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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNING STRATEGY CHOICE AND
ACADEMIC SUCCESS, AND FACTORS RELATED TO LEARNING STRATEGY
CHOICE OF EFL UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS IN A TURKISH UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

Title: The relationship between learning strategy choice and academic success, and the factors related to learning strategy choice of EFL undergraduate students in a Turkish University.

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This present study investigated the factors that could relate to learning strategy choice of students and the relationship between learning strategy choice, overall level of strategy use, and language classroom academic success. Seventy upper-intermediate Turkish students learning English as a foreign language (EFL) participated in the study. There were 15 female and 55 male students in the study. The research was conducted at Cukurova University Foreign Language Teaching Center (YADIM).

In this correlational study the researcher used Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0 to identify students' learning strategy choice, that is, the most frequently used strategy group. The present study considered three questions.

The first research question was about strategy choice, and analysis of data revealed that for the largest number of students (47.1%), the most frequently used strategy group was compensation. For the remaining students the most frequently used strategies were as follows: metacognitive

(27.1%), cognitive (8.6%), social (8.6%), affective (5.7%), and memory (2.9%).

The second question was the relationship of other factors with learning strategy choice and total strategy use of students. The researcher tried to find out if students' departments, gender, and educational background were related to the learning strategy choice and total strategy use. The results revealed that all of the learning strategy choices were significantly correlated with each other and with total strategy use. However, there were no significant relationships between students' departments and educational background and learning strategy choice or overall level of strategy use. However, there was a positive relationship between gender and the choice of compensation strategies with females ($M = 3.91$) using them more often than males ($M = 3.33$).

The third question was the relationship between learning strategy choice and language classroom academic success. Academic success was measured by an achievement test prepared by the testing office at YADIM. The researcher used multiple regression to see which learning strategy choices might predict their language classroom academic success. The only significant predictor was metacognitive strategies, which predicted academic success in a negative way. This means that the fewer metacognitive strategies the learners used, the more successful they were.

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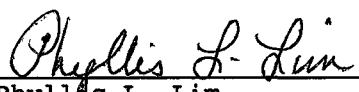
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We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our combined opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.



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TO MY HUSBAND VOLKAN, AND DAUGHTER, IDIL

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

There has been a great change recently in how the language classroom is viewed; the emphasis is now on learners. That is, there has been a shift of focus from teachers and teaching to learners and learning. As a part of this interest, researchers have become interested in the cognitive processes of learners to analyze their learning process (Rubin, 1975). Much research has been conducted to understand students' learning process and shown that students have used different strategies, or tactics, in learning a new language (Oxford, 1990).

Researchers have analyzed learning strategies and found out that students' learning strategy choice is related to students' purposes and the task that they are engaged in (Oxford, 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Their learning strategy choices have been analyzed through questionnaires (Oxford, 1990; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985) or classroom observations and interviews (O'Malley, Chamot, Manzanaress, Russo, & Kupper, 1985).

Researchers have tried to find out the relationships between learning strategy choices and other factors such as gender (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford, Nyikos, & Ehrman, 1989), language proficiency level (O'Malley et al., 1985), and ethnic background (Politzer & McGroarty, 1985). It was

found that learning strategy choice is related with the factors mentioned above.

Strategies of successful students (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, & Todesco, cited in Skehan, 1989; Rubin, 1975) and unsuccessful students (Abraham & Vann, 1990) have been also analyzed. Abraham and Vann found that successful and unsuccessful students had nearly the same strategies, although they had different levels of proficiency in English.

Research conducted by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) and Politzer and McGroarty (1985) showed a relationship between learning strategy choice of English as a second language (ESL) learners and their departments at university.

In Turkey researchers have tried to identify and analyze learning strategies of students learning English as a foreign language (EFL).

Cavusoglu (1992) investigated the relationship between learning strategy choice and EFL proficiency using Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0. She found significant relationship between language learning strategy choice and English proficiency.

Using the same inventory and an oral test, Ozseven (1993) looked at the relationship between learning strategy choice and oral performance of EFL learners. Ozseven (1993) was not able to find a relationship between learning

strategy choice and oral performance. Yalcin (1991) investigated learning strategies and factors related to learning strategy choice of EFL students such as age, motivation, and learning aim; however, she did not find any significant relationship between these factors and learning strategy choice.

However, none of the studies in the EFL setting in Turkey have looked at the relationship between students' departments, gender, educational background, and learning strategy choice. Also, although Oxford's (1990) SILL Version 7.0 has been used to investigate the relationship between strategy choice and proficiency level (Cavusoglu, 1992), no study has been done on the relationship between learning strategy choice and language classroom academic success.

The researcher teaches at Cukurova University Foreign Language Teaching Center (YADIM). This center is a preparation program founded to teach students English and prepare them for their future academic studies in their departments since the departments offer some content courses in English.

From informal conversations with some instructors and personal observations at the institution YADIM, the researcher realized that although all the students have the same materials and syllabus, they vary greatly in their

language classroom academic success. The researcher assumed that students' learning strategy choice may contribute to this difference in academic success.

The researcher observed that students from Engineering, and Social Sciences faculties (departments) seem to do better on the language examination than students from Science and Letters faculty and believed that this might be related to language learning strategies. The researcher also observed that female students use social strategies such as cooperation more than male students.

The researcher assumed that learning strategy choice might also relate to previous English language experience. The students at this center come from different educational backgrounds. Some of the students graduate from private high schools or Anatolian high schools, which offer more than 8 hours of English a week. The other group of students are from state schools which offer less than 8 hours English courses a week. Listening and speaking teachers at the institution have noticed that there are some differences in students in their learning strategy choice; for example, some students are less anxious due to their exposure to target language and more willing to take risks in class and try different language learning strategies than other students. The researcher assumed that students who graduate from private and Anatolian schools may have developed more

strategies due to their using English more than other students from state schools.

The researcher hypothesized that students' departments, educational background, and gender might be related to learning strategy choice, which might, in turn, predict students' language classroom academic success.

Purpose of the Study

Learning strategies of upper-intermediate undergraduate students were investigated in this study. The researcher wanted to know if there was a relationship among learning strategy choice, total strategy use (i.e., overall level of use), students' departments, educational background, and gender. The relationship between learning strategy choice of students and their academic success was also investigated.

Significance of the Study

According to Wenden and Rubin (1987), one of the most important aims of analyzing students' learning strategies is to help learners become autonomous. If research is able to reveal significant relationships between learning strategies and academic success, then students can be trained in those strategies which will make them more successful, as research has shown that learning strategies can be modified or developed through training (O'Malley et al., 1985).

If the researcher could find a significant relationship among learning strategy choice and language classroom academic success, then a framework could be developed to train students in those strategies which might make the students more successful in learning a new language.

Oxford (1990) stated that students from similar backgrounds often tend to use similar strategies, so if this present research support this finding, then a training program can help students to learn new strategies taking their backgrounds into consideration.

