AN INVESTIGATION INTO RELATIONS BETWEEN AUTONOMY AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY USE

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ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION INTO RELATIONS BETWEEN AUTONOMY AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY USE

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This study aimed to explore the relationship between learner autonomy and language learning strategy use of a group of students taking English lessons at a healthcare university. To determine the relationship between these two concepts, 190 students responded a questionnaire consisting of two parts: 1) a questionnaire that identified participants' strategy preferences and 2) a questionnaire that measured participants' learner autonomy scores. After collecting the data, quantitative analysis method was performed via SPSS by conducting ANOVA test and some descriptive statistics. It is revealed that; a) high-proficient learners had greater autonomy and strategy use compared to their low-proficient counterparts, however there was no significant difference in terms of gender and age b) learning strategies are truly efficient in terms of promoting learner autonomy due to the fact they lead the students to direct and take control of their own learning in a more aware, efficient and effective sense. Based on the findings, it is recommended that autonomy should be promoted at universities to lead learners to become masters of their autonomous learning. In addition, strategy training could be provided for the students to use strategies effectively and extensive strategy training can be implemented into English course curriculum and materials.

Keywords: Autonomy, Language Learning Strategies

ÖZ

ÖĞRENME ÖZERKLİĞİ VE DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİ KULLANIMI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLER ÜZERİNE BİR İNCELEME

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Bu çalışma bir sağlık üniversitesinde İngilizce dersleri alan bir grup öğrencinin öğrenen özerkliği ve dil öğrenme stratejisi kullanımı arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmak amacı ile yapılmıştır. Bu iki kavram arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemek için 190 öğrenciye iki parçadan oluşan bir anket dağıtıldı: 1) strateji tercihlerini tespit eden bir anket ve 2) öğrenen özerkliği puanlarını ölçen bir anket. SPSS, ANOVA ve bir takım tanımlayıcı istatistikler ile nicel analiz yöntemleri uygulandı. Yapılan analizlere göre; a) dil yeterliliği yüksek öğrenciler düşük dil yeterliliğine sahip muadillerine göre daha yüksek öğrenen özerkliğine ve yüksek oranda strateji kullanımına sahiplerdir, ancak cinsiyet ve yaş bakımından ciddi bir farklılık tespit edilmemiştir b) öğrenme stratejileri genellikle öğrenme sürecini daha verimli, etkili ve farkındalıkla yönlendirmeye ve kontrol etmeye yardımcı olması bakımından öğrenen özerkliğini arttırmada son derece faydalıdır. Bu araştırmanın bulgularına dayanarak, öğrencilerin özerklik seviyelerinin artması için üniversitelerde öğrenen özerkliğinin desteklenmesi tavsiye edilir. Buna ek olarak, üniversite öğrencilerine uygun stratejileri etkin kullanmaları için strateji eğitimi sağlanabilir ve akademik yıl boyunca İngilizce dersi müfredatına ve ders gereçlerine yoğun bir strateji eğitimi programı yerleştirilip uygulanabilir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Öğrenen otonomisi, Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri

To my dear wife

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
L2	Second language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
LLS	Language Learning Strategies
SILL	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

Chapter 1
Introduction

Over the past decades, the dynamic field of learning and teaching has taken many steps forward in accordance with the progressions in technology, economy and political situations in the world. In the field of second language teaching and learning, research during 1970s and 1980s largely focused on pedagogy rather than on learning processes. In the 1990s, the research focus shifted to take into account the interaction between teacher and learner from the perspective of the learner (Brown, 2000). Parallel to this new approach of interest, theories, strategies and practices of language teaching and learning, the focus was more directed at the communicative, functional and individual aspect of language. Similarly, innovative theoretical approaches and exploratory classroom practices began to emerge across educational disciplines. In the areas of foreign language teaching, the developing frameworks focused on how learners process new information and what kinds of strategies they employ to understand, to learn or to remember the information.

One consequence of the EFL shift is the increased awareness of language learning strategies (LLS). Oxford (1990) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990), as well as other, point out that effective learners use a range of different strategies and techniques to solve difficulties they encounter while acquiring or producing a language. In order to better comprehend the learning process, it is important for teachers to study the strategies used by learners in more detail. Wenden (1985) suggests that teachers should be familiar with their students' learning strategies, how they approach language learning and their beliefs and attitudes towards it. Additionally, Çağatay (2000) asserts if students are conscious of their learning preferences and strategies, there is a better chance for them to be successful at the assignments. With this in mind, teachers will be able to give more opportunities for learners to be successful by enabling them to learn according to their LLS, thus facilitating continuous and effective learning through the language learning process. In order to accomplish this goal, the meaning of LLS should be well understood and internalized by language teachers.

