THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS' FUTURE SECOND LANGUAGE (L2) SELF-GUIDES, LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION AND ACHIEVEMENT

YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENENLERDE GELECEĞE YÖNELİK YABANCI DİL BENLİKLERİ, DİL ÖĞRENME MOTİVASYONU VE BAŞARI İLİŞKİSİ

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This is to certify that we have read this thesis, entitled "*The Relationship between Foreign Language Learners' Future Second Language (L2) Self-guides, Language Learning Motivation, and Achievement*", and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the Degree of Master in the Program of English Language Teaching.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS' FUTURE SECOND LANGUAGE (L2) SELF-GUIDES, LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION AND ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to investigate the relationship among perceptual learning styles, vision, L2 self-guides, L2 motivation, and language learning achievement. To do this, the study pursued a quantitative survey methodology where a composite instrument that contained perceptual learning styles, future self-guides, imagery capacity, and motivated behavior and effort subscales was employed. The instrument was translated into Turkish, and both translation and back translation procedures were conducted to ensure the content validity of the instruments.

The study was conducted at Giresun University, a state university in the North of Turkey, with 343 participants. These participants were prep-class and 1st year students between the ages of 18 and 23. All of the participants -at the time of data collection- were A1 level students, as measured according to descriptors proposed in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001). The quantitative data were analyzed through SPSS Statistics 20.0. Parametric tests were employed as the data showed a normal distribution. Both descriptive statistics and inferential analysis including one-way repeated measures ANOVA, Pearson product-moment correlation, and multiple regression analysis were applied and conclusions were drawn.

The results indicated that the tertiary level EFL learners in the Turkish educational context had high levels of ideal and ought to L2 self-guides, strong vision and L2 learning motivation. They also mainly preferred visual and auditory learning styles which were the supporters of a stronger vision. Regression analyses revealed that while the best predictor of language learning achievement was L2 motivation, L2 motivation was highly predicted by L2 self-guides, ideal L2 self in the first place, and vision. Vision was also a significant predictor of ideal L2 self, thus taking its place in the center of the interplay between the variables.

This study concludes that the relationship between ideal L2 self and L2 achievement is not a direct one but through motivated behaviors stimulated by future L2 self guides and vision of students.

Key words: Perceptual learning styles, L2 self-guides, vision, L2 motivation, language learning achievement

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YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENENLERDE GELECEĞE YÖNELİK YABANCI DİL BENLİKLERİ, DİL ÖĞRENME MOTİVASYONU VE BAŞARI İLİŞKİSİ

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ÖZ

Bu araştırma, algısal öğrenme stilleri, görselleştirme becerisi, ikinci dil benlikleri, ikinci dil öğrenme motivasyonu ve dil öğrenme başarısı arasındaki ilişkileri incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaçla, araştırmada ölçek uygulamasına dayalı nicel yöntem kullanılmıştır. Algısal öğrenme stilleri, görselleştirme becerisi, geleceğe yönelik benlikler ve motive davranış ve çaba alt ölçeklerinden oluşan karma bir ölçek uygulanmıştır. Ölçek katılımcıların ana dili olan Türkçeye çevrilmiştir ve kapsam geçerliliğinde herhangi bir bozulma olmadığını garantilemek için çeviri-geri çeviri süreçleri takip edilmiştir.

Araştırma, Türkiye'nin kuzeyinde yer alan Giresun Üniversitesi'nde 343 katılımcıya uygulanmıştır. Bu katılımcı grubu 18-23 yaşları arasındaki hazırlık sınıfı ve birinci sınıf öğrencilerinden oluşmaktadır. Katılımcılar arasında yaklaşık olarak dengeli bir cinsiyet dağılımı gözlenmiştir. Ortak Avrupa Dil Referans Çerçevesi (CEFR, Council of Europe, 2001) seviye tanımlayıcılarına göre, uygulama döneminde katılımcılar A1 seviyesindedirler. Araştırmada elde edilen nicel veriler SPSS İstatistik 20.0 programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Veri dağılımı normal olduğu için parametrik testler tercih edilmiştir. Veri analizi için betimsel istatistik yöntemlerinin yanı sıra tek yönlü varyans analizi (ANOVA), Pearson momentler çarpımı korelasyonu ve çoklu regresyon analizlerini içeren çıkarımsal istatistik yöntemleri kullanılmıştır.

Bulgular, Türk eğitim sisteminde yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen üniversite öğrencilerinin yüksek ölçüde ideal yabancı dil benliği, sahip olunması beklenen yabancı dil benliği, görselleştirme becerisi ve ikinci dil öğrenme motivasyonuna sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin güçlü bir görselleştirme becerisinin de destekleyicisi olan görsel ve işitsel öğrenme stillerini daha fazla tercih ettikleri belirlenmiştir. Çoklu regresyon analizleri, dil öğrenme başarısının en temel yordayıcısı olarak dil öğrenme motivasyonunu gösterirken, dil öğrenme

motivasyonunun da yabancı dil benlikleri, özellikle de ideal ikinci dil benliği, ve görselleştirme becerisi tarafından öngörüldüğünü ortaya koymuştur. Görselleştirme becerisi, ideal ikinci dil benliğinin de temel yordayıcılarından birisi olarak bu ilişkiler ağının merkezinde yerini almıştır.

Sonuç olarak, ikinci dil öğrenme motivasyonu ve ideal ikinci dil benliği arasında direk bir ilişki gözlemlenirken; dil öğrenme başarısı ve ideal ikinci dil benliği arasında yabancı dil öğrenme motivasyonu, geleceğe yönelik dil benlikleri ve görselleştirme becerisi tarafından aracılık edilmiş dolaylı bir ilişki söz konusudur.

Anahtar sözcükler: Algısal öğrenme stilleri, ikinci dil benlikleri, görselleştirme becerisi, ikinci dil öğrenme motivasyonu, dil öğrenme başarısı

Danışman: Doç. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı

DECLARATION OF ETHICAL CONDUCT

I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing rules and conventions of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University, and I hereby declare that:

- All the information and documents have been obtained on the basis of academic rules,
- All audio-visual and written information and results have been presented according to the rules of scientific standards,
- In case of using other works, related studies have been cited in accordance with the scientific standards,
- All cited studies have been fully referenced,
- I did not do any distortion in the data set,
- And any part of this thesis has not been presented as any other thesis study at this or any other university.

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Aycan DEMİR AYAZ

To my beloved family,

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

1. INTRODUCTION

This study aims to investigate the interactions between 1) perceptual learning styles, 2) future L2 self-guides, 3) imagery capacity (vision), 4) L2 motivation and 5) language learning achievement of EFL learners in Turkey. The idea behind the present research has been motivated by relevant previous studies that will be described in detail in the background of the study section. Then, the statement of the problem, rationale for the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, and definitions of the key terms will be covered in this chapter.

1.1. Background of the Study

The relationship between perceptual learning styles, future self-guides, vision and L2 motivation has drawn much attention over the last decade, and since then, it has been the subject of many investigations (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2011;Kim & Kim, 2014; Yang & Kim, 2011). The previous research supports the existence of a relationship between perceptual learning styles, ideal L2 self, imagery capacity, L2 motivation, and L2 achievement in different contexts, and the current study grounds on these previous studies.

Firstly, Al-Shehri (2009), in a seminal and leading study, investigated the interaction of visual learning style, vision, ideal L2 self and motivated learning behavior of 200 Saudi learners of English. His hypothesis was that learners with visual preferences are better at creating a vivid vision of their ideal L2 self than the learners with less visual capabilities. The results of the study confirmed his hypothesis and revealed strong relationship among visual learning style, creation of a vivid vision of the ideal L2 self and motivated learning behavior.

Inspired by Al-Shehri's work in Saudi Arabia, Kim (2009) worked on the interactions among elementary school learners' perceptual learning styles, vision, ideal self and L2 motivation in a Korean context, and he expanded upon the previous research by adding auditory and kinesthetic learning style preferences as significant variables. Gender difference was also evaluated in that study. The results of this study also confirmed the relationship between visual learning style, imagery, ideal L2 self and L2 motivation. Positive correlation between auditory learning style and the other

variables was also found. However, kinesthetic learning style was negatively correlated with motivation. In terms of gender difference, girls reported to have more visual and auditory learning style preferences, while boys were more kinesthetic although, overall, visual learning style was the most preferred by all.

In 2011, Kim and Kim expanded even further upon the previous studies in 2009 by adding academic achievement in L2 as a new variable into that investigation. The study was conducted on 495 Korean high school students, and the results were in conformity with previous results. The participants reported to prefer visual learning style rather than auditory or kinesthetic. Kinesthetic learning style in fact had a detrimental impact on L2 motivation. It was also suggested that there was a positive correlation between L2 academic achievement and L2 motivation, but it was not possible to attribute high achievement level to motivated behavior directly.

Yang and Kim (2011) conducted yet another study which looked into the connections among perceptual learning styles, motivated L2 behavior, and ideal L2 self of Chinese, Japanese, Korean and Swedish high school students. It was indicated in this study that visual and auditory learning styles were positively correlated with ideal L2 self and L2 motivation. One interesting finding from this research was that although Swedish learners had higher ideal L2 self, Chinese learners were more motivated which can be explained by the role of the ought to self in Chinese context. It was also shown that perceptual learning styles did not directly affect motivation, but rather they were mediated by the ideal self.

Dörnyei and Chan (2013) also investigated the relationship among the ideal and ought to self-guides, visual and auditory learning styles and language learning achievement. Since kinesthetic learning style was shown not to have a positive effect on the future self-guides in previous research, they excluded it from their work. This study was conducted on 172 eight-grader learners of English and Mandarin in Hong Kong. The results were consistent with previous research that suggest a positive correlation between future L2 self-guides, vision, visual and auditory styles, motivated behavior and L2 achievement.

The last study was performed by Kim and Kim (2014) on 2682 Korean EFL students and it justified the relation among perceptual styles, future self-guides, imagery, motivated behavior and achievement. This study also proved that there was a

positive relation between visual and auditory learning styles and L2 motivation, while the situation was the opposite for kinesthetic learning. Visual learning has been confirmed to have the most significant effect on language learning success, while ideal L2 self and L2 motivation were the intervening variables.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The main problem of this study is to investigate the relations of EFL learners' perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, and L2 motivation to academic L2 achievement and finding out which one of these variables seems to be the best predictor of L2 academic achievement. Also, revealing the predictive ability of the variables in the study on L2 motivation and ideal L2 self will be explored.

Different from some previous studies in the field, this study will include not only the ideal L2 self, but also ought to and actual self-guides. It will try to see the position of ought to and actual self-guides in that relationship. Moreover, it will attempt to reveal any potential discrepancy between the EFL learners' ideal, ought to and actual L2 self-guides. The study will also strive to find out which perceptual learning style appears to be dominantly preferred by the participants as well as their level of vision.

1.3. Rationale for the Study

Considering the current literature in the area, it is clear that studying the relationship among perceptual learning styles, imagery, future self-guides, L2 motivation and achievement is a new idea which has a very short history. Although it has lately become popular among the L2 researchers, the relevant studies conducted so far have been limited to a small number of countries such as Saudi Arabia, Korea, China, Japan, and Sweden. On the other hand, it is quite possible for the learning style preferences, imagery and future selves to be context-bound and peculiar to the culture of the country. Although the studies described in the background section have all found that visual style is the most preferred one and although all have found a positive correlation between vision, ideal L2 self, and visual learning style preference (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2011; Kim & Kim, 2014; Yang & Kim, 2011), further evidence from different countries and contexts is still needed to either support or falsify the link among them. The absence of research performed on this relationship in Turkey is also notably intriguing. It is thus obvious

that there is a research gap on this issue both in Turkey and in the world on whole which will need to be filled via new studies.

1.4. Research Questions

Regarding the research gap on the interaction of perceptual learning styles, imagery, self-guides, L2 motivation and L2 academic achievement in Turkey, this study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the participants' levels of actual L2 self, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self?
2. Are students' reported actual L2 self, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self different from each other?
3. What are the preferred perceptual learning styles of the participants in this study?
4. What is the participants' level of vision?
5. Is there a relationship between participants' perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, L2 learning motivation, and language learning achievement?
6. Among the variables of perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, and L2 motivation, what are the best predictors of L2 academic achievement?
7. Among the variables of perceptual learning styles, vision, and self-guides, what are the best predictors of L2 motivation?
8. Among the variables of perceptual learning styles, vision, actual L2 self, ought to L2 self, and L2 motivation, what are the best predictors of ideal L2 self?

1.5. Significance of the Study

The significance of this study can be defined from two aspects. Firstly, gaining a deeper insight about the perceptual learning styles, L2 self-guides, imagery capacity and motivation of her learners, the researcher will shape her teachings much more carefully to comply with the preferences and needs of her students. She will also inform her colleagues whose students participated in that study to take the findings of this study into consideration while structuring their classes. This study will therefore serve as an action research at that point.

Secondly, as this is a survey study with a great number of participants, it is quite generalizable and the findings will provide valuable information for L2 educators, teacher trainers, and material and curriculum developers in the Turkish educational context. Considering the revealed weak and strong sides of the learners, or their preferences and disfavors which effect their L2 motivation and achievement, lessons and the curriculum can be planned and conducted accordingly. For example, if the findings present a huge discrepancy gap between the learners' ideal or ought to L2 selves and actual selves, some training programs can be planned to help the learners decrease the level of that gap and they can be presented to the teachers through some training programs. Finally, in case of need, teachers can implement them in their lessons so that the negative effects of a big discrepancy can be avoided.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of this study is the number of items in the survey. As the study has a large number of different variables that are to be investigated in relation to each other, it has many items. However, it is not possible to decrease that number without cancelling any of the variables, and that is not preferred by the researcher not to deviate from the aim of the study. To overcome that limitation, the participants were given enough time to complete the questionnaire. Another limitation is that this study has been conducted only on tertiary level EFL learners. Although it has a big number of participants, it does not include every type of language learner profile in Turkey. Therefore, the results of this study can be generalized only to tertiary level EFL learners in Turkey.

1.7. Definitions of the Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following key terms will be defined as follows:

Ideal L2 self: "The representation of all the attributes that a person would like to possess (e.g., hopes, aspirations, desires)" (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005b, p. 616).

Ought to L2 self: Defined by Csizer and Dörnyei (2005b) as "the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e., various duties, obligations or responsibilities)" (p. 617).

Actual L2 self: It represents your or others' beliefs about who you really are at a specific point in time (Higgins, 1987).

Learning style: "An individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills" (Reid, 1995, p. viii).

Perceptual learning style: Use of three main senses, seeing, hearing, and touch, in order to gain new information (Barbe & Swassing, 1979).

Vision: "The mental representation of the sensory experience of a future goal state" (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013, p. 357).

Motivation: Defined as "a state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 120).

L2 academic achievement: Refers to how much attainment learners get to reach the objectives of their English courses in one school term.

1.8. Conclusion

In this chapter, some introductory information regarding the current study was presented. It started with the background section, which described the previous studies leading to this one. Then, the statement of the problem was presented and it included the issues that will be investigated in this study. To clarify the reasons behind conducting that research, the rationale of the study was explained in detail and, the research questions to be answered in the study were then presented. Following the sections on the significance and limitations of this research, certain key terms were defined. In the following chapters, a detailed literature review; methodology including the theoretical framework, settings, participants, instrumentation, data collection and data analysis sections; the findings of the study; discussion of these findings, implications, and recommendations for further research, and finally the conclusions will be highlighted elaborately.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Second language learning motivation is a highly dynamic phenomenon (Dörnyei, 2005) that is affected by various factors. Although it has been under investigation for many years, studies related to L2 motivation cannot yet come to an end as it has many aspects waiting to be explored.

In the last decade, a new line of research came out on L2 motivation which investigates its relation to perceptual learning style preferences, imagination (vision) and future self-guides (Kim & Kim, 2011). In 2009, Al-Shehri investigated the relationships among visual learning style preference, vision, ideal L2 self and L2 motivation. Many more researchers have since followed him with some adaptations for their own research contexts and purposes. Some researchers investigated both ideal and ought to L2 self while working on L2 motivation (Yang & Kim, 2011; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Others included academic achievement too as a significant variable in their studies (Kim & Kim, 2011, 2014; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). In this chapter, the literature relevant to that new line of research will be presented. Firstly, some theoretical and historical information on L2 motivation, Dörnyei's L2 motivational self system, motivational currents in L2, and determiners of L2 motivation including learning environment, individual differences, learning styles and vision will all be described in detail. Then, these sections will be followed by an elaborate explanation of the relationship between ideal L2 self and perceptual learning styles. Finally, some leading research conducted in Turkish educational context on perceptual learning styles, future self-guides, vision, L2 motivation and language learning achievement will be covered.

2.2. L2 Motivation

L2 motivation has always been an intriguing issue for SLA researchers since the 1950s and there have been many attempts to conceptualize the term by different scholars. According to Williams and Burden (1997) who give the most commonly recognized definition, it is "a state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)" (p. 120).

The studies on L2 motivation started in the 1950s with the pioneering work of Robert Gardner and his colleagues, who started the Social-Psychological Period of L2 motivation research. During this time, attitudes of the individuals towards the L2 and L2 community, and their ethnocentric direction had a profound effect on L2 learning behaviors (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Language learning was seen as a social action during that era and Gardner and Lambert's (1959, 1972) conceptualization of motivation was comprised of effort, desire to achieve the goal, favorable attitudes towards learning the language, and integrativeness. According to them, these factors decide on whether the person will continue learning L2 or not. Based on this definition, Gardner and Lambert (1972) made the well-known distinction of two types of motivation: instrumental and integrative. Instrumental motivation was used to refer to "the practical value and advantages of learning a new language" (Lambert, 1974, p.98) while integrative motivation was defined as "the willingness to be like valued members of the language community" (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, p. 271). They also did not underestimate the value of effort which can also be stated as intensity (Yang, Zhang, & Wang, 2009). According to Yang, Zhang and Wang (2009), motivational intensity was one of the greatest indicators of persistence and determination in case of difficulties.

Integrativeness, or integrating with the target community and being a part of it, was at the core of Gardner's model of L2 motivation. However, as time progressed, this model started to be problematic. During that period of L2 motivation research, the focus was mainly on large groups of people such as society. Hence very little information about the individual students in the classroom environment has been attained (Ushioda, 2012). According to Crookes and Schmidt (1991), that situation caused problems for language teachers since they had no practical information to facilitate unmotivated learners. So, the studies of this period were not "educationally meaningful" (William et al., 2015, p. 113) for either teachers or learners. Moreover, the advancements in technology and their wide use in daily life created a great shift in the language learning environment. As Kim (2011) states, "Information technology such as video conferencing, text messaging, and wi-fi internet now enables easy access for ESL/EFL speakers to communicate with English speakers or other language speakers around the world without being necessarily integrated into or located in the target language community" (p. 30). So, the global identity of the

English language left Gardner's integrativeness-centric theory of L2 motivation behind as there was no longer a need to integrate with one community. Thus, the Cognitive-Situated Period was started by Deci and Ryan (1985) following the challenges raised against Gardner's theory. During that time, a shift from macro to micro perspective on L2 motivation studies was observed (Dörnyei et al., 2016). The focus of L2 motivation research was on the cognitive psychology of the individuals, such as self-efficacy and self-confidence, as well as the classroom settings rather than the community (Dörnyei, 2005). Deci and Ryan (1985) made their famous distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation at that time. According to this distinction, if the reason for doing an action is enjoyment or personal interest, the motivation is possibly intrinsic. However, if the aim of the action is just gaining something from outside, it is likely to be extrinsic motivation (Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura, 1989). Although it is theoretically very easy to differentiate them, in practice it is rather difficult. Williams and Burden (1997) declare that "…distinction between them is not watertight and many of our actions are probably promoted by a mixture of both extrinsic and intrinsic reasons. … most teachers would agree that both have a part to play, and are in fact linked" (p.123).

After the Cognitive-Situated Period, the dynamic nature of L2 motivation drew attention around the beginning of the new millennium (Dörnyei, 2005). Rather than centering upon the context or the individual's self alone, a move towards a more integrated research of L2 motivation with the self and the context emerged at this time, and the dynamic interactions among them became crucial (Ushioda, 2012). Seeing that L2 motivation is not a stable phenomenon, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) developed a new model of L2 motivation composed of three stages (preactional, actional and postactional stages) showing the variation in motivation. At the preactional stage, the decision of acting was made and that was the starting point of motivated behavior. The actional stage was related to maintaining the action which means the continuation of the motivated behavior. Finally, at the postactional stage, the process and the actions were evaluated to decide on subsequent behaviors (William et al., 2015). That period was called the Process-Oriented Period by the leading researchers of the time and it was a transition into the Socio-Dynamic Period which has been based on the L2 motivational Self System developed by Dörnyei (2005).

2.3. Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System

Seeing that the previous periods of L2 motivation, the social psychological period, cognitive-situated period, and process-oriented period, have all become outdated because of technological developments and the different life conditions it brings with it, Dörnyei developed L2 Motivational Self System in 2005 in order to explain the language learning motivation of the new millennium environment. Based on the Possible Selves Theory by Markus and Nurius (1986, 1987), Dörnyei's self system has three main dimensions which are ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self, and L2 learning experience. These concepts have been the subjects to many research studies for years, and a number of different definitions made by various researchers have come out. While some of them hold onto Dörnyei's and Markus and Nurius's definitions and have many similarities, there are also a few different viewpoints and descriptions for them.