Research Questions

The following are the research questions that the study aimed to answer:

1. What are the strategies used by upper-intermediate undergraduate students at Cukurova University, YADIM ?
2. Is total strategy use and strategy choice related to students' departments, gender, and educational background, that is, the high schools that students had graduated from?
3. Is there a relationship between students' learning strategy choice and students' language classroom academic success?

Chapter 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Much research has been done about language learning strategies because of recent interest in teaching foreign language students how to learn more effectively. Oxford (1990) claims that it is important to determine what kinds of strategies language learners actually use in order to enhance their learning.

Typology of Strategies

Researchers have categorized language learning strategies in different ways and it is evident that there is not complete agreement on exact number of strategies and how they should be defined and categorized. Even though the researchers categorized them in various ways, learning strategies help learners to control their learning and promote their learning (Oxford, 1990).

Bialystok Model

Bialystok (cited in O'Malley et al, 1985) categorized learning strategies into two groups:

1. Formal strategies: This category includes monitoring and functional practicing. The emphasis is on the form and accuracy of the target language.
2. Functional strategies: This category includes functional strategies and inferencing. The main aim of these strategies are use of language for communicative and comprehension purposes, for

example, reading newspapers or magazines in the target language or speaking the target language with peers, teachers or native speakers.

O'Malley Model

O'Malley et al. (1985) divided learning strategies into three groups: metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective strategies (see Table 1).

Table 1

Learning Strategy Taxonomy

<u>Metacognitive</u>	<u>Cognitive</u>	<u>Social-affective</u>
Advance organizer	Repetition	Cooperation
Directed attention	Resourcing	Questions for clarification
Selective attention	Directed PRT	
Self-management	Grouping	
Advance preparation	Note-taking	
Self-monitoring	Deduction	
Delayed production	Recombination	
Self-evaluation	Imagery	
	Auditory representation	
	Key word	
	Contextualization	
	Elaboration	
	Transfer	
	Inferencing	

Note. PRT=Physical response translation.

Metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies are directly related with students' learning. Metacognitive strategies include having knowledge about one's own cognitive processes of learning and self-control of cognition using some processes such as monitoring and

evaluating (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Cognitive strategies are generally task specific and include inferencing and elaborating. Social-affective strategies are those which learners use when they are engaged in opportunities to practice their knowledge with others, such as cooperating with peers (O'Malley et al., 1985).

Oxford Model

Oxford (1990) divides learning strategies into two broad categories: direct and indirect strategies. These two categories have six subcategories which are further divided into sets of strategies. For each set of strategies, Oxford (1990) has developed an acronym for the strategies to help learners to remember the strategies more easily. Oxford's (1990) taxonomy is comprised of 80 learning strategies as a whole.

Direct Strategies

Direct strategies are those which are directly related with learning. This category includes three subcategories: memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. According to Oxford (1990) direct strategies need mental processing of the language; however, three subgroups manage this in different ways for different purposes.

Memory strategies. Memory strategies consist of four sets, and these sets are also divided into different strategies (see Table 2).

Table 2

Memory Strategies

<u>C</u> reating mental linkages	Grouping Associating/Elaborating Placing new words into a context
<u>A</u> pplying images and sounds	Using imagery Semantic mapping Using keywords Representing sounds in memory
<u>R</u> eviewing well	Structured reviewing
<u>E</u> mploying action	Using physical response or sensation Using mechanical techniques

Note. From Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know (p. 39) by R. Oxford, 1990, New York: Newbury House

First letters of the four sets in memory strategies form the acronym CARE. Oxford (1990) stated that "take CARE of your memory and your memory will take care of you" (p. 38).

All the strategies in the memory strategy group help the learner to store information and retrieve it when necessary. For example, a learner can remember a word from a traffic sign such as "stop," or memorize vocabulary by making up a story in which he or she puts all the new words into a context.

Cognitive Strategies. Cognitive strategies help the learner to manipulate and transform the target language. According to Oxford (1990), cognitive strategies are the most favored by language learners. This strategy group consisted of 4 sets. These are practicing, receiving and sending message, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output (see Table 3).

Table 3

Cognitive Strategies

<u>Practicing</u>	Repeating Formally practicing with sounds and writing system Recognizing and using formulas and patterns Recombining Practicing naturalistically
<u>Receiving and sending messages</u>	Getting the idea quickly Using resources for receiving and sending messages
<u>Analyzing and reasoning</u>	Reasoning deductively Analyzing expressions Analyzing contrastively Translating Transferring
<u>Creating structure for input and output</u>	Taking notes Summarizing Highlighting

Note. From Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know (p. 44) by R. Oxford, 1990, New York: Newbury House.

The acronym that Oxford (1990) invented for cognitive strategy group is PRAC. She explains that "cognitive strategies are PRACTical for language learning" (p. 43) because some of the strategies in this group make the learners life easier. For example, skimming and scanning strategies included in the category of receiving and sending messages make students' reading more comprehensible.

Compensation strategies. This strategy group enables learners to use the target language, in spite of lacking knowledge especially in grammar or vocabulary. This strategy group consists of two sets: guessing intelligently, which is sometimes called inferencing as in O'Malley et al's (1985) classification, and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing (see Table 4).

The acronym for compensation strategies is GO because "language learners can GO with compensation strategies" (Oxford, 1990, p. 47)

Examples for this strategy group are guessing by using linguistic or non-linguistic clues, using mime or gestures instead of an unknown word, switching to the mother tongue, and selecting a topic which learners feel themselves competent enough in to talk about this topic. According to Oxford (1990) compensation strategies are the heart of strategic competence.

Table 4

Compensation Strategies

<u>Guessing intelligently</u>	Using linguistic clues Using other clues
<u>Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing</u>	Switching to the mother tongue Getting help Using mime or gesture Avoiding communication partially or totally Selecting the topic Adjusting or approximating the message Coining words Using circumlocution or synonym

Note. From Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know (p. 48) by R. Oxford, 1990, New York: Newbury House

Indirect Strategies. Indirect strategies are not directly related with learning like direct strategies. According to Oxford (1990) indirect strategies support and manage language learning without being directly involved in the target language.

There are three subcategories in the indirect strategy group: metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

Metacognitive strategies. This strategy group (see Table 5) enables learners to control their cognitive processes. Metacognition can be defined as "beyond cognition" a means through which learners can arrange their

learning (Oxford, 1990). Three sets of strategies are included in the metacognitive strategy group (see Table 5).

Table 5

Metacognitive Strategies

<u>Centering your learning</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overviewing and linking with already known material Paying attention Delaying speech production
<u>Arranging and Planning your learning</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Finding about language learning Organizing Setting goals and objectives Identifying the purpose of a language task Planning for a language task Seeking practice opportunities
<u>Evaluating language learning</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-monitoring Self-evaluating

Note. From Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know (p. 59) by R. Oxford, 1990, New York: Newbury House

The acronym for the metacognitive strategy group is CAPE, so metacognitive strategies make learners more "CAPE-able" (Oxford, 1990, p. 136).

Examples for this strategy group include learners identifying their own goals and delaying speaking, as in the Natural Approach: students listen first, get the necessary input, and when they are ready, start producing (Oxford, 1990).