Learner autonomy is a fairly recent and complex concept that has challenged educational specialists in their research studies. Holec (1981) claims autonomy is the ability to take charge of one's own learning; in other words, to have and hold the responsibility for all the decision-making processes in terms of learning. Consistent with Holec, Little (1995) argues that autonomy motivates students to set goals, decide on the content and process of their own learning, and evaluate their improvement and achievement. Both Holec's and Little's interpretation of autonomy falls into the new approaches on language learning, the responsibility has shifted from teacher to the student. In doing so, the learner becomes more involved in his/her own learning process. In short, an efficient and effective language learning experience involves both autonomy and strategies.

Thompson (2001) claims that English language instruction in Turkey has been traditionally authoritarian, meaning the learners expect teaching to be prescriptive rather than descriptive. Besides students are simply expected to memorize language and structure. Turkish learners are very familiar with these traditional teaching styles; however, even more troubling, these less enthusiastic and non-spontaneous practices have de-motivated students to learn. Further, students tend to rely more on textbooks and teachers as the sole source of their learning experience. Meanwhile, teachers place more emphasis on teaching and disregard the dynamic part of the learners. Notions pertaining to how learners learn, what specific LLS the learners use in their language learning and their autonomy competency is all but neglected by teachers. This is the main premise of my research study is to investigate the LLS of learners and their autonomy in a Turkish context so that teachers will be able to better understand and help their learners' achieve their goals. Moreover, this study will contribute to both the literature and transformation of the current situation of English teaching in Turkey and further enhance the understanding of the relationship between a student's learner autonomy and his/her language learning strategy preferences.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Today, the significance of teaching and learning a foreign language is increasing since the global world is becoming more interconnected. Accordingly, as people make

an effort to learn more than one language to communicate with other people around the world, the number of bilingual people is soaring. Already, it is estimated that more than half of the world's population speaks two or more languages (or dialects) in daily life and the numbers are rising day by day. Aligned with this, according to a report produced in cooperation with the European Commission titled Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe (2012), the percentage of students enrolled in primary education in a European school and learning a foreign language rose from 67.5% to 79.2% from 2010 and 2015. Considering the importance of bilingualism, there is a common belief that the field of language teaching and learning does not pay enough attention to these growing international trends in Turkey.

Students learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in universities and preparatory classes across Turkey frequently experience difficulties in obtaining appropriate degrees of English language proficiency. Also, it is commonly observed that as some students adjust to the learning environment quickly and make progress effortlessly, the majority face difficulties in language learning. It is the teacher's obligation to constantly follow developments to enhance his/her classroom teaching and strive to learn more about the learning process.

In Turkey, when learners fail to reach adequate levels of language proficiency in second and higher educational institutions, the "blame game" starts. Educators and administrators criticize the learners citing their overall lack of discipline, work ethic and responsibility. On the other hand, parents and learners target the teachers; the commoditization of learning is very apparent in the arguments from the parents; a service has been paid for and the outcome (language proficiency) is not working efficiently. One reason why students are unable to reach a desired level of language proficiency may be due to the fact that researchers have given little attention to the relationship between learner autonomy and LLS in language learning. Furthermore, Yumuk (2002) suggests another reason could be that a teacher's role in Turkey does not allow learners to be autonomous in class.

There have been just a handful of studies carried out in Turkish university's preparatory classes that examine the teachers understanding of the learners' LLS use and its relationship with their autonomy level. In order to expand upon the current research, my research investigates learning strategies used by students and demonstrates the correlation between LLS and autonomy.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

This research explores the relationship between learner autonomy and strategy use of medical university students that are taking English lessons. Two different questionnaires were administered: 1) a survey that identified participants' strategy preferences and 2) a survey that measured participants' learner autonomy scores in their language learning process. The two different measurements highlight the importance of the relationship between these two concepts in ELT. This study seeks to enlighten the often-overlooked importance of the relationship between LLS and learner autonomy and academic success in language learning.

1.3 Research Questions

This study investigates the following research questions:

1. To what extent is autonomy and LLS related to a) gender, b) age and c) language proficiency?

2. Does the frequency of direct LLS use increase if autonomy increases?
    a. Does the frequency of memory strategy use increase if autonomy increases?
    b. Does the frequency of cognitive strategy use increase if autonomy increases?
    c. Does the frequency of compensation strategy use increase if autonomy increases?

3. Does the frequency of indirect LLS use increase if autonomy increases?
    a. Does the frequency of meta-cognitive Strategy use increase if autonomy increases?
    b. Does the frequency of affective strategy use increase if autonomy increases?
    c. Does the frequency of social strategy use increase if autonomy increases?

