THE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY STUDIES OF THE ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGY INVENTORY

SÖZLÜ İLETİŞİM STRATEJİ ENVANTERİNİN GEÇERLİK VE GÜVENİRLİK ÇALIŞMALARı

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ABSTRACT: The purpose of this study can be listed as describing a Turkish version of the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) developed by Nakatani (2006), obtaining evidence of the internal consistency reliabilities of OCSI, and providing evidence for the validity of OCSI in Turkish culture through the use of the factor analysis. The participants in this study were 823 Turkish students learning English as a foreign language, studying at high schools and universities in Mersin, Adana, and Hatay in Turkey. The results of the study indicated that OCSI is not a valid and reliable tool in Turkish culture. These results suggested that a listening strategy inventory can be developed to understand listening strategy preferences of Turkish students considering cultural differences.

Keywords: listening strategy, oral communication strategy, communication, validity, reliability

1. INTRODUCTION

English language pedagogy denotes four basic language skills to be learned: listening, speaking, reading and writing. In foreign language teaching and learning, listening skill had attracted the least attention of the four skills when the amount of research done in all four skills and the curricula of most foreign language programs were considered (Call 1985). It was assumed that the ability to comprehend spoken language would automatically improve because learners with exposure to the oral discourse would learn through practice (Vandergrift 2004). Listening comprehension used to be considered a passive activity; thus, it did not merit researchers’ attention (Jung 2003; Thompson and Rubin 1996; Vandergrift 2004).

In the international context, listening begins to assume an important role in language teaching and learning. As Nunan (2002) maintains, listening is assuming greater and greater importance in foreign language classrooms. The reason for the importance of listening in the language classroom is that listening provides input for the learners (Rost 1994). Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin. Krashen (1982) states that people will never acquire that language without access to comprehensible input in a language. Listening is thus fundamental to speaking. Although input alone is not sufficient for acquisition, input is absolutely necessary for second language learning (Gass and Selinker 2001).

Listening, an important part of the second language learning process, has also been defined as an active process during which the listener constructs meaning from oral input (Bentley and Bacon 1996). In Nagle and Sanders’s (1986) model of listening comprehension processing, the listener

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utilizes both automatic and controlled processes to synthesize meaning from oral input. O’Malley et al. (1989) and Goh (1998) has made many studies on listening strategy types and definitions and both researchers classified the listening comprehension strategies into two categories: cognitive strategies and metacognitive listening strategies.

Listening comprehension strategies defined by O’Malley et al. (1989):

a. Metacognitive Listening Comprehension Strategies: Directed attention, Selective attention, Self-management, Self-monitoring, Self-evaluation and Self-reinforcement


Listening comprehension strategies defined by Goh (1998):


Today, a growing body of research indicates that the focus has shifted to actively and intentionally using strategies for learning to process, comprehend, and respond to spoken language with greater facility, competence, and confidence (Rost 2007). “Given the importance of listening in L2 learning, students should benefit from the development of effective listening strategies that can help them comprehend more input” (Vandergrift 1997, 495). There are many disagreements concerning language learning strategy classification and Hsiao and Oxford (2002) states that teachers and researchers alike are often puzzled as to which classification system to follow when conducting strategy research, enhancing learner autonomy through learning strategies, engaging learners in strategy instruction, or developing syllabi and materials involving learning strategies. Whether certain classification theories are more representative of language learning strategy use and whether all of the suggested strategy systems can adequately account for variability in strategy use have never before been systematically and empirically approached.

The purposes of this study are to describe a Turkish version of the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory, to obtain evidence of the internal consistency reliabilities of OCSI, and to provide evidence for the validity of OCSI in Turkish culture through the use of the factor analysis. An instrument designed to assess listening strategy use of Turkish students has not been available in Turkey. Therefore the statistical findings could result in demonstration of validity and reliability of the inventory and the usability of the inventory as a tool by the researchers and teachers.

1.1. Strategy Measurement Tools other than Listening Strategy Inventory

A range of measurement instruments has been used to record strategy use by language learners. Early studies (Naiman et al. 1978; Rubin 1981) used interview and observation to record strategies used by language learners, with mixed success. Immediate retrospective think-aloud procedures (Chamot and Kupper 1989) and diary-writing (Rubin 1981) have been used and they are recommended by Cohen (1998). Similarly, questionnaires, particularly Likert-type, have also been utilised by strategy researchers. For example, Politzer (1983) used a questionnaire to indicate frequency of use of selected behaviours, based on research of good language learners. Oxford, Nyikos and Ehrman (1988) and Politzer and McGroarty (1985) used another questionnaire based on his earlier instrument with new items added. Birch (2001) collected quantitative data using a Likert-scale instrument based on Chamot and O’Malley’s (1990) three categories of learning strategies, meta-cognitive, cognitive and socio-affective (Chamot 1993). Purdie and Oliver (1999) developed their own Likert-scale questionnaire, based on tools used by O’Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990).
Oxford’s SILL questionnaire has also been widely used (Griffiths 2003; Oxford and Burry-Stock 1995; Oxford and Nyikos 1989; Tamada 1996; Teng 1998).

Strengths and weaknesses of these instruments have been proffered. Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) described advantages and disadvantages of various data collection methods. For example, they suggested that interviewing resulted in detailed data but was very time-consuming; observation was relatively easily utilised in the classroom but failed adequately to identify cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies; immediate retrospective narrative by students conveyed strategy use as well as various other important learning factors such as motivation and style, but students did not remember all the strategies they used; and likert-scale instruments were quick, easy, cost-effective, non-threatening, confidential and provided immediate feedback to students.

Chamot and her associates considered the advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires, guided interviews, retrospective think-aloud reporting and diary-writing (Chamot and Kupper 1989; O’Malley and Chamot 1990). They suggested that questionnaires or guided interviews would allow participants to present the widest range of data about their strategy use, whilst think aloud techniques were limited by the specific nature of the learning task. Similarly, they said that in utilising such techniques a wide range of data can be collected, or more specific data collected for one language skill such as listening comprehension, depending on the requirements of the study. Difficulties in data collection arise when training of the participants is necessary so that they are able both to understand and to perform the data-producing activity. These problems come both with think-aloud activities, and with diary writing activities which may require the participants to focus on a specific strategy or group of strategies when writing the diary.

By contrast, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) suggested data collection techniques that do not require participant training are easier, and often faster, to administer. These include the Likert-scale type instruments. For example, they considered Oxford’s (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) emerged from the taxonomy of learning strategies produced by Oxford (1990). This taxonomy incorporated the majority of strategies discovered through earlier research which was large, with sub-categories that O’Malley and Chamot (1990) argued overlap, but which allowed her later to produce the SILL. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) described how the SILL was modified and tested, and concluded that it seemed to be a reasonable instrument for interpretation of strategy use.

Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) discussed the reliability of some Likert-scale instruments, which measured strategy use including the SILL. They reported reliability data was unavailable for the Likert-scale instruments by Chamot et al. (1987), Padron and Waxman (1988) but for Politzer and McGroarty (1985) reliability was 0.51, 0.61 and 0.63 (Cronbach’s alpha). However, they presented a broad summary of justification of Oxford’s SILL over a 15 year period, suggesting it had strong utility, reliability, content validity, criterion-related validity (predictability and concurrent) and construct validity (i.e., strategy use to proficiency). According to Griffiths (2003) the SILL’s reliability is 0.89 to 0.98 (Cronbach’s alpha). This makes it one of the most comprehensive and easiest instruments to use.

Nevertheless, Gu, Wen and Wu (1995) warn that caution is required when using Oxford’s SILL with learners, arguing that the Likert-scale label ‘frequent’ is a relative, not absolute, term, and thus is subject to variation according to the focus of the participant completing the questionnaire. They issued four parallel questionnaires to university students with instructions that required participants’ focus to differ slightly each time. The first questionnaire gave no instructions other than those of the original SILL, the second required participants to respond comparing themselves with their peers, the third asked them to compare their present behavioural frequency with their own past learning experience in high school, and the fourth asked them to check their frequency of strategy use by comparing such frequency with that of their other language skills. Results showed that participants’ responses differed significantly for 13 of the 20 items. They conclude, therefore, that researchers using the SILL or any other Likert-type instrument should ensure that clear instructions require participants to focus appropriately. Despite this, like earlier researchers, Tamada (1996) and Hsiao and Oxford (2002) claim that, although the SILL is not completely adequate and that modifications would be useful, it is
still the best instrument to measure LLS. Nakatani (2006) demonstrated an initial attempt to explore oral communication strategies, consisting of both speaking and listening strategies of EFL learners.

2. METHOD

2.1. Participants

The participants included 823 Turkish students learning English as a foreign language. Their ages ranged from 16 to 26. The participants were in advanced level in English, studying at high schools and universities in Mersin, Adana, and Hatay. They were chosen randomly. All participants received uniform instructions on how to complete the inventory. They were instructed to provide answers to each item. They were not required to identify themselves in the inventory. The researcher administered the inventory in the classrooms and the entire procedure lasted about 20 minutes.

2.2. Data Collection Instruments

The instruments used to accomplish the research purpose was Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI), developed by Nakatani (2006). The OCSI, the 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me), consists of two parts: strategies for coping with speaking problems, 32 items, and strategies for coping with listening problems, 26 items.

2.3. Data Analysis

The data analysis methods to test the reliability of OCSI were the principal factor analysis and Cronbach’s alpha correlation coefficients. The factor analysis also was followed by varimax rotation to examine the reliability and validity of OCSI.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

3.1. The Translation Validity of OCSI

OCSI, was developed by Nakatani (2006), using 400 Japanese university students learning English as a Foreign Language. The OCSI, the 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me), consists of two parts: strategies for coping with speaking problems, 32 items, and strategies for coping with listening problems, 26 items. As OCSI showed highly acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha .85 for the listening part), it was determined to use in this study.

All 26 items in listening part were translated from English into Turkish by 15 experts, at the department of English Language Teaching, Faculty of Education, in Mersin University, Turkey. The Turkish translation of OCSI was conducted with 148 university students at the department of English Language Teaching at Mersin University. Two days later, the English version of OCSI was conducted with the same 148 students. The students were also informed to respond the 26 items considering themselves while they are listening in foreign language. While the students were expected to respond on the 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me) in the English version of OCSI, they were expected to respond on the 4 frequency uses of each item from 1 to 4 in the Turkish version of OCSI. Pearson correlation of Turkish and
English versions of OCSI was .654, which indicates that there is a low consistency in translation or these students use similar listening strategies as they have similar background.

After this first pilot study, Turkish translation of OCSI was conducted with 30 Turkish students at foreign language classes of MTSO Anatolian High School in Mersin and two days later, the English version of OCSI was conducted with the same 30 students. However, Pearson Correlation of the Turkish and English versions of OCSI was .784, higher than the first pilot study. The items 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18, 22 of the Turkish version of OCSI were retranslated as their item correlations are low. After the stated items were translated again, Pearson Correlation was applied and the last translation of the items was highly consistent by pointing .805. For the next pilot study, its Turkish translation was accepted as valid.

Figure 1. It shows that H₀ hypothesis is refused and there is a significant relation between the students’ scores in English version of OCSI and the Turkish version of OCSI ($r = 0.784; p> 0.01$).

3.2. The Reliability and Validity of OCSI

To develop a reliable and valid survey instrument, Nakatani (2006) gathered data from EFL students at three universities in Japan. An open-ended questionnaire to elicit a variety of strategy items and an initial exploratory factor analysis to select the most reliable items in the survey were used. During the first stage of the pilot study, an open-ended questionnaire was administered to a total of 80 students in first-semester EFL lessons. The summary of responses to this open-ended questionnaire served as the basis for 70 testing items for the second phase of the pilot study. This pilot test questionnaire consisted of 30 items for strategies for coping with listening problems experienced during communicative tasks. All items in the questionnaire were written in Japanese. These items were developed into a Likert-type questionnaire that asked students to report the frequency with which they used certain strategies in oral communication. The second stage of the pilot study, using the 70 items, was conducted with 400 university students, who were different from the 80 students in the first part of the pilot study. In order to determine the number of strategic variables, Nakatani (2006) performed an initial exploratory factor analysis for strategies for coping with listening problems. On the basis of reliability analyses, items were removed from scales when their corrected item-scale total correlation was so low that elimination of the item made the Cronbach’s alpha rise. As a result, four items from the listening part were omitted. Therefore, the final version of the questionnaire for the current study consisted of 26 items for coping with listening problems during communicative tasks. The reliability of “Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems” of OCSI during communicative tasks, measured by Cronbach’s alpha, was .85, which indicates a highly acceptable internal consistency. The mean of the 26 items was 3.59, and the standard deviation was 0.96. In order to determine the number of factors in strategies for coping with listening problems, Nakatani (2006) performed a factor analysis for all participants. By means of a minimum Eigen value criterion of 1.0, principal factor analysis, followed by varimax rotation, extracted seven orthogonal factors. The total percentage of variance accounting for seven factors was 58.3%. All factors, the mean of each factor, and the standard deviation appear in Table 5.
Table 5. Factors for Listening Strategies of OCSI (Nakatani 2006)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Name</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1 Negotiation for Meaning While Listening</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2 Fluency-Maintaining</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3 Scanning</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 4 Getting the Gist</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 5 Nonverbal Strategies While Listening</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 6 Less Active Listener</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 7 Word-Oriented</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>0.67</td>
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Nakatani (2006) described Factor 1 as *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies*, which was characterized by negotiating behavior while listening. When students have problems in listening during interaction, they use modified interaction to maintain their conversational goal with speakers. They repeat what the speaker said or make clarification requests in order to understand the speaker’s intentions (Items 22, 21). They dare to show their difficulties in comprehension and imply a need for the speaker’s help in order to prevent misunderstandings (Items 20, 19, 23).

Factor 2 was clearly designated as *fluency-maintaining strategies*. Learners pay attention to the fluency of conversational flow by focusing on the speaker’s rhythm, intonation, and pronunciation to capture his or her intentions (Items 13, 16). In order to avoid conversational gaps, they send continuation signals to show their understanding (Item 14). When they have listening problems, they ask the speaker to give examples in order to facilitate understanding and avoid communication breakdowns (Item 10). They might use circumlocution to show how well they understand in order to continue smooth interaction (Item 15). Nakatani (2006, 156) stated that “such strategies enable EFL learners to keep interactions going in order to achieve mutual communication goals successfully”.

Factor 3 was named *scanning strategies*. In order to get some hints about a speaker’s intentions, these listeners use strategies to focus on specific points of speech, such as subject and verb, the interrogative, and the first part of the speaker’s utterance, in which important information is usually contained (Items 26, 25, 5). In particular, it is almost impossible for EFL learners to understand every part of target language speech. They need to use skills to capture the meaning of the utterance somehow. At least, once they have identified the main point of the speech (Item 12), they could in theory be ready to react to their interlocutor.

Factor 4 was evidenced in the use of strategies for getting the gist of a speaker’s utterance. These learners pay attention to general information contained in speech rather than to specific utterances (Items 8, 6). They take into consideration the context and the speaker’s previous sentences to guess overall meaning (Items 9, 7). Because it is difficult for EFL learners to follow every single detail, these strategies could be useful for understanding what their interlocutor is saying by activating their schemata of background information. This factor, accordingly, can be referred to as *getting the gist strategies*.

Factor 5 was termed *nonverbal strategies while listening*. When listening to English, these learners tend to make use of nonverbal information, such as speaker’s eye contact, facial expression, and gestures, in order to enhance their comprehension (Items 17, 18). Factor 6 was named as *less active listener strategies*. These strategies are diametrically opposed to Factors 1 and 2 in terms of their contribution to developing interaction. The use of these strategies represents negative attitudes towards using active listening strategies for interaction. Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) reported that less successful EFL learners tended to employ such strategies when facing communicative difficulties. These students try to translate into their native language little by little and depend heavily on familiar words (Items 11, 24). They do not think in English or take risks by guessing meaning from context. The more they use these strategies, the less likely they are to improve their listening comprehension.
ability during authentic interaction. Factor 6 therefore consists of negative rather than positive strategies.

Finally, Factor 7 had four variables associated with a heavy dependence on words to comprehend the speaker’s intention; these strategies are word-oriented strategies. The use of these strategies reflects a learner’s tendency to capture the meaning of speech by paying attention to individual words. Memorizing words is one of the most emphasized EFL learning methods in Japanese secondary schools (Brown and Yamashita 1995). These students appear to have formed the habit of using words to get the meaning of speech. Of the four items, items 3 and 4 describe specific techniques for guessing the meaning of utterances by picking up individual words. Item 1 presents an interesting strategy used by these EFL students. They feel the need to pay attention to interrogative sentences because they have to understand the speaker’s intentions clearly in order to respond to the question. In general, if students pay too much attention to a specific word, it could undermine their overall comprehension of an utterance, which might negatively affect their understanding.

To summarize, Nakatani (2006) developed OCSI to measure traits of students’ oral communication strategy use in speaking and listening through reliable and valid data. The OCSI developed by factor analysis, using 400 Japanese students learning English, showed highly acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha .85 for the listening part). It had a clear factor structure. The listening part includes seven factors as follows: negotiation for meaning while listening strategies, fluency-maintaining strategies, scanning strategies, getting the gist strategies, nonverbal strategies while listening, less active listener strategies, and word-oriented strategies.

In order to determine the number of the factors in strategies for coping with listening strategies, the researcher performed factor analysis for all participants. Varimax rotation and confirmatory factor analysis were employed to determine the number of initial factors. 4 factors (see Table 6): negotiation for meaning while listening strategies (.708), inferencing strategies (.608), scanning strategies (.651), nonverbal strategies (.620) were labeled to EFL Turkish students whereas the factors of OCSI were named totally 7 factors: negotiation for meaning while listening strategies, fluency-maintaining strategies, scanning strategies, getting the gist strategies, nonverbal strategies while listening, less active listener strategies, and word-oriented strategies.

Table 6. Rotated Component Matrix

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Component</th>
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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<td>SMEAN(M21)</td>
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<td>SMEAN(M22)</td>
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<td>SMEAN(M20)</td>
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<td>SMEAN(M18)</td>
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Factor 1 can be named as *negotiation for meaning while listening strategies*, which was described in Factor 1 of OCSI (Nakatani, 2006). Turkish students ask speakers to slow down and repeat when they cannot understand what the speaker has said, and to use easy words when Turkish students have difficulties in comprehension (Items 19, 20, 22). Listeners make a clarification request when they are not sure what the speaker has said, and make clear to the speaker what they have not been able to understand (Items 21, 23). Also, listeners ask the speaker to give an example when they are not sure what they said (Item 10). Even though Item 10 was described in Factor 2 “Fluency-maintaining strategies” of OCSI when it was applied to the Japanese students, Turkish students use this strategy to negotiate meaning while listening.

Factor 2 appeared to be concerned with paying attention to the speakers’ pronunciation, rhythm and intonation, eye contact, facial expression and gestures (Items 13, 16, 18). In addition, Turkish students send continuation signals to show their understanding in order to avoid communication gaps (Item 14). However, Turkish students do not use circumlocution to react the speaker’s utterance when they do not understand his/her intention well (Item 15) whereas Japanese students prefer to use Item 15 in terms of *non-verbal strategies*. Japanese students use Items 13, 14, 16 to maintain fluency during listening while Turkish students make use of nonverbal information to maintain communication. Hence, Factor 2 can be called *non-verbal strategies*.

Factor 3 received loadings from Items 3, 5, 7, and 9. These strategies can be termed as *inferencing strategies*. Turkish students guess the speakers’ intention based on what the speakers have said so far and they pick up familiar words (Items 3, 7). They pay attention to the first part of the sentence and guess the speaker’s intention (Item 5), which was considered as scanning by Japanese students. Also, Turkish students anticipate what the speaker is going to say based on the context (Item 9). While Items 7 and 9 contributed to Japanese students for getting the gist during listening and Item 3 was described as *word-oriented*; Items 3, 7, 9 appear to be among inferencing strategies.

Items 25, 26 in OCSI were related to Japanese students’ paying attention to the interrogative when they listen to wh-questions and to the subject and verb of the sentence, which were called as *scanning strategies*. These strategies show similarity for Turkish students. Factor 4 also receives loadings from Items 1 and 24. They focus on familiar expressions (Item 24), which was considered as less-active listener strategy among Japanese students. In addition, Turkish students pay attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not (Item 1), which was defined as a *word-oriented strategy* for Japanese students.

In the final version of the factor analysis, there are some strategies (Items 2, 4, 6, 8, 11, 12, 15, and 17) that load to more than a specific factor among the factors stated above. More specifically, these strategies are: trying to catch every word that the speaker uses (Item 2), paying attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes (Item 4), trying to respond to the speaker even when they do not understand the speaker perfectly (Item 6), not minding if they cannot understand every single detail (Item 8). Also, trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said (Item 11), trying to catch the speaker’s main point (Item 12), using circumlocution to react the speaker’s utterance when they do not understand the speaker’s intention well (Item 15) and using gestures when they have difficulties in understanding (Item 17) are among the strategies stated above. However, it was thought that there were more strategies Turkish students use except the defined strategies in four factors. This idea required to develop items based on studies in literature on listening strategies.

### 4. CONCLUSION

Regarding the fact that foreign language learners often face difficulties in communication both in actual and classroom environment, they have to use strategies to facilitate their communication. However, the lack of reliable and valid tool to assess Turkish language learners’ strategy use in communication causes the difficulties in determining which strategies language learners use. To cope with this situation, the present validity and reliability study of OCSI attempted to describe a Turkish version of the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory, to obtain evidence of the internal consistency
reliabilities of OCSI, and to provide evidence for the validity of OCSI in Turkish culture through the use of the factor analysis. An instrument designed to assess listening strategy use of Turkish students has not been available in Turkey regarding culturally both strategy uses in listening comprehension and foreign language learning differences between Japanese and Turkish EFL students.

Turkish EFL university students’ listening strategy preferences can be understood with the application of a valid and reliable tool. By the way, the language teachers can recognize their students’ strong and weak sides during listening. In the present study it was aimed to carry out the validity and reliability studies of OCSI. As the result of the study it can be stated that OCSI is not valid and reliable for Turkish students who are learning English as a foreign language. This validity and reliability study of OCSI has not been confronted with the other studies yet. For this reason, the results of the study can be compared with the further studies.

REFERENCES:


