JOBS (Cümleleri okuyup meslekleri bulun)(10*1=10 pts.)

1. A cuts, dyes and design hair in a saloon.
2. A cooks delicious meals for costumers in restaurants.
3. A repairs cars.
4. A takes orders and serve food.
5. A cuts fabric and sew dresses or suits.
6. An builds roads, bridges and buildings.
7. A makes and sells breads.
8. A examines ill people.
9. A defends people at courts.
10. A pulls out the teeth.

waiter
hairdresser
engineer
mechanic
doctor
tailor
chef
lawyer
dentist
baker

B) MATCH THE HALVES OF THE PHRASES (Sözcük öbeklerini birleştirin)(5*1=5 pts.)

climb	play	stay	try	pick
mountain	skiing	oranges	snowball	in a tent

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

C) MATCH THE WORDS WITH PICTURES (Kelimeleri resimlerle eşleştirin)(5*1=5 pts.)

				
sightseeing	scuba diving	lake	paragliding	river

GRAMMAR SECTION (20 PTS.)

A) FILL IN THE BLANKS WITH 'CAN' or 'CAN'T' (Boşlukları can veya can't ile doldurun)(5*1=5 pts.)

1. A driver teach students English.
2. My grandmother run in a marathon.
3. A nurse help ill people.
4. A farmer grow vegetable and fruits.
5. A bird swim.

B) FILL IN THE BLANKS WITH 'is, are, was or were' (Boşlukları is, are, was veya were ile doldurun)(5*1=5 pts)

1. She at the party yesterday.
2. He on holiday in Maldives now.
3. Atatürk born in Selonika in 1881.
4. We at the cinema at the moment.
5. They at the hospital last weekend.

C) COMPLETE THE TEXT WITH THE CORRECT FORM OF THE VERBS IN SIMPLE PAST TENSE (Fiileri geçmiş zamanda çekimleyerek metni tamamlayın)(5*2=10 pts.)

Me and my parents (decide) to travel Paris last summer. We (visit) the Eiffel Tower and its famous road Champs-Elysees, but we (not/walk) to the Louvre Museum because it (rain) all day. We (not/stay) for a long time because my father had to go back to work. However, it was a fantastic trip for us.

-PART TWO-

READING SECTION (10 PTS.)

READ THE HOLIDAY REVIEWS AND ANSWER THE QUESTIONS (Tatil yorumlarını okuyup soruları cevaplayın)(5*2=10 PTS.)

HOLIDAY REVIEWS	
 SALLY	Last summer, I was in İzmir with my family. We were at the seaside all day. My father and I learned sailing, but my mother wanted to swim in the sea. One day, we tried to go to Efes, but it was very hot.
 JACK	Last winter, I was in Erzurum with my friends. The weather was snowy, so we played snowball and tried to make a snowman. We were so happy. We went a restaurant and the chef cooked 'Çağ Kebab'. It was delicious.
 HARRY	Two weeks ago, I was in London. It was great city. I walked around and visited a lot of historical places like Buckingham Palace. I joined a sightseeing tour with tour buses.

- 1. Where was Sally on holiday?**
 A) She was in Erzurum
 B) She was in London
 C) She was in İzmir
 D) She was in Buckingham Palace
- 2. What did the chef cook in Erzurum?**

- 4. Which one is CORRECT?**
 A) Sally learned swimming
 B) Jack joined sightseeing
 C) Harry cooked Çağ Kebab
 D) Harry visited London

- 3. What did Sally do on holiday?**
 A) She played snowball
 B) She visited Buckingham Palace
 C) She learned sailing
 D) She tried to make snowman.
- 5. What did Jack do last winter?**



WRITING SECTION (10 PTS.)

WRITE A PARAGRAPH INCLUDING 5 SENTENCES ABOUT YOUR FAMILY'S OCCUPATIONS AND WHAT THEY CAN DO (Ailenin mesleği ve neler yapabildikleriyle ilgili 5 cümleden oluşan bir paragraph yazın)(5*2=10 pts.)

.....

.....

.....

.....