4. Does the frequency of indirect LLS use increase if direct LLS use increases?

5. Do indirect LLS play a mediatory role between autonomy and direct LLS?

1.4 Significance of the study

A number of studies have identified and categorized autonomy and LLS using a variety of techniques, such as classroom observations, interviews, language learning diaries, detailed questionnaires, etc. Nevertheless, not many studies have examined the relationship between autonomy and LLS to this extent in Turkey. The results of the study may offer new insights to students in that they become more aware of their own language learning. For teachers, it may provide them with clearer ideas on the concepts of autonomy and LLS. Lastly, for scholars, it will shed some light on the given aspects of the ELT environment in Turkey as well as proving a modest starting point for further research.

1.5 Operational Definitions of Terms

Learner Autonomy: To define the learner autonomy, perhaps the most often quoted definition is Holec's, who states autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (Holec, 1981, p. 3).

Autonomous Learner: Autonomous learner is the one who has acquired the strategies and knowledge to take some responsibility for his/her language learning and is willing and self-confident enough to do so (Wenden, 1991:163).

Language Learning Strategies: Oxford (1990:8), is regarded to represent the most comprehensive definition of learning strategies by stating "They are specific actions and transferable to new situations that are used by the learners to do easy, faster, enjoyable, self-directed, effective learning."

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL): An inventory investigating the strategy use of the respondents during learning languages. (Oxford, 1990).

Foreign language achievement: having a degree of proficiency in foreign language learning by EFL learners.

Curriculum: The curriculum is plan or program of all experiences which the learner encounters under the direction of a school (Tanner and Tanner, 1995: 158).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Give a man a fish and he eats for a day. Teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime.

An ancient proverb
(Özseven 1993: 5)

2.1 Historical Background of Autonomy

Since the dawn of the 18th century, the idea of individual autonomy was central in European liberal-humanist and liberal-democratic thought and recognized by Kant as the basis of human dignity (Lindley, 1986). Benson (2001) states that Galileo, supported the idea of autonomous learning throughout the ages. Galileo proclaimed that "you cannot teach a man anything; you can only help him find it within himself." Likewise, Benson (2001) agrees with Jean Jacques Rousseau's model learning in terms of autonomy. He claims a teacher is a permissive person that supports learners, but also learns with them. Moreover, he firmly believes learners are accountable for their actions and learn by feeling joy or suffer from their consequences. Citing Dewey, Benson (2001) asserts, the basis of activities has to be a learner's own felt needs so that learning objectives are those of the learners, not the teachers. Benson (2001) draws a comparison to Carl Rogers, a remarkable psychologist and founder of "client-centered" therapy, because the teacher is the center in classroom-based approaches that foster autonomy.

Educator William Kilpatrick contributed to learner autonomy offering "project method;" an approach where the learners are anticipated to organize, perform and construct their own learning. Kilpatrick developed four distinctive ways: specific learning, problem projects, enjoyment projects and construction projects. Benson (2001) also highlights Freire and Iliich with regard to their perspectives related to autonomy. Published in the 1881 Yale Faculty Report, President Jeremiah Day (1817-

1846) emphasized every student was responsibility for his/her own education (Lanham, 1993). Furthermore, Schneewind (1998) discusses the history of autonomy in terms of numerous aspects throughout history. As it turns out, the term autonomy is historically much more rooted in students' learning processes than previously thought.

2.2 Definition of Learner Autonomy

Over the past 30 years, learner autonomy has been a major area of research in ESL (Borg, 2012). Throughout the literature, it is defined in a variety of ways. The general viewpoint regarding learner autonomy is that it occurs as a consequence of learners' approval of responsibility for their own learning (Benson & Voller, 1997; Little, 1991). In other words, autonomy needs the learner to take control on his or her own learning and his or her own role in the process. This control may take various forms for different learners and even different forms for the same person along with the contexts or time (Benson, 2001). For example, a learner who exhibits a high degree of autonomy in one area may be non-autonomous in another. Holec (1981) defines autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own directed learning." More recent definitions have contributed further dimensions to learner autonomy. For example, Little (2003) proposed learner autonomy as "the practice that autonomy requires insight, a positive attitude, a capacity for reflection, and a readiness to be proactive in self- management and in interaction with others."

Dickinson (1987) states that autonomy is a situation where the learner is completely responsible for all of the decisions about his or her learning and the implementation of those decisions. This norm of personal responsibility in monitoring one's own development needs, the use of self-assessment as one of the instruments to control one's level of knowledge and skills (Gardner, 1999). Thornbury (2006) believes that learner autonomy is learners' capability to take responsibility for, and control of, their own learning, whether in an educational context, or entirely independent of a teacher or school.