To start with the original definition of Dörnyei, the ideal L2 self is "representation of all the attributes that a person would like to possess (e.g., hopes, aspirations, desires)" (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005b, p. 616). Nur (2013) and Azarnoosh and Birjandi (2012) emphasize the individual's aspirations, goals and wishes for future, too. Csizer and Dörnyei (2005b) describe the ideal L2 self as the promotion-focused self, which includes a favorable future aim such as learning English in order to improve professionally and feel success. While it is intrinsically desired according to Carver, Lawrence and Scheier (1999), Kim (2009) defines it as the more-internalized instrumental reasons for L2 learning. He states that "… more-internalized instrumentality is closely associated with the ideal L2 self because if the learner genuinely wishes to learn English, he or she can imagine a prosperous ideal English self and thus create promotion-based instrumentality (e.g., being offered a decent job, gaining promotion)" (Kim, 2009, p. 38). For the learners with ideal L2 self, learning English holds some emotional significance. They personalize its value which in turn helps them internalize their reasons to learn the language (Kim, 2009). In Kim's (2009) study with four Korean students going to Canada to improve their English, one of the participants, Woo, was found to have consistent and clear purposes to learn the L2 and was observed to have internalized his purposes which had great effects on his ideal L2 self. In his another study in 2011, Kim suggested

that ideal L2 self functions in both the cognitive and affective levels as it is internalized by the learner as in Woo's case. Magid (2013) identifies ideal L2 self as academic self-guides which helps the learner regulate his or her behavior to learn the language, while Sung (2013) sees it as integrativeness with the ideal L2 self, that is, the learner's desire to advance in the L2 as a part of his or her ideal self-image. Also according to Csizer and Dörnyei (2005b), "If one's ideal self is associated with the mastery of an L2, that is, if the person that we would like to become is proficient in the L2, s/he can be described—using Gardner's (1985) terminology— as having an ''integrative disposition" (p. 616). Considering all of these various definitions and qualities attributed to the ideal L2 self, the clearest definition of this self for me would be closer to Kim's (2009) definition. Kim talks about internalization process and, as can be inferred from these research studies, if the language has a personal value for the learner, it is inevitable for it to turn into ideal L2 self. So, I would describe the ideal L2 self as the internalized value of the L2 for the learner.

The second main dimension in Dörnyei's system is the ought to L2 self. He and Csizer define it as "the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e., various duties, obligations or responsibilities)" (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005b, p. 617). There are also a few different descriptions for ought to L2 self. Nur (2013) and Azarnoosh and Birjandi (2012) again stick to Dörnyei's original definition, and they refer to the obligations and responsibilities imposed on the individual. According to Carver, Lawrence and Scheier (1999), contrary to the ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self is not intrinsically desired, but it is an instrumental drive with a prevention-focus such as studying a language to pass exams and finish school (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005b). Kim (2009) asserts that the ought to self can turn into the ideal L2 self if the learner manages to internalize it, and, following the internalization stage, the ought to L2 self can also function to increase the motivational level and thus L2 success of the learners'. However, above all, the learner first needs to see the significance of acquiring L2 proficiency and realize the future self-image of himself or herself as a competent L2 user. Kim added in 2011 that if not internalized, ought to self is an external dimension and only functions at cognitive level. Kim (2009) also suggests that it is not proper to relate all instrumentality issues to ought to L2 self and integrativeness or intrinsic issues to ideal L2 self. According to him, the criteria

should be promotion vs. prevention focus distinction since it is possible for an instrumental reason to be internalized by the learner to serve the ideal L2 self as in the case with Korean university student Woo in Kim's 2009 study.

The third component of L2 Motivational Self System by Dörnyei (2005) is the L2 learning experience. It refers to "the situation specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience" (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005b, p. 617). These motives are about the effect of the L2 teacher, the school and classroom environment, peer group, curriculum, and so forth. Contrary to the ideal and ought to L2 self-gıuides, L2 learning experience is not related to self-guides and it is also not generalizable as it includes situation-specific factors about L2 motivation (Azarnoosh & Birjandi, 2012). The relationship between the L2 learning experience and motivation will be discussed deeply in a separate section (2.5.1 Learning Environment as a Determiner of L2 Motivation).

To continue with L2 motivation, from a "self" perspective, it can be defined as the wish of the learner to minimize the available discrepancy gap between the actual L2 self and the ideal or ought to L2 self (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005b). In his L2 Motivational Self System, Dörnyei (2005) suggests that language learners' future possible selves are the major motivational driving forces as learners may have a wish to abolish the gap between their actual self and their desired future selves. His hypothesis when he developed this system was that if proficiency in the second language is a requirement for one's ideal or ought to self, it will considerably help to motivate the learners to reach that purpose (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b). As a result of their research data, Csizer and Dörnyei (2005b) see the ideal L2 self at the hearth of motivated L2 learning behavior and they suggest to redefine L2 motivation as the wish to reach the ideal L2 self by minimizing the gap between the actual and ideal self-guides. However, L2 motivation is not a constant concept. It can change in different contexts and it is not acceptable to see ideal L2 self as the primary indicator of motivation all the time. The study conducted by Far, Rajab and Etemadzadeh (2012) in Iran with first and fourth grade TEFL students had interesting results in this area. It indicated that there was a big difference between the first and fourth graders in terms of L2 motivational drives. While integrating with the target community was the greatest factor for the first graders' L2 motivation, ideal L2 self was a superior indicator of motivation for fourth graders. Magid (2013), in his research with the elementary

school students in Singapore, asserted another indicator that is as important as the ideal L2 self for L2 motivation: confidence. He concluded that confidence is also essential for the ideal L2 self to be improved clearly for the learner, and it is crucial in order to help their motivation. There is conflicting research in the area that challenge each other concerning the prominent factors in selves and L2 motivation.

There are also many studies in the area about the relationship between the ought to L2 self and motivation since ought to L2 self is another major indicator of L2 motivation. Dörnyei revealed in his study in 2013 that ought to L2 self has an effect in shaping the learner's motivational state; however, it has a weaker potential than the ideal L2 self in activating the motivated behavior of the learner. Azarnoosh and Birjandi (2012) found considerable differences between the motivational drives of girls' and boys' regarding the ideal and ought to L2 self-guides in Iran. They presented that for the girls, the ideal L2 self was more effective for their motivation. For the boys, the ought to L2 self outperformed the ideal L2 self as a strong determiner. Azarnoosh and Birjandi (2012) grounded these results mainly to the effect of the society and the family that put heavier duties on the shoulders of men such as being the providers in the society. In the study Kim (2011) conducted with Korean students, he concluded that since the ought to L2 self functions only at the cognitive level and there is no emotional attachment to it by the learner, it has a weaker effect on L2 motivation compared to the ideal L2 self. Thus, the learners with an ought to self-image do not personalize the grounds of L2 learning. They just see it as a responsibility or obligation to be fulfilled to avoid negative outcomes. However, Kim (2009) also states that L2 learners' self-images are changeable and transferable. This means that although their self-images stem from ought to L2 self, it can be transformed to the ideal L2 self through internalization when the learner seriously comprehends the reasons of L2 learning and personalizes it. Thus, it functions at both cognitive and affective levels and it can gain stronger effect on L2 motivation.

2.3.1. An Overview of Self-Discrepancy Theory

Self-Discrepancy Theory (Higgins, 1987; Higgins, Klein, & Strauman, 1985) assumes that people have various self-guides which are either desired or undesired, and a gap between the people's presently functioning selves and the desired selves

causes them trouble due to the fact that they need a similarity or overlap between these two selves. There are three kinds of possible self-guides that have great importance in self-discrepancy theory: ideal, ought to, and feared selves. Ideal and ought selves are the desired self-guides while feared self is the undesired and avoided one. Ideals are the wishes, hopes and longings for the future, and the theory suggests that any gap between the perceived actual self and the ideal self leads to the feelings of failure, and grief (Carver, Lawrence, & Scheier, 1999). As Strauman and Higgins (1988) have revealed in their longitudinal studies, an actual-ideal self discrepancy can even trigger depression in the long run if the person cannot reach the positive goals that s/he was expecting.

Ought to self can be described as the feeling of a burden, such as an obligation or a task on the shoulders of a person which forces him or her to act in a specific manner. The person with ought to self does not desire it intrinsically, but rather s/he feels that s/he has to do so because of some external forces. Although it is not a negative value to be escaped from, it grows out of the punishment factor and the person develops that self in order not to get that punishment which is mostly the disapproval of others. Self-discrepancy theory advocates that a discrepancy gap between the actual and ought to self results in the feelings of social anxiety and guilt since the person could not manage to fulfill an obligation or responsibility and s/he will be disapproved by the society (Carver, Lawrence, & Scheier, 1999). Therefore, the person aims at reducing the gap to avoid the negative results of it.

Feared self is the set of qualities that the person does not want to become, but is also afraid of becoming. The theory holds that if there is enough gap between the actual self and the feared self, there is not much reason to worry about its impendence, and the person can concentrate on the desired values to lead his or her behavior in the future. However, when the person is close to the feared self, the most prominent thing is getting away from it, and then the effort to proximate the ideal or ought to self starts (Carver, Lawrence, & Scheier, 1999).

2.3.2. L2 Motivation, L2 Motivational Self System and Achievement

Many studies have been conducted so far supporting the positive relationship between L2 motivation and achievement (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Dörnyei et al., 2015; Skehan & Dörnyei, 2003; Engin, 2009). Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) suggest

that motivation gives the learners the initial drive to start the learning process and provides the energy and power to sustain it. Investigating the situation in Turkey, Engin (2009) indicates that the majority of the learners in the Turkish context have both instrumental motivations to learn L2, such as finding a well-paid and high status job, as well as integrative orientation such as communicating with native speakers, listening to Anglophone music or understanding Anglophone films. He states that the positive relationship between integrative motivation and L2 achievement is due to the enthusiasm of these learners to achieve L2 learning coupled with the effort that they make to reach their highly valued personal goals. The results of Engin's (2009) study are quite similar to the relationship between the ideal and ought to L2 selves and achievement. Khan (2015) asserts that the ideal L2 self has significant positive impacts on L2 motivation and achievement. Learners with this self aim to be proficient L2 users due to their own wishes and desires, as in the integrative orientation, and since it is a part of their self-image, it motivates the students to put extra effort into the learning process, thus resulting in L2 achievement. However, it is highly significant for an ideal L2 self to be clear in the learner's vision, so that it can contribute to L2 proficiency more effectively.

Besides the direct influences of ideal L2 self on L2 motivation and achievement, it also has indirect effects. In the research conducted by Öz (2015), it was revealed that ideal L2 self impacts L2 motivation and achievement with the mediation of intercultural communicative competence (ICC). According to Öz (2015), learners with high ideal L2 self have higher ICC levels, and because of their willingness to communicate with other cultures, they are much more motivated to learn the L2 which largely contributes to high levels of L2 achievement. In addition, Khan (2015) talks about the mediation of attitudes between the ideal L2 self, motivation and finally learning the language. Khan (2015) states that "The clear vision of future self results into the positive attitude towards learning English which eventually motivates the students to devise the ways to learn English language." (p.73).

2.4. Motivational Currents in L2

As highlighted by many researchers in the area, motivation is not a stable construct that can be ensured once observed (Dörnyei, 2005) and Dörnyei et al. (2016) emphasize its unstable nature by stating that:

> *"…student motivation is not constant but displays continuous ebbs and flows; learners go through good and bad patches, with a wide range of circumstances and events having the potential to substantially impact their motivation in varying positive and negative ways." (p.28).*

That variability of L2 motivation has been the main tenet of the last two periods of motivation studies. In the Process Oriented Era, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) asserted three stages of motivation regarding initiating, sustaining, and evaluating it. This has been followed by the Socio-Dynamic Period leaded by Dörnyei (2005). Centering upon the L2 Motivational Self System, this period brought a future-oriented standpoint to the area. However, it was later self criticized by Dörnyei et al. (2016) as its main components did not provide much insight about the "dynamics of motivated behavioral process itself" (p.32) which is concerned with the maintenance of effort. This deficiency has been overcome with the extension of future self-guides into vision which is defined as the learners' individual illustrations of their future goal states (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Vision of the learners' ideal L2 self has been what could lead to long-term motivated behavior in L2 learning and it could explain the sustained motivated behavioral process (Dörnyei et al., 2016). Being a vision-oriented concept, Directed Motivational Current (DMC) entered the field during that time.

A Directed Motivational Current is a motivational phenomenon which prompts long term effort to reach a final goal via the vision of it (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). Rather than only draining the available energy for action, it also amplifies energy for the sustained behavior of reaching that goal (Dörnyei et al., 2016). While it may seem that a DMC is quite similar to the general motivational dynamics, the main difference is the "optimal level of cooperation" (Dörnyei et al., 2016, p. 33) of many motivational elements which ultimately lead to "optimal form of engagement" (Dörnyei et al., 2016, p. 33) by the learners. There are also other characteristics of DMC that clarify its unique structure. As its name suggests, a DMC is directional and well–organized meaning that it starts from a point at the beginning and always moves forward to reach a final goal. Although it has some similarities with the flow experience revealed by Csikszentmihalyi (1990), the final goal in DMC, which can be either intrinsically or extrinsically desired makes the distinction between them. While the activities in the flow experience are mostly performed for pleasure, the ones in DMC are the products of a significant final goal such as writing up a dissertation or running

a marathon (Dörnyei et al., 2016). Another substantial feature of DMC is that when it is initiated, a "motivational autopilot" (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013, p. 365) starts functioning, and the everyday actions of the learner transform into new actions that are planned in order to achieve the final goal. What is interesting is that there is no need for constant monitoring of this motivated behavior process until the end since it already gets internalized by the learners.

Muir and Dörnyei (2013) state that classroom is a great area for the creation, sustaining and finalizing of a DMC since it is a well-structured context. However, the role of the teachers is quite crucial at this point. The creation of the DMC requires a clear explanation of the target so that the learners can visualize the end goal in their own personal ways. After initiating the motivated behavior, by describing some sub-goals, teachers can lead the learners towards the goal and assist the sustaining of motivated actions, so that it can turn into long term effort, and it can finally end in learning.

2.5. Determiners of L2 Motivation

Being a dynamic factor of second language learning (Dörnyei, 2005), L2 motivation has been subject to many studies investigating the reasons behind its unstable nature. Based on these studies, the variables that are most influential on it can be described in two sub-categories: L2 learning environment (external factors) and individual differences (internal factors). In the following section, these variables will be discussed in detail.

2.5.1. Learning Environment

Motivation is a learner characteristic widely influenced by social and contextual factors (Kormos, Kiddle, & Csizer, 2011). Although there are many components in the learning environment which contribute to shaping L2 motivation, the most effective ones such as family and parents, teachers, and educational settings will be discussed in this section.

The importance of parents on students' motivation was first emphasized by Gardner (Gardner and Lambert 1959; Gardner 1985), and then Noels (2001) followed him including the family influence. According to Kormos, Kiddle and Csizer (2011) "parents, and the family are the mediators of the societal and cultural values and norms" (p. 512) and can influence the learners' self-guides, language learning goals

and attitudes positively or negatively. Their study conducted in a Chilean context indicated that the value assigned by the parents to L2 learning contributes greatly to the teenagers' and university students' future self-guides and self-efficacy beliefs which can lead to increased motivation. However, Ueki and Takeuchi (2013) revealed that by imposing highly challenging ought to self guide and learning goals on the learners, significant others can lead to L2 anxiety for these learners. In another research on parental involvement, Butler (2014) investigated the influence of parents in China from different socio-economic status (SES) backgrounds and revealed that regardless of high or low SES, Chinese parents controlled their children's learning behavior and assigned pragmatic goals for them. However, high SES parents differed from their low SES counterparts in that they were adapting to the changing needs of their children. They could also provide a rich learning environment at home for them that would increase intrinsic motivation of these learners. Low SES parents, on the other hand, were not successful at these points and were ineffective in their children's motivational levels. Lamb (2012) had similar findings in his study comparing learners from rural versus urban areas. The results of his study had shown that in rural areas, families had less impact on their children' motivation and the researcher had claimed that it was because these families were not able to provide their children with the chance of sustaining learning behavior outside school, especially at home.

Language teachers' role in learners' L2 motivation is also highly crucial. Both the motivational strategies they use while teaching and their relationships with the learners contribute largely to motivate them (Wentzel, 1998). Lamb (2012) states that good teachers help the learners shape positive attitudes towards learning behavior, which is closely tied to L2 motivation and proficiency. According to Gömleksiz (2010), teachers have a great role in leading the students to have a positive attitude towards the L2, and to do so, they should create an active and comfortable learning environment based on the needs and preferences of the learners. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), on the other hand, emphasize the importance of motivational strategies that teachers use. Bernaus and Gardner (2008) also assert the same idea explaining that motivational strategy uses increase both the teacher's and learners' motivation as well as learners' success. Alrabai (2014) agrees with them reaching the same conclusion in his study in Iranian

context. The study investigating the most and least effective teacher behaviors and motivational strategies in Turkey (Öztürk & Ok, 2014) has shown that teachers' positive and affectionate manners and adjustment to student needs were the most motivating factors in class. The least motivating factors were the frequent assigning of homework, stating the objectives of the course before starting the lesson, and long lecturing sessions. Considering the results of many studies mentioned above, it would not be difficult to conclude that teachers have considerable value in L2 motivation.

Educational setting is the final external determiner of L2 motivation which will be mentioned here. It is obvious that different educational settings and practices lead to variations in learners' L2 motivation. For example; Butler (2014) explains that some learners have the chance of using the L2 outside of school thanks to their opportunities, such as going abroad or having English-speaking private tutors, their high socio-economic status families can provide them, and these students are shown to have high levels of intrinsic motivation. However, learners from low socio-economic backgrounds do not have these opportunities. Schools thus have a huge role in providing learners with the chance of using L2 at school while simultaneously creating and sustaining motivation. There are diversities between the motivational levels of students from urban and rural areas as well. Lamb (2012) pointed out in his study that in some rural areas, the learners had very little exposure to L2 instruction due to the absence of English teacher and lessons in their curriculum at the primary level or due to lack of resources, all of which resulting in loss of motivation in the learners. Educational setting is also affected by the cultural norms of the country (Kennedy, 2002). While in Western countries learners can study L2 both out of interest and for rewards, in China, exams and the significance of academic achievement in order to get a good career are the main determiners of the learners' motivation. In a Chinese educational setting, L2 learning is a requirement rather than a personal preference (Kennedy, 2002).

2.5.2. Individual Differences

The study of individual differences (IDs), or learner characteristics, in language education has a huge historical background and they are widely accepted by many scholars as having great influences on learning a foreign language successfully

(Dörnyei, 2005). These learner characteristics not only affect L2 achievement and proficiency but they also affect each other. L2 motivation, which is an ID factor itself, is also shaped by other learner characteristics such as age, gender, attributions, attitudes, self-efficacy, learning strategies, and learning styles. In this section, these ID factors and their relations to L2 motivation will be discussed.

The first widely investigated determinant of L2 motivation is age, and it is one of the easiest characteristics to measure and define (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). It can affect L2 motivation both directly and with the mediation of some other factors such as ideal L2 self or attitudes towards language learning. Some research studies indicate that L2 motivation decreases as learners get older (Carreira, 2006; William et al., 2002). William et al.'s (2002) research study showed that seventh graders had considerably higher motivational level than the ninth graders, also with higher achievement level, self-efficacy and positive attitudes towards their teachers. Supporting these results, Carreira (2006) found in his study that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational levels of learners decreased between the ages of 8-9 and 11-12. There are also some other studies which are in contradiction to them. In research conducted on French immersion students, MacIntyre, Baker, Clement and Donovan (2002) talk about the "developmental path" (p. 144) of the learner and define age as the most crucial component of this path. Kormos and Csizer (2008) also supported the idea of developmental path of the learners via their seminal work on motivational differences of secondary school students, university students and adult learners. While university students and adult learners were found to have higher motivation levels to learn the L2, secondary school students scored lower. The differences in their motivational levels were advocated to be affected by the age and creation of an ideal L2 self. Since secondary school learners were in their adolescence and under a lot of transformations (Carlson, 1965), they were not as successful as the other two groups in forming a stable ideal L2 self to increase their motivation. The younger adolescents at the ages of 13 and 14 were even less successful at that point since they formed less realistic ideal selves (Lamb, 2012), and as MacIntyre, MacKinnon, and Cl´ement (2009) stated, it is very unlikely for an unrealistic ideal L2 self to influence L2 motivation positively. Learners' ages affect L2 motivation also mediated by attitudes towards L2 learning (Kormos and Csizer, 2008). While young students' attitudes are mostly shaped by their learning environment and teachers,

older learners are better at knowing what they would like to do with the language and tend to highly value the pragmatic utility of L2 learning (Kormos, Kiddle & Csizer, 2011) thereby creating positive attitudes on their own.

Gender is another commonly studied component of L2 motivation, and many research studies on it show great differences between men and women in terms of L2 learning motivation. While a big number of them conclude that girls are more motivated to learn L2 (Coleman, Galaczi, & Astruc, 2007; Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005a; Ghazvini & Khajehpohur, 2011; Gömleksiz, 2010; Henry & Cliffordson, 2013; Kissau, 2006; Kissau, Kolano, & Wang, 2010;You & Dörnyei, 2014), there are also others who state that there is no significant difference between girls and boys (Azarnoosh & Birjandi, 2012; Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Fernandez-Fontecha, 2014;Kissau,Quach, &Wang, 2009;Kinsella& Singleton, 2014; Sung, 2013). Only one study states that boys are more motivated than girls in terms of L2 learning (Polat, 2011). The study conducted by Csizer and Dörnyei (2005a) on Hungarian students learning five different languages stated explicitly that females were more motivated than their male peers. Based on this research, Kissau (2006), as a French immersion teacher, wanted to see the case with his own students and researched the same issue. He conducted a survey on his students who were learning French and the results were proved no different. They showed that males had less desire to learn French, lower motivational intensity, and less integrative orientation. Gömleksiz (2010) also revealed in his study that females were more motivated to learn L2 as they had more positive attitudes towards the L2, more interest in learning the L2 and they believed in its usefulness quite a lot. On the other hand, Fernandez-Fontecha (2014) revealed in his study that while girls have slightly higher levels of general motivation and intrinsic motivation than boys, boys had higher extrinsic motivation. These differences however were not statistically significant, which means that the differences are not worth counting on. Although they are of different types, it can be concluded in this study that both girls and boys have similar levels of motivation. Contrary to the studies mentioned so far, the research conducted by Polat (2011) on middle and high school Kurdish-speaking learners of Turkish highlighted that boys had “higher identification and integrated orientation” (p. 20), which means they saw the importance of learning L2 much better than girls do. To sum up, depending on L2 motivation, gender also appears to affect language

learning achievement. Wen and Johnson (1997) supported that view revealing in their study that females in Chinese universities were superior to males in terms of L2 achievement due to their higher levels of motivation to learn the language.