Affective strategies. This strategy group is related with learners' feelings, emotions, and attitudes and help learners to deal with these affective factors (see Table 6).

Table 6

Affective Strategies

Lowering your anxiety

Using progressive relaxation
 deep breathing or mediation
 Using music
 Using laughter

Encouraging yourself

Making positive statements
 Taking risks wisely
 Rewarding yourself

Taking your emotional temperature

Listening to your body
 Using a check list
 Writing a language diary
 Discussing your feelings with someone else

Note. From Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know (p. 137) by R. Oxford, 1990, New York: Newbury House

Oxford (1990) used the acronym LET for affective strategies and added that "affective strategies help language learners LET their hair down" (p. 141). For example, the first set of affective strategies help learners to reduce their anxiety and make learning more enjoyable, and the second set of strategies are used by learners who

can encourage themselves instead of waiting for encouragement from other people (Oxford, 1990, p. 143)

Social strategies. The last strategy group in Oxford's (1990) taxonomy is social strategies which involve interaction with other people and understanding the target language culture. Social strategies include three sets of strategies (see Table 7).

Table 7

Social Strategies

<u>Asking questions</u>	Asking for clarification or verification Asking for correction
<u>Cooperating with others</u>	Cooperating with other peers Cooperating with proficient users of the new language
<u>Empathizing with others</u>	Developing cultural understanding Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

Note. From Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know (p. 145) by R. Oxford, 1990, New York: Newbury House

The acronym for social strategies is ACE because, "ACE language learners use social strategies" (Oxford, 1989, p. 144). An example for social strategy group is working with peers such as in group work or pair work.

Oxford's (1990) taxonomy is somewhat more detailed than O'Malley et al. (1985) classification. For example, O'Malley et al. (1985) has only three categories whereas Oxford (1990) has included six categories. O'Malley et al. (1985) place imagery, auditory representation, key word, elaboration and transfer strategies into the cognitive strategy group; however, Oxford includes these strategies into memory group strategies.

Recent Studies in ESL Settings

As Oxford (1990) stated, "Language learning strategies are behaviors or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed, and enjoyable" (p. 235). For this reason many researchers have made attempts to discover what these learning strategies are, whereas other researchers have looked at the relationship between strategy use and other factors that might be related to learning strategy choices, such as age, gender, and career orientation. Others have looked at the relationship between learning strategy use and language success.

In an early theoretical paper, Rubin (1975) first tried to identify the strategies of good language learners. According to her, good language learners are willing and accurate guessers who are enthusiastic to communicate by taking risks. Although good learners are motivated to

communicate, they also give importance to form and accuracy. Besides these characteristics, good language learners like practicing the target language and monitoring their own or others speech. Good language learners also create their own opportunities to communicate (Rubin, 1975).

In 1985, Politzer and McGroarty prepared a questionnaire to assess students' presumed "good learning behaviors" (p. 84) as identified by Rubin (1975). The questionnaire had 51 items which consisted of three parts: a scale on classroom behaviors, individual study, and interaction with other students outside the class.

Participants in this study were 37 students preparing for graduate study in the United States in an eight-week intensive English course. Five female and 32 male students whose ages ranged from 23 to 47, took part in this study. The students were either Hispanic or Asian from two departments: engineering/physical science or social sciences/humanities.

The researchers gave three pre- and post-tests to determine students' linguistic competence, auditory comprehension, overall proficiency, and communicative competence. They also used a questionnaire to obtain students' learning strategy choices. The questionnaire was given to the students and then the researchers correlated the questionnaire results with students' test results.

Politzer and McGroarty (1985) claimed that there was a relationship between good learning behaviors and ethnicity. Overall Hispanics had better "good learning behaviors" than Asians. However, they found that Asian students were better than Hispanic students in linguistic and communicative competence, even though they were not successful in "good learning behaviors." Hispanic students were better than Asians in oral proficiency and auditory comprehension.

The data also revealed that there was a relationship between students' learning strategy choice and "professional specialization" (Politzer & McGroarty, 1985, p. 119), that is students' departments. They also found a relationship between gender and strategy choice and concluded that female learners preferred social strategies more than male learners did.

O'Malley et al. (1985) studied the learning strategies of ESL learners at three high schools in the United States. There were 22 teachers and 70 students at two levels of English proficiency: beginner and intermediate. Except for five Vietnamese students, all the students were from Spanish-speaking countries.

Data were collected through student and teacher interviews, and classroom observations. The study (O'Malley et al., 1985) showed that all the students in this study used cognitive strategies more than other strategies (53% of

the strategy use). Metacognitive and social-affective strategies were used 30% and 17%, respectively.

The study also revealed differences in strategy choices between two levels of students in metacognitive strategy use. Intermediate-level students chose (a) self-management, which means learners' arranging the conditions which are helpful in learning, (b) advance preparation, which means planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary for language learning, and (c) self-monitoring strategies which means students' looking for their errors in the target language. On the other hand, beginning level students preferred (a) selective attention, which means paying attention and being selective of language input and situational details, (b) delayed production, that is, listening first and postponing speaking consciously (O'Malley et al., 1985).

O'Malley et al. (1985) also found that different kinds of language activities needed greater strategy use than others; for example, students used more strategies in vocabulary learning and oral drills, whereas they used fewer strategies in oral presentation.

Padron and Waxman (1988) studied the relationship between cognitive strategies and reading achievement. Participants were 82 Hispanic ESL students in the third, fourth, and fifth grades of a public elementary school in a

small town in the United States. The researchers administered the Stanford diagnostic test at the beginning of the study in January and at the end of the study in April, and they distributed a Reading Strategy Questionnaire which they developed to inquire the learning strategy choices of students. Seven positive and seven negative strategies were included in the questionnaire (see Table 8).

Table 8

Learning Strategies Used By Padron and Waxman (1988)

<u>Positive Strategy</u>	<u>Negative Strategy</u>
Summarizing	Thinking about something
Underlining	Writing every word
Self-generated questions	Skipping
Checking for remembering	Fast-reading
Asking questions for clarification.	Repeating every word
Note-taking	Using dictionary
Imagining in mind	Repeating main idea

The students reported that asking questions for clarification, checking for remembering, imagining in mind, and using dictionary were the most popular strategies, whereas fast reading, thinking about something while reading, skipping some parts that were not understood, and writing down every word were the least favored strategies.

Padron and Waxman (1988) used multiple regression to examine which reading strategies significantly predicted students' post-test achievement. The results showed two of

the negative strategies, which were thinking about something else and saying the main idea over and over, correlated significantly but negatively with the reading comprehension of students, and that these strategies were amongst the lowest strategies in frequency of use.

Padron and Waxman's (1989) findings revealed that whereas negative strategies might affect reading comprehension of ESL students, positive strategies were not necessarily associated with reading comprehension.