Little (1991) defines autonomy as a capacity for, critical reflection, detachment, independent action, and decision-making. He points out,

> In formal educational contexts, the basis of learner autonomy is acceptance of responsibility for one's own learning; the development of learner autonomy depends on the exercise of that responsibility in a never-ending effort to understand what one is learning, why one is learning, how one is learning, and with what degree of success and the effect of learner autonomy is to remove the barriers that so easily erect themselves between formal learning and the wider environment in which the learner lives. In this definition, autonomy is a capacity for a certain range of highly explicit behavior that embraces both the process and the content of learning (1991, p. 4).

Benson and Voller (1997) suggest five ways the term autonomy is used for:

a. situations in which learners study completely on their own;

b. a set of skills that can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;

c. an inborn capacity that is suppressed by institutional education;

d. the act of learners' responsibility for their own learning;

e. for the right of learners to decide the direction of their own learning.

Table 1

Definitions of Autonomy

Cotterall and Crabbe (1999:11)	It is the capacity for a certain range of highly explicit behavior that embraces both the process and the content of learning
Trim (1976:33)	Autonomy is an adaptive ability, allowing learners to develop supportive structures within themselves rather than to have them erected around them.
Little (1990:7)	It is a matter of the learner's psychological reaction to the process and content of learning
Esch (1996:37)	It is an adaptive ability, allowing learners to develop supportive structures within themselves rather than to have them erected around them

By examining the definitions above, it is obvious that educators and linguists do not agree conceptually on the term of learner autonomy. Nevertheless, the commonality shared in the different interpretations is that learners develop knowledge on their own and every learner brings his or her own experience and world knowledge to bear on the target language of the task at hand (Candy, 1991). It is possible to say that learners are the authors of their own education world. While there are many different definitions of learner autonomy, it cannot be concluded that the concept of learner autonomy has been fully understood (Oxford, 2003).

2.3 Importance of Learner Autonomy in Language Learning

The concept of "autonomy" has been the center of attention because it promotes situations where the learners' ability to learn is improved. Learning how to learn is a critical aspect that teachers must bear in mind to keep up with the conditions of the changing world. Since scholars have different perspectives on this matter, it is not easy to provide a simple answer to the question, "Why promote learner autonomy in language classes?"

Benson (2006) argues the need of learner autonomy in terms of the innovations that have become significant over the last thirty years. In the past three decades, a rising attention to learner autonomy, self-directed learning, learner centeredness, self-access systems and individualized learning is observed in SLA literature, which puts learner autonomy into a critical point in language learning settings.

Crabbe (1993) believes that autonomy has been recognized as a desired aim for three main reasons: the psychological, the practical, and the philosophical - 1) The psychological reason is that individuals can learn better when they are in charge of their own learning; learning is more purposeful and permanent when people take the responsibility. Besides, learners that are involved in decision making regarding their education would feel more motivated in their learning and would become effective learners; 2) Practicality. When the recent conditions and facilities of institutions are taken into consideration, it would be realistic to expect that a teacher may not continuously be available to help because of the number of students in classes and additionally, in the long run, learners will have several teachers in their lives. That is

why, learners should be able to learn and follow their studies on their own; or learners might not have enough free time or finance to be a part of educational institutions; and last, Crabbe (1993) adds, a society might not provide the required facilities to every member in the area of learning and learners. Under these circumstances, learners should provide their own learning needs to obtain the knowledge and skills that they want; and 3) Philosophical. Crabbe (1993) states, people have the right to make their own choices freely not just in learning a language but also in all other areas.

According to Little (2000), there are two essential ideas behind making learners autonomous. Firstly, if individuals are occupied with their own learning, there is a greater possibility they will be more efficient and effective. Moreover, if an individual is more focused and individualized, what is given in educational contexts is possible to serve learners' wider agendas. Secondly, if learners are actively dedicated to their learning, issues surrounding motivation are strengthened. While one might not constantly feel completely positive regarding all features of their learning, he/she will have established the attitudinal and reflective resources to tackle short-term motivational setbacks.

Furthermore, Ellis and Sinclair (1989) highlight the importance and inspiration of learner autonomy in language classes. They claim that assisting learners who take on more responsibility for their own learning is helpful because they take charge of their own learning as they learn the things they are ready to learn. Further, the learners who are accountable for their own learning can continue learning outside the classes.

To conclude, individuals who are reflectively involved in planning, monitoring and evaluating their own learning should be highly successful since they are involved in their learning processes. Thus, individuals should use this “reflective engagement” (Little, 2000) in implementing the skills and knowledge of the language studied in and outside of the classes.

2.4 Fostering Autonomy

It is obvious that teachers have an important role in the students’ learning in several ways. They are usually involved in pedagogical planning, establishing goals

and objectives, and selecting materials. They may also have some managerial and organizational duties, such as determining a program of work, material selection that will be used in the program, and/or determining the pacing and location, etc. (Dickinson, 1987). As discussed previously, the promotion of learner autonomy should be an important explicit aim of the language program. As Cotteral (1995) states, a learner does not become autonomous suddenly, but he or she adopts it out of the learner's interaction with the world to which he or she belongs. That is why, educators have to be patient and aware that it is not possible to acquire autonomy overnight.

According to Nunan (1997) completely autonomous learners are very rare; however, supporting them to lead autonomy can be done inside a class. To achieve it, there are two sets of complementary aims required for any language program. The first set of aims is combined with language content and the second set is combined with the learning process. Both sets have to be integrated into the curriculum harmoniously, not alone.

In "Approaches to the Development of Learner Autonomy," Benson (2001) lists six approaches that foster learner autonomy; it is widely acknowledged by many scholars as the most comprehensive one to date.

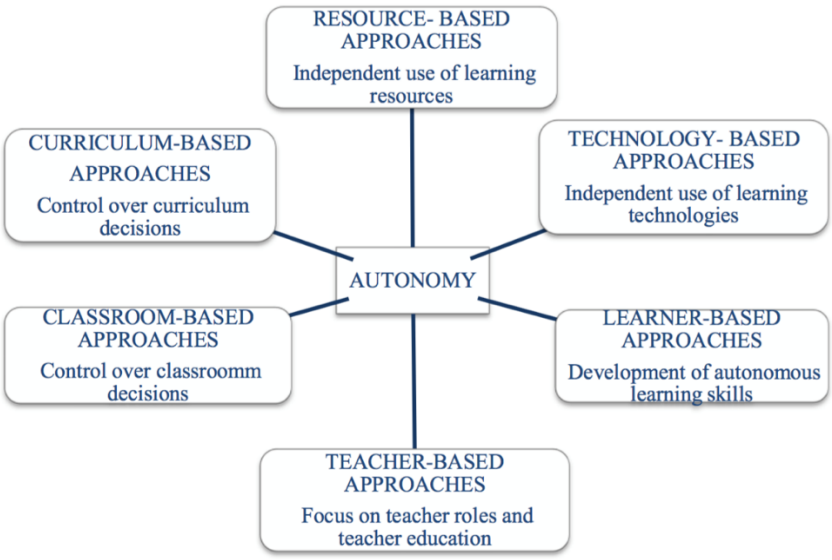

Figure 1. Autonomy in language learning and related areas of practice. (Benson 2001, p. 112)

The figure above presents the practices linked with the progress of autonomy in language classes.

2.4.1 Resource-based approaches. In resource-based learning, the development of autonomy depends on the interaction between learners and their resources. According to Benson (2001), in self-access centers, learners have the opportunity to organize their studies, pick the right learning materials, to assess their own learning and they are free to develop skills of choice by experimenting and discovering. They operate in a variety of cultural and educational settings and they can be seen in various forms as facilities in schools, parts of libraries, or language or computer labs.

Sheerin (1997) believes self-access centers are primarily set up for two main reasons - pragmatic and ideological. Pragmatic involves individualization; individual learners have special learning styles, preferences, and certain flaws. Time restraints and other factors can also restrict learning. In self-access centers there are chances for affective individualization of learning, and with no scheduled organization, learners may profit from these places as they wish.

Self-access centers, distance learning and self-instruction offer students the opportunity for independent studying, but a question surfaces at this point, "Whether they are adequate in practice to promote autonomy?" Gardner and Miller (1999) suggest that self-access learning, self-instruction and distance learning might be autonomous learning systems but they are making little progress in terms of autonomy and language learning (Benson, 2001). This is partly due to the lack of adequate support or direction for the utilization of resources.

2.4.2 Technology-based approaches. Technology-based approaches in the development of autonomy are parallel in many ways to other resource-based approaches; nevertheless, they differentiate in their emphasis on the technologies utilized to access resources (Benson, 2001). In the last three decades, various studies have examined new technologies and the aim of fostering autonomy. Technology based approaches in the mentioned research are student-produced video, computer-enhanced interactive video, electronic writing environments, concordance, informal

CD-ROMs, E-mail language advising, and computer simulations. Computer assisted language learning (CALL) and the Internet are the widespread technology-based ones.

Warchauer and Healey (1998) state that technology-based approaches are designed to provide learners individual control over the pace of learning, which is important in terms of fostering autonomy. Furthermore, internet usage can be worthy to foster learner autonomy. E-mail messages, online discussions, and web authoring help learners to promote learner autonomy. According to Benson (2001), the significance of internet increases significantly, especially in situations where there are difficulties to achieve a direct communication in class or self-access center.

In summation, because learners are given various chances and the freedom to develop control and direct their own learning, technology-based approaches are beneficial in terms of developing learner autonomy (Schwienhorst, 2003).

2.4.3 Learner-based approaches. As discussed above, resource-based and technology-based approaches to autonomy concentrate on providing opportunities for learner control. In contrast, learner-based approaches concentrate directly on the production of behavioral and psychological changes that should allow learners to take better control over their own learning (Benson, 2001). The principal aim of all approaches to learner development is to assist learners in becoming "better" language learners. Benson (2001, p. 143) categorizes the approaches to learner development under six major headings.

1. Direct advice on LLS, often in the form of self-study books, textbooks or manuals for independent learners.

2. Training based on "good language learner" research that purposes to convey insights from observation of strategies used by "successful" language learners.

3. Training with methods and materials, where learners are expected to experiment with strategies and find out which one would be best for them.

4. "Synthetic" approaches drawing on a range of sources.

5. "Integrated" approaches that treat learner as a by-product of language

learning.

6. Self-directed approaches in which a learner would willingly train himself through reflection on self-directed learning activities.

In learner-based approaches, LLS are essential skills that a learner needs to have. It plays an important role in the development of autonomy because it encourages learners to use their own ways to be successful. It may assist learners in reaching their language learning goals while at the same time, promoting learner autonomy and self-direction.

In short, learner-based approaches are effective in developing learner autonomy because they allow learners to control their own learning (Oxford, 1990; Dickinson, 1995).

2.4.4 Curriculum-based approaches. In curriculum - based approaches, learners are more actively involved in the decision-making processes that pay close attention to content and what they are studying. Because the learning process is more focused and purposeful for learners, their active role in the development supports effective learning. Parallel to this, Benson (2001) states that learners are expected to take part in big decisions regarding the content and methods in cooperation with their teachers. Moreover, because learners develop the control on both cognitive and content features of learning, they can also modify the content of their learning through the curriculum guidelines, which is further discussed and supported by the literature on curriculum - based approaches.

Dam (1995) suggests the structure of curriculum-based approaches entails the following: course content, selection and use of materials, position of desks and seating of students, discipline matters, place and pace of the lesson, time, homework tasks methodology and types of activities, and assessment. On the other hand, Brown (1995) suggests that learners can be involved in curriculum development if their preferences are taken into consideration. For example, their;

1. Learning approaches
2. Attitudes toward learning

3. Learning styles
4. Strategies used in learning
5. Learning Activities
6. Patterns of interaction
7. Degree of learner control over their own learning
8. What constitutes effective teaching
9. The nature of effective learning (p. 187)

To wrap up, a learner's involvement in the decision-making process is commonly considered to promote learning as it becomes more meaningful and beneficial for them. Furthermore, because learner involvement provides learners the sense of ownership of their own learning, they better take charge of it and have the sense of responsibility for it (Benson, 2001; Little, 1991; Nunan, 2004).

2.4.5 Teacher-based approaches. Teacher-based approaches concentrate on the role of the teacher and their education in fostering autonomy. These approaches mostly focus on the teacher's role on giving more control to language learners. According to Benson (2001), teacher-based approaches should be discussed under two properties: 1) the teacher's role in the practice of promoting learner autonomy; and 2) the role of teacher education in the practice of promoting learner autonomy. According to this perspective, the terms that define the roles of the teacher are coordinator, helper, counselor, consultant, resource, advisor, knower, and facilitator (Benson, 2001). Voller (1997) highlights only three of the above - facilitator, counselor and resource. In addition, he thoroughly discusses specific qualities of the roles related with autonomy in regard to technical and psycho-social support.

Scharle and Szabo (2000) propose three phases that teachers need to consider while promoting learner autonomy: 1) raising awareness; 2) changing attitudes; and 3) transferring roles. In the first phase, teachers introduce new perspectives and experiences to the learners in order to raise their awareness to entice them to govern their own language learning. In the next phase, teachers encourage learners to practice skills presented during the first phase, and in doing so, teacher assists students in getting used to taking more responsibility. In the third and final transferring phase, the goal is that a significant amount of differences can be observed between the roles of

teacher and learner due to distinctive exchanges.

Lastly, because teachers are cornerstone of the teaching and learning process, they are required to focus and receive training on how to encourage fostering autonomy in learners and to involve learners more actively in learning process.

2.4.6 Classroom-based approaches. Classroom-based approaches essentially focus on learner control in the planning and evaluation of classroom learning; in addition, it predicts what is occurring inside the classroom. Classroom based-approaches to learner autonomy focus on the changes in the interactions between learners and teachers in the class (Benson, 2001). Students can experience a collaborative and supportive environment if the teacher practices these approaches accordingly. So, it is obvious that learner autonomy is promoted in such classes where students are a part of the decision-making process regarding the learning. Overwhelmingly, the research presented in which there is learner control over the planning of class activities have reported positive results in terms of both autonomy and language learning (Littlejohn, 1983; Fitz- Gibbon & Reay, 1982; McNamara & Deane, 1995)

After reviewing all proposed approaches that foster learner autonomy in practice, it can be concluded that no one particular method should be considered best. On the other hand, if autonomy institutes numerous different aspects of language learning, it appears to be a culmination of all the stated approaches. Benson (2001) supports this idea by stating "there is no unique technique or method to promote autonomy."

The concept of learner autonomy is discussed to this point. In the following section, the term of language learning strategies will be elaborated broadly.

2.5 Historical Background of Language Learning Strategies

Educational researchers have studied language learning strategies since the 1960s. Initially, the field of cognitive psychology heavily influenced research in LLS. In the majority of the research, the main focus was "identifying what good language

learners report they do to learn a second or foreign language, or, in some cases, are observed doing while learning a second or foreign language" (Rubin and Wenden 1987:19). In 1966, Aaron Carton published "The Method of Inference in Foreign Language Study," an analysis which was the first attempt to explore learner strategies in which he connected learner variation in language learning to the ability to make sound and reasonable inferences (Wenden, 1987).

Following Carton, Rubin carried out several empirical studies in the mid-1970s. She primarily concentrated on observing the learning behaviors of successful learners. Further, she claimed that by examining what strategies students utilize in the classroom, teachers will be more enabled to help their less successful learners improve their performance by adopting learner strategies already recognized as productive. According to her data, the findings indicated seven characteristics of good language learners.

1. They are willing and accurate guessers.
2. They have a strong drive to communicate.
3. They are willing to make mistakes in order to learn and communicate.
4. They are willing to make practice.
5. They spend time monitoring own speech and of others.
6. They are attentive to form.
7. They attend to meaning.

Further, Rubin (1981) suggested a classification scheme that divides all LLS into two forms: strategies that directly affect learning (clarification, practice, inductive and deductive reasoning and memorization) and others that indirectly contribute to learning (creating practice opportunities and making use of production tricks like communication strategies).

In the 1970s, Rubin's (1975) and Stern's (1975) studies brought awareness of the significance of the strategies used by learners in the language learning process. Since then, the interest in this topic has gradually increased due to the fact that even with good teachers and methods, learners are the only ones who could truly do the learning. As Nyikos and Oxford (1993, p.11) declared, "learning begins with the

learner." This rise in awareness in the field of language learning strategy research began to blossom. However, still, defining and classifying language learning strategies remained a problematic issue. As Ellis O'Malley (1985, p.22) suggested, "There is no consensus on what constitutes a learning strategy in second language learning or how these differ from other types of learner activities."

Stern (1975) created a list of 10 language learning strategies that identified characteristic of a good learner. He listed "personal learning style" (p.311) as the head. Moreover, he defined "strategies" as "broadly conceived intentional directions" (1992, p.261); similar to Nunan's (1991) definition of style. This varying usage of basic terminology as accepted by key writers and researchers in the field resulted in problems regarding classification and definition that still remains.

In 1978, Naiman (1978) conducted a large-scale study based on Rubin's speculations examining the strategies that good language learners use. Compared with other studies in the field, Naiman's (1978) work proved to be invaluable to the study of LLS. Naiman's (1978) most significant contribution is that they developed descriptions and classifications of five comprehensive categories of LLS; moreover, they published their findings in "The Good Language Learner." The majority of the researchers in the area were involved in making lists of strategies and other features considered to be essential, that proved a valuable method of exploring how strategies affect language learning.

In the 1980s, the combination of cognitive psychology and language learning strategies resulted in great changes in the area of language learning strategies research. Especially, advances in cognitive psychology inspired much of the research performed on language learning strategies (Williams and Burden, 1997). Wenden (1982, 1986) was the first academic who worked on this new dimension - the metacognitive understanding of LLS. She drew up five areas of metacognitive knowledge:

1. The language
2. Student proficiency
3. Outcome of students' learning endeavors
4. The student's role in the language learning process
5. How to best approach the task of language learning. (Rubin, 1987, p.22).

In the 1980s, O'Malley (1985) investigated LLS usage of beginner and intermediate students who took English as their L2 (Skehan, 1989). The distinctive feature of this study was that the greater attention was paid to 9 unique metacognitive strategies. O'Malley and Chamot suggests "Students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishments, and future directions'' (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 8).

Furthermore, they discovered that the use of LLS was correlated to students' proficiency levels. Further studies were carried out by Huang and Van Naerssen (1985), Politzer and McGroarty (1985), and Wenden and Rubin (1987). Amongst these, Wenden's and Rubin's comprehensive study on LLS is the most practical and theoretical.

Much of the LLS research conducted in the 1980s were compiled into two comprehensive works published in 1990. The first is "Language Learning Strategies" by Oxford (1990) and the second is "Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition" by O'Malley and Chamot. For language teachers currently working in the classroom, Oxford's "Language Learning Strategies" is perhaps the most valuable guide to learner strategy training because it offers the most thorough and comprehensive framework of LLS. In addition, it offers a host of learning and communication strategies utilized by good language learners and practices in progression of strategy and awareness. Also, Oxford established a questionnaire strategy inventory for language learning (S.I.L.L). The questionnaire consists of six parts and combines six language learning strategies classified by Oxford. These strategies are not openly apparent in the questionnaire, instead they are represented in 50 statements. Researchers in this area have widely used S.I.L.L as a tool to measure the frequency level of strategy use of learners. Oxford's studies still provide teachers with valuable insights into what language learners are required to know and should do to organize their learning process.

2.6 Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

To date, language learning strategies have been the subject of countless studies and defined in many different ways. Not surprisingly, no consensus on the definition

of LLS has been reached. Ellis (1994) addresses this issue by stating LLS as "a somewhat fuzzy one and not easy to tie down" (Ellis, 1994, p. 529).

Even though defining LLS has not been an easy matter to pinpoint because of all the different interpretations, all researchers agree on the point that LLS aid learners in making their language learning process better and helping them to acquire language more successfully. Definitions taken from the relevant literature is presented in table 2 below.

Table 2

Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

Researcher(s)	Definition of LLS
Chamot (1987)	"techniques, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information" (p. 71).
Rubin (1987)	"strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affects learning directly" (p. 22).
Wenden & Rubin (1987)	"... any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (p. 19).
Oxford (1989)	"behaviors or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable" (p. 235).
Oxford (1992/1993)	"specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. Strategies are tools for the self- directed involvement necessary for developing communicative ability" (p. 18).

Table 2 (cont'd)

Oxford (1990)	"specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p. 8).
O'Malley & Chamot (1990)	"the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p. 1)
Stern (1992)	"broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques" (p. 261).
Green & Oxford (1995)"	"specific actions or techniques that (learners) use, often intentionally, to improve their progress in developing L2 skills" (p. 262).
Cohen (2002)	"learners' conscious and semi-conscious thoughts and behaviors, having the explicit goal of improving the learner's knowledge and understanding of the second language (i.e. language learning strategies), as well as strategies for using the language that has been learned or for getting around gaps in language proficiency (i.e., language use strategies)" (p. 51)

2.7 The Characteristics of Language Learning Strategies

While there is no uniform terminology in defining LLS, when we examine the learning strategies, it is evident researchers use different terminology when referring to the strategies. For instance, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) prefer the term "learning strategies," whereas Wenden and Rubin (1987) prefer "learner strategies." Oxford (1990) uses the term "language learning strategies." There are a number of basic characteristics accepted for language learning strategies. According to Oxford (1990), the aim of LLS is primarily concerned with the development of communicative competence. Twelve key features of LLS are presented below.

1. LLS contribute to the main goal. The main goal of the strategies is to contribute to communicative competence. Learning strategies can foster particular aspects of learners' communicative competence that are competence; grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic competence (Williams, Burden, 1997, p. 151).

2. LLS allow learners to become more self-directed. Learning is an individual task and they do not require a teacher to be around at all times to guide and direct learners what to do outside the formal context of the classroom.

3. LLS expand the role of teachers. Traditionally language teachers are expected to be an authority, a director, and/or manager etc. LLS suggest teachers to take initiative as advisers, helpers, guides, facilitators, and/or consultants. Teachers need to be prepared to diagnose a learner's issues, recognize their LLS and keep training on LLS as a critical part of teaching. According to Harmer (1983), "The teacher instructs. This is where he or she explains exactly what the students should do" (p. 203).

4. LLS are problem oriented. LLS are tools used to tackle problems faced during the course of language learning, or to meet specific needs of some learners. For instance, memory strategies are employed to recall lexical information and reasoning or planning and arranging strategies are employed to control the learning process.

5. LLS are specific actions taken by the learner. They are specific actions taken by the learners to enhance their learning. These are, for instance, listening to broadcasts, news and podcasts, asking for directions, taking notes, guessing the meaning of the word, etc.

6. LLS include many aspects of the learner. Learning strategies are not limited to cognitive functions that the learner encounters with while studying a foreign language. Besides cognitive processes like mental processing and manipulation of the foreign language, strategies also involve metacognitive processes (such as planning, evaluating, arranging one's own learning and emotional and social functions like lowering anxiety, raising self-confidence etc.)

7. Learning strategies support learning both directly and indirectly, involves direct learning and use of the mental processing and are referred to as direct strategies; if they support and manage language learning indirectly, such as metacognitive, affective and social strategies, they are indirect strategies.

8. Learning strategies