The third learner characteristic impacting L2 motivation is attributions. Developed by Weiner (1992), the postulation of the term is that while trying to understand the reasons of their past successes or failures, people can attribute them to various factors such as their own abilities, efforts, luck, and task difficulty. The theory suggests that if the learners believe their success to root in their own abilities and activities, they will continue their efforts to learn the language. However, if they think that their failures are due to uncontrollable internal factors such as lack of ability, it can lead to embarrassment or humiliation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) which thus causes a loss of self-confidence and motivation. Since attributions have great impacts on these subjects, attribution retraining procedures have enormous importance during the L2 learning process. Based on the theory by Weiner (1992), in case of success, the teachers' role should be to emphasize the controllable factors such as effort and strategy use, which are called "healthy attributions" (Hsieh, 2012, p. 93), in order to boost the learner motivation and achievement. Emphasizing strategy use would help to build up self-confidence and increase motivation to study and learn which can finally lead to high levels of achievement, especially for students who believe they cannot be successful despite their efforts. (Hsieh, 2012).

Learners' attitudes are also important determiners of L2 motivation and have been defined as "the emotional precursors of the initiation of learning behavior" (Kormos, Kiddle, & Csizer, 2011, p. 497). The term includes attitudes towards the language, learning environment, teachers, courses, materials, and the country or countries the language belongs to (Dörnyei, 2005). According to Kormos and Csizer (2008) and Kormos, Kiddle and Csizer (2011), attitudes towards language learning and learners' ideal L2 self are very influential determiners of L2 motivation and are strongly connected. They state that attitudes affect the learners' imagination of themselves as competent users of the L2, and creating a successful image leads to increased motivation (Busse, 2013) and thus high levels of achievement. In the study conducted in Saudi Arabia, Khan (2015) states that "…attitudes play vital role in enabling the participants to achieve proficiency in English Language." (p.72).

Another study conducted by Lamb (2012) on three different socio-cultural contexts (urban, provincial, and rural areas) revealed that students in rural areas had difficulty imagining themselves as component L2 users. However, the learners from urban and provincial areas had more positive attitudes towards learning English because they had more chances and resources to learn L2 and to create a "future English-speaking self" (p. 1009) than the rural students. As a result of the study, while urban and provincial learners had higher levels of L2 motivation, rural students lag behind. Gillette (1994) also emphasizes the role of social environment in investigating the attitude of learners towards the L2 stating that "Students are likely to act and think in accordance with their milieu…" and "Their life circumstances, therefore, cannot be excluded from investigations of L2 success" (p. 198).

Self-efficacy is a highly influential learning characteristic that has significant impacts on L2 motivation. Developed by Bandura (1997), it refers to the learners' beliefs about their capabilities to reach a goal (Mills et al., 2007). It is a future-oriented phenomenon and, as many studies suggest, it has a strong correlation with L2 motivated learning behavior (Kormos, Kiddle and Csizer 2011; Schunk et al., 2008; Zhong 2010). Schunk et al. (2008) note that self-efficacy is strongly related to the effort the students put into the learning activity, and Zhong (2010) supports that view stating that learners with high self-efficacy trust in their abilities to regulate their learning behavior and so they promote their own L2 motivation in an autonomous way. Kormos, Kiddle and Csizer (2011) confirm these suggestions as well explaining that self-efficacy beliefs are directly linked to L2 motivation and the continuation of learning behavior. It also has a close relationship with ideal L2 self, as it determines whether a learner finds the ideal self he or she created manageable or not (Busse, 2013). As Bandura (2007) states, high level of self-efficacy has a positive impact on the vividness of the ideal self created by the learner, and a vivid imagination of ideal L2 self increases motivation. On the contrary, in case of a decrease in the learners' self-efficacy level, the vision created does not seem likely to be attained and it causes loss of motivation for the learner (Busse, 2013). Busse (2013) revealed that though ideal self and career plans of the learners help shape the learning behavior and motivation of the students, self-efficacy is more effective than these factors; however ideal self and self-efficacy remain two inseparable determiners of L2 motivation. It has also been proven by William et al. (2005) to be closely connected

to high achievement levels in L2 learning since the learners with great self-efficacy generally have low to no anxiety. They are autonomous learners who can regulate and monitor their own learning, and who use effective strategies to learn the language.

The last individual difference factor -to be discussed in this section- affecting L2 motivation is learning strategies. Learning strategies are defined by many scholars as deliberate actions to reach a language learning target (Bialystok, 1990; Oxford, 1990, 1996). With regard to their functions in language learning, they are classified as metacognitive, cognitive, affective, and social strategies. Metacognitive strategies are related to the planning, monitoring and assessment procedures of learning activities. Cognitive strategies deal with perception, analysis, remembering and conceptualization processes. Social strategies involve the ways of making interaction much easier, fluent, and meaningful by asking for clarification or explanations, and affective strategies aid the learners to motivate themselves, and adjust their feelings and attitudes regarding the language learning process (Cohen, 2012). The use of these strategies are closely associated with learners' self-efficacy levels, and as Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986) state, learners using these strategies are generally the ones with high self-efficacy levels. They are also tightly related to L2 motivation since the learners who resort to learning strategies, also called self-regulating learners, decide on their objectives and try to keep their motivational level high until they attain these objectives. Furthermore, they can select learning situations appropriate for their learning styles; they can provide motivation for themselves, sustain their efforts to maintain the learning behavior, and finally reach the goal of learning the language successfully. So, learning strategies and motivation cannot be dissociated as they are two significant premises of language learning achievement (Skehan & Dörnyei, 2003). According to Wen and Johnson (1997), strategy use is closely related to L2 achievement as well. Şen and Şen (2012) also support that view reporting that successful learners use more learning strategies than their less successful peers. However, for these strategies to be highly effective in the language learning process, they need to be chosen carefully. Language learning strategies are completely personal and are related to the individuals' learning style preferences (Cohen, 2012). Therefore, it would not be useful to copy the strategies that a successful peer always prefers. Besides

choosing the appropriate strategies, regulating them well is also crucial. Wen and Johnson (1997) state that "…any language learning strategies that are well managed are more likely to lead to more successful learning outcomes than those that are not" (p.39).

There is one last crucial individual difference factor influencing L2 motivation which will be discussed in depth in the following section: learning styles.

2.5.3. Learning Styles

The studies investigating learning styles in SLA all emphasize the significance of the term as an ID factor with substantial effects on L2 success and motivation (Dörnyei, 2005). The term was first used by Thelen (1954) and it was defined in various ways in the following studies. While Reid (1995) refers to it as "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skills" (p. viii), Dörnyei (2005) addresses them as "broad learning preferences" (p. 123), and Sternberg and Grigorenko (2001) emphasize their unconscious and highly stable nature in their definition.

Throughout history, various models of learning styles have been developed by many scholars (Tight, 2010), and they all based their modals on different psychological states and personality types. The initial and most salient L2 style model was created by Witkins (1962) and had two constructs which were field dependence and field independence related to visual perceptions (Dörnyei, 2005). Witkins basically described field dependents as being good at seeing the whole picture whereas field independents as successful in seeing the details. Considering their relationship to language learning, there were researchers who asserted the power of field dependence while there were also some others challenging that view. Finally, Skehan (1998) ended the discussion, presenting that field dependent learners were better at communicative tasks, and independent learners were more successful in formal aspects of the language. In 1998, Riding and Rayner created another learning style model that had two taxonomies: wholist-analytic style dimension and verbal-imagery style dimension. While the former was interested in the learners' organization of information, the latter was about the learners' ways of representing and thinking about the information. A few years after Riding and Rayner's model, The Experiential Learning Theory was developed by Kolb, Boyatzis and Mainemelis

(2001). It was based on two basic dimensions again which were concrete vs. abstract thinking and active vs. reflective information processing. Concrete vs. abstract thinking referred to how learners worked on experiences (with their feelings or logic and ideas respectively), and active vs. reflective information processing was based on the dichotomy of being an active participant or outsider observer of a situation.

Perceptual learning styles, also called sensory preferences, are the best-known style dimensions in L2 learning. Oxford (2001) describes them as the most related styles to language learning, and Brown (1994) emphasizes their highly remarkable nature for language learners in their work. These style preferences have been investigated throughout years to better understand their relations to L2 motivation and achievement and four perceptual learning styles -visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile- have been shaped based on three main senses including sight, sound, and touch (Barbe & Swassing, 1979).

To start with visual learners, they prefer getting new information through their sights and they learn much better by reading, looking at objects, charts, maps, and pictures. In order for the learning to be meaningful for them, they need to see the information in one of these forms. These types of learners can also visualize the written forms of the words or sentences when they hear, and they usually prefer taking notes during lessons (Sprenger, 2008). Sprenger (2008) adverts some features of visual learners as follows:

- Rolls eyes
- Follows you around the room with his/her eyes
- Is distracted by movement
- Loves handouts, work on the board, overheads, and any visual presentations
- Often speaks rapidly
- Will usually retrieve information by looking up and to the left
- Says things like “I see what you mean” or “I get the picture. (p. 37)

Learners preferring auditory style benefit significantly from lectures, conversations, and oral instructions. They learn by listening to the information and by speaking about it (Sprenger, 2008). Common characteristics mentioned by Sprenger (2008) include:

- Talks a lot; may talk to self
- Distracted by sound

- Enjoys cassette tape work and listening to you speak
- Likes to have material read aloud
- May answer rhetorical questions
- Usually speaks distinctly
- Will usually retrieve information by looking from side to side while listening to his/her internal tape recorder
- Says things like “sounds good to me” or “I hear what you are saying”. (p. 37)

Kinesthetic and tactile learners use their sense of touch most. To make a distinction between them, kinesthetic learners need whole body movement as in role plays, and tactile learners prefer hands-on activities such as building models and making collages (Dörnyei, 2005) since they like feeling the materials while studying (Erten, 1998). Common features of kinesthetic and tactile learners as described by Sprenger (2008) include:

- Sits very comfortably, usually slouched or lots of movement, leans back in chair, taps pencil
- Often speaks very slowly, feeling each word
- Distracted by comfort variations, i.e., temperature, light
- Needs hands on experiences
- Distracted by movement-often his/her own
- Will usually retrieve information by looking down to feel the movement when he/she learned it
- Says things like “I need a concrete example” or “that feels right”. (p. 39).

Many research studies conducted in various countries such as Iran, Turkey and Korea all proved visual learning style to be the most preferred one, followed by auditory style and finally kinesthetic and tactile learning styles(Kırkgöz & Doğanay, 2003; Kim & Kim, 2011; Tabatabaeia & Mashayekhib, 2013). There were also considerations regarding the best learning style leading to the highest levels of success and scholars achieved the consensus that learners with mixed and balanced preferences would be the most successful (Kinsella, 1995). It can therefore be asserted that learners with mixed preferences will be more advantageous during the learning process. It is also quite important for the learners to have the chance of using their preferred styles in the classroom in order to succeed, and at this point, teachers need to be flexible and understanding in helping the learners.

2.5.4. Vision / Imagery

Although it has been studied as a key element of motivation for decades, the term "vision" has gained importance in recent years. It initially appeared in sports psychology in Paivio's (1985) influential work. Then in 1999, Pham and Taylor defined it in a broad sense as "the imitative representation of real or hypothetical events" (p. 250). Within the SLA context, it was described, based on possible selves theory, as the learners' individual illustrations of their future goal states (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013), and quite similarly Muir and Dörnyei (2013) defined it as "the mental representation of the sensory experience of a future goal state" (p. 357).

Vision is one of the strongest determiners of L2 motivation and there are some major characteristics of it that stand out. First of all, it nearly assures long-term effort by the learner (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). Muir and Dörnyei (2013) state that it causes "emotional reactions" (p. 358) for the learners and as they have already experienced and tasted the success in their visions, the urge to make it real does not allow the learners to give up on their effort. Williams et al. (2015) also explain that the processing of the real and imagined events is identical in the human brain so that the learners feel as if they have experienced the situations due to their ideal L2 self vision, which in turn prepares and motivates them to learn the language. Moreover, for the created vision to be effective in increasing L2 motivation, it needs to be individualized, target oriented and accessible for the learners. If an ought to L2 self-image imposed by others is in question, it first needs to be totally internalized by the learner to be effective. The learners also need to be aware of their capabilities and construct realistic self-imagery rather than creating fantasies (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). Another significant point is that visualization requires a holistic approach by the learner. As Zimmerman (1998) states, it needs to be a part of the learner's transportable identity, referring to all kinds of individual features of a person such as sex, expectations, dreams, desires, culture, and so on. If the vision does not comply with these characteristics, it is certain not to be internalized by the learner, and will lead to abandoning the vision. Finally, although there is a misconception that visualization requires only the use of sight, many research studies have proven that it is multisensory in nature (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Eardley & Pring, 2006). Dörnyei and Chan (2013) explain that the use of the auditory senses for visualization is especially effective for L2 learners. They can imagine pursuing a conversation with

a proficient person, hear their own utterances, and even hear the interlocutor's responses all of which considerably increase their motivation.

Many researchers have confirmed the relationship between visualization and L2 motivation. They all advocate that visualization helps the learners construct a stronger and clearer ideal L2 self, which increases their L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Murray, 2013), because the learners who enjoy success in their imagination increase their efforts to reduce the discrepancy between their current state and their imagined one, which promotes their motivated behavior (Ueki and Takeuchi, 2013). However there are also other factors affecting the creation of vision, so the ideal L2 self and consequently motivation. In their study, Magid and Chan (2012) provided imagery training for Chinese students and their results revealed that the students were able to create clearer goals and self-images at the end of the training programme. This was because their linguistic confidence had increased significantly during the programme which gave them the opportunity to imagine themselves as confident L2 users. Another study by Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) suggested that visualization helps learners to increase their self-efficacy and preparedness to achieve their goals. Many scholars have confirmed that increased self-efficacy leads to a higher level of L2 motivation (Kormos, Kiddle and Csizer 2011; Schunk et al., 2008; Zhong 2010). Finally, Papi (2010) indicated that the vision of a clear ideal L2 self will decrease language learning anxiety, which is a great obstacle hindering L2 motivation.

Following the discussions about the invaluable impacts of the visualization of ideal L2 self on motivation; it has become quite clear that the value of imagery training cannot be ignored (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). Magid and Chan's (2012) study conducted on Chinese learners of English has promoted this view, revealing that their visualization training programmes have provided great benefits for the learners in terms of increased L2 motivation. Based on their experiences throughout the programme, Magid and Chan have listed some implications for L2 teachers. First of all, they suggest that the teachers tell their students the importance and effectiveness of visualization strategies. They also state that the teachers need to choose the times of the day when the learners are alert and attentive. Finally, they explain that teachers should help the learners who cannot use their imagination

unaided. Each of these will help the learners in being able to visualize their ideal L2 self clearly.

2.6. The Relationship between Ideal L2 Self and Perceptual Learning Styles

The theoretical relationship between imagery, the ideal L2 self, perceptual learning styles and L2 motivation is a relatively new phenomenon, and starts with Al-Shehri's (2009) pioneering study.

To begin with the association between imagery, ideal L2 self and L2 motivation, it has been suggested by Dörnyei (2009b) that if the learners manage to create a vivid future image of themselves as proficient L2 users, they would put more effort into learning to reach the imagined self. Dörnyei (2009b) has especially emphasized the value of ideal L2 self at this point and he defined it as "a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves" (p. 29). As for the relationship between imagery, the ideal L2 self, L2 motivation, and perceptual learning styles, some studies have suggested from a neurological point of view that the brain area responsible for creating imagery is similar to the visual area (Kosslyn et al., 2002; Modell, 2003). This signifies that learners with visual preferences may be more successful in creating and visualizing their ideal L2 self. There also exist some theories suggesting a connection between auditory learning style and vision. As Dörnyei and Chan (2013) assert, visualization does not have to be without auditory aids and the learners can imagine having a real conversation with a proficient person, hear their own words and the interlocutor's responses each of which will considerably increase their motivation (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013).

2.7. Perceptual Learning Styles, Future Self-Guides, Vision, L2 Motivation and Achievement Research in Turkey

The information regarding perceptual learning styles and L2 learning in Turkish context mainly comes from the studies conducted by Master's and Ph.D. students in the form of thesis and dissertations. Most of these studies are based on language input preferences of the learners and mainly focused on specific skills such as listening, reading, and vocabulary learning (Bektaş Bedir, 2012; Demirkol, 2009; Kansızoğlu, 2014; Manayeva, 1993; Tabanlıoğlu, 2003). There are also other

research studies centered upon the preference match between learners and the teachers (Beceren, 2004; Çekiç, 1991; Kara, 2009; Yılmaz, 2004). All of these studies emphasize that it is highly significant for the teachers to be aware of the learning style preferences of their students and try to adjust their teaching style to them as the main purpose is teaching the language most effectively. When we investigate some of the studies regarding the input preference of the learners and the style match between the learners and the teachers, it is inevitable to see both differences and similarities in their findings. For example, in 2003, Tabanlıoğlu advocated that auditory learning style was the most preferred one by Turkish learners of the L2 while Demirkol (2009) challenged these findings revealing visual learning style as the most favored. She stated that auditory learning style is ranked second and it is followed by the kinesthetic learning style as third. However, in Demirkol's (2009) study, some variations based on the genders and proficiency levels have been observed. The results of her study showed that women prefer visual learning style much more when they reach intermediate and advanced levels. On the other hand, men's preference for visual learning diminishes as they increase their proficiency level, and they tend to keep to auditory and kinesthetic styles more. Regarding the style match between the learners' and the teachers', Kara (2009) investigated both the teachers' and the learners' style preferences at a Turkish state university and presented that both the teachers and the learners chose visual and auditory styles as their favored ones. Kara (2009) concluded that the match between their preferences provides great advantages for learners as they feel more comfortable when teachers' styles appeal to them. Therefore, the teachers should try and figure out the preferences of their learners and use them more frequently as a means of helping and comforting the learners during the learning process.

When we examine the literature regarding future L2 self-guides in Turkey, unfortunately, very little information exists, and what is available mainly include only ideal L2 self, excluding the ought to self and feared self. Nearly all of the information about the ideal L2 self in Turkish context comes from Öz's (2015) studies conducted in EFL classes at a state university. The findings of his study revealed that undergraduate EFL learners in Turkey have high levels of ideal L2 self, which shows that they have L2 as an important part of their future self-guides. Öz (2015) also states that learners with an ideal L2 self have great intercultural communicative

competence (ICC), leading in turn to significant amount of L2 motivation and achievement. According to Öz (2015), the relationship between ideal L2 self and ICC can provide great advantages for L2 achievement as language learning is facilitated by interaction. Those with high ICC create their self-images in this direction in order to gain an "international citizenship" (Byram, 2008). In another study, Öz (2016) investigates the relationship between ideal L2 self and motivation with the mediation of the learners' willingness to communicative (WTC), and he concludes that "…the ideal self-images help L2 learners to form L2-specific visions, which have the potentials to motivate students toward communication in the language and success in learning an L2." (p.175). Hereby he both emphasizes the importance of ideal L2 self in motivating the learners to communicate in the L2 in order to learn it much better and also implies the significance of vision which helps the learners imagine their ideal L2 selves and take steps to reach that desired self.

Another significant construct of this thesis study worth mentioning in this part would be vision. However, as there has not yet been any research conducted on it and its relation to language learning in Turkey, it will not be discussed in this section. Therefore, the present study will be a leading one in Turkish context at this point.

L2 motivation has been an intriguing research area in Turkish educational context, and there have been many studies on it, including Master's and Ph. D dissertations, which pave the way for language teachers and researchers. While a large number of them investigate the types of motivation learners have (intrinsic vs. extrinsic or integrative vs. instrumental) in terms of their gender and proficiency level (Mendi, 2009; Özgür & Griffiths, 2013; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013), others exist that investigate the link between motivation and some other ID factors such as anxiety or strategy use (Öztürk, 2012; Mendi, 2009). The study conducted by Özgür and Griffiths (2013) in a private language school in Turkey revealed that the learners were mostly instrumentally motivated and their main reason to learn English was finding a good job. The findings also showed that extrinsic reasons such as effect of parents' or schools had negative impacts on L2 learning, whereas intrinsic orientations were positively correlated with success. Öztürk and Gürbüz (2013), who researched the relationship between gender and integrative and instrumental motivation, indicated that female learners have more integrative reasons to learn the L2; however, they often need motivators as their motivational levels are frequently subject to changes.

In terms of instrumental motivation, there were no significant differences between male and female learners. Öztürk and Gürbüz (2013) explain this similarity with the learners' consciousness of the necessity and importance of L2 to get a good job in the business world and gain a high status in society. Mendi (2009) also supports these findings about integrative and instrumental motivation of male and female learners. She states that, compared to male learners, females are more integratively oriented as they are much more willing to learn about other cultures by visiting them. Mendi (2009) includes L2 proficiency level as a significant variable into her study as well. She compares intermediate and elementary level students and looks into their motivational types. The results of her study show that intermediate level learners have a higher integrative orientation than the other group and they state having much more willingness to visit other countries to learn about their cultures. Elementary level learners, on the other hand, have mainly instrumental reasons and they wish to visit other countries only to practice and improve their English for future use. In her comprehensive study, Mendi (2009) finally investigates the connection between L2 motivation and the reading strategy use of the learners and she states that there is a positive correlation between these two constructs. Another ID factor studied in relation to L2 motivation in Turkey is anxiety. Öztürk (2012) examines this linkage at a state university preparatory school and suggests that Turkish L2 learners have medium level of L2 motivation while their L2 learning anxiety is quite low. With regards to the gender, female learners are more anxious when speaking in the class. Lastly, a negative correlation between L2 anxiety and motivation has been found in that research.

2.8. Summary

The literature described so far has clearly shown that L2 motivation is a dynamic phenomenon under the influence of many factors which come both from the individual in person and the environment. The L2 self-guides the learners create are also quite influential on it, since they give the learners the drive to reach the desired selves and escape from the undesired ones. The vision of these self-guides provides learners with the power and energy they need, and a vivid vision of them leads to long term efforts in reaching the final goal. Besides the future self-guides and vision, perceptual learning styles also substantially affect L2 motivation and achievement because how the people prefer to learn the language is a strong

determiner of their visualization capacities. Literature asserts that while visual and auditory learners are good at creating a vivid ideal L2 self vision, kinesthetic learners are not that successful in it. And while vision of a vivid L2 self makes it easier for the learners to determine a road map for the success, an ambiguous one can cause them to get lost on the way or they even may not set off to reach a goal.

The studies regarding the interactions among perceptual learning styles, future self-guides, vision, L2 motivation and achievement are quite new, and that is why they are highly intriguing in language learning context. Although a few research studies that shed light on this relationship exist in several countries such as Saudi Arabia, Korea, China, Japan and Sweden, it is still an uncharted territory here in Turkey. Considering that these variables are highly context bound, there is great need to see their interaction in the Turkish context for us, as the researchers and language educators of language teaching field in Turkey, and the lack of information about this interaction network inspired the present study.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter involves the methodological procedures followed in this study. It starts with a theoretical framework section on quantitative studies, especially survey studies. Then, the study will be depicted in details starting with its aims. The two settings where the data were collected will be described, an elaborate section on the participants will be presented, and the instruments used in the study will be reported. Next, they will be followed by a detailed section on data collection procedures and finally data analysis procedures will be covered.

3.2. Theoretical Framework

3.2.1. Quantitative and Qualitative Research Designs

In this study, quantitative research design has been adopted. To start with what a quantitative research design means, Aliaga and Gunderson (2002) describe it as "Explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analyzed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics)." (p. 1). They emphasize two parts of research in this definition, the first of which is "explaining phenomena". As in all types of research designs (quantitative, qualitative, or mixed), the main purpose of researchers practicing this one is also to explain a specific phenomenon. The second key point in their definition is that in this research design numerical data is used, and statistical analysis of that data leads the way to the conclusion.

Quantitative design is mostly described in comparison to the qualitative one in order to make its principles clearer. Muijs (2004) states that contrary to the qualitative research, quantitative design uses numbers to explain the phenomenon under investigation. He also emphasizes that the choice of data of these two research types is based on the philosophies behind them. Muijs (2004) and Creswell (2014) talk about two distinctive underlying philosophies discussing the nature of the reality or truth to be discovered. Quantitative perspective is based on realism or positivism which describes reality as standing "out there" independent from the individual people (Muijs, 2004, p. 4). Therefore, the researcher should investigate the issue as an outsider so as not to ruin its nature and should use appropriate instruments serving that purpose. Positivism is defined as "the most extreme form" of the realism,

explaining the truth with a “cause and effect” relationship (p. 4) that is completely separated from the subjective involvement of the people. However, these views have been discussed to be problematic back then as it would not be possible to isolate the researcher from the investigation considering that they exist in the same world. Following that criticism, the post-positivist perspective appeared (1960s), and their main argument was that it is not possible to discover reality completely isolated from the subjectivity of the individuals. Therefore, the best thing to do is trying to maximize the objectivity of these investigations and do the best to reach the truth using reliable instruments.

Contrary to quantitative perspective, the qualitative one is based on the subjectivist worldview, asserting that reality is not out there standing independently, but rather is partly shaped by people and their observations. The subjectivist worldview is relativistic at this point suggesting that there is no absolute truth waiting to be explored objectively. As with quantitative design, the qualitative view has also been suggested to be problematic because of its high focus on subjective truth (Muijs, 2004).

Considering the criticisms of the underlying philosophies of both quantitative and qualitative design, a new paradigm has emerged: pragmatism. Pragmatists completely reject the previous views such as positivism, relativism and so forth. Instead, they emphasize the “practical outcome(s)” (Muijs, 2004, p. 6) of truth, and state that based on the research question, different designs can be applied. If the research questions require a numerical answer, quantitative design should be used, and if not, a qualitative one should be preferred. So, pragmatism gives the researchers the flexibility to choose the design that works best for their research purposes (Creswell, 2014).

According to Newman and Benz (1998), in order to decide upon which research structure to use, first the research questions and the convenience of the data should be investigated. Quantitative design should be preferred when the questions require numerical answers and to reach these answers quantitative data needs to be gathered. Muijs (2004) states that, although some types of data do not exist in numerical form in nature (such as beliefs, attitudes and so on), the researcher can turn these data into numbers with the use of appropriate instruments, so that

quantitative researcher has the advantageous flexibility to study many kinds of subjects through that design. There is a highly common fallacy that quantitative studies can only describe things as they just produce statistical results and they lack the potential to explain a phenomenon as in the qualitative one. However, Muijs (2004) suggests that “a well-designed quantitative study will allow us not just to look at what happens, but to provide an explanation of why it happens as well. The key lies in your research design and what variables you collect.” (p. 10). Based on the statements of the scholars above, it can be easily asserted that quantitative design is very practical in many areas and can give invaluable answers to the issues under investigation as long as it is well-designed.

3.2.2. Survey Studies

There are four main kinds of quantitative studies which are experimental research, causal-comparative research, correlation research, and survey research. In this study, the researcher will be adopting a survey research whose results are highly generalizable. Balnaves and Caputi (2001) define survey study as “…a method of collecting data from people about who they are (education, finances, etc.), how they think (motivations, beliefs, etc.), and what they do (behavior).” (p. 76). They suggest that, generally questionnaires are used in that design and they are implemented in person or via some other communication tools such as telephone or the internet. Regarding the nature of surveys, Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) explain that in a survey study, rather than the whole population, a representative sample of participants is included and the results are generalized to the whole population. Therefore, it is crucial to choose the sample carefully to have a reliable generalization. While describing survey design, Creswell (2014) emphasizes its numeric and also highly generalizable nature. According to him, survey studies can describe and explain many topics such as ideas or attitudes of the participants and as it is painless to conduct this research with large numbers of randomly assigned participants, it is absolutely possible to generalize its results to the whole target population.

Survey research is administrated in two different types which are cross-sectional and longitudinal. Cross-sectional design aims at collecting the data from the previously chosen sample at one time while longitudinal design aims to see the

variations as time progresses, and therefore gathers the data at different times (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). In this study, a cross-sectional design will be practiced as there is no intention of investigating the changes in the variables over time.

To collect the necessary information, a questionnaire will be used in the present study. Ekmekci (1999) states that “Questionnaires are widely used in survey research with the aim of eliciting information…, investigating respondents’ experiences on a specific topic by asking exploratory questions, interpreting or explaining the existing or known situation by means of inferential or explanatory questions” (p. 2). To be able to talk about a healthy application of a questionnaire, a well-designed questionnaire is needed and the types of the questions included in it are substantial. Open-ended or closed type questions can be preferred based on the purposes of the study, sample size, and type of information needed. Open-ended questions ask the participants to write an answer while closed questions require them to choose an answer from the given options or to grade a statement. Ekmekçi (1999) states that although open-ended questions may provide more in-depth answers which are not predicted by the researcher, it may be problematic for the studies conducted on a large sample size because the data analysis takes a great amount of time. Also, some misinterpretations by the researcher may distort the information (Ekmekci, 1999). Ekmekçi (1999) suggests that with a large group of participants, closed questions will work better as they provide the expected answers leaving no space for interpretation and subjectivity of the researcher. So, it is easier to conduct and score the results of that type as they provide “standardized data” (p. 3) to be analyzed. In this study, closed type questions have been preferred since it has been conducted on a pretty large sample (343 participants included). Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) advocate that with a sample of around 50 or less than 50 participants, open-ended questions could be used without problems. But, as the number increases, closed questions would be more practical, serve the intended purpose much better, and produce more reliable responses.

The administration process of the questionnaire is another significant factor affecting its quality and success. The questionnaire of a survey study can be conducted through different agents such as the internet and telephone; it can be applied through personal interviews or can be conducted directly by the researcher to the participants (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). These methods highly determine the rate

and the reliability of the responses that the researcher will obtain (Ekmekçi, 1999). Nowadays, some online software used to create and send questionnaires to the participants exists. They enable fast and cheap application, and also provide the chance to contact participants internationally rather easily; however, they mostly result in really low response rates. Telephone surveys are another practical method with regard to the time and money it takes, compared to in person applications. It is also highly advantageous in terms of giving the chance to clarify some uncertain points to the participants; however, it may be problematic to find the contact information of some participants. Moreover, it is not thought to be as effective as in person applications in terms of providing responses to some personal or sensitive issues, because the participants may not like talking about these to a person they neither know nor see. The third method of questionnaire data collection is personal interviews. In this method, the researcher asks the questions to the participants face-to-face. It is quite advantageous as it provides the researcher with the chance of explaining some unclear points and the researcher can establish rapport with the participants to ensure collaboration. On the other hand, the application process can be lengthy considering the number of participants, it can monetarily cost more than the other methods, and it requires trained interviewers. The fourth and final method is direct application of the questionnaire to the group. This method is highly practical when the researcher can personally contact the participants in one place, so that it takes less time, less effort and little money. Moreover, the presence of the researcher gives the participants the chance to ask for clarification when they need, resulting in nearly 100 percent response rate. Direct administration by the researcher was chosen in this present study as well and it made the data collection procedure quite practical for the researcher.

3.2.3. Advantages and Disadvantages of Survey Studies

As in many research designs, questionnaire studies also have many advantages and disadvantages which need to be considered prior to the application process (Munn & Drever, 1990). To start with its advantages, the most significant one is that questionnaires give the researcher the opportunity to reach a large number of participants at a time (Best & Kahn, 2005) and as the number of the respondents' increase, the reliability and generalizability of the study increases. They are also much more effective in terms of time and money in reaching the large sample

groups. Another advantage of questionnaires is the use of standardized questions which hinder the misinterpretations by the researchers. These types of questions are also timesaving during the application and scoring procedures. Moreover, questionnaires have a very high potential for anonymity. Not requiring the participants to write their names on the questionnaire may comfort them, especially when personal and sensitive items are included, and they may answer the questions more honestly, which hinders the respondent bias to some extent. It also increases the reliability of the study. Besides these, questionnaires can provide valuable explanatory data via well-designed instruments (Muijs, 2004) as well as descriptive data from the standardized questions (Munn & Drever, 1990). Lastly, it has been stated by Munn and Drever (1990) that lower response rate of the questionnaires can be a problem in survey studies; however, direct administration of it to the sample group abolishes that pitfall. When conducted by the researcher in person, questionnaires can have nearly 100 percent return rate (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006) which is one of the most significant advantages of it.

Despite the valuable advantages of questionnaires, they are also disadvantageous in some respects. The most significant one is that the researchers have to see the situations with an outsider perspective and are “not concerned with characteristics of individuals *as* individuals” (Best & Kahn, 2005). Only the statistical result of a large group retrieved from individual responses is considered. Another disadvantage that needs attention is that if the questionnaire is to be designed by the researcher directly, it takes a long time to prepare it. To get reliable results to the questions and serve the purpose of the study, a high quality questionnaire is needed that will be ready only after several drafting and piloting phases (Munn & Drever, 1990). Lastly, questionnaires are pretty susceptible to response bias (Tuckman & Harper, 2012). Asking for the participants to choose an answer on a scale or checklist may lead them to avoid from the extreme ends, or they may tend to focus on only the positive responses because of the social desirability issues. However, administrating the questionnaires anonymously can help to overcome that problem to some extent, although it may not eliminate it completely. Seeing the various pros and cons of a survey study, it is the researcher’s responsibility to eliminate the negative sides of it as much as possible and use it effectively in order to conduct a highly reliable and generalizable quantitative study.

3.3. Study

In this section, the aims of the study, settings, participants, the instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures will be described.

3.3.1. Aims of the study

This study aims to investigate the interactions among perceptual learning styles, future self-guides, motivated behavior, imagery capacity, and L2 academic achievement of tertiary level language learners in Turkish context. Although those interactions have been previously studied in some countries including Korea, Saudi Arabia, Japan, and Sweden, the absence of research in the Turkish educational context has been a starting point for that research. It is likely that these variables are highly context-bound and can be easily affected by the culture of the country. So, that relationship network may arise in very distinctive ways in Turkish educational context. Based on the research gap in the field, this study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the participants' levels of actual L2 self, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self?
2. Are students' reported actual L2 self, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self different from each other?
3. What are the preferred perceptual learning styles of the participants in this study?
4. What is the participants' level of vision?
5. Is there a relationship between participants' perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, L2 learning motivation, and language learning achievement?
6. Among the variables of perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, and L2 motivation what are the best predictors of L2 academic achievement?
7. Among the variables of perceptual learning styles, vision, and self-guides what are the best predictors of L2 motivation?
8. Among the variables of perceptual learning styles, vision, actual L2 self, ought to L2 self and L2 motivation what are the best predictors of ideal L2 self?

3.3.2. Settings

The current study was conducted in two different settings. One of them is Giresun University School of Foreign Languages, which is a quite new school founded in

2012. The aim of this school is to teach English for general purposes and to assist students develop four main skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in a one-year intensive prep-class education. The students of it belong to two departments of the university which are Business Administration and Translation Studies. Double shift schooling is available in this school as in the most of the other faculties and departments of Giresun University. Day classes are between 09:00 and 17:00, and night classes continue from 17:00 to 23:00. The language curriculum applied is based on CLT which aims at preparing students for the real world where they will need to use the language to communicate and produce academic works. Therefore, all skills have great importance in that one-year programme. The learners studying here have 24 hours of English lessons per week. These 24 hours include main course, reading and writing, listening and speaking, and grammar classes. Throughout the semester, they have separate quizzes, midterms, finals, and portfolios for each course; however, the main course holds the biggest percentage regarding the class hours and the grading system.

The second setting in the research was Giresun University Faculty of Economic and Administrative Sciences. This faculty consists of six departments including Economics, Business Administration, International Relations, Political Science and Public Administration, Public Finance, and Econometrics. In this faculty, only department of economics 1st grade students participated in the study. Double shift schooling is available in this school with the same beginning and ending hours as the School of Foreign Languages. The curriculum applied here is also based on CLT; however, these students have only 4 hours of English per week in their first year. That 4-hour time is mainly used as a main course which integrates all four skills in one lesson. They have a midterm exam, a final exam and a portfolio as assessment tools.

3.3.3. Participants

The participants of this study were chosen through convenience sampling. Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) state that “A convenience sample is a group of individuals who (conveniently) are available for study” (p. 98). This sampling method is among the most widely used ones in educational research and it is quite advantageous in terms of time, money and effort it takes (Muijs, 2004).

The participants from Giresun University School of Foreign Languages consisted of 242 adult learners of English as a foreign language. Among them, 148 students are from Business Administration department. Half of them study in day classes, the other half are night-class students. The same thing goes for the remaining 94 Translation Studies students with a balanced distribution between day and night classes. In terms of their gender distribution, 109 male (44.9 %) and 133 female (55.1 %) students participated in that study and their ages ranged from 18 to 22 (see Table 1). All of the participants from this school have gone through very similar English instruction until university, following the Ministry of Education's primary, secondary and high school curricula. They started learning English in elementary school from the 4th grade onward and still continue that process. Although Translation Studies students are in an English-major department, they are not accepted into Giresun University via an exam testing their knowledge of English. Their verbal score in the national university entrance exam is used as the admission criteria. The learners finish this one-year prep-class education at B1 level according to CEFR and at the end of the term they take an English proficiency exam. If they can pass that exam, they go to their department and start their 1st year. If they fail, they repeat the same process and take the exam again.

The participants from Giresun University Faculty of Economic and Administrative Sciences Department of Economics consisted of 101 learners with a nearly balanced distribution between day and night class students. With regard to gender distribution of these participants, 64 (63.4 %) of them were male and 37 (36.6 %) were female. Their ages ranged from 18 to 23. The language instruction they get this year is at the level of A1, and when they get a minimum of 60 out of 100 as a composite score of the term, they pass the course. The 1st year students of that department were chosen for the current research as they had not studied in prep-class the previous year and so they were the same age as the prep-class students. Also, they had similar background as the prep students in terms of the years of English language instruction. Finally, it is a fact that as the number of the participants goes up in a survey study, the reliability of the study increases as well. That respondent group was included in the research for these purpose.

Table 1. Summary of characteristics of study participants

		Female		Male	
	N	N	%	N	%
Prep-class students	242	133	55.1	109	44.9
1st year students	101	37	36.6	64	63.4

3.3.4. Instrumentation

For the current study, data were collected using a 73-item composite survey instrument (see Appendices 1 and 2). The main variables in it were perceptual learning styles (visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile), self-guides (ideal self, ought to self, and actual self), imagination, and motivated behavior and effort. Achievement was also a major variable in the study; however, it was evaluated based on composite scores of the term.

3.3.4.1. Perceptual Learning Styles Instrument

The items for perceptual learning styles were adapted from Erten's (1998) Perceptual Learning Style Preference Inventory (PLSPI) which was developed based on Reid's (1987) Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ). Reid's PLSPQ has been used in various research studies (Payne, 1988, Rossi-Le, 1989, Hyland, 1994). Erten's PLSPI has some items based on O'Brien (1990) and Towsend and Towsend (1992) as well.

The instrument for the present study had 20 items. 5 of which measure visual style preference (1,3,7,13,19), 5 of them determine auditory learning style preference (2,5,8,14,18), another 5 measure tactile learning style preference (9,11,15,16,20) and the rest is for kinesthetic learning style (4,6,10,12,17). The reliability scores have been reported by Erten (1998) to be $\alpha = .733$ for visual items, $\alpha = .610$ for auditory, $\alpha = .697$ for kinesthetic, and $\alpha = .734$ for tactile items in the original study. However, in the current study, these scores have been revealed to be a bit lower. The Cronbach's alpha score for visual learning style was $\alpha = .487$, for the auditory learning style it was found to be $\alpha = .456$, kinesthetic style had the value of $\alpha = .558$, while the tactile one had $\alpha = .629$ as the reliability score.

3.3.4.2. Future Self-Guides Instrument

Self-guides of the learners were measured using subscales adapted from Taguchi et al.*'s* (2009) questionnaire. It includes many variables such as ideal and ought to selves, attitudes towards learning English, attitudes towards L2 community, family influence, cultural interest, integrativeness and so on. Taguchi et al. (2009) state that "most of the items for the components were based on established questionnaires (Clement & Baker, 2001; Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 1985, Noels et al., 2000)" (p.74). Among its large number of items, only the ones referring to ideal self and ought to self, 20 in number, were adopted in the current study. Unfortunately, there is not an actual self scale present in the area. Therefore, by permission of the writers of the scale, the items of ideal L2 self have been restated considering what actual self is. The statements in each item referring to the "ideal" have been replaced by the ones referring to their "real" situations, and it consisted of 10 items as well.

In the survey, items ranging from 21 to 30 belong to ideal L2 self, 31 to 40 are to measure ought to L2 self, and 41 to 50 endeavor to determine actual L2 self. Dörnyei and Chan (2013) state having applied Taguchi et al.*'s* (2009) questionnaire in their research and they report that Cronbach's alpha score for ideal English self is α = .78, and for ought to English self it is α = .77 both of which are quite satisfactory. In the present study, these scores were much higher. The Cronbach's alpha value was α = .92 for ideal L2 self, and α = .87 for ought to L2 self. The actual self scale also had a quite satisfactory value which was α = .84.

3.3.4.3. Imagery Capacity Instrument

Imagery capacity of the participants in the current study was surveyed using Richardson's (1994) imagery capacity scale. The scale has been used by Dörnyei and Chan (2013) as well. It consists of 5 items and the Cronbach's alpha value is reported to be α = .68 in the reference study. In the current study, that score was α = .84. The items ranging from 51 to 55 belong to this scale in the instrument.

3.3.4.4. Motivated Behavior and Effort Instrument

To measure the motivated behavior and effort of the learners, a questionnaire from Al-Shehri (2009), which was developed with cooperation of Al-Shehri and Dörnyei was used. The motivated behavior scale had 18 items. The Cronbach's alpha value of it has been reported by Al-Shehri (2009) to be α = .89. In this particular study,

that score was found to be α = .94. It is clear that the instrument has a high level of reliability, and therefore has been used by other researchers, such as Kim (2009), Kim and Kim (2011, 2014), and Yang and Kim (2011), either in its original version or with some adaptations. The items ranging from 56 to 73 belong to this scale in the instrument.

For all scales of that 73-item instrument, a 5 point Likert scale ranging from “never” to “all the time” was used.

Academic achievement in the English course was one of the most significant variables of this study and it referred to how much attainment learners got to reach the objectives of their English courses in one school term. It was measured via composite scores that were reached at the end of the academic term. For the participants from Giresun University School of Foreign Languages, their scores of quizzes (5 quizzes per semester), portfolios, midterm exams, and final exams were evaluated. L2 academic achievement of the respondents from Faculty of Economic and Administrative Sciences was also assessed based on their midterms, portfolios and final.

3.3.4.5. Translation and Back-translation Procedures

Considering the low proficiency levels of the participants, the instrument was translated into their native language, Turkish. To make sure that there was no meaning difference or loss between the original and translated versions of the questionnaires, translation and back-translation procedures were performed and during that process some professional English majors assisted. First, the researcher translated the instruments into Turkish and then asked five M.A or Ph.D. level colleagues to grade the consistency between the original and translated versions of the instruments. She also asked for feedback from these colleagues regarding how problematic statements would be translated more clearly. Then, she made some corrections based on the reactions of her colleagues and she asked for another colleague with the same qualifications stated above to translate the Turkish version back to English. After creating a back-translated English version of the instruments, two native speakers of English were asked to rate the synonymy between the original and back-translated questionnaires, and 95.2% synonymy between them was achieved.

3.3.5. Procedure for Data Collection

Before starting the data collection process, the researcher applied for the permission of Hacettepe University Ethics Commission. Some documents, including adaptation consent from the developers of Future Self-Guides Instrument were submitted to the commission. Following the investigation process, the commission approved that this study conformed to the ethical principles of Hacettepe University (see Appendix 3) and it could be conducted as planned.

The participants of this study were chosen through convenience sampling. Since the researcher was a lecturer at Giresun University School of Foreign Language at that time, she started data collection with the students of her own institution. She visited all of the classes with the permission of the school administration and the teachers of the courses, and first, she briefly informed the students about this study. They were told that this questionnaire would be used only for the purposes of that research study, it would not be shared by any other people or institutions and it would not have any negative effect on their grades. They were also informed that they had the opportunity not to take part in this study and that they could leave even after they start answering the questions. After informing participants about their rights regarding that study, the researcher gave them an official consent form (see Appendix 4). Nearly all of the students agreed to take part in it and she administered the questionnaires in the following two weeks. Then, she contacted the respondents from Giresun University Faculty of Economic and Administrative Sciences Department of Economics through two colleagues who were teaching both in this department and in School of Foreign Languages. After getting the permission from the faculty administration, she visited the classes with her colleagues and made the same essential explanations about their rights throughout the study and privacy of their answers. Making sure that the learners were comfortable with participating in it, they were also given the official consent form, they confirmed their participation, and the researcher conducted the questionnaires.

In both settings, the researcher was also available in classes during the applications; so that she was able to “get the answers immediately, have an opportunity to clarify the points that may be confusing to the respondents, (and) observe the situation under which the respondents fill in the questionnaire.” (Ekmekci, 1999, p. 8). Finally,

achievement scores of the participants were obtained from the schools at the end of the academic term.

3.3.6. Data Analysis

3.3.6.1. Rationale for the Use of Parametric Tests

To determine whether parametric or non-parametric tests would be more appropriate to analyze the available data, a test of normality was performed, administering Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test. An overview of the results (Table 1) indicates that the data in this study did not display a normal distribution. According to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, all the independent variables in the study had values which were statistically significant ($p < .05$), specifying that these tests produced non-normal distribution. Furthermore, Saphiro-Wilk test also revealed that tests were not normally distributed ($p < .05$) as they had statistically significant scores. The results can be viewed in Table 2.

Table 2. Tests of normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Visual	.09	343	.000	.97	343	.000
Auditory	.08	343	.000	.97	343	.000
Tactile	.06	343	.004	.98	343	.004
Kinesthetic	.09	343	.000	.97	343	.000
IdealL2Self	.07	343	.000	.96	343	.000
OughttoL2Self	.07	343	.000	.97	343	.000
ActualL2Self	.06	343	.004	.98	343	.001
Vision	.07	343	.000	.96	343	.000
Motivation	.09	343	.000	.95	343	.000
Achievement	.23	343	.000	.92	343	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The initial investigation of the analysis appeared to show a non-normally distributed data. However, Pallant (2010) states that this is a commonly observed situation in large samples, and the real form of the distribution can be viewed in histograms or normal probability plots (Q-Q plots). Since the current research study also had a quite large sample group, there was a need to examine these figures to be sure of the distribution. For that purpose, normal probability plots (Q-Q plots) of each variable were analyzed and nearly all of the tests employed in this study were

revealed to display a normal distribution with perfect or reasonably straight lines. The results can be viewed in the following figures for each variable.

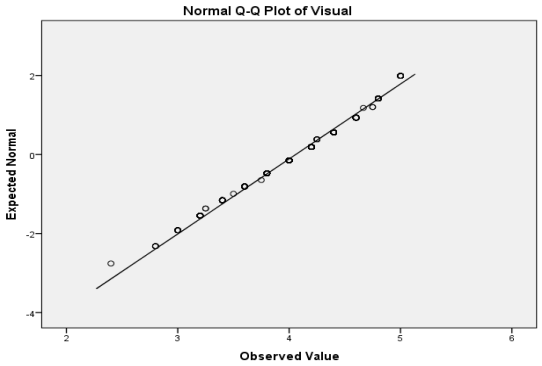

Figure 1. Normal probability plots of visual learning style test

Figure 1 shows a nearly perfect straight line of scores suggesting that the data of visual learning style seems to be normally distributed.

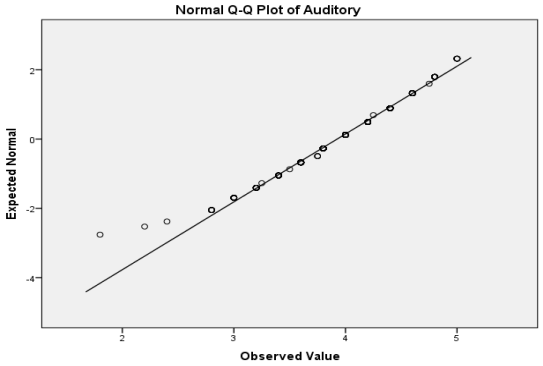

Figure 2. Normal probability plots of auditory learning style test

The data of auditory learning style also appeared to be normally distributed with a reasonably straight line, which can be seen above in Figure 2.

Figure 3 displays the distribution of kinesthetic learning style and the scores fall about an approximately straight line, indicating a normal distribution for this test as well.

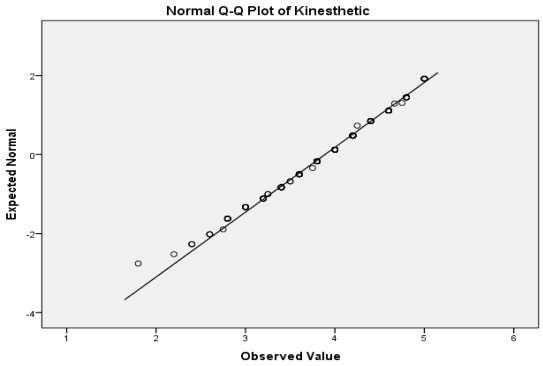

Figure 3. Normal probability plots of kinesthetic learning style test

Figure 4 below shows the normal probability plots of tactile learning style. It is clear from the figure that tactile learning style data has a perfectly straight line which means that the data seems to have a nearly perfect normal distribution.

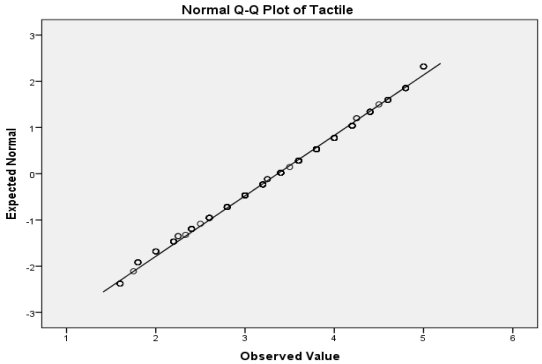

Figure 4. Normal probability plots of tactile learning style test

In Figure 5, a reasonably straight line with only very small deviations can be observed, and therefore ideal L2 self data also displays a fairly normal distribution.

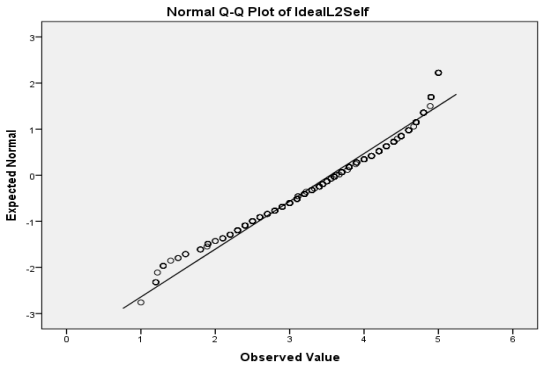

Figure 5. Normal probability plots of ideal L2 self test

Similar to the ideal L2 self test, ought to L2 self test in Figure 6 shows some minor deviations from the line; however, as the scores are still on the straight line to a great extent, Figure 6 displays a normally distributed data as well.

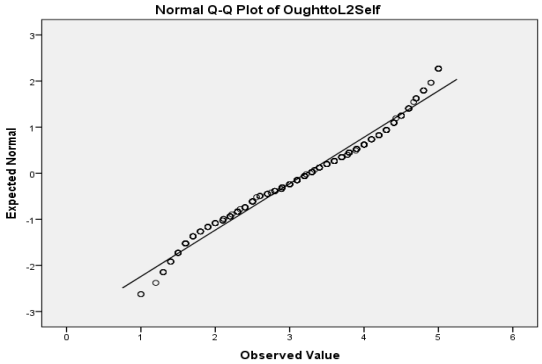

Figure 6. Normal probability plots of ought to L2 self test

Figure 7 below belongs to the Q-Q plots of actual L2 self, and it presents very similar results to the previous ones. With the test scores on a pretty straight line, that figure shows a normally distributed data of the actual L2 self.

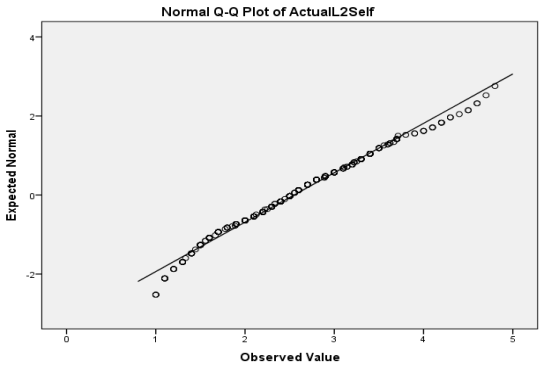

Figure 7. Normal probability plots of actual L2 self test

In Figure 8, a perfectly normal distribution can be viewed. It is clear that the scores of vision test are totally on the straight line with nearly no deviations. This is an obvious demonstration of perfect normal distribution.

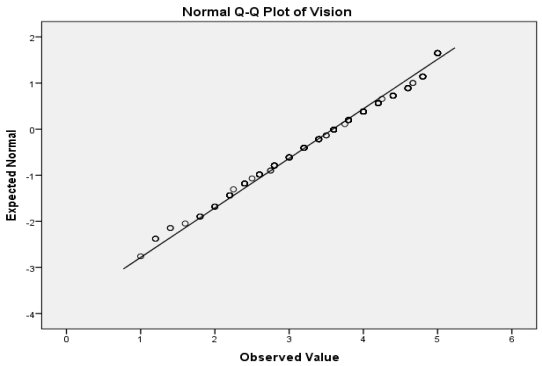

Figure 8. Normal probability plots of vision test

The data regarding L2 motivation test also displays a reasonably normal distribution with small deviations from the line. This can be viewed in Figure 9.

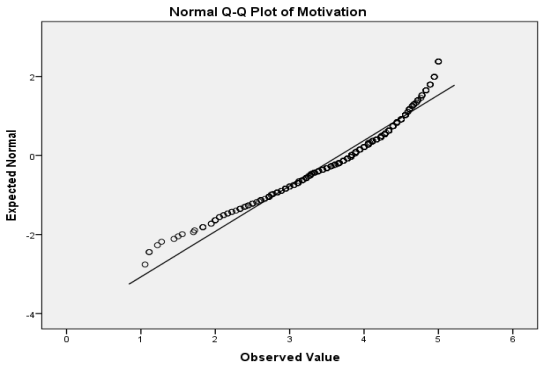

Figure 9. Normal probability plots of L2 motivation test

Finally, the data of language learning achievement were closely examined via the Q-Q plots. The results show that although not as reasonable as the previous test

data, the scores of L2 achievement can also be asserted to be normally distributed at an acceptable level. This can be seen in Figure 10.

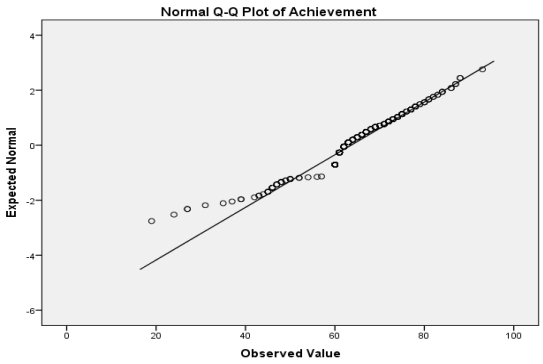

Figure 10. Normal probability plots of language learning achievement

Although the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed numerical results of non-normal distribution, the visuals of normality tests (Q-Q plots) displayed normal distribution for nearly all tests. Therefore, the researcher preferred to use parametric tests rather than non-parametric ones based on the normal probability plots presented in the figures above. Regarding non-parametric tests, Pallant (2010) states that “They tend to be less sensitive than their more powerful parametric cousins, and may therefore fail to detect differences between groups that actually exist.” (p. 213). She also suggests that “If you have the ‘right’ sort of data, it is always better to use a parametric technique if you can.” (Pallant, 2010, p. 213).

3.3.6.2. Tests Employed

Data was analyzed quantitatively, and both descriptive and inferential statistical procedures were applied using SPSS Statistics 20.0. Both the normal distribution of the data and the interval level scaling of it comply with the assumptions of parametric techniques (Pallant, 2010), and therefore parametric tests were preferred in this study. For the first, third, and fourth research questions, descriptive statistics was applied and mean values of future self-guides, perceptual learning styles, and vision were calculated. The second research question was analyzed via one-way repeated measures ANOVA. One-way repeated measures ANOVA is used to compare the mean values of the same group on more than two different situations (Pallant, 2010). That research question was concerned with differences between the mean scores of three self-guides, and therefore one-way repeated measures ANOVA was adopted. For the fifth research question, Pearson product-moment correlation

coefficient which "…is used when you want to explore the strength of the relationship between two continuous variables." (Pallant, 2010, p. 103) was performed. The relationship among the variables of the study including self-guides, perceptual learning styles, vision, L2 motivation, and L2 learning achievement was explored through that analysis model. The purpose of the sixth research question was revealing the predictors of L2 achievement and a stepwise multiple regression analysis was carried out for that question. Pallant (2010) states that you need to use multiple regression analysis when you want to investigate the predictive power of independent variables on a dependent variable which is of continuous type. According to Pallant (2007) and Tabachnick and Fidel (2007), to be able to conduct regression analysis, a minimum 8 participants for each independent variable and also an additional 50 participants were necessary. Considering 9 independent variables of the present study, a total of 122 participants would be enough. So, the sample size of this study (n = 343) was exceedingly adequate for regression analysis. Similar to the sixth one, the seventh research question aimed to find out the predictors of L2 motivation and the last research question inquired the predictors of ideal L2 self. Stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed for the purposes of those research questions.

4. FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

In this section, the researcher will present the results of the analyses following the order of the research questions. Firstly, the research questions will be restated. Then, the findings for each research question will be presented describing the statistics regarding each question. Lastly, the chapter will be concluded with a summary section.

4.2. Findings

This research focuses on the following eight research questions which were aimed to be answered throughout the study:

1. What are the participants' levels of actual L2 self, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self?
2. Are students' reported actual L2 self, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self different from each other?
3. What are the preferred perceptual learning styles of the participants in this study?
4. What is the participants' level of vision?
5. Is there a relationship between participants' perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, L2 learning motivation, and language learning achievement?
6. Among the variables of perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, and L2 motivation, what are the best predictors of L2 academic achievement?
7. Among the variables of perceptual learning styles, vision, and self-guides, what are the best predictors of L2 motivation?
8. Among the variables of perceptual learning styles, vision, actual L2 self, ought to L2 self, and L2 motivation, what are the best predictors of ideal L2 self?

4.2.1. Participants' levels of actual L2 self, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self

Research question 1: What are the participants' levels of actual L2 self, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self?

To explore the self-guides of the learners, descriptive statistics were employed. Mean scores for actual L2 self, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self were calculated.

The mean values for all of these three self-guides were above the mid-point of a 5-point Likert scale, which was 2.5.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics: Levels of actual L2 self, ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self

	N	Mean	SD
Actual L2 self	343	2.54	.79
Ideal L2 Self	343	3.54	.96
Ought to L2 Self	343	3.22	.99

Descriptive statistics showed that the participants appeared to have the highest mean value in ideal L2 self (mean = 3.54, SD = .96) indicating that L2 had the most significant part in their ideal selves. It was followed by ought to L2 self (mean = 3.22, SD = .99) with a slightly lower mean value. The results clearly present that L2 has a great role in their ought to selves as well. Finally, the actual L2 self had the lowest mean score (mean = 2.54, SD = .79) which signifies that L2 does not have such a substantial place in their actual selves as in their ideal or ought to selves. However, it still has a quite important role in that self as it has a mean value (mean = 2.54) above the mid-point (2.5) of the scale. These can be seen in Table 3.

4.2.2. Differences among self-guides

Research question 2: Are students' reported actual L2 self, ideal L2 self, and ought to L2 self different from each other?

Analysis shows the results for ideal L2 self with a mean score of 3.54 (SD = .96). Ought to L2 self had a mean value of 3.22 (SD =. 99), and finally the mean value of actual L2 self was 2.54 (SD = .79) (see Table 2). It is clear that all the three self-guides had different mean values from each other. To compare these mean scores and see whether they are significantly different from each other, one-way repeated measures ANOVA was employed. It was found that there was a statistically significant difference between the self-guides of the participants, Wilk's Lambda = .41, F (2,341) = 237, p = .00 (< .05). Based on the guidelines offered by Cohen (1988), the results of this study present a large effect size, partial eta squared = .58 (> .14).

Although it was reported that there were statistically significant differences among the participants' self-guides and the size of difference was highly large, there was

still a need for more detailed analysis. Table 4 demonstrates a close investigation of the pairwise comparisons conducted to see between which occasions (self-guides) these differences surface. It is indicated in the results that each of the mean differences between the self-guides was significant, p = .00 (< .05) which means that each of them significantly differed from each other.

The highest level of difference was ascertained between ideal L2 self and actual L2 self, mean difference = .99. The mean difference value between the ought to L2 self and actual L2 self followed with the score of .67. Finally, the smallest difference value was shown between ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self with the score of .32. These can be viewed in Table 4.

Table 4. Pairwise comparisons of mean differences

(I) Selves	(J) Selves	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]
Ideal L2 self	Ought to L2 self	.32*	.06	.000
	Actual L2 self	.99*	.04	.000
Ought to L2 self	Ideal L2 self	-.32*	.06	.000
	Actual L2 self	.67*	.06	.000
Actual L2 self	Ideal L2 self	-.99*	.04	.000
	Ought to L2 self	-.67*	.06	.000

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Figure 11 below also presents the sizes of differences between the self-guides

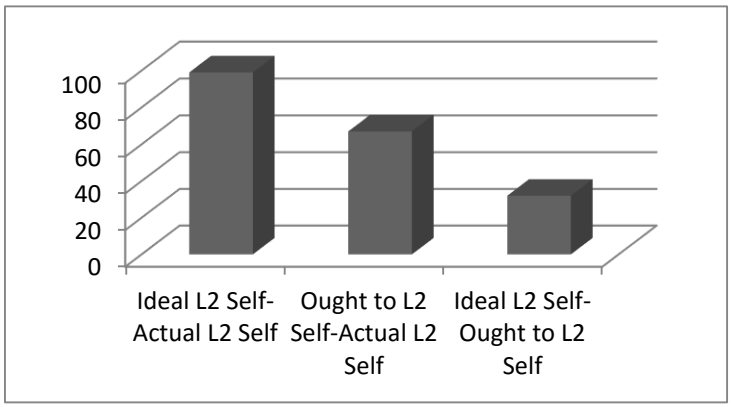

Figure 11. Mean differences between the self-guides

4.2.3. Participants' perceptual learning style preferences

Research question 3: What is the preference of the participants' perceptual learning styles?

Perceptual learning style preferences of the participants were investigated using descriptive statistics and the results were shown in Table 5. As presented in the table, visual learning style (mean = 4.05, SD = .52) appeared to be the most preferred one by the participants of this study. Seeing that it has a really high mean score (mean = 4.05 out of 5-point Likert scale) indicates that visual learning style is greatly favored by these learners. Auditory learning style (mean = 3.92, SD = .51) follows the visual learning style as the second most favored one with a very close mean value. The next favorite learning style of the tertiary level EFL learners was reported to be kinesthetic style (mean = 3.88, SD = .60) and tactile learning style (mean = 3.36, SD = .76) turned out to be the least preferred one by them. However, the score of 3.36 shows that tactile learning style still tends to be quite chosen since it has a mean value substantially higher than the mid-point (2.5) of the scale.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics: Perceptual learning style preferences of the participants

	N	Mean	SD
Visual	343	4.05	.52
Auditory	343	3.92	.51
Kinesthetic	343	3.88	.60
Tactile	343	3.36	.76

4.2.4. Participants' level of vision

Research question 4: What is the participants' level of vision?