Abraham and Vann (1990) did research on the strategies of two levels of 15 ESL students in the Iowa State University Intensive English Program: lower- and upper-proficiency level. The researchers gave the Michigan English Proficiency Test every week and the Test of English as Foreign Language (TOEFL) test at the end of the research and ranked the students according to their average progress with these tests. Students also completed four language tasks consisting of an interview, a verb exercise, a cloze passage, and writing composition.

First, Abraham and Vann (1990) trained students in the think-aloud procedure, and then students were asked to do the tasks using the think-aloud procedure. All the sessions were audiotaped, transcribed, and later analyzed. Data were also collected through interviews with the teachers and students, and, finally, through observations.

The results of the study (Abraham & Vann, 1990) were somewhat surprising because both groups used nearly the same strategies, in contrast to the general belief that low-proficiency-level students are inactive strategy users (Rubin, 1975). However, the lower group did sometimes use strategies inappropriately, whereas the higher group did not. Abraham and Vann (1990) concluded that low-proficiency-level students had the same repertoire of strategies, but they failed at times to use them appropriately.

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) investigated the learning strategies of 1,200 university foreign language students using Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL) and a background questionnaire. The SILL that they used was early version which included 121 items. The researchers asked the students to report their frequencies of strategy use through a five-point scale.

Students in the study (Oxford, & Nyikos, 1989) were mostly undergraduate native English-speakers studying French, Spanish, German, Russian, and Italian. They were between the ages of 17 and 23 and were from three different major fields: Fifty percent of them were from technical fields such as engineering, computer science; 35% were from the social sciences, and 15% from business and other fields.

After analyzing the SILL and the background questionnaire, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found out that students mostly used the strategies in the following order of frequency.

1. Formal rule-related practice strategies which are related with grammar, such as "using structural knowledge, analyzing words (p. 293)."
2. General study strategies such as studying very hard, disregarding distractions.
3. Conversational input elicitation strategies, for example asking others for pronunciation, requesting for slower speech.
4. Resourceful independent strategies such as preparing vocabulary lists.
5. Functional practice strategies such as searching for opportunities to talk with native speakers, watching language films.

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) concluded that formal rule-related practice strategies were the most popular due to the traditional learning instructions in a class where the most important thing is getting good grades. The data from the background questionnaire revealed that the following factors were found to be related to strategy choice: "sex, major, years of study, course status (elective, required), motivation" (p. 294).

The study (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989) showed that students' motivation had a significant influence on the use of language learning strategies. Motivated students used more strategies than other students. Females in the study reported significantly more frequent input elicitation strategies which reflected their greater use of social interaction. The females also reported significantly more frequent use of general study strategies and formal rule-related practice strategies than men. This can be explained by women's desire to have better grades and to be approved by others (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Social science students used resourceful, independent strategies more than students' from other departments; moreover, they used functional practice strategies more than students from technical departments, but not more than students from business departments

Ehrman and Oxford (1989) tried to find out the factors that could relate to learning strategy choices of 78 adults in an ESL setting. The participants in the study were from three career groups: (a) military officers, foreign service officers, and their spouses who formed the students in the program; (b) supervisors who were trained in linguistics, and (c) native-speaking foreign language instructors of the students in the study.

The variables in the study (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989) were sex, career orientation, cognitive style, and personality of learners, as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Results of Ehrman and Oxford's study indicated that females had used general study strategies and functional practice strategies more frequently than male learners. Professional linguists who were the supervisors in the program reported a wider range of strategies than other career groups, including students and instructors, in the study. The researcher concluded that "sex and occupation have a real affect on level of use of learning strategies" (p. 11).

Research in EFL Settings

Some researchers have also investigated learning strategies and tried to categorize them in EFL settings. Karahan (1991) investigated learning strategies of EFL students in Turkey. She gave a questionnaire to 60 beginning- and intermediate-level students. From the population, 13 students from each level were chosen to be interviewed. The researcher used O'Malley et al's (1985) Student Interview Guide to elicit students' learning strategy choices that they used for specific tasks. The tasks were pronunciation, oral grammar drills, vocabulary learning, following directions, social communication,

operational communication, two levels of listening comprehension, and presenting an oral presentation.

Results of the study (Karahana, 1991) showed that intermediate level students use metacognitive strategies more frequently than beginner level students; however both levels used cognitive strategies more than metacognitive ones.

Sezer (1992) did a study to find out learning strategies of bilingual and monolingual students. Students were male EFL learners between 18 and 20 years of age. Research was conducted at the Turkish Military Academy, Ankara, Turkey.

All the subjects in Sezer's (1992) study were chosen according to their grades in the previous year in high schools as successful students. Students were in two groups: bilingual and monolingual. Students from the bilingual group had finished an immersion program either in French or German.

Sezer used Oxford's (1990) SILL Version 7.0 to analyze students' strategy choice in terms of frequency of strategy use and through think-aloud protocols during a test using artificial language learning which Sezer adapted from Brown (cited in Sezer, 1992).

The artificial language task consisted of vocabulary and grammar rules which were illustrated through example

sentences. After teaching these vocabulary and example sentences, the researcher gave subjects an achievement test to assess learners' proficiency in that artificial language. During the achievement test the students were asked to use a think-aloud procedure. Students were audiotaped during the think-loud procedure.

Sezer (1992) found out that although bilinguals appeared to use more cognitive strategies than monolinguals, the difference was not statistically significant. However, the bilinguals did significantly better than the monolinguals on the artificial task given by the researcher.

Cavusoglu (1992) studied the relationship between learning strategy choice and language proficiency of EFL learners from two levels of English: 130 upper-intermediate level of students from a high school, and 45 advanced students from a university. She used Oxford's (1990) SILL Version 7.0 and the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP). The researcher found out that advanced students used more strategies than upper-intermediate students. For upper-intermediate level students there was only one significant relationship between metacognitive strategy use and the vocabulary part of MTELP, at $p < .01$ ($r = .23$). On the other hand compensation strategy was negatively correlated with proficiency in MTELP, grammar and vocabulary parts of the MTELP. The correlation coefficients

were $-.397$, $-.337$, and $-.378$ respectively. Cavusoglu (1992) added that memory strategies were also negatively correlated with reading part of MTELP ($r=-.437$). Cavusoglu (1992) concluded that correlations were actually too low to be able to indicate either a negative or positive relationship between the variables.

Ozseven (1993) investigated the relationship between learning strategies of 62 Turkish EFL graduate science students using Oxford's (1990) SILL Version 7.0 and their scores on an oral performance test. Students were interviewed for the assessment of their oral performance using the John Test which was developed by ESL teachers at the University of New York. As a final step, students' learning strategy frequencies and their oral performance scores were correlated using simple linear regression.

Ozseven (1993) had hypothesized that among EFL learners those who applied more strategies to their learning would have higher oral performances than those learners apply fewer strategies; however there was no direct correlation between amount of strategy use and oral performance. He added that the students used compensation, metacognitive, and social strategies more frequently than other strategies.

The second hypothesis of the study (Ozseven, 1993) was that students who had more direct strategies, which include memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies, would have

higher oral performance. The results partially supported that hypothesis. Cognitive and compensation strategies were directly related with oral performance, whereas memory strategies had no relationship with oral performance (Ozseven, 1993).

Although there have been studies in ESL settings that showed the relationship between learning strategy choice and students' departments (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985), there have been no studies conducted in an EFL setting on the relationships between students' departments, gender, educational background, and learning strategy choice. Nor have there been any studies investigating the relationship between learning strategies and language classroom academic success. If students' background factors, which are students' departments, gender and educational background, relate to learning strategy choice and, in turn, their language classroom academic success, then instructions in class, materials, and even methods can be adapted to make students more successful strategy users and self-directed learners.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This present study investigated the learning strategies of 70 upper-intermediate undergraduate EFL students at Cukurova University Foreign Language Teaching Center (YADIM). This center is a preparation program which offers one-year English courses for graduate and undergraduate students of Cukurova University to prepare them for their future academic studies in their departments and in their future lives.

The researcher was mainly interested in finding out the relationship between learning strategy choices of students and their academic success. She was also interested in finding out the relationship among students' departments, gender, educational background, and learning strategies.

Students' department was chosen as a variable, because some research conducted in ESL settings has shown that students' career choice or "orientation" (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989, p. 236) and departments of students had a relationship to their learning strategy choice in that students from different departments have been shown to use different strategies (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985).

Gender was selected as a variable because recent studies in ESL setting has shown that females used different and more strategies than males (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985). Educational background was included because it was believed that previous English language experiences might affect strategy choice.

Subjects

This study was conducted at Cukurova University. Seventy upper-intermediate level students at YADIM participated in this study. The students were between 18 and 30 years of age.

Of the 70 students, 8 students had graduated from private schools and 3 from Anatolian schools. Both of these schools offer a one-year English preparation program after primary school; therefore, students have to attend these schools for 7 years (a one-year prep program, three years of middle school, and three years of high school). Students at these schools have more than 10 hours a week of English lessons and some content courses such as mathematics and science are also given in English.

The rest of the population graduated from either state (52 students) or vocational high schools (7 students). Both of these schools have English lessons less than 4-6 hours a week and students have no prep program as in private and Anatolian schools.

The participants in the study were from three faculties (departments): 12 students from the Science and Letters Faculty, 27 students from the Engineering Faculty, and 31 students from the Social Sciences Faculty (see Table 9).

Table 9

Number of Students from Each Faculty

Engineering <u>n</u> = 27	Social Sciences <u>n</u> = 31	Science and Letters <u>n</u> = 12
F 3	F 9	F 3
M 24	M 22	M 9

Note. F= Female, M= Male.

In total, 15 female and 55 male students participated in this study.

Instruments

The researcher used two instruments in the study. One was Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0 (see Appendix A) and the other was students' achievement test.

Learning Strategy Inventory

Oxford's SILL was selected to analyze learning strategies of the learners because research has shown that this inventory gives reliable and valid results both in ESL and EFL contexts (Oxford, 1990; Ozseven, 1993; Sezer, 1992).

The SILL has three versions: The first one is the earliest version used by Ehrman and Oxford (1989) and Oxford and Nyikos (1989). The earliest version of SILL consisted of 121 items in different strategy groups from the later versions. The second version of the SILL is Version 5.1, which is for native English speakers learning other languages. This version includes 80 items assessing the frequency of strategy use. The third version of the SILL is Version 7.0, which is for students of English as a second language or foreign language. This version contains 50 items. The only difference between Version 5.1 and 7.0 is the language use and the number of items. Version 7.0 is a simplified version of Version 5.1; however, all the strategy categories are the same in both versions.

The researcher used Oxford's (1990) SILL Version 7.0 because this inventory includes various groups such as memory or compensation that are not included in inventories of other researchers; also Oxford's (1990) SILL is more detailed than others. The categories in the SILL Version 7.0 includes Oxford's (1990) categories discussed in the literature review.

This SILL consists of 50 statements, related to six kinds of learning strategies: memory (Part A), cognitive (Part B), compensation (Part C), metacognitive (Part D),

affective (Part E), and social strategies (Part F). The first three categories comprise direct strategies and the others include indirect strategies.

The participants reported their strategy use by means of a five-point Likert scale using responses ranging from "never true of me" (1) to "always true of me" (5).

The SILL was translated into Turkish by the researcher to prevent students' misunderstanding (see Appendix B). After it had been translated, it was independently backtranslated by a bilingual English instructor. The researcher, in collaboration with this instructor, made some changes either in form or in the choice of words after the backtranslation procedure. For example, the researcher and the instructor agreed upon using "uyak" instead of "kafiye" both of which mean rhyme, because they believed that the former word is more common than the latter.

The answer sheet for the questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part was for background information which included students' name, surname, age, gender, departments, and information about their educational background. The second part included an answer sheet for the SILL which was helpful for the researcher to see the learning strategy scores of the students on one page (see Appendix C).

Language Achievement Test

Academic success was operationalized as scores on an English achievement test which was administered by the Testing Office in April to assess the students' progress. The test was prepared according to the objectives of the curriculum of the institution. This test consisted of six sections: Listening and note-taking, reading, writing, grammar, and translation comprised the written section, and speaking comprised the sixth section. In the first section, listening and note-taking, students listened to a tape, took notes and then wrote a summary. The reading section consisted of a reading passage with comprehension questions and guessing words from the context. In the writing section, students wrote an essay about the given topic. In the grammar section, students paraphrased the given sentences. In the translation section, students translated a passage from English to Turkish. For the sixth section of the test, students' speaking grades were given by the listening and speaking teachers using certain criteria to assess students' classroom performance and participation. The highest possible score for each part of the test was 15 except for the reading and speaking sections. For each of these sections, the highest possible scores were 20. Students overall results consisted of the sum of five

sections and speaking scores. The highest possible score on the test was 100.

Procedure

Before starting data collection, the researcher received the necessary permission from the institution and pilot-tested the questionnaire with a representative sample of students from the upper-intermediate level. Ten students were selected randomly by the administrator of YADIM. Of these only two were female. The students in the pilot testing were from various departments and they were not included as participants of this study.

After pilot-testing, the researcher made some corrections according to written feedback on the pilot testing evaluation form.

After making these corrections, such as adding class numbers of the students on the background information sheet, the researcher went into the individual classes and talked about her research with the students, distributing the consent forms to the students. Seventy students signed and participated in the study. No one present in the classes refused to participate.

Immediately after, as a second step, the students were given the questionnaire during their class period by the researcher. The researcher was in the class in case of need. After they had filled out the background information

sheet, they completed the questionnaire. It took approximately 20 minutes for students to complete the questionnaire.

The researcher had planned to give the questionnaire to all upper-intermediate level students. However, data collection week of the researcher coincided with the exam week of the students; thus, there were not as many students available as expected. The researcher was able to give the questionnaire to only 63% of the total number of students.

The students took their achievement exam in their usual way during class time with two teachers monitoring them. After all the exam papers were graded twice by independent teachers, the researcher obtained the scores from the administration.

Data Analysis

Students learning strategy choices, students' departments, educational background, gender, and their achievement results were mainly analyzed using correlational analyses.

Chapter 4 RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Overview of the Study

This study was designed to identify the learning strategies of upper-intermediate undergraduate students at Cukurova University YADIM and to find out the relationship between learning strategy choice and academic success. The researcher was also interested in investigating the relationship between the background variables of departments, educational background, and gender, and strategy choice. The students who participated in the study were from three different faculties (departments): Engineering, Science and Letters, and Social Sciences.

In total, 15 female, and 55 male students participated in this study. Of the 70 students, 8 finished private high schools, 4 were from Anatolian schools, 52 were from state schools, and 6 were from vocational colleges.

The researcher used Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0 to analyze the learning strategy choices of students. Oxford (1990) divides learning strategies in two categories, direct and indirect strategies, and each category consists of three subcategories. This inventory consists of 50 statements related to six strategy groups: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social.

The students reported their strategy use on an answer sheet provided by the researcher. They read each item in the inventory and assessed themselves on how often they use this strategy, using a five-point Likert scale with responses ranging from "never true of me " (1) to "always true of me" (5). Language classroom academic success was operationalized by scores on an achievement test prepared by YADIM.

When all the data had been collected, the students' total strategy score was calculated by adding all the scores of students' statements and dividing them by 50. Then the scores for each of the six strategy groups for each student were added and that number was divided by the number of items in each strategy group to determine his or her strategy use in each category. For example, for the memory strategy group, which is the first in the inventory, each student's total score for memory strategies was divided by 9 because there were 9 items in that group. A student's strategy choice was determined the one strategy choice category in which he or she received the highest average.

Achievement test scores were calculated by adding the scores of the different sections of the test. Scores ranged from 37 to 90 out of a possible score 100 with an average of 66.53 (see table 10).

Table 10

Students' Frequency Scores on Language Achievement Test

Grade	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
30-40	2	2.95
41-50	2	2.95
51-60	15	21.35
61-70	24	34.23
71-80	20	28.51
81-90	7	9.96
Total	<u>N= 70</u>	100.00

As it can be seen from the table there were more students who had grades between 61 and 70 (34.23% of the whole population) than in any other grade range.

The researcher then coded data from the questionnaire on background factors. For the gender of the students, the male students were coded 0 and female students 1. For the students departments, the students from science and letters faculty were coded 0, students from social sciences were coded 1, and the engineering students were coded 2. The researcher analyzed students' educational background groups. Students who had graduated from state schools where they had had English lessons 4-6 hours a week were coded as 0, and students from private schools or Anatolian schools, who had English lessons 10-14 hours a week, were coded as 1. Next

the data was entered into a computer statistical program. Then Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to find out the relationship among students' departments, gender, and educational background and their strategy choice as well as between the six categories of strategy choice and language classroom academic success. The researcher then used multiple regression to find out if certain strategies predict academic success.

Results of Data Analysis

Learning Strategy Choice of Students

The data obtained through Oxford's (1990) SILL Version 7.0 revealed that the learning strategy choice of students were varied (see Table 11). Table 11 illustrates the frequency and percentages for students' preferred (i.e., most frequently used) strategy choice.

Compensation strategies were the most frequently used strategies for the largest percentage of students (47.1%). The second largest percentage of students (27.1%) reported that they used metacognitive strategies more frequently than other strategies. Relatively small percentage of students indicated that their most frequently used strategies were cognitive (8.6%), social (8.6%), affective (5.71%), and memory strategies (2.9%).

Table 11

Students' Frequencies of Learning Strategy ChoicesN=70

Strategy	f	%
Direct		
Memory	2	2.9
Cognitive	6	8.6
Compensation	33	47.1
Subtotal of Direct	41	57.6
Indirect		
Metacognitive	19	27.1
Affective	4	5.7
Social	6	8.6
Subtotal of Indirect	29	42.4
Total	70	100

The data revealed that most favored strategy group was compensation strategies for almost half (47.1%) of the students. This suggests that these students use their prior knowledge and linguistic clues in strategies such as guessing, and use synonyms or circumlocutions when they are faced with difficulties in speaking or writing. Compensation strategies are used due to a lack of knowledge especially in grammar or vocabulary. Although students are mainly graduated from schools which offer traditional instruction,

which focuses on memorization and form and accuracy, they nevertheless appear eager to overcome their difficulties with the language by using compensation strategies, which do not focus on memorization, form, or accuracy.

Metacognitive strategies were the most frequently reported strategy choice by about one quarter (27.1%) of the students. These strategies include organization and evaluation of learning

An interesting finding in the study is that few students (8.6%) select social strategies as their most preferred strategy group. Social strategy choice includes working with peers, asking for clarification or verification, and becoming aware of others thoughts and feelings. Although nearly all the teachers at YADIM use a communicative approach and try to emphasize group work and collaborative learning, few students appear to prefer strategies such as working with peers.

The data showed that the fewest students (2.9%) used memory strategies most frequently. This may be due to their level, because according to Oxford (1990), beginning level students use memory strategies more than other levels.

Factors Related to Learning Strategy Choice

The researcher used Pearson Product Moment Correlation to correlate each strategy use score and total strategy use score with the background factors, which were the students'

departments, gender and educational background (see Table 12).

Table 12

Relationships among Students' Gender, Departments, and Educational Background and Learning Strategy Choices

Variable	Gender	Depart.	Educ.Bkgrd
Memory	.05	.02	-.09
Cognitive	.08	.06	-.17
Compensation	.31*	-.00	-.08
Metacognitive	.15	.06	-.10
Affective	.22	.01	-.11
Social	.16	.11	-.00
Total Strategy	-.17	.29	.13

* $p < .05$

Note. Depart. = Departments; Educ.Bkgrd = Educational background.

It was expected that there would be some relationships between strategy use and students' departments, as revealed in earlier studies in ESL contexts (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985). However the researcher did not find a significant relation between students' departments and learning strategy choice or total strategy use.

This present study revealed that gender was related to one learning strategy (see Table 12), namely compensation ($r=.31$, $p<.05$). When comparing the means of female (3.91) and male students' (3.33) compensation strategy scores, the

researcher found out that female students used this strategy more than males.

Research in ESL context have shown a relationship between learning strategy choice and gender. For example, female students were found to use affective strategies more than male students (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989).

There was no significant relationship between students' educational background and language learning strategy choice and total strategy use either (see Table 12).

In the second phase of this study, first, correlations of each strategy choice and total strategy use with academic success was calculated to find out if there was a relationship between strategy choice or total strategy use and academic success (see Table 13).

Table 13

Relationship between Learning Strategy Choice and Academic Success

	M	C	CM	MC	A	S	T	A.S
M	1.00							
C	.70*	1.00						
CM	.48*	.61*	1.00					
MC	.58*	.60*	.47*	1.00				
A	.58*	.53*	.49*	.60*	1.00			
S	.48*	.63*	.43*	.65*	.56*	1.00		
T	.79*	.84*	.74*	.83*	.78*	.79*	1.00	
AS	.00	.09	.10	-.20	.03	-.09	-.02	1.00

*p < .05

Note. M = Memory; C = Cognitive; CM = Compensation; MC = Metacognitive; A = Affective; S = Social; T = Total Strategy Score; AS = Academic Success.

Although strategies were significantly correlated with each other, no significant relationships were found between learning strategy choices or total strategy use and students' language class academic success.

The researcher then used multiple regression to see which learning strategy choices might best predict academic success (see Table 14).

Table 14

Multiple Regression: Learning Strategies as Predictors of Academic Success.

<u>N=70</u>			
Variable	Beta	t	p level
Metacognitive	-.420*	-2.39*	.019*
Social	-.129	-.74	.456
Memory	-.058	-.326	.745
Compensation	.109	.712	.478
Affective	.182	1.108	.271
cognitive	.298	1.478	.144
Multiple r :	.371		
Multiple r^2 :	.13		

* $p < .05$

The variables entered into multiple regression formula accounted for only 13% of the variance in academic success, and the only significant predictor was metacognitive strategy use ($p < .05$). However, it was a negative predictor. This means that the fewer the metacognitive strategies the students used, the more successful they were in the language achievement exam. This is consistent with the correlational findings. Although the correlation between metacognitive

strategy choice and academic success ($r = -.20$) was not significant, it was the largest correlation between any strategy group and academic success.



CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Overview of the Study

This present study investigated the relationship between learning strategy choice or total strategy use and language classroom academic success, and the factors that might be related to learning strategy choices of students, specifically students' departments, gender, and educational background.

The study was conducted at Cukurova University YADIM. The participants were 70 Turkish EFL students at the upper-intermediate level of English proficiency. All the students were undergraduate students from three different faculties: Engineering, Science and Letters, and Social Sciences.

The researcher used Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0 to find out the students' learning strategy choices and total strategy use, and scores from an achievement test prepared by the testing office at YADIM to determine their degrees of language classroom academic success.

Summary of Findings and Discussion

With regard to the first research question, that is, students' choices of learning strategies, the researcher discovered that more students (47.1%) preferred compensation strategies more than any other strategy. Compensation

strategies are those which enable learners to learn and use a new language in spite of their gaps in their knowledge of grammar or vocabulary of that language. Compensation strategy consists of two subgroups, guessing intelligently and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. This shows that the largest number of students at YADIM most often try to overcome their difficulties by using compensation strategies such as contextual cues or code switching in order to continue authentic communication. This result was interesting because students three most frequently used strategies were the same as in Ozseven's (1993) study.

With regards to the second research question concerning factors that might be related to the learning strategy choices of students, the results of the correlational analysis showed a significant relationship between gender and compensation. The researcher compared the means and found that female students used this strategy group more than male students. It appears that female students use this strategy group more frequently than male students due to their desire to continue their communication in spite of their gaps in knowledge; that is, female students may use this strategy more than male learners, because the females like speaking and they know to use these strategies to make themselves accepted by society (Oxford, 1990). That the

female students in this study used compensation strategies more than male students supports the findings of Politzer and McGroarty (1985) and Oxford and Nyikos (1989) in that both of the studies revealed that female learners use some strategies more than male learners.

Although some research in ESL setting has revealed the relation between students' career orientation, in other words, departments, (Oxford & Nyikos; 1989; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985), the researcher did not find a significant relationship between students' departments and students' learning strategy choices.

The researcher assumed there would be a relationship between students' educational background and language learning strategy choices and total strategy scores because Oxford (1990) stated that students from similar backgrounds use nearly the same strategies. However, the results showed that there was no significant relationship between students' educational background and their learning strategy choices and total strategy use. Although students from Anatolian or private high school students have been exposed to the target language more than other students and they were assumed to know how to use more "tricks" to learn the target language, the results showed that students' educational background is not related to their language learning strategy choices and total strategy use.

The third research question concerned the relationships between learning strategy choice and language classroom academic success. Although there were no significant correlations between any strategy choice or total strategy use and academic success, when the six strategy choices were entered into a multiple regression formula, one strategy choice, the metacognitive group, turned out to be a significant predictor of academic success. However, it turned out to be a negative predictor. If there is a negative relationship between metacognitive strategy choice and academic success, then the more metacognitive strategies students use, the less successful they will be. Altogether the six strategy choices accounted for only 13% of the variance on the test scores. The findings are rather distinctive when we think about students' learning strategy choices. Among the six strategy groups most students preferred compensation strategies (47.1%). The second largest number (27.1%) preferred metacognitive strategies. That is the most frequently used strategy did not predict language classroom academic success, and the second most frequently used strategies, metacognitive strategies, negatively predicted it. This finding that metacognitive strategy choice negatively predicts academic success is contradictory to the finding in Cavusoglu's (1992) study that metacognitive strategies were positively related to

students' scores on the vocabulary part of the MTELP. The reason for this contradiction may be that Cavusoglu (1992) used a standardized test, but the researcher used an achievement test prepared by testing office. The MTELP is a standardized test of English language proficiency, which is different from what an language classroom test measures, that is, classroom academic success.

Educational Implications of the Study

This study investigated possible relationships between students' departments, gender, educational background and language learning strategies which may, in turn, predict academic success, because the researcher believed that learning strategies are effective for learning a second language considering that many researchers all over the world have supported them (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford, 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987).

However, it is difficult to draw any educational implications from the results of this study. Although theorists and many researchers believe language learning strategies facilitate language learning, they may not related to language classroom success as measured by schools themselves.

Limitations of the Study

The researcher used Oxford's (1990) SILL Version 7.0 to analyze students' total learning strategy use and strategy choice, but it might have been better if the researcher had collected data from other sources such as observations and interviews with teachers because students may have the repertoire but they may not be aware of the power and report it (Abraham & Vann, 1990).

This study failed to find a relationship between learning strategies and educational background. The reason for this might be small number of students with private school backgrounds.

Probably the most serious limitations of the study was the use of one achievement test to measure academic success. This test may not have been very reliable. If it had been possible to average achievement test scores given over time, the results might have been different.

Implications for Future Research

This present study was related with intermediate level university students' language classroom academic success. Further research with different levels of students and different data techniques may result in different findings especially if more multiple achievement test scores are available.

A study on learning strategy choice or use and participation in the classroom could widen the perspectives of the literature.

Experimental studies can be done in which students are trained on various strategies and their effects on various aspects of language learning can be measured.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX AOxford's Questionnaire (English)

People learn in many different ways by using different strategies. This questionnaire has been designed to help you in identifying your learning strategies.

Read each statement and without thinking too much respond the statement.

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

Part A

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so that I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.
4. I remember the sound of a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.

1. Never or almost never true of me
 2. Usually not true of me
 3. Somewhat true of me
 4. Usually true of me
 5. Always or almost always true of me
- 6.I use flashcards to remember new English words.
- 7.I physically act out new English words.
- 8.I review English lessons often.
- 9.I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board or on a street sign.

Part B

- 10.I say or write new English words several times.
- 11.I try to talk like native English speakers.
- 12.I practice the sounds of English.
- 13.I use the English words I know in different ways.
- 14.I start conversations in English.
- 15.I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
- 16.I read for pleasure in English.
- 17.I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
- 18.I first skim an English passage(read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.

20. I try to find patterns in English.

21. I find the meanings of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand

22. I try not to translate word-for word.

23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

Part C

24. To understand unfamiliar English words I make guesses.

25. When I can not think of a word during a conversation in English I use gestures.

26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.

27. I read English without looking up every new word.

28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.

29. If I can not think of an English word I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

Part D

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
38. I think about my progress in learning English.

Part E

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making mistakes.
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.

43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.

44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

Part F

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.

46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.

47. I practice English with other students.

48. I ask for help from English speakers.

49. I ask questions in English.

50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

APPENDIX BOxford's Questionnaire Turkish version

Aşağıdaki İngilizce öğrenme ile ilgili cümleleri okuduktan sonra size göre ne kadar doğru olduğunu aşağıda belirtilen rakamları kullanarak cevap kağıdına yazın.

1. Hicbirzaman
2. Nadiren
3. Bazen
4. Genellikle
5. Herzaman

Cümlelerin sizi ne kadar tanımladığını düşünerek cevap verin. Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur. Lütfen dürüst cevap verin.

PART A

1. İngilizcede daha önceden bildiklerimle yeni öğrendiklerim arasındaki ilişkiyi düşünürüm.
2. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlıyabilmek için bir cümlede kullanırım.
3. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce bir kelimenin telafuzunu, hatırlamama yardımcı olsun diye kelimenin imajı veya resmi ile birleştiririm.
4. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce bir kelimenin kullanılabileceği ortamı kafamda canlandırmaya çalışırım.

1. Hicbirzaman
2. Nadiren
3. Bazen
4. Genellikle
5. Herzaman

5.Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için kafiyeler kullanırım.

6.Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için küçük kartlar kullanırım.

7.Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri hareketlerle canlandırarak öğrenirim.

8.İngilizce derslerimi sık sık tekrar ederim.

9.Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri veya cümlecikleri sayfadaki, tahtadaki veya sokak işaretindeki yerlerinden hatırlarım.

PART B

10.Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri bir kaç kez söyler veya yazarım.

11.İngilizceyi, anadili İngilizce olanlar gibi konuşmaya çalışırım.

12.İngilizce seslerin pratiğini yaparım.

13.Bildiğim İngilizce kelimeleri değişik şekillerde kullanırım.

14.İngilizce konuşmaları başlatırım.

1. Hicbirzaman
 2. Nadiren
 3. Bazen
 4. Genellikle
 5. Herzaman
15. İngilizce TV showlarını seyrederim veya İngilizce seslendirilmiş filimlere giderim.
16. İngilizceyi zevk için okurum.
17. Notlarımı, mesajlarımı, mektuplarımı, veya raporlarımı İngilizce yazarım.
18. İngilizce bir pasajı önce hızlı bir şekilde gözden geçirir, sonra dikkatlice okurum.
19. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimelere benzer Türkçe kelimeler ararım.
20. Dil yapılarını İngilizcede bulmaya çalışırım.
21. İngilizce bir kelimenin anlamını o kelimeyi anlayabildiğim parçalara bölerek bulurum.
22. Kelime kelime çeviri yapmamaya çalışırım.
23. Dinlediğim veya okuduğum İngilizce bilginin özetini çıkarırım.

PART C

24. Bilmediğim yabancı İngilizce kelimeleri anlamak için tahminler yaparım.
25. Konuşurken bir kelime aklıma gelmezse el ve yüz hareketleri kullanırım.

1. Hicbirzaman
2. Nadiren
3. Bazen
4. Genellikle
5. Herzaman

26.Eğer doğru kelimeyi bilmiyorsam yeni kelimeler üretirim.

27.Her yeni kelimeye bakmadan İngilizce metinleri okurum.

28.Karşımdaki kişinin ne söyleyeceğini tahmin etmeye çalışırım.

29.Herhangi bir kelime aklıma gelmezse aynı anlama gelen bir kelime veya cümlecikler kullanırım.

PART D

30.İngilizcemi kullanabilmek için mümkün olduğunca fazla yollar bulmaya çalışırım.

31.İngilizce hatalarımı fark eder ve bu bilgiyi İngilizcemi geliştirmek için kullanırım.

32.Birisi İngilizce konuşurken ona dikkat ederim.

33.Nasıl daha iyi öğrenci olunur bulmaya çalışırım

34.İngilizce çalışabilmeye daha yeterli zaman ayırabilmek için programımı planlarım.

35.İngilizce konuşabileceğim insanları ararım.

36.Mümkün olduğu kadar çok İngilizce okuyabilmek için fırsatlar ararım.

1. Hicbirzaman
2. Nadiren
3. Bazen
4. Genellikle
5. Herzaman

37.İngilizce yeteneklerimi ilerletmek için kesin hedeflerim vardır.

38.İngilizce öğrenmedeki gelişmemi gözden geçiririm.

PART E

39.İngilizce kullanmaktan korktuğum zaman rahatlamaya çalışırım.

40.Hata yapmaktan korktuğum anlarda bile kendimi İngilizce konuşmak için cesaretlendiririm.

41.İngilizcede başarılı olduğum zaman kendimi ödüllendirir veya kendime birşey ısmarlarım.

42.İngilizce çalışırken veya kullanırken sinirli veya gergin olup olmadığımı fark ederim.

43.Hislerimi dil öğrenme günlüğüne yazarım

44.İngilizce öğrenirken nasıl hissettiğimi bir başkasına anlatırım.

PART F

45.Eğer İngilizce birşeyi anlamazsam diğer kişiye yavaşlamasını veya tekrarlamasını rica ederim.

46.İngilizce konuşanlardan konuşurken yaptığım hataları düzeltmesini rica ederim.

1. Hicbirc zaman
2. Nadiren
3. Bazen
4. Genellikle
5. Her zaman

47. Dięer öğrencilerle İngilizce pratik yaparım.

48. Anadili İngilizce olanlardan yardım isterim.

49. Sorularımı İngilizce sorarım.

50. İngiliz dili kültürünü öğrenmeye çalışırım.



APPENDIX C

Background Information SheetPART 1

Adınız/ soyadınız:

Cinsiyetiniz:

Doğum yeri/ yılınız:

Mezun olduğunuz okul ve yıl:

Bölümünüz:

Numaranız:



Aswer Sheet

Lütfen okuyacağınız cümlelerin cevaplarını (rakamla) belirtin

PART A	PART B	PART C	PART D	PART E	PART F
1....	10....	24....	30....	39....	45....
2....	11....	25....	31....	40....	46....
3....	12....	26....	32....	41....	47....
4....	13....	27....	33....	42....	48....
5....	14....	28....	34....	43....	49....
6....	15....	29....	35....	44....	50....
7....	16....		36....		
8....	17....		37....		
9....	18....		38....		
	19....				
	20....				
	21....				
	22....				
	23....				