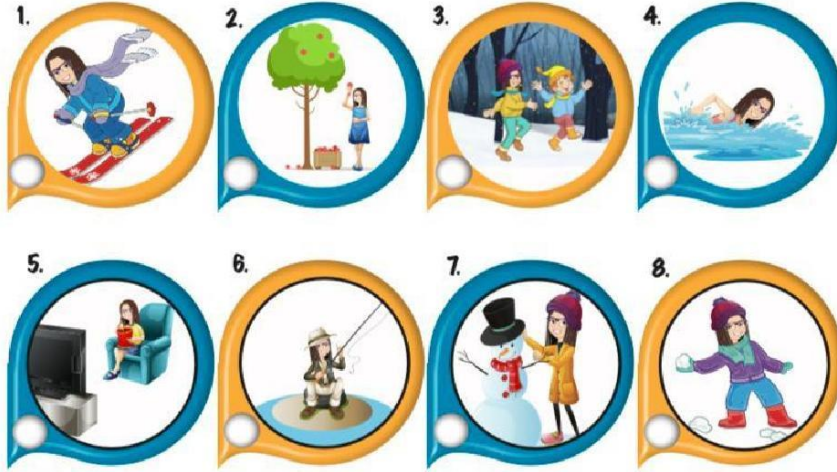
SPEAKING SECTION (20 PTS.)

**You will pick a topic below and orally answer the questions about it. Questions may alter according to the flow of the conversation between teacher and student.*

Topic 1 Talk about your family's jobs	Topic 2 Talk about your abilities	Topic 3 Talk about your holiday
What do your father do? What is your mother's job? What is your sister/brother's job? Where is your father's workplace?	What can you do? What are your abilities? Can you speak English? Can you play basketball?	Where did you go on holiday? What did you do on holiday? How was the weather on holiday? Where did you visit on holiday?

LISTENING SECTION (20 PTS.)

A)LISTEN TO JANE AND TICK THE ACTIVITIES YOU HEAR (Jane'i dinleyin ve duyduğunuz aktivitelere tik atın)(4*2=8 pts.)



B)LISTEN TO JANE AGAIN AND CORRECT THE MISTAKES (Jane'i tekrar dinleyin ve yanlışları düzeltin)(6*2=10 pts.)

- Jane and her family were in Marmaris last weekend.
.....
- The weather was hot and sunny.
.....
- They played table tennis.
.....
- Jane and her brother learned diving.
.....
- They stayed in a tent.
.....
- The food and drinks weren't really delicious.
.....

Appendix I: Post-exam questions

PART ONE-

VOCABULARY SECTION (20 PTS.)

A) COMPLETE THE SENTENCES WITH THE WORDS (Cümleleri kelimelerle tamamlayın)(5*1=5 pts.)

1. Atatürk is the of 'Nutuk' book.
2. I went to the library and a book.
3. Don't electricity, please. It is harmful for nature.
4. She always reads a lot of books. She is a
5. Don't the air and water to protect the environment.

bookworm
pollute
author
borrowed
waste

B) CHOOSE THE ODD ONE (Farklı olanı seçin)(5*1=5 pts.)






1. novel – poetry – story – library
2. plastic – metal – magazine – glass
3. desk – sofa – writer – bed
4. eco-friendly – garbage – litter – rubbish
5. damage – harm – waste – save

C) MATCH THE HALVES OF THE PHRASES (Sözcük öbeklerini birleştirin)(5*1=5 pts.)

use	unplug	throw	plant	recycle
paper	rubbish	the TV	trees	public transportator

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

D) MATCH THE WORDS WITH PICTURES (Kelimeleri resimlerle eşleştirin)(5*1=5 pts.)

				
dictionary	bookshelf	e-book	newspaper	library

GRAMMAR SECTION (20 PTS.)

A) FILL IN THE BLANKS WITH 'SHOULD' or 'SHOULDN'T' (Boşlukları should veya shouldn't ile doldurun)(5*1=5 pts.)

1. We protect the environment.
2. You cut down the trees.
3. You turn off the lights.
4. We use private cars.
5. We harm the forests.

B) COMPLETE THE TEXT WITH THE CORRECT FORM OF THE VERBS IN SIMPLE PAST TENSE (Fiileri geçmiş zamanda çekimleyerek metni tamamlayın)(5*1=5 pts.)

Hi, my name is Alex. Last year, I (meet) with my favourite author, Stephen King. He (write) many books like Pet Cemetery, Bag of Bones, The Dark Tower and Storm of the Century. I (feel) very excited when I (see) him. I (buy) his latest book and he signed the book for me. It was a wonderful day.

C) LOOK AT THE PICTURE BELOW AND FILL IN THE BLANKS (Fotoğrafa bakın ve boşlukları doldurun)(10*1=10 pts.)






1. The 2 dogs are the table.
2. The guitar is the lamp and flower.
3. The poster is the window.
4. The tennis racket the school bag.
5. The plane toy is the box.
6. The books are the bookshelf.
7. The sofa is the window.
8. The cat is the sofa
9. The sofa is the table.
10. The computer is the table.

next to
near
under
between
in
on (X3)
in front of
behind

-PART TWO-

READING SECTION (10 PTS.)

READ THE BOOKWORMS' CHOICES AND ANSWER THE QUESTIONS (Kitap kurtlarının seçimlerini okuyup soruları cevaplayın)(5*2=10 PTS.)

BOOKWORMS' CHOICES	
 SALLY	Reading is my favourite activity. I always read newspapers because I want to learn new information. I buy the newspapers from the market. This market is next to my house.
 JACK	I like reading books. I usually go to library and borrow some novels. My favourite author is Charles Dickens. I sometimes study lesson and do my English homework in library. I use dictionaries there.
 HARRY	I don't really like reading books. But sometimes I read e-books. I buy some e-books from the Internet and I think it is easy to read an e-book. E-books are enjoyable for me.


1. According to Harry,?
 A) E-books are boring
 B) E-books are hard to read
 C) E-books are expensive
 D) E-books are enjoyable


4. Which one is CORRECT?
 A) Harry reads newspapers
 B) Sally borrows novels
 C) Sally likes e-books
 D) Jack go to library and use dictionary to do English homework


2. Who is Jack's favourite author?


3. What does Harry do to read e-books?
 A) He goes to the library
 B) He buys it from the market
 C) He buys it from the Internet
 D) He borrows from the library.

5. What does Sally read?


 A)


 B)


 C)


 D)

WRITING SECTION (10 PTS.)

WRITE A PARAGRAPH INCLUDING 5 SENTENCES ABOUT THE ACTIVITIES WE SHOULD or SHOULDN'T DO TO PROTECT ENVIRONMENT (Çevreyi korumak için yapmanız veya yapmamanız gereken aktivitelerle ilgili 5 cümleden oluşan bir paragraph yazın)(5*2=10 pts.)

.....

.....

.....

.....

SPEAKING SECTION (20 PTS.)

**You will pick a topic below and orally answer the questions about it. Questions may alter according to the flow of the conversation between teacher and student.*

Topic 1	Topic 2	Topic 3
Talk about the activities you did yesterday	Talk about the locations of the things and people in the class	Make suggestions about preventing environmental, water, air and noise pollution
What did you do yesterday? Did you go to school? When did you wake up? Did you clean the house?	Where is your English book? Where is your friend X? Where is the smart board? Where is your pencils?	What should we do to prevent pollution? Should we use public transportation or private cars? What should we recycle to protect environment?

LISTENING SECTION (20 PTS.)

A)LISTEN TO THE TEXT ABOUT WILL'S ROOM AND FILL IN THE BLANKS (Will'in odasıyla ilgili metni dinleyin ve boşlukları doldurun.(6*2=12 pts)

between	next to	on	under	near	over
---------	---------	----	-------	------	------

1. His guitar is the bed.
2. his table, there is an e-book.
3. There is a novel the e-book.
4. His school bag is the bookcase and the table.
5. The clock is the world map.
6. He has a kite. It ishis bed.

B)LISTEN TO THE TEXT ABOUT WILL'S ROOM AND CORRECT THE MISTAKES (Will'in odası hakkındaki metni tekrar dinleyin ve yanlışları düzeltin)(4*2=8 pts)

1. He reads a novel every day.
.....
2. He also likes reading stories about geography and sports.
.....
3. His new novel is on the second bookshelf.
.....
4. He likes music and he plays the piano.
.....

Appendix J: Permission to conduct study



T.C.
ORDU VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : E-18802389-605.01-73627793
Konu : Araştırma İzni (Çağla ATASOY ŞAL)

03.04.2023

VALİLİK MAKAMINA

İlgi :a) Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğünün 21.01.2020 tarihli ve 1563890 sayılı yazısı (Genelge 2020/2)
b) Ordu Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğünün 24.03.2023 tarihli ve 845840 sayılı yazısı.

Ordu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Temel Eğitim Anabilim Dalı Sınıf Eğitimi Bilim Dalı tezli yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Çağla ATASOY ŞAL'ın, "Öğrencileri Dil Becerilerini Öğrenme Konusunda Yönergelerle Desteklemenin Etkileri: Bir Eylem Araştırması" konulu tez çalışmasına veri sağlamak amacıyla anket çalışması yapma izin talebine ilişkin ilgi (b) yazı ve ekleri, Müdürlüğümüz Araştırma Değerlendirme Komisyonu tarafından ilgi (a) genelge hükümleri doğrultusunda incelenmiş olup, uygulanmasında sakınca görülmemiştir.

Söz konusu anket çalışmasının, eğitim öğretim faaliyetlerini aksatmayacak şekilde olur ekinde yer alan imzalı ve mühürlü formun kullanılarak, öğrencilere ait çalışmaların veli izni doğrultusunda ve elde edilen verilerin herhangi bir haber, resmi özel web sayfaları, yerel ve ulusal basında paylaşılmaması kaydıyla, Ordu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Temel Eğitim Anabilim Dalı Sınıf Eğitimi Bilim Dalı tezli yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Çağla ATASOY ŞAL tarafından; ilimiz resmi ortaokul öğrencilerine 2022-2023 eğitim ve öğretim yılı içinde okul müdürlüğünün sorumluluğunda gönüllülük esasına göre uygulanması Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görülmesi halinde olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Ramazan TÖNGEL
Müdür a.
Şube Müdürü

OLUR
Mehmet Fatih VARGELOĞLU
Vali a.
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürü

Ek :

- 1- Komisyon Kontrol Tutanağı (2 Sayfa)
- 2- Mühürlü Anket Formu (11 Sayfa)

Bu belge güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

Adres : Karşıyaka Mah. Atatürk Bulvarı No:336/B Altınordu/ORDU Dahili
1712
Telefon No : 0 (452) 223 16 29
E-Posta: ab52@meb.gov.tr
Kep Adresi : meb@hs01.kep.tr

Belge Doğrulama Adresi : <https://www.turkiye.gov.tr/meb-ebys>
Bilgi için: Ayşe ÖZCANLI (Strateji Geliştirme Şube Müdürlüğü)
Unvan : Şef
İnternet Adresi: ordu.meb.gov.tr Faks:4522250144

Bu evrak güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. <https://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr> adresinden 1da7-1f6b-3e87-a003-ee5b kodu ile teyit edilebilir.



T.C.
ORDU VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : E-18802389-605.01-73882106
Konu : Araştırma İzni (Çağla ATASOY ŞAL)

06.04.2023

VALİLİK MAKAMINA

İlgi :03.04.2023 tarihli ve 73627793 sayılı olur.

2022-2023 eğitim ve öğretim yılında ilimiz resmi ortaokul öğrencilerine "Öğrencilerin Dil Becerilerini Öğrenme Konusunda Yönergelerle Desteklemenin Etkileri: Bir Eylem Araştırması" konulu tez çalışmasına veri sağlamak amacıyla anket çalışması yapması ilgi olur ile uygun görülen Çağla ATASOY ŞAL'ın, ilgi olur'da sehven yazıldığı görülen tezli yüksek lisans yapmakta olduğu ana bilim dalının "İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Ana Bilim Dalı" olarak düzeltilmesi Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görülmesi halinde olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Ramazan TÖNGEL
Müdür a.
Şube Müdürü

OLUR
Mehmet Fatih VARGELOĞLU
Vali a.
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürü

Bu belge güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

Adres : Karşıyaka Mah. Atatürk Bulvarı No:336/B Altınordu/ORDU Dahili
1712
Telefon No : 0 (452) 223 16 29
E-Posta: abs2@meb.gov.tr
Kep Adresi : meb@hs01.kep.tr

Belge Doğrulama Adresi : <https://www.turkiye.gov.tr/meb-ebys>
Bilgi için: Ayşe ÖZCANLI (Strateji Geliştirme Şube Müdürlüğü)
Unvan : Şef
İnternet Adresi: ordu.meb.gov.tr Faks:4522250144



Bu evrak güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. <https://evraksaron.meb.gov.tr> adresinden **h711-04a1-38d4-8919-228c** kodu ile teyit edilebilir.

Appendix K: Ethics committee approval

T.C.
ORDU ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
YÖNETİM KURULU KARARLARI

Toplantı Sayısı	Karar Sayısı	Karar Tarihi
25	2022/566-601	15.09.2022

KARAR NO: 2022/570

Enstitümüz İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Ana Bilim Dalı yüksek lisans öğrencisinin tez konusu önerisinin belirlenmesi ile ilgili ana bilim dalının akademik kurul kararının yer aldığı 08.09.2022 tarihli ve 772215 yazısı görüşüldü.

Adı Soyadı ve Öğrenci No	Danışman	Tez Konusu Önerisinin Adı
Çağla ATASOY ŞAL 21531400025	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ercan TOMAKIN	"Öğrencileri Dil Becerilerini Öğrenme Konusunda Yönergelerle Desteklemenin Etkisi: Bir Eylem Araştırması"

Yapılan görüşme sonucunda; ilgili öğrencinin tez konusunun ana bilim dalından teklif edilen tarihi itibarıyla ve yukarıda gösterildiği şekliyle kabulüne toplantıya katılanların oy birliği ile karar verildi.

ASLI GİBİDİR
19.09.2022

Neslihan BEYAZ
Enstitü Sekreteri



Appendix L: Consent form



VELİ ONAY FORMU

Sevgili Anne/Baba,

Bu katıldığınız çalışma bilimsel bir araştırma olup, araştırmanın adı ‘Öğrencileri Dil Becerilerini Öğrenme Konusunda Yönergelerle Desteklemenin Etkileri: Bir Eylem Araştırması’dır. Bu çalışma, İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı öğretim elemanlarından Ercan TOMAKİN tarafından yürütülen bir çalışmadır. Bu çalışmanın amacı araştırmaya katılan öğrencilerde dil becerilerini nasıl öğrendiklerine dair verilen teorik bilgi ve pratik uygulamanın etkisini bir eylem araştırması yoluyla incelemektir. Bu çalışmaya eğer çocuğunuz katılırsa çocuğunuzdan çalışma için 2-4 hafta kadar zaman ayırması istenecektir. Bu çalışmada çocuğunuzdan mülakat sorularına içtenlikle cevap vermeleri, uygulayıcı tarafından hazırlanan ön-sınav ve son-sınava girmeleri ve araştırmacı tarafından verilen talimatları dikkatle dinlemeleri beklenmektedir. Mülakattaki cevaplar ses kaydına alınacak ve transkripti yapıldıktan sonra silinecektir. Çocuğunuzun çalışmaya katılımının onun psikolojik gelişimine hiçbir olumsuz etkisi olmayacağından emin olabilirsiniz. Çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Sizden izin istenildiği gibi çalışma öncesinde çocuğunuzun da sözel olarak rızası alınacaktır. Çocuğunuzun dolduracağı testlerde cevapları kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve bu cevaplar sadece bilimsel araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır. Bu formu imzaladıktan sonra da çocuğunuz katılımıktan ayrılma hakkına sahip olacaktır.

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak ve sorularınız için Ercan TOMAKİN ile 05*** numaralı telefondan ve *** adresinden iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Çocuğunuzun bu çalışmaya katılımı ile ilgili lütfen aşağıdaki seçeneklerden size uygun olanını imzalayıp çocuğunuzla birlikte okula gönderiniz.

***Bu çalışmaya çocuğum
olarak katılmasını kabul ediyorum.***

'un gönüllü

Anne/Baba Ad Soyad

Tarih

İmza

...../...../20

Appendix M: Teaching patterns before AR study

Greeting: All students stand up when teacher comes to the classroom. At the beginning of the first lesson, the teacher greets students by saying ‘good morning’ or ‘good afternoon’ how are you today?’ etc. and students respond. Teacher then asks them to sit down and all the students take their seats.

Filling the class register: It is compulsory for teachers to record attendance and fill the class register. Therefore, teacher fills the class register every lesson.

Preparing and Checking homework: The students presents and teacher checks students’ homework that she assigns to them previous lesson. The teacher assesses the homework by marking it with plus (+) or minus (-) before starting the lesson. The examples of this pattern are S7 9/3/2023, S3 9/3/2023, S4 10/3/2023, etc.

Preparing the smartboard: The teacher prepares the smartboard for use almost every lesson.

Revision: The teacher often revisits the previous material before teaching a new topic at the beginning of the lesson in order to make a connection between the previous and the following topic. Most students look in their course books or notebooks to remember the topic of the previous lesson. For example, S1 14/3/2023, S3 14/3/2023, S5 14/3/2023, S12, 14/3/2023, etc.

Explanation: This pattern can also be described as the use of the mother tongue. All students use their first language (L1) unless the teacher forces them to speak English. Students usually need explanations of the grammatical rules and meanings of new English words. Reading texts are also explained to them if they are unable to understand the text. For example, S11 17/3/2023, S12 17/3/2023, S 13 17/3/2023, S14 17/3/2023, etc.

Use of target language: Teacher generally uses the target language to give simple instructions like ‘close the door’, ‘clean the board’, ‘open your course books’ or ‘write down them in your notebooks’ etc.

Group work and role-play: Students occasionally are divided into two person groups for speaking activities such as role-play and teacher matches the strong and weak students with each other. The examples of this pattern; S6 16/3/2023, S9 16/3/2023, S10 16/3/2023, etc.

Audial practice: Students occasionally listen to audio recordings and English songs from the course book to complete the listening tasks. Examples: S1 3/3/2023, S2 3/3/2023, S3 3/3/2023, etc.

Task-based practice: Students are frequently told to fulfill a task, generally the tasks in the course book and sometimes the tasks in the worksheets teacher brings to the classroom. They have enough time to complete the tasks. These tasks generally include ‘fill in the blank’, ‘match the words with pictures’ or ‘read and answer questions’ exercises. For instance, S6 2/3/2023, S7 2/3/2023, S8 2/3/2023, etc.

Feedback: The teacher frequently gives feedback for several reasons in checking students’ homework. For example, they get positive feedback for their correct answers and negative feedback to prevent misinformation. These followings can be good examples; S1 2/3/2023, S3 2/3/2023, S5 3/3/2023, etc.

Grammar and vocabulary games: Students sometimes play grammar and vocabulary games. The teacher tries to attract students' attention and lead to permanent learnings through these games. For example, S8 21/3/2023, S10 21/3/2023, S12 21/3/2023, S14 21/3/2023, etc.

Using web 2.0 tools: The teacher sometimes prepares quizzes for students via several web 2.0 tools such as Kahoot or Wordwall and assess students' learnings in a funny and interactive way. Students bring their smart phones or tablets to attend these interactive quizzes. For example, S2 23/3/2023, S5 23/3/2023, S8 23/3/2023, etc.

Question and answer: Teacher asks questions to call students' attention, motivate them, and assess their learnings. Sometimes, she asks the volunteer students who raise their fingers to answer the question or sometimes to non-volunteer students. In some cases, the students ask questions clarify information. For instance, S8 2/3/2023, S10 16/3/2023, S12 21/3/2023, S7 23/3/2023, etc.

Use of smart and white board: The teacher mostly uses the smart board to display English course book, play audio files and use web 2.0 tools. Sometimes, students and teacher use white board to demonstrate the information or doing practices. The examples are S8 21/3/2023, S11 21/3/2023, S3 14/3/2023, etc.

Exams: The teacher held examinations twice a semester to assess students' success. The exams are written, therefore lacking to measure students' capabilities in speaking or listening comprehension.

Using gestures: The teacher mostly uses gestures and body language and sound tone to keep the students awake throughout the lesson time.

Silence: Several students are silent when the teacher asks a question or requests them to do a task like reading or speaking. For example, S3 2/3/2023, S5 16/3/2023, S11 21/3/2023, S12 23/3/2023, etc.

Extracurricular talks: Several students talk about topics that is not the concern the of the lesson. The teacher tries to stop these conversations. For example, S5 2/3/2023, S3 2/3/2023, S11 2/3/2023, etc.

Appendix N: The frequencies of patterns

	Commonly-Used Patterns	Uncommonly-Used Patterns
R	explanation, use of native language, smart and white board, and gestures, task-based practice, question-answer, feedback	use of target language, group work or role play, audial practice, grammar and vocabulary games, using web 2.0 tools
S1	use of native language, preparing homework, task-based practice	use of target language, audial practice
S2	using web 2.0 tools, grammar and vocabulary games, question and answer	silence, group work and role play
S3	silence, use of native language	use of target language, preparing homework
S4	question-answer, task-based practice	use of target language, revision
S5	silence, use of native language, extracurricular talks	preparing homework, question-answer, task-based practice
S6	group work or role play, task-based practice, audial practice	silence, extracurricular talks
S7	preparing homework, audial practice, question-answer, grammar and vocabulary games, task-based practice	silence, extracurricular talks
S8	task-based practice, question-answer	silence, extracurricular talks
S9	audial and task-based practice, grammar or vocabulary games, question-answer	silence, extracurricular talks
S10	preparing homework, audial practice, question-answer, grammar and vocabulary games, task-based practice	silence, extracurricular talks
S11	silence, extracurricular talks	preparing homework, audial practice, question-answer
S12	silence, use of native language	preparing homework, question-answer
S13	silence, preparing homework,	use of smart or white board, extracurricular talks
S14	silence, use of native language	extracurricular talks, preparing homework

Appendix O: Detailed presentation of data analysis before AR study

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
How to study English	Using audio-visual tools	Listening songs	S2, S14
		Speaking against mirror	S7
	Using online tools	Reading on the Net	S14
		Using translation websites	S2, S11, S13
		Watching lecture videos on Net	S1, S2, S13
		Looking up online dictionaries	S2, S4, S7, S12, S13, S14
	Using written tools	Studying with English course book	S2, S3, S5, S6, S10, S12, S13, S14
		Studying with English notebook	S2, S4, S5, S6, S8, S10, S11, S12
		Using post-its	S9
		Solving multiple-choice questions	S3, S4, S6, S9, S10, S13, S14
	Practicing	Marking important points	S4
		Memorizing	S5, S7, S8, S10, S13
		Revision/repetition	S4, S5, S6, S7, S10, S13
		Doing homework	S4, S9
Asking help		S4, S8	

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Perceptions towards English	Positive	Loving themes in the course book	S1, S5, S11
		Loving English songs	S2, S13, S14
		Loving pronunciation	S2, S8, S13
	Negative	Not loving	S3, S4, S12
		Having difficulty	S1
	Neutral	Helpful abroad	S3, S7, S9
	Helpful for finding job	S6, S7, S10	

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
How to memorize vocabulary		By writing	S1, S3, S11, S14
		By reading	S2, S3, S4, S5, S7, S9, S12, S13, S14
		By using word lists	S2
		By listening songs	S2
		By repeating	S3, S7, S13, S14
		By looking up dictionaries	S4, S6, S10
		By practicing with somebody	S4
		By using apps or online games	S8

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
How to learn a structure	Using written tools	Checking English notebook	S1, S3, S4, S5, S9, S12, S13,S14
		Solving multiple-choice question	S8, S9, S13
	Practicing	Repeating/revising	S1, S5, S6, S7, S8, S9, S12, S13, S14
		Doing exercises on grammar	S6, S10
		Listening teacher	S2, S3, S4, S5, S10
		Using formulas/connotations	S2, S5, S7
		Going English course	S8
		Asking help	S2, S8, S14
	Using online tools	Using translation websites	S2, S8
		Watching lecture videos on the Net	S13
Doing nothing		S11	

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Perceptions towards listening competencies	Bad at Listening	affected by physical factors	S1, S8
		problems in understanding words	S1,S5, S13,S14
		slightly understand	S1, S4, S11
		understand at slow speed	S6, S7, S9, S10, S12, S13, S14
	Good at Listening	generally not understand	S3, S5
		generally understand	S2
		understand using clues	S7, S8

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Perceptions towards speaking competencies	Bad at Speaking	pronunciation problems	S8, S14
		lack of vocabulary	S13, S14
		feel excited/shy	S8, S10, S14
		can not form sentence	S1, S5, S8, S14
		can not speak	S3, S4, S5, S11, S12, S13
	Good at Speaking	generally speak	S9
		speak with learned vocabulary	S2, S6, S7

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Students' Pre-knowledge about learning skill	Taking advices from family/teacher	use translation programmes/dictionaries	S1, S9
		repeat vocabulary by writing or reading	S2
		read book	S2, S7
		study lesson	S4, S14
		solve multiple choice questions	S7, S9, S10, S14
	No information	hang word cards	S8
		repeat previous topics	S7, S8
		ask question	S9
		improve your pronunciation	S3, S7
		received no advice	S5, S6, S11, S12, S13

Appendix P: Detailed presentation of data analysis after AR study

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Students' Perceptions towards Instruction Cards	positive	hang on wall	S1, S4, S9, S14
		carry around	S1, S2, S7, S8, S10, S11, S13
		useful	S1, S5, S9, S10, S11, S12, S13, S14
		practical	S1, S8
		content-rich	S2, S6, S7
		aesthetic	S3, S5, S7, S8, S10, S11, S12, S14

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Changes in English Studies	Considerable Changes	more practical	S2, S4, S8, S9, S10, S14
		more listening-oriented	S1, S2, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10, S13, S14
		more technological	S4, S6, S7, S10, S13
		more reading-oriented	S2, S6, S7, S8, S10, S13, S14
		more speaking-oriented	S2, S4, S6, S7, S10, S13
		more game-based	S1, S2, S4, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10, S14
	Slight Changes	only a few changes	S5, S11, S12
		no changes	S3

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Students' Perceptions towards Vocabulary Instructions	using instructions	read English story books	S1, S2, S6, S7, S8, S10, S13, S14
		listen English songs	S4, S5, S6, S7, S9, S10, S11, S13
		play word games	S1, S2, S3, S4, S6, S7, S8, S13, S14
		analyze affixes to intervene m.	S2
		finding synonyms and antonyms	S7
		put labels on objects	S2, S4, S5, S8, S9, S10, S11, S12, S14
		grouping/semantic mapping	S7, S9, S10
		preparing visual dictionaries	S4, S5, S8, S9, S11, S12
		using in a sentence	S7
		using tech. devices in English	S2, S7

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Students' Perceptions towards Grammar	using instructions	play grammar games	S1, S2, S4, S7, S8, S9, S10
		use codes or formulas	S2, S5, S6, S7, S10
		use the rule in a sentence	S2, S4, S6, S7, S9, S10, S13
	not using instructions	use no instruction	S3, S11, S12, S14
		use their own techniques	S2, S9

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Students' Perceptions towards Listening Instructions	using instructions	listen English songs	S1, S2, S4, S5, S6, S7, S9, S10, S11, S13, S14
		listen English audiobooks	S1, S2, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10, S13
		make inference by checking non-verbal clues	S2
		make prediction by using peripheral clues	S7, S8
		use no instruction	S3, S12
	not using instructions	use their own techniques	S7, S9

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Students' Perceptions towards Speaking Instructions	using instructions	use digital storytelling	S4, S9
		use speech recognition apps	S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S7, S9, S10, S11, S12, S13
		retell a story	S2, S7, S10
	not using instructions	use no instruction	S8, S14
		use their own techniques	S2, S6, S9

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Popular Instructions	listening	listen English songs	S2, S3, S4, S6, S7, S9, S10, S14
		listen audiobooks	S2, S7, S13
	speaking	use digital storytelling devices	S4
		use speech recognition apps	S4, S5, S6, S10, S11, S12, S13
	vocabulary	put English labels on objects	S2, S7, S13
		play games	S2, S3, S7, S8, S10
		read English storybooks	S2, S7, S10
	grammar	use tech. devices in English	S7
		use codes or formulas	S1, S6, S7, S9
		use the rule in a sentence	S1
		play games	S1, S5, S7, S8, S11, S12

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Unpopular Instructions	listening	listen audiobooks	S7
		make predictions by using peripheral clues	S1
	speaking	retelling a story	S5, S10, S11
		use speech recognition apps	S7, S13
		use communication strategies	S3, S5, S11, S12
	vocabulary	analyze affixes to intervene meaning	S4, S14
	no instruction	like all of them	S2, S6, S8, S9

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Students' Perceptions on the Changes in their Study Habits	positive	funnier	S2, S4, S8, S9, S10, S14
		more useful	S1, S2, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10, S14
		more enjoyable	S4, S6, S7, S10, S13
		easier	S2, S8, S9, S10
	neutral	only a few changes	S5, S11, S12
		no changes	S3

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Students' Perceptions towards Academic Achievements Instructions	positive	shown general progress	S1, S4, S6, S10, S11
		better exam results	S9, S10
		improvement in skills	S2, S5, S7, S8, S13
		improvement in daily E. usage	S7, S9, S10
	negative	no idea	S3, S12, S14

Theme	Categories	Codes	Student(s)
Students' Perceptions towards Receiving Instructions for Other School Subjects	positive	helpful for learning	S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, S6, S9, S10, S11, S12
		helpful for difficult subjects	S1, S7, S8, S10
		helpful for improving academic achievement	S4, S13, S14

CURRICULUM VITAE

Adı Soyadı	Çağla ATASOY ŞAL
Yabancı Dili	İngilizce
Orcid Numarası	0000-0001-8529-7904
Ulusal Tez Merkezi Referans Numarası	10490897
Lise	Başöğretmen Anadolu Lisesi
Lisans	Hacettepe Üniversitesi Edebiyat Fakültesi İngilizce Mütercim Tercümanlık Bölümü
Yüksek Lisans	Ordu Üniversitesi Fen Edebiyat Fakültesi İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı Bölümü
Mesleki Deneyim	Farklı şirketlerde serbest çevirmen olarak, 2012-2014 MEB’de İngilizce Öğretmeni olarak, 2014-devam ediyor
Akademik Çalışmalar	1. Aybirdi, N., Efe, H., & Atasoy Şal, Ç. (2023). The impact of flipped learning on L2 learners’ achievements: A meta-analysis. <i>Shanlax International Journal of Education</i> , 11(1), 41-60. https://doi.org/10.34293/education.v11iS1-Jan.5891