To calculate the learners' level of vision, descriptive statistics were conducted and the results showed that the tertiary level EFL learners in this study had quite a high level of vision (mean = 3.58, SD = .93). It can be asserted based on this mean value that these participants had a large capacity of creating an image in their minds (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Descriptive analysis can be viewed in Table 6.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics: Participants' level of vision

	N	Mean	SD
Vision	343	3.58	.93

4.2.5. The relationship between the variables

Research question 5: Is there a relationship between participants' perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, L2 learning motivation, and language learning achievement?

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between language learning achievement or the dependent variable and each of the other independent variables including visual learning style, auditory learning style, kinesthetic learning style, tactile learning style, vision, ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self, actual L2 self, and L2 motivation. Preliminary analyses were conducted to assure no violation of the assumptions of normality. These can be viewed in section 3.3.6.1.

As the results in Table 7 show, most of the variables investigated in this study were correlated positively and statistically significantly. Having explored the correlations between L2 learning achievement and the other independent variables, it can be clearly said that there was a positive and statistically significant correlation between language learning achievement and L2 motivation ($r = .281$, $p < .01$). Actual L2 self was also significantly and positively correlated with L2 learning achievement ($r = .227$, $p < .01$). Finally, a positive correlation at a statistically significant level was attained between language learning achievement and ideal L2 self ($r = .139$, $p < .05$).

Table 7. Pearson product-moment correlations between the variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Achievement	1									
Visual	.103	1								
Auditory	.057	.506**	1							
Tactile	-.053	.317**	.273**	1						
Kinesthetic	.088	.313**	.305**	.442**	1					
IdealL2Self	.139*	.283**	.310**	.129*	.314**	1				
OughttoL2Self	-.073	.038	.146**	.147**	.203**	.258**	1			
ActualL2Self	.227**	.146**	.213**	.180**	.243**	.527**	.241**	1		
Vision	.012	.373**	.195**	.266**	.289**	.274**	.164**	.228**	1	
Motivation	.281**	.328**	.400**	.217**	.315**	.653**	.341**	.522**	.178**	1

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results show significant correlations among the independent variables as well. To start with, visual learning style is positively and significantly correlated with all variables except for language learning achievement and ought to L2 self, while auditory, tactile, and kinesthetic learning styles had a positive and significant correlation with all independent variables but not achievement. Ideal L2 self was positively and significantly correlated with all of the variables in the study, however it had the largest correlation with L2 motivation (r = .653, $p < .01$) followed by actual L2 self (r = .527, $p < .01$). Ought to L2 self was also positively and significantly correlated with most of the variables except for L2 learning achievement and visual learning style. Similar to the ideal L2 self, actual L2 self had statistically significant and positive correlation with all variables, although it had the largest correlation with ideal L2 self (r = .527, $p < .01$) and was succeeded by L2 motivation (r = .522, $p < .01$). Another substantial variable of the study, vision, had also positive correlation with all independent variables. Uninterestingly, it had the highest correlation score with visual learning style (r = .373, $p < .01$), and kinesthetic learning style followed it (r = .289, $p < .01$). Finally, L2 motivation was correlated positively at a statistically significant level with all variables in the study. It had the highest correlation value with ideal L2 self (r = .653, $p < .01$), then actual L2 self (r = .522, $p < .01$) and auditory learning style (r = .400, $p < .01$). While the largest statistically significant correlation

in the study appeared between L2 motivation and ideal L2 self (r = .653, $p < .01$), the smallest was between tactile learning style and ideal L2 self (r = .129, $p < .05$). Correlation coefficients can be seen in Table 7.

4.2.6. Predictors of L2 learning achievement

Research question 6: Of perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, and L2 motivation, what are the best predictors of L2 academic achievement?

Table 8. Stepwise multiple regression analyses (N=343)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Change Statistics				
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.281[a]	.079	.076	.079	29.31	1	341	.000
2	.334[b]	.111	.106	.032	12.29	1	340	.001
3	.351[c]	.123	.115	.012	4.53	1	339	.034
4	.368[d]	.135	.125	.012	4.80	1	338	.029

a. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation

b. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation, OughttoL2Self

c. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation, OughttoL2Self, ActualL2Self

d. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation, OughttoL2Self, ActualL2Self, Tactile

e. Dependent Variable: Achievement

To inquire whether perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, and L2 motivation predict L2 academic achievement, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed. Language learning achievement was entered as the dependent variable and visual learning style, auditory learning style, kinesthetic learning style, tactile learning style, vision, ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self, actual L2 self, and L2 motivation were the independent variables. The results showed that L2 motivation, ought to L2 self, actual L2 self and tactile learning style emerged as significant predictors of L2 achievement, explaining 13.5 % of the total variation all together ($R^2 = .135$; Adjusted $R^2 = .125$).

As the first predictor of language learning achievement, L2 motivation entered in the equation and it explained a unique 7.9% of the total variation ($R^2 = .079$, F change = 29.31, $p < .000$). Ought to L2 self was the second variable in the model with an additional 3.2% unique variation explained and it increased the total variation explained to 11.1% ($R^2 = .111$, F change = 12.29, $p < .000$). Actual L2 self emerged in the equation in the third place and increased the total variation explained to 12.3% with a unique contribution of 1.2% ($R^2 = .123$, F change = 4.53, $p < .034$). Finally,

tactile learning style appeared in the model. It made a unique addition of 1.2% to the variation explained and increased the total variation explained to 13.5% (R^2 = .135, *F* change = 4.8, *p* < .029). These can be viewed in table 8.

4.2.7. Predictors of L2 motivation

Research question 7: Of perceptual learning styles, vision, and self-guides what are the best predictors of L2 motivation?

Table 9. Stepwise multiple regression analyses (N=343)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Change Statistics				
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.653[a]	.426	.425	.426	253.36	1	341	.000
2	.686[b]	.470	.467	.044	28.22	1	340	.000
3	.713[c]	.508	.504	.038	26.17	1	339	.000
4	.727[d]	.528	.523	.020	14.26	1	338	.000
5	.731[e]	.534	.528	.006	4.55	1	337	.034
6	.736[f]	.542	.534	.008	5.48	1	336	.020

a. Predictors: (Constant), IdealL2Self

b. Predictors: (Constant), IdealL2Self, ActualL2Self

c. Predictors: (Constant), IdealL2Self, ActualL2Self, Auditory

d. Predictors: (Constant), IdealL2Self, ActualL2Self, Auditory, OughttoL2Self

e. Predictors: (Constant), IdealL2Self, ActualL2Self, Auditory, OughttoL2Self, Visual

f. Predictors: (Constant), IdealL2Self, ActualL2Self, Auditory, OughttoL2Self, Visual, Vision

g. Dependent Variable: Motivation

In order to discover the predictors of L2 motivation, stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted. L2 motivation was the dependent variable and perceptual learning styles, vision, and self-guides were entered as the independent variables. As a result of the analysis, ideal L2 self, actual L2 self, auditory learning style, ought to L2 self, visual learning style, and vision appeared to be significant predictors of L2 motivation. They collectively explained 54.2% of the total variation (R^2 = .542; Adjusted R^2 = .534).

The ideal L2 self entered in the equation as the first predictor and explained a unique 42.6% of the total variation (R^2 = .426, *F* change = 253.36, *p* < .000). Actual L2 self was the second variable in the regression model, increasing the variation explained 4.4% up to 47% in total (R^2 = .470, *F* change = 28.22, *p* < .000). In the third step, auditory learning style appeared in the equation and it raised the total variation explained to 50.8%. It made a unique contribution of 3.8% (R^2 = .508, *F* change =

26.17, $p < .001$). The fourth variable in the equation was ought to L2 self explaining an additional unique 2% of the variation and increasing the total value explained to 52.8% ($R^2 = .528$, F change = 14.26, $p < .000$). In the fifth step, visual learning style entered in the regression model and explained a unique 0.6% of variation, increasing the total value to 53.4% ($R^2 = .534$, F change = 4.55, $p < .006$). Finally, vision appeared and increased the total variation explained to 54.2%, with a unique contribution of 0.8% ($R^2 = .542$, F change = 5.48, $p < .020$). These are presented in Table 9.

4.2.8. Predictors of Ideal L2 self

Research question 8: Of perceptual learning styles, vision, actual L2 self, ought to L2 self and L2 motivation what are the best predictors of ideal L2 self?

Table 10. Stepwise multiple regression analyses (N=343)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Change Statistics				
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.653[a]	.426	.425	.426	253.36	1	341	,000
2	.688[b]	.474	.471	.048	30.80	1	340	,000
3	.700[c]	.490	.486	.016	10.76	1	339	,001

a. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation

b. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation, ActualL2Self

c. Predictors: (Constant), Motivation, ActualL2Self, Vision

d. Dependent Variable: IdealL2Self

The predictors of the ideal L2 self were explored performing stepwise multiple regression analysis. Ideal L2 self was entered as the dependent variable. Perceptual learning styles, vision, actual L2 self, ought to L2 self, and L2 motivation were the independent variables. The results indicated that L2 motivation, actual L2 self and vision had the best predictive ability on ideal L2 self together explaining 49% of the total variation ($R^2 = .490$; Adjusted $R^2 = .486$).

L2 motivation entered in the equation in the first place and explained a unique 42.6% of the total variation ($R^2 = .426$, F change = 253.36, $p < .000$). Actual L2 self was the second variable in the equation. It increased the variation explained to 47.4% in total with a unique contribution of 4.8% ($R^2 = .474$, F change = 30.80, $p < .000$). Finally, vision emerged in this equation model and it explained an additional unique variation 1.6%, increasing the total variation explained to 49% ($R^2 = .490$, F change = 10.76, $p < .001$). These can be viewed in Table 10.

4.3. Conclusion

This section was based on the research questions and the statistical analysis of their answers. The first research question tried to determine the participants' levels of ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self and actual L2 self. The researcher sought to find whether there were significant differences between these self-guides of the learners via the second research questions. In the third research question, participants' level of vision was calculated. The next one investigated which learning style appears to be mostly preferred by the tertiary level EFL learners, and fifth research question showed the relationships among plenty of variables in the study. In the sixth research question, revealing the best predictors of L2 achievement was endeavored by the researcher, and the seventh research question concerned the predictors of L2 motivation. Finally, the predictors of ideal L2 self was inquired via the eighth research question.

5. DISCUSSION

In this section of the study, the main findings will be discussed in relation to each other.

5.1. Self-guides and Self Discrepancy

The revealed superior levels of ideal L2 self, ought to L2 self, actual L2 self and L2 motivation of the participants and the sizable discrepancy between their future self-guides and actual self are considerably in line with the previous research studies literature. Considering that the participants of this particular study were tertiary level learners who can be classified as adults, it is quite reasonable that L2 learning is a substantial part of their ideal self. Since they have completed the transformations of the adolescence and created their selves as mature individuals, they are at the developmental stage to make much more stable and realistic decisions about themselves and create their own wishes (Carlson, 1965). Ryan (2009) states that university students learn English out of their own free will and decision-making. Therefore, it may be suggested that ages and developmental levels of the learners may have affected their high ideal L2 self. The study conducted by Öz (2015) support the findings regarding high ideal L2 self of tertiary level EFL learners' in Turkey as well.

The findings also ascertained that ought to L2 self level of the participants' was quite high. It is likely that it may be affected by the norms of Turkish culture and educational context. In Turkey, similar to many Asian countries like China (Kennedy, 2002), L2 learning is seen as an obligation in order to have a good academic career or job, a satisfactory salary, and a privileged status in the society. Therefore, it can be asserted that the adult learners in the country are quite aware of these obligations and needs, and language learning holds a substantial place in their ought to L2 self too.

The considerable actual L2 self level of the participants signifies the current states of the learners in terms of language learning. The mean value concerning actual L2 self of these learners shows that this participant group see themselves in a prospering state of L2 learning. Actual L2 self is very similar to academic self-concept in the sense that both of them are about the perceptions of the individuals

regarding their abilities, competences, and skills (Marsh, 1993; Marsh & Martin, 2011). Therefore, the studies on academic self-concept may also be referred to in order to see the picture more vividly. With regard to the power of academic self concept, and thereby actual L2 self, Dörnyei (2009b) suggests that how the learners see themselves today affects their creation of accessible and realistic future goal states and so determines their motivation as well. This result is also congruent with the high ideal L2 self and L2 motivation levels in this particular study. It can be suggested that, seeing themselves as fairly good language learners today encouraged the learners to have a high ideal L2 self of the future and a high motivation to learn the L2.

The large discrepancy gaps between the actual L2 self and desired L2 selves (ideal or ought to L2 self-guides) of the learners, and their high motivation to learn the L2 are quite reasonable and consistent results when compared with each other. Csizer and Dörnyei (2005b) define L2 motivation as a desire to reduce the discrepancy between the actual L2 self and the desired L2 selves. They clearly emphasize that if L2 learning is a part of the learners' desired selves, they will put great effort to reach these selves and fulfill their purpose, which thus leads to increased levels of L2 motivation. Csizer and Dörnyei (2005b) see ideal L2 self as the first indicator of L2 motivation. Since ideal L2 self is based on the personal desires of the learners, it has an emotional value for them and initiates great effort to reach that desired self. The very large correlation between ideal L2 self and L2 motivation which emerged in the current study also supports this view (see Table 7). The large discrepancy gap between ought to L2 self and actual L2 self also initiates great effort on the part of the students to learn the L2. However, different from the ideal L2 self, the motivating power of ought to L2 self derives from the impetus to avoid from the guilt or shame of failure (Carver, Lawrence, & Scheier, 1999). Ought to L2 self is the imposed self on the learners and it is a part of the learner as the significant others wish it to happen (Dörnyei, 2005). Therefore, a big discrepancy gap between actual and ought to L2 selves leads the learners to act not to risk losing face.

5.2. The Relationship among Perceptual Learning Styles, Vision and Self-guides

Another major finding of the current research study is that tertiary level EFL learners in Turkish educational context tend to prefer visual learning style in the first place,

and then auditory learning style, kinesthetic learning style and tactile learning style subsequently follow it. It may be speculated that since this particular study was conducted on adult learners who are mature individuals, visual and auditory learning styles which get stronger with age may have become more prominent (Dybvig, 2014). Dybvig (2014) states that as the individuals developmentally change and reach maturity, their learning style preferences also changes. She explains that visual and auditory preferences increase with age, which is in line with the high levels of visual and auditory learning style preferences of adult learners in this study. The superior preference for visual and auditory learning styles may also be attributed to instruction methods of the schools which include the common use of textbooks and technology in language classes. The participants of this study used textbooks, computers, the internet, and overhead projectors which all provide visual and auditory input and they may get used to this instruction type dominated by visual and auditory tools. So, it may be the reason for their high levels of preference for visual and auditory learning styles. That order of perceptual learning style preference in Turkish context is supported by Kırkgöz and Doğanay (2003) and Demirkol (2009) who also revealed the same sequencing in their studies. The results of the research study conducted by Kim and Kim (2011) in Korea were also in parallel to that. Tabatabaeia and Mashayekhib (2013) supported these findings as well through their study in the Iranian context. The uniformity of these results may be explained by the cultural similarities among these three oriental Asian countries. According to the cultural dimensions theory by Hofstede (1997) Turkey, Iran, and Korea share similar characteristics in power distance, individualism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance dimensions. Their scores on these dimensions indicate that they are hierarchical societies in terms of power distance; they are collectivistic countries; femininity is more dominant in these countries suggesting that caring for others and life quality are valued; and finally they all have high preferences of uncertainty avoidance. Based on the cultural similarities among them, it may be speculated that the student profiles may also have some common features and these similarities may have triggered the same preferences by the students. The present researcher came across only one study challenging these findings and it was conducted by Tabanlıoğlu (2003) in Turkish context. She presented based on her data that auditory learning style was most favored in the Turkish educational

context, preceded by visual learning style, then kinesthetic, and tactile learning styles. Although both this particular study and Tabanlıoğlu's (2003) study were conducted on tertiary level adult learners with nearly the same ages, they inquired the subject on learners with different language proficiency levels. While the participants in the current study were at beginner level (A1), Tabanlıoğlu (2003) performed her research study on pre-intermediate level (B1) students. That variation between their language proficiencies may be a possible reason of these inconsistent results. There is room for further research to shed light on this issue.

A substantially high level of vision of tertiary level EFL learners was also a core finding. Based on the large correlation between vision and ideal L2 self (see Table 7), that outcome can be suggested to be connected with the high ideal L2 self levels of the participants. Many studies in the field of language learning which support that finding are available. Dörnyei and Chan (2013) defined vision as the individual illustrations of future goal states. It may be asserted that the goal that need to be reached in the future is the ideal L2 self, and a clear vision of the ideal L2 self leads to motivated behavior of learning (Williams et al., 2015). Another important finding regarding vision is that it is largely correlated with visual learning style. It may be clearly advocated that there is a strong link between the participants' high level of vision, ideal L2 self and major preference of visual learning style, and there are many studies in the literature which endorse that interaction. First of all, Al-Shehri (2009) explored this situation in Saudi Arabia and revealed that the learners with visual style preference were better at creating a vivid vision of their ideal L2 self. In the following years, Dörnyei and Chan (2013), Kim (2009), Kim and Kim (2011), Kim and Kim (2014), and Yang and Kim (2011) presented the same results about visual learning style, vision, and ideal L2 self. Kosslyn et al. (2002) and Modell (2003) explained that interaction from a neurological point of view, stating that the part of the brain responsible for creating vision is very similar to visual area and therefore it is quite predictable for visual learners to be better at creating visions.

In the current study, auditory learning style was also revealed to be related to vision (see Table 7). Kim (2009), and Dörnyei and Chan (2013) uphold that finding as well. They asserted that creating a vision does not have to be without the auditory aids and that the learners can imagine a conversation with a foreigner, hear the

interlocutor's utterances, and hear their own responses so that they can create a clear vision of their desired self-guides.

To sum up, visual and auditory learning styles were presented as the most preferred learning styles in this research, and they may possibly be the factors leading to high levels of vision of the tertiary level EFL learners.

5.3. Predictors of Language Learning Achievement

Many studies were conducted so far supporting the positive relationship between L2 motivation and language learning achievement (e.g. Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Dörnyei et al., 2015; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Engin, 2009; Kim, 2011; Skehan & Dörnyei, 2003), and the current study also adds to that already considerable amount of literature with the same conclusion. This study revealed that L2 motivation and language learning achievement are largely related to each other and L2 motivation is a very strong predictor of language learning achievement. Concerning these findings, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) suggest that L2 motivation gives the learner the initial impetus to start the learning behavior as well as the power to sustain the effort until accomplishing the final goal of learning. Similarly, Engin (2009) who also investigated the situation in Turkey presents that the learners in Turkish educational context have high motivation to learn L2 both due to integrative and instrumental reasons, which finally lead to L2 learning achievement. Lastly, Kim and Kim (2011) indicate that there is a very strong relationship between L2 motivation and language learning achievement.

Alongside L2 motivation, ought to L2 self, actual L2 self, and tactile learning style were explored to be strongly related to L2 achievement. The predictive ability of ought to L2 self on L2 achievement may be explained as a contextual and cultural issue, and a possible mediation of L2 motivation can be discussed in that relationship. In Turkish educational context, the students feel that they have to learn English as it is expected from them. That imposed desired self increases the motivational level of the learners and they put great effort to achieve their purpose not to be ashamed or not to feel guilty in the end (Carver, Lawrence, & Scheier, 1999). The high level of ought to L2 self and L2 motivation revealed in this particular study also suggests that result. These results are quite in line with the findings of Yang and Kim (2011) and Kennedy (2002) each of whom inquired the situation in

China, which is also an oriental Asian country. They revealed that Chinese learners had very high ought to L2 self levels, ultimately affecting their L2 motivation and language learning achievement. Yang and Kim (2011) even showed that L2 motivation of Chinese learners resulting from their ought to L2 self surpassed the motivation level of Swedish learners who had high ideal L2 self.

Following ought to L2 self, actual L2 self also appeared to have a high predictive power on L2 achievement. It can be discussed that if L2 learning is an important part of the current self of the students, which is the actual L2 self or the self-concept related to L2 learning, it can also be a substantial part of their ideal L2 self which is the desired self of the future. Seeing themselves as good language learners of today may give the learners confidence to picture themselves as proficient L2 learners and speakers in the future. So, it can trigger effort to achieve the learning behavior (Dörnyei, 2009a) and finally lead to achievement. Many research studies supporting that view are present in the literature (Huang, 2011; Marsh, Hau & Kong, 2002; Marsh & Martin, 2011). Huang (2011) investigated 39 longitudinal studies and explored that there was a very high relationship between academic self-concept and language learning achievement. Similarly, Marsh and Martin (2011), who reviewed previous research studies on this issue, reached the conclusion that academic self-concept and language learning achievement have a mutual power on each other. Finally, Marsh, Hau and Kong (2002) also revealed the same results, stating that positive academic self-concept had positive influence on general academic achievement and language learning achievement.

The final predictor of language learning achievement explored was tactile learning style. Regarding the findings of this particular study, Naserieh and Sarab (2013) state that hand-on approach gives the learners the chance to be a dynamic explorer of the physical environment around them. The learners are a part of the entire language learning experience, and active participants of the tasks. Moreover, they do not get bored and distracted soon as they do not sit inactive for a long time, so they learn best in that way. Rossi-Le (1989) and Reid (1987) also reached similar results which signify the power of active, practical, and experiential approaches to language learning.

5.4. Predictors of L2 Motivation

Findings of this particular study confirm that self-guides are strong predictors of L2 motivation as supported by many previous studies (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2011; Kim & Kim, 2014; Yang & Kim, 2011). As for the ordering of the self-guides in terms of their predictive ability on L2 motivation, ideal L2 self was shown to lead. Csizer and Dörnyei (2005b) declare that ideal L2 self is the core of motivated L2 learning behavior, and they suggest redefining L2 motivation as the effort to reach the ideal L2 self. Dörnyei (2009b) also emphasized the power of ideal L2 self as a motivator of L2 learning. In line with these results, Khan (2015) asserts that ideal L2 self has much more of a substantial effect on L2 motivation, because learners with this self aim to be proficient L2 users due to their own wishes and desires. The predictive power of ought to L2 self on L2 motivation is also supported by many studies in the field, although they mostly emphasize that it is not as strong as ideal L2 self in motivating the learners. Similarly, Dörnyei (2013) presents ought to self as a strong factor at the heart of L2 motivation; however, he clearly states that ought to L2 self does not shape L2 motivation as much as ideal L2 self does. Finally, Kim (2011) advocates that ought to L2 self functions only at the cognitive level of the learners. In order for it to be as effective as ideal L2 self on L2 motivation, it needs to be internalized by the learner. However, Yang and Kim's (2011) study with Swedish and Chinese learners challenges these findings revealing that though Swedish learners in their study had high ideal L2 self scores, Chinese learners were much more motivated than them because of their very substantial ought to L2 self levels. It may be suggested that this is a contextual and cultural issue. As stated also by Kennedy (2002), language learning is a necessity more than a personal choice in China, and they may be that motivated to learn L2 for a better academic and professional life. Based on the findings of the current study, actual L2 self also appeared to predict L2 motivation. Regarding this issue, Dörnyei (2009a) suggests that academic self-concept of L2 learning, which is the correspondence of actual L2 self in this study, contributes significantly to shape the perception of future goal states of the learners, and finally leads to motivated action in order to achieve it.

In addition to self-guides, visual and auditory learning styles were also presented to have predictive ability on L2 motivation, however, in some previous studies they are

suggested to lead to L2 motivation with the mediation of ideal L2 self and vision (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2014; William et al., 2015; Yang & Kim, 2011). Yang and Kim (2011) clearly stated that perceptual learning styles did not directly affect L2 motivation, but were instead mediated by ideal L2 self. Kim and Kim (2014) also support that view explaining that visual and auditory learning styles were strongly related to L2 motivation over the ideal L2 self. Similarly, Dörnyei and Chan (2013) and Murray (2013) suggested that visualization helps the learners construct a stronger and clearer ideal L2 self. It thus increases their L2 motivation, because the learners who enjoy success in their imagination exert much more effort to reduce the discrepancy between their current state and the imagined one, and it promotes motivated behavior (Ueki and Takeuchi, 2013). As discussed above, visual and auditory learners are better at creating a vivid vision of their ideal L2 self guide which may explain their great effort to reach that self and finally achieve success (Kim, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013).

5.5. Predictors of Ideal L2 Self

The final major finding of this particular study is concerned with the predictors of ideal L2 self, which were shown to be L2 motivation, actual L2 self, and vision, in the order of their predictive ability.

Williams and Burden (1997) define motivation as a “cognitive and emotional arousal” to act, to sustain the action, and finally to reach a goal (p. 120). Ideal self is defined, on the other hand, as the personal desires or hopes of an individual to reach in the future (Dörnyei, 2005). Considering the subject in terms of L2 learning, the relationship between these two concepts seems straightforward. A high level of motivation to learn the L2 is a likely energizer to make L2 learning a substantial part of the ideal L2 self, which regards the desires or hopes of the person in terms of L2 learning. As Kim (2011) states, ideal L2 self is mostly related to the cognitive and affective functions of the mind, and similarly, based on Williams and Burden’s (1997) definition, motivation is a “cognitive and emotional arousal” to act (p. 120). The congruence between these two terms may possibly make them that interlinked, and that may be the reason why they both have a predictive ability on each other (see section 5.2.4.).

Actual L2 self, which is the second strong predictor of ideal L2 self, is concerned with how the individuals see themselves as L2 learners today. It is greatly possible for the current state of the learners, including their self-efficacy, competence or beliefs regarding L2 learning, to effect the creation of a realistic and attainable ideal L2 self. The high levels of L2 motivation and ideal L2 self of the participants revealed in this study also support that relationship. A positive self concept of today leads to a positive self concept of the future and also creates the motivation to reach that self (Dörnyei, 2009a).

The last predictor of ideal L2 self revealed in this study is vision, which represents the imagination capacity of the learners. Many studies conducted so far indicate that a high capacity of vision is an indispensable need to be able to create a vivid ideal L2 self (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2011; Kim & Kim, 2014; Yang & Kim, 2011), and they all reached the conclusion that the learners who have a high imagery capacity can create a clearer and more accessible vision of that desired self. Experiencing an accomplishment of the ideal L2 self in their vision gives the learners a strong drive to reach that self and finally it leads to high levels of L2 motivation and achievement. Muir and Dörnyei (2013) also support the view that a superior vision causes “emotional reactions” (p. 358) for the learners and when they taste the pleasure of reaching their ideal L2 self in their imagination, they put greater efforts to do it in reality too. Therefore, for the learners to be able to have vivid and accessible ideal L2 self, in the very first place, they need to have high levels of vision.

To sum up, the findings from the previous studies (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2011; Kim & Kim, 2014; Yang & Kim, 2011) which constitute the basis of this research study were well supported in this study. It was indicated in this particular study that the tertiary level EFL learners in the Turkish educational context had high ideal and ought to L2 self-guides, high vision, and L2 motivation. They also mainly preferred visual and auditory learning styles, both of which support a stronger vision. Therefore, it may be suggested as a conclusion that tertiary level EFL learners were mostly visual and auditory learners, and were able to create a vivid vision of their ideal L2 self or ought to L2 self, thus in turn leading to great amount of L2 motivation and language learning achievement.

In this section, the main findings of the study revealed were discussed in depth in the light of the relevant literature.

6. CONCLUSION

6.1. Introduction

This chapter includes summary of the study, conclusion, and pedagogical and methodological implications. It also presents some suggestions for further research.

6.2. Summary of the Study

This study was performed to examine the relationships among perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, L2 motivation and language learning achievement of tertiary level EFL learners at a state university. Besides revealing the interactions among these concepts, it also targeted finding out the predictors of L2 learning achievement, L2 motivation and ideal L2 self. Furthermore, this research study concerned the participants' levels of self-guides and the possible discrepancy between them, their levels of vision, and finally the perceptual learning styles mostly preferred by them. The results obtained could help the L2 educators to plan and structure their classes with more awareness of the issues investigated in this study. These investigations were also attempted to shed light on the advancements in the foreign language education field in Turkish context by providing new information that would be helpful and effective for L2 instructors, curriculum and material developers, and teacher trainers.

This research study was conducted in a quantitative design using scales as data collection tools. It was carried out with 343 tertiary level EFL learners at a state university. The participants were prep-class and 1st year students. Perceptual Learning Styles Instrument by Erten (1998), Future Self-Guides Instrument by Taguchi et al. (2009), Imagery Capacity Instrument by Richardson (1994) and Motivated Behavior and Effort Scale by Al-Shehri (2009) were combined to form the 73-item instrument of this study. For all instruments, 5 point Likert scale was used. Language learning achievement of the participants was measured using the composite scores of the term, and data was analyzed via SPSS Statistics 20.0.

Main findings of the study are presented below:

1- The first research question aimed to explore participants' levels of self-guides. It was found that participants of this particular study reported the

highest mean value for their ideal L2 self, followed by scores for their ought to L2 self and actual L2 self.

2- The second research question concerned possible differences among these self-guides. It appeared that there were significant differences between these three different self-guides. While the largest discrepancy appeared to be between ideal L2 self and actual L2 self, the smallest one was between ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self.

3- The next research question investigated the participants' perceptual learning style preferences, and it was presented that they tended to favor visual learning style most, followed by auditory learning style, kinesthetic learning style and tactile learning style.

4- The fourth research question was related to the participants' level of vision. It was seen that they had a high mean score of vision showing that they had a quite sizable amount of imagery capacity.

5- The fifth question in the study discussed the relationship between participants' perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, L2 learning motivation, and language learning achievement. The results indicated that language learning achievement was mostly correlated with L2 motivation, then actual L2 self and finally with ideal L2 self. Other significant correlations were also revealed (see Table 7); however, the largest statistically significant correlation in the study was between motivation and ideal L2 self, both of which had really high mean values. The smallest one was between tactile learning style and ideal L2 self.

6- The target of the sixth research question was to determine the best predictors of L2 academic achievement among perceptual learning styles, vision, self-guides, and L2 learning motivation. The results suggested that L2 motivation had the highest predictive ability on language learning achievement, followed by ought to L2 self. Actual L2 self was the third predictor of language learning achievement and finally tactile learning style appeared to have predictive ability on L2 learning achievement.

7- The purpose of the seventh research question was finding out the best predictors, of the variables included in this study, of L2 motivation. As a result of the analysis, in order of the amount of unique variance explained by each

variable, ideal L2 self, actual L2 self, auditory learning style, ought to L2 self, visual learning style, and vision were indicated to be significant predictors of L2 motivation.

8- The last research question inquired the best predictors of ideal L2 self among the variables in this study. The findings indicated that L2 motivation, actual L2 self, and vision, in the order of the unique variation explained by them, had significant predictive ability on ideal L2 self.

6.3. Conclusion

The results emerged in this study showed that tertiary level EFL learners in Turkish educational context had superior L2 self-guides, vision, and L2 motivation. They also reported preferring visual and auditory learning styles which support creating a vivid vision in the first place. The learners in this study were mostly visual and auditory learners with a high actual L2 self, so they were able to create a vivid vision of their ideal L2 self or ought to L2 self, which in turn led to great amount of L2 motivation and language learning achievement.

This study concluded that language learning achievement is predicted by L2 motivation but not by ideal L2 self. However, L2 motivation is predicted by ideal L2 self. So, the relationship between ideal L2 self and achievement is not a direct one but through motivated behaviors stimulated by future self-guides of students. Substantial imagery capacity of the students supported by their visual and auditory learning preferences is also another mediator between self-guides and language learning achievement.

6.4. Pedagogical and Methodological Implications

In this part, finding-based pedagogical and methodological implications will be covered to provide new insight to language educators, curriculum and material developers, and researchers.

6.4.1. Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this particular study present some pedagogical implications that would be helpful in the field of language education. First of all, it was revealed that vision is at the heart of language learning achievement due to its high predictive ability on ideal L2 self and L2 motivation. As Muir and Dörnyei (2013) state, it

ensures long term effort to reach desired self. It is also indicated in this study that ideal L2 self is a predictor of L2 motivation leading the way to language learning achievement. Therefore, to be able to build up a persistent and successful language learning process, the first requirement is obviously strengthening the origin of this chain, which is the vision. Adopting some vision setting activities in the class, learners can be aided to create a vivid vision of their ideal L2 self, and sustain that vision until they achieve the language learning behavior. Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) suggest a motivational programme based on the assumption that in order to motivate the learners, an appealing vision of the future goals needs to be created. Figure 12 below shows a representation of their motivational programmes which consists of several steps.

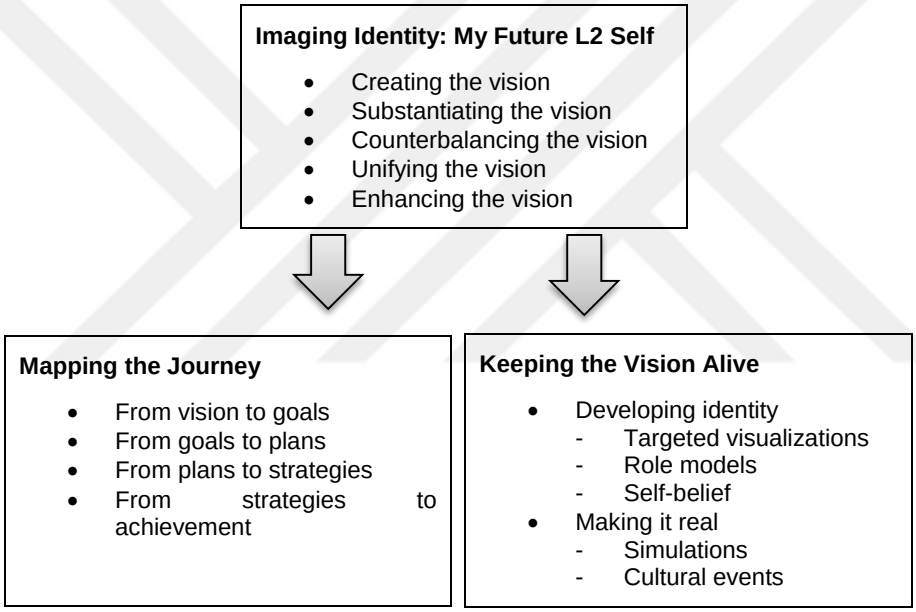

Figure 12. Schematic representation of the sequencing of the motivational programme (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013, p. 9)

As shown in the Figure 12, the first part of the programme starts with *creating the vision* of future L2 self. *Substantiating the vision* step which requires controlling the reality and accessibility of the vision comes immediately after. *Counterbalancing the vision* involves imagination of the failure and *unifying the vision* step, which is a really crucial one, means harmonizing ideal L2 self and ought to L2 self in order not to cause a conflict between them that can ruin the process. The final step of the first part is *enhancing the vision* which requires making the vision of ideal L2 self deeper and more clear. All of these steps are affective and imaginative in nature. When the first part of this schema is completed, it is time for the cognitive and practical

procedures. So, the *mapping the journey* part involving steps to put the vision into practice does precisely that by showing the courses of action to reach the self-guides. The third part of the schema is *keeping the vision alive* and it is also concerned with the affective and cognitive domains of language learning. As the figure also shows, it needs to go in line with mapping the journey. The purpose of this part is to help the learners remember the initially created vision and ensure that they do not lose that vision during the whole language learning process.

In the book named “Motivating Learning”, Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) provide a wide range of activities and materials for each step of this model. The book also includes a section on how to integrate these activities into the language courses. It would be a great idea for language teachers, and material and curriculum developers to work on incorporating some activities suggested in this book into teaching materials and teaching process. Thus, the learners could be led to create a vision of their desired self-guides; they could have the motivation to reach that self-guide with long-term effort and finally taste the success.

To have an idea of the content of this book, a sample activity which was designed to create the vision of L2 self can be viewed in Appendix 5.

Another major finding of this study that could provide inspirational implications in the language education field is the relationship between actual L2 self and ideal L2 self besides L2 academic achievement of the learners. Based on the high similarities between actual L2 self and academic self concept, a possible connection between academic self concept and ideal L2 self is also likely to appear. Hereby, it may be suggested that developing a positive self concept may lead the learners to have higher ideal L2 self levels and accordingly more language learning achievement. Regarding how to create a positive self-concept, Erten and Burden (2014) suggest that the teachers need to work on the attributions of the learners. By inquiring the negative attributions they have, teachers could encourage the learners to change them into positive ones, so that the learners could create a positive feeling of competence. Teachers could also lead learners to develop learning strategies which support that process. According to Marsh and Martin (2011), on the other hand, the direction of the causal link is not only from academic self-concept to language learning achievement, but there is a reciprocal relationship between them.

Therefore, the role of educators should be improving both academic self-concept and language learning achievement simultaneously to ensure long-term existence of both.

6.4.2. Methodological Implications

This study was performed using quantitative research design and questionnaires were conducted to collect the data. However, it is a pure fact that language learning is a qualitative process and numerical data alone cannot be adequate to explain it. Therefore, much clearer results could be obtained if the research process was supported with qualitative data using sequential explanatory or exploratory designs.

In addition, this study was concerned with the static mode of L2 motivation. L2 motivational level of the learners was measured only once and it was assumed to be constant throughout the entire process. Yet, the recent studies of L2 motivation all suggest that it has a dynamic nature with frequent ups and downs and fluctuations (Muir and Dörnyei, 2013). As a brand new concept in the field, Directed Motivational Currents (DMC) developed by Dörnyei, Henry and Muir (2016) is also based on that dynamic state of L2 motivation, and it suggests ways to sustain it in the long term. Thus, it would be much better to take the dynamic state of L2 motivation into consideration as well. Additionally, possibly interviewing the learners regarding their motivational changes or carrying out an instrument to measure it would give valuable and more current data on it.

6.5. Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the limitations of this study, some suggestions that may shed light on further research studies are presented below:

- Firstly, this study included only quantitative research design. Supporting the findings of the quantitative data with qualitative ones would give a much clearer picture.
- Secondly, analysis of the data was mostly confined to descriptive statistics and regression analysis. Further more robust data analysis techniques such as path analysis or structural equation modeling (SEM) could yield a fuller picture of the findings. Investigating the interactions among the variables of this study using these techniques may further contribute to the findings.

- Finally, the setting of the study could be different as it was only conducted at a state university. In primary, secondary or high schools and private institutions the results could yield much different due to factors such as their ages, developmental stages and socio-economic backgrounds.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. ETİK KURUL İZNİ

T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Rektörlük

Sayı : 35853172/ 433 - 3019

23 Ekim 2015

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi: 06.10.2015 tarih ve 1909 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans programı öğrencilerinden **Aycan DEMİR**'in **Doç. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü **"Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğrenenlerde Yabancı Dil Benlikleri ve Başarı İlişkisi"** başlıklı tez çalışması Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun **20 Ekim 2015** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Ömer DOĞUR
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

Ek: Tutanak

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APPENDIX 2. GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Gönüllü Katılım ve İzin Formu

Sayın Katılımcı,

Katılmış olduğunuz çalışma, yüksek lisans tezi araştırmamda kullanılmak üzere Hacettepe Etik Komisyonu tarafından etik onayı verilmiş olup, siz öğrencilerin algısal öğrenme stilleri, yabancı dil benlikleri ve görselleştirme becerileri gibi değişkenlerin yabancı dil öğrenme motivasyonunu ve bu alandaki akademik başarıyı nasıl etkilediği araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu amacı gerçekleştirebilmek için sizlere bir anket uygulanacaktır. Çalışma esnasında sizi rahatsız edecek herhangi bir durumla karşılaşmanız durumunda istediğiniz zaman yardım talep edebilir ya da çalışmadan istediğiniz zaman çekilebilirsiniz.

Bu belgeyle elde edilen bilgilerin herhangi bir üçüncü şahıs veya grupla araştırma amacı dışında paylaşılmayacağını temin ederim. Kişisel bilgileriniz gizli tutulacak ve basılmış ya da çevrimiçi yayınlanmış herhangi bir belgede açık olarak verilmeyecektir. Veriler araştırma amaçlı olmak üzere ilgili araştırmacı ve veriye akademik katkı sunacak araştırmacılar tarafından kullanılacaktır. İşbu belgeyi, ilgili prosedürü onaylıyor ve kayıtlarınızın araştırmacı(lar) tarafından kullanımına izin veriyorsanız lütfen imzalayınız.

Saygılarımla.

Aycan DEMİR

Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi / Hacettepe Üniversitesi

aycandemir1@windowslive.com

Yukarıda anlatılan çalışma için araştırmacı tarafından verilen ölçekleri içtenlikle doldurmam gerektiğini, rahatsızlık hissettiğim zaman çalışmadan çıkabileceğimi ve araştırmacıyla paylaşmış olduğum tüm kişisel bilgilerimin gizli tutulacağını anlamış bulunuyorum. Bu belgeyle, çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılacağımı beyan ederim.

Tarih:

Ad-Soyad:

Telefon:

E-posta:

İmza-

APPENDIX 3. INSTRUMENTS IN THEIR ORIGINAL FORMS

Perceptual Learning Style Preference Inventory (PLSPI) by Erten (1998)

1. I learn well when I see written explanations.
2. I do not forget things I have heard.
3. When I see a plan of the subject I study, it helps me to understand better.
4. I find it difficult to concentrate on the lesson when I stay seated for some time.
5. When someone explains to me how to do things, I learn better.
6. I do well on tests if they are about things I have actively participated in.
7. I learn well when I see pictures related to the subject I study.
8. I learn well when I listen to someone explain the subject.
9. I like to make things with my hands.
10. I learn well when I am involved in lots of movement in language classes.
11. It helps me to learn well when the teacher lets us examine real objects in the classroom.
12. When I can practice my English using it in physical activities, I learn well.
13. I do not forget things I have seen.
14. I understand better when I study aloud.
15. I learn well when I make something for a class project.
16. When I make drawings as I study, I learn better.
17. I do not forget things I have learned in physical language games.
18. If tests are about things I have heard, I do well.
19. I can easily picture things in my head.
20. I feel I learn well when I do projects like designing posters.

Ideal L2 Self Instrument by Taguchi et al. (2009)

21. I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English.
22. I can imagine myself living abroad and using English effectively for communicating with the locals.
23. I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.
24. I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues.

25. I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.
26. I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.
27. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.
28. The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.
29. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.
30. I can imagine myself writing English e-mails fluently.

Ought to L2 Self Instrument by Taguchi et al. (2009)

31. I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.
32. I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.
33. Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.
34. My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.
35. I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.
36. Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss.
37. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.
38. Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.
39. Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English.
40. If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down.

Actual L2 Self Instrument developed based on Ideal L2 Self Questionnaire by Taguchi et al. (2009)

41. When I go abroad, I can have discussions in English.
42. When I am abroad, I can use English effectively for communicating with the locals.
43. I sometimes have situations where I am speaking English with foreigners.
44. I can speak English with international friends or colleagues.

45. I am someone who is able to speak English.
46. I can speak English as if I were a native speaker of English.
47. In my present situation (education/career), I often use English.
48. The things I want to do now require me to use English.
49. I study in a school/university where all my courses are taught in English.
50. I can write English e-mails fluently.

Imagination Instrument by Richardson (1994)

51. If I wish, I can imagine some things so vividly that they hold my attention as a good movie or story does.
52. Sometimes images come to me without the slightest effort.
53. When I am thinking, I often have visual images rather than thoughts in my mind.
54. My daydreams are sometimes so vivid I feel as though I actually experience the scene.
55. When reading fiction, I usually have a vivid mental picture of the scene that has been described.

Motivated Behavior and Effort Instrument by Al-Shehri (2009)

56. If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra English assignment, I would certainly volunteer.
57. If an English course was offered in the future, I would like to take it.
58. I frequently think over what we have learnt in my English class.
59. I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning English.
60. If English were not taught in school, I would try to obtain lessons in English somewhere else.
61. When it comes to English homework, I would work carefully, making sure I understand everything.
62. I have a very strong desire to learn English.
63. Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I really try to learn English.
64. Learning English is one of the most important aspects in my life.

65. After I get my English assignment, I always rewrite them, correcting my mistakes.
66. I am determined to push myself to learn English.
67. When I am in English class, I volunteer answers as much as possible.
68. If I could have access to English-speaking TV stations, I would try to watch them often.
69. I am willing to work hard at learning English.
70. When I hear an English song on the radio, I listen carefully and try to understand all the words.
71. It is very important for me to learn English.
72. If I had the opportunity to speak English outside of school, I would do it as much as I can.
73. When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English
    class, I immediately ask the teacher for help.

APPENDIX 4. INSTRUMENTS IN TURKISH

ALGISAL ÖĞRENME STİLLERİ, YABANCI DİL BENLİKLERİ, GÖRSELLEŞTİRME BECERİSİ VE MOTİVASYON ANKETLERİ

1. BÖLÜM

İsim / Soy isim: _____ Yaş: _____ Cinsiyet: 1) Kız / 2) Erkek

Bölüm / Sınıf:_____

2. BÖLÜM

Değerli Öğrenciler,

Bu çalışmanın amacı katılımcıların algısal öğrenme stillerini, yabancı dil benliklerini, görselleştirme becerilerini ve yabancı dil öğrenme motivasyonlarını belirlemektir. Ölçekte yer alan ifadeleri ne ölçüde karşıladığınızı **1 ile 5 arasındaki rakamlardan birini daire içine alarak belirtiniz.**

1- Hiçbir zaman 2- Nadiren 3-Bazen 4- Sık sık 5- Her zaman

ÖNEMLİ: Verilen ifadeler için herhangi bir doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Bu yüzden, sadece sizi en iyi şekilde anlatan ifadeyi düşünerek puanlayınız. Cevaplarınız araştırmacı dışında hiç kimse tarafından görülmeyecek, değerlendirilmeyecektir.

		Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
1.	Yazılı açıklamalar gördüğüm zaman iyi öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Duyduğum şeyleri unutmam.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Çalıştığım konuya dair bir plan gördüğümde, konuyu daha iyi anlamama yardımcı olur.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Uzun bir süre için yerimden hiç kalkmadığım zaman derse odaklanmakta zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Birisi bana bir şeyi nasıl yapmam gerektiğini açıkladığında daha iyi öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5

6.	Eğer sınavlar aktif bir şekilde yer aldığım şeyler hakkında olursa başarılı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Çalıştığım konuyla ilgili resimler gördüğümde iyi öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Konuyu açıklayan birilerini dinlediğimde iyi öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Ellerimle bir şeyler yapmayı severim.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Dil derslerinde çok hareket içeren aktivitelere katıldığım zaman daha iyi öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Öğretmen bize sınıfta gerçek nesneler incelettiğinde, iyi öğrenmeme yardımcı olur.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	İngilizceyi fiziksel aktivitelerde kullanarak pratik yaptığımda iyi öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Gördüğüm şeyleri unutmam.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Sesli çalıştığımda daha iyi anlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Bir sınıf projesi için bir şeyler yaptığımda daha iyi öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Çizim yaparak çalıştığımda daha iyi öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Fiziksel dil oyunlarında öğrendiğim şeyleri unutmam.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Eğer sınavlar duyduğum şeyler hakkında olursa başarılı olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Bir şeyleri kafamda kolaylıkla canlandırabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Poster tasarlama gibi projeler yaptığım zaman iyi öğrendiğimi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Kendimi yurtdışında yaşarken ve İngilizce konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

22.	Kendimi yurtdışında yaşarken ve oradakilerle iletişim kurmak için etkili bir şekilde İngilizce konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Yabancılarla İngilizce konuştuğum bir durum hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Kendimi uluslararası arkadaşlarımla İngilizce konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Kendimi İngilizce konuşabilen birisi olarak hayal ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Kendimi ana dili İngilizce olan biriymişim gibi İngilizce konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Ne zaman ileriki kariyerimi düşünsem, kendimi İngilizce kullanırken hayal ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Gelecekte yapmak istediğim şeyler İngilizceyi kullanmamı gerektiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Kendimi bütün derslerin İngilizce olarak öğretildiği bir okulda/üniversitede okurken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Kendimi İngilizce e-mailleri akıcı bir şekilde yazarken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	İngilizce öğreniyorum çünkü yakın arkadaşlarım bunun önemli olduğunu düşünüyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	İngilizce öğrenmek zorundayım, çünkü eğer öğrenmezsem, ailemin benimle ilgili hayal kırıklığına uğrayacağını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	İngilizce öğrenmek gerekli, çünkü etrafımdaki insanlar bunu yapmamı bekliyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Ailem eğitimli bir insan olmak için İngilizce öğrenmek zorunda olduğuma inanıyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5

35.	İngilizce öğrenmeyi önemli buluyorum, çünkü saygı duyduğum insanlar bunu yapmam gerektiğini düşünüyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	İngilizce öğrenmek akranlarımın / öğretmenlerimin / ailemin onayını kazanmam açısından benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Eğer İngilizceyi öğrenmezsem, bu hayatımda olumsuz bir etki yaratacak.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemlidir çünkü eğitimli bir kişinin İngilizce konuşabilmesi beklenir.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemlidir çünkü İngilizce bilgim olursa diğer insanlar bana daha çok saygı duyacaklar.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Eğer İngilizce öğrenmeyi başaramazsam insanları hayal kırıklığına uğratıyor olacağım.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Yurtdışına gittiğimde İngilizce konuşup tartışabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Yurtdışına gittiğimde yerli halkla iletişim kurmak için etkili bir şekilde İngilizce kullanabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Bazen yabancılarla İngilizce konuştuğum durumlar oluyor.	1	2	3	4	5
44.	Uluslararası arkadaşlarımla İngilizce konuşabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Ben İngilizce konuşabilen birisiyim.	1	2	3	4	5
46.	İngilizceyi ana dili İngilizce olan biriymişim gibi konuşabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
47.	Şuan ki durumumda (eğitimimde/kariyerimde) İngilizceyi sık sık kullanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

48.	Şuanda yapmak istediğim şeyler İngilizceyi kullanmamı gerektiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
49.	Bütün derslerin İngilizce olarak verildiği bir okulda/üniversitede okuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
50.	İngilizce e-mailleri akıcı bir şekilde yazabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
51.	Eğer istersem, bazı şeyleri hayalimde öyle net canlandırabilirim ki, iyi bir film veya hikâye kadar ilgimi canlı tutarlar.	1	2	3	4	5
52.	Bazen en ufak bir çaba dahi harcamadan kafamda görüntüler belirir.	1	2	3	4	5
53.	Düşünürken, zihnimde fikirlerden çok sık sık görsel imgeler belirir.	1	2	3	4	5
54.	Daldığım hayaller bazen o kadar net olur ki görüntüyü gerçekten yaşıyor gibi hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
55.	Kurgusal metinler okurken, betimlenen sahneler genellikle net bir şekilde gözümde canlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
56.	Eğer öğretmenim birisinin ekstradan İngilizce bir ödevi yapmasını istese, kesinlikle gönüllü olurdum.	1	2	3	4	5
57.	Eğer gelecekte bir İngilizce dersi sağlanırsa, almak isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
58.	Sık sık İngilizce dersinde neler öğrendiğimiz üzerine düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
59.	İngilizce öğrenmek için çok çaba harcamaya hazırım.	1	2	3	4	5
60.	Eğer okullarda İngilizce öğretilmiyor olsaydı, başka bir yerden İngilizce dersi almaya çalışırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
61.	İngilizce ödevi söz konusu olunca, dikkatlice çalışır ve her şeyi anladığımdan emin olurum.	1	2	3	4	5

62.	İngilizce öğrenmek için çok güçlü bir istek duyuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
63.	İngilizceye nasıl çalıştığımı göz önünde bulundurursak, dürüstçe söyleyebilirim ki İngilizce öğrenmeye gerçekten çabalıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
64.	İngilizce öğrenmek hayatımın en önemli yönlerinden biridir.	1	2	3	4	5
65.	İngilizce ödevimi aldıktan sonra, hatalarımı düzelterek sürekli yeniden yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
66.	Kendimi İngilizce öğrenmeye sevk etme konusunda kararlıyım.	1	2	3	4	5
67.	İngilizce dersinde soruları cevaplamak için mümkün olduğunca gönüllü olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
68.	Eğer İngilizce konuşulan TV kanallarına erişimim olsaydı, onları sık sık izlemeye çalışırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
69.	İngilizce öğrenmek için sıkı çalışma konusunda istekliyim.	1	2	3	4	5
70.	Radyoda İngilizce bir şarkı duyduğumda, dikkatli bir şekilde dinler ve bütün kelimeleri anlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
71.	İngilizce öğrenmek benim için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
72.	Eğer okul dışında İngilizce konuşma fırsatım olsa, bunu yapabildiğim kadar yapmaya çalışırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
73.	İngilizce dersinde öğrendiğimiz konuyu anlamakta bir sorun yaşarsam, hemen öğretmenimden yardım isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

İlginiz için teşekkürler.

Aycan DEMİR

APPENDIX 5. SAMPLE ACTIVITY ON CREATING VISION

Activity 1: Future Alternatives

Aim: To provide examples of different Ideal L2 Selves

Level: Intermediate up

Time: 40 minutes

Materials: Reading texts and worksheet

Preparation: Make enough copies of each text for a quarter of the class. Make one copy of the worksheet for each student

Language practice	
Functions	future wishes
Skills	reading, speaking
Language areas	present simple, would like to, want to

Procedure

1. Divide students into four groups and give out different texts to each group. Give each student a worksheet.
2. Get them to work individually to complete Questions 1 and 2, then compare their answers with their group.
3. Get them to make brief notes to summarise their text.
4. Regroup the students to make new groups, each having four students who have all read different texts. The easiest way to do this is to give each student in each group a number: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc. Then regroup them by saying 'All the ones from each group come and sit here, all the twos over here', and so on.
5. Get the students to roleplay being the writer of their text and to tell the others about their ideal future self.
6. Get them to discuss which vision, or parts of visions, are most like their own.

Worksheet 1

1. Look through the text quickly. Choose a title for the text:
   - My successful career self
   - My successful tourist self
   - My global citizen self
   - My member of the community self
2. Read again and choose the statements that the writer of your text might make:
   - I want to speak English (or any other target language) to communicate with people from different countries.
   - The foreign language is the key to a successful career for me.
   - I will enjoy my holiday more if I can speak the language.
   - I want to understand a different culture.
   - I want to earn a good salary and have an interesting job.
   - I want to be able to chat a little to local people about simple things.
   - I want to be able to understand TV and films in the language.
   - I want to be able to read fluently without spelling out.
   - I want to be able to communicate everywhere when I travel.
   - I want to feel a part of the society I live in.
   - I want to support a language that has been in danger of dying out.
   - I want to communicate with friends from other countries.
3. Make notes to summarise the text so that you can tell other people about it.
4. Get together with three other students who have read different texts. Imagine you are the writer of your text. Use your notes to tell the others about your 'vision' of your future self.
5. Discuss: Which of the four different visions is most like your own vision?

Texts

1 Summer's ideal future English self

I see myself in the future with a higher degree in English. After graduating, I apply for a job with an international company. The job is very interesting and has a good salary so there are a lot of applicants. However I am well-prepared and confident so I have no trouble speaking English at the interview. I see myself at the interview, answering all their questions confidently and fluently. After the interview, I feel I have done well, though I am nervous about the outcome. The next day, the phone rings. The Manager tells me I have been selected for the job. My first job will be in London and later I will be posted to Geneva. I really enjoy my career with this company, working in different countries with international colleagues and communicating in English in my work and daily life. I do well in my job and soon get promotion.

2 Charlie's ideal future Maori self

I see my future self fully prepared and confident, able to do a *noho* on a *marae*. I am standing in the *wharenui* giving my *mihi*, a fully rounded confident detailed *mihi*, and then later, after I sit down, listening and understanding the *te reo* Maori speakers giving theirs. I spend a weekend on a *marae* and can follow the conversations, speeches and stories. I see myself sitting at home, able to watch Maori TV programmes: documentaries, films, news. I can write letters and emails in *te reo*. I can play Maori songs on my (basic strums) guitar and know what the words mean, having memorised them. I can read descriptions in museums like *Te Papa*, understand the words in my NZ passport . . . read old documents. On a weekend or holiday, I pull up the car in somewhere like Kaeo and have no problem asking for directions and understanding the reply, and then make conversation with local people over a cup of tea or a beer in the pub. I can enjoy an evening in a bar talking with Maori locals about their place and local stories. I am currently halfway through a very dense coursebook, *Te Kakano*. In the same series are three more books. I envision myself completing the whole course taking me up to BA level . . . maybe even attending a graduation ceremony on the *Marae*. I want to be as rounded a New Zealander as possible, able to empathise with and understand the Maori dimension of this society. I want to feel I am doing the right thing socially and politically: Maori language has a small 'world' status (in terms of international communication) but within NZ it is 'equal' to English and this needs support and encouragement after a long decline and near death.

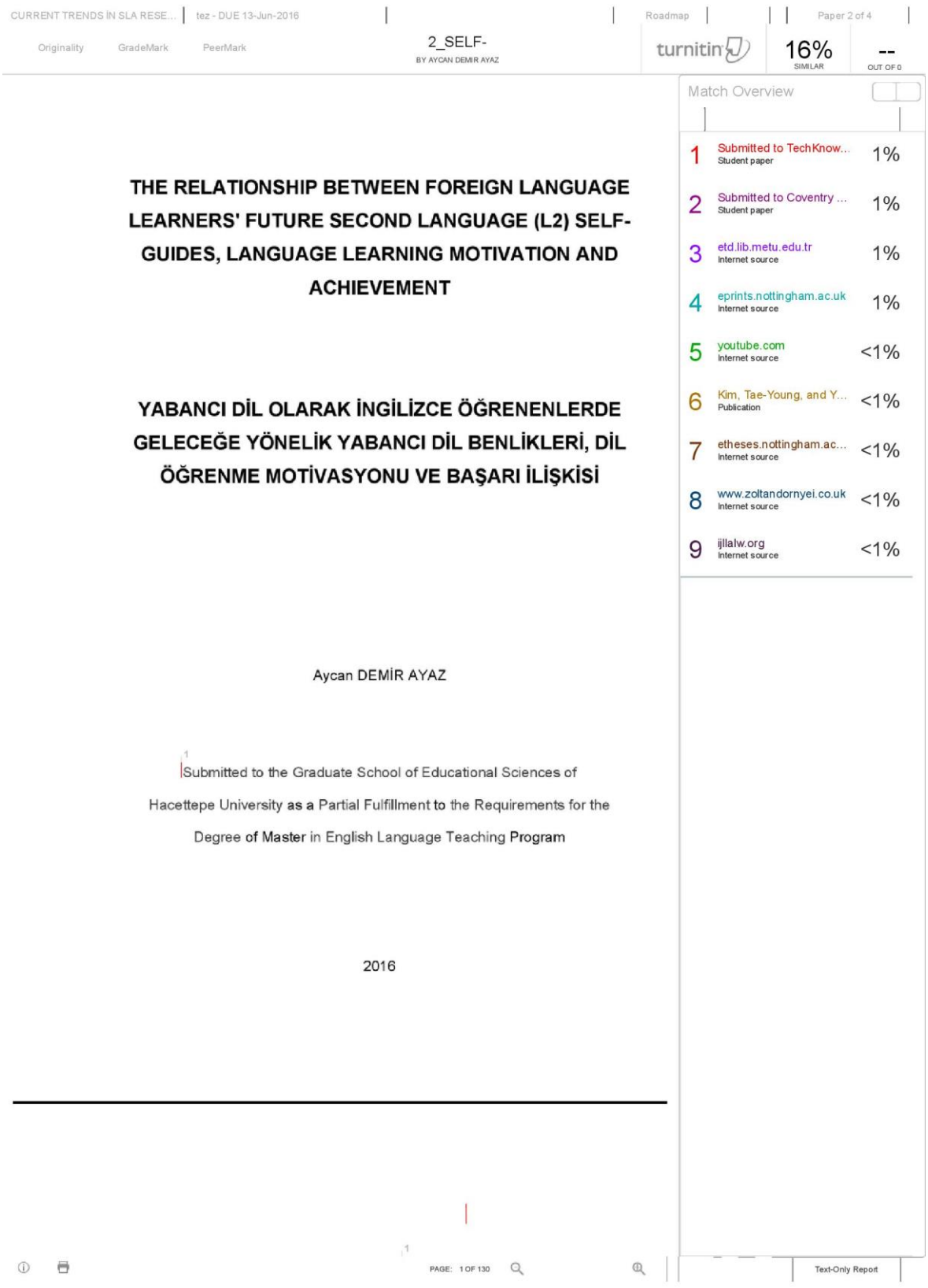
3 Kyoko's ideal future English self

I am interested in travelling and meeting people from other countries. Here in Kyoto I went to an International School so I have many friends from different countries and we use English to communicate no matter what country we come from. I like to speak English as much as possible. In the future I see myself talking to my friends in English when we meet or on Facebook and being able to express my ideas exactly. In the evenings, I watch English TV programmes, read English books or go to English movies and I am able to understand everything. I see myself in the future travelling round the world and maybe working in different countries. I am able to communicate with people and make friends everywhere I go.

4 Jill's ideal future Greek self

My imagined Future Self is on holiday in Greece. We have rented a car (managing all the paperwork in Greek) and are driving through a town in Greece and I can read all the street signs easily and fluently without spelling out the letters. We stop and park the car. I read the instructions on the meter and know how much to put in. I only have a note but I am able to ask someone for change for the meter. Next, we have to find the museum. The map is not clear so I ask a passerby for directions. Not only can she understand me – but I understand everything she says! We reach the museum and I buy a guidebook in Greek. I can read fluently and understand everything it tells me about the objects in the museum and their history. After the museum, we go for lunch in a little *taverna*. I can read the menu and order in Greek. When the meal comes, it is exactly what I thought I was ordering too! It's hot in the afternoon so we go back to the villa for a rest and then down to the beach. I read the newspaper on the beach. On the way back I do the shopping for supper and can ask for what I want, identify the labels on the packets, understand how much it comes to and chat a little to the shopkeeper about where we come from and what I'm cooking for supper. In the evening, the landlady invites us in for a drink and I can chat to her easily and fluently. We talk about families, different customs in Greece and England and politics. I even make a joke!

APPENDIX 6. AUTHENTICITY REPORT



CURRICULUM VITAE

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Education

High School	Giresun Anatolian Teacher Training High School	2008
Bachelor's Degree	Boğaziçi University, Faculty of Education, Foreign Language Education Department, GPA 3.56 / 4.00	2012
Master's Degree	Hacettepe University, Foreign Languages Education, English Language and Teaching, GPA 3.66 / 4.00	2016
Foreign Languages	English: Reading (Excellent), Writing (Excellent), Speaking (Excellent), Listening (Excellent) German: B1- Boğaziçi University Modern Languages Department (Common European Framework)	

Experience

Practice Teaching	TED İstanbul Private Schools	2011-2012
Experience	Giresun University School of Foreign Languages - English Lecturer	2012- 2016
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Academic Studies

Publication

Demir, A., Yurtsever, A., Cimenli, B. (2015). The Relationship between Tertiary Level EFL Teachers' Self-efficacy and their Willingness to Use Communicative Activities in Speaking. *Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences, 199*(2015), 613 – 619.

Conferences & Seminars & Workshops

12th ODTÜ International ELT Convention: *Celebrating Diversity.* Ankara, Turkey - May 25-26, 2015

Hacettepe University ELT Conference (Presenter): *GlobELT: An International Conference on Teaching and Learning English as an Additional Language.* Antalya, Turkey - April 16-19, 2015
TOEFL Preparation for Study Abroad Workshop by The U.S Embassy and Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey - January 25-26, 2013
The 1st International ELT Symposium: Wired In or Out by Yıldız Technical University, İstanbul, Turkey - December 1-2, 2012
The 5th International Conference of English as a Lingua Franca by Boğaziçi University, İstanbul, Turkey - May 24-26, 2012
Using Resources Efficiently by Bilgi University, İstanbul, Turkey - May 12, 2012
The Third International ELT Students Conference: Turning from Theory to Practice in ELT by Boğaziçi University, İstanbul, Turkey - April 14-15, 2012
The Use of Technology in Student Centered Learning by Beykent University, İstanbul, Turkey - March 31, 2012
MLARG (Mobile learning for young people at risk groups) Project Closing Conference by Boğaziçi University, İstanbul, Turkey - October 14, 2011
Facebook as a 'Third Author' - Automated Text Actions and its Implications for Language Learners by Assist Prof. Volker J. Eisenlauer at Boğaziçi University, İstanbul, Turkey - October 13, 2011
Instructional theory for the New Paradigm of Education: PBL and Explicit Instruction by Prof. Charles M. Reigeluth at Boğaziçi University, İstanbul, Turkey - September 29, 2011
A World to Come for Teaching and Learning: Remodeling Perspectives and Trends by Bahçeşehir University, İstanbul, Turkey - May 14, 2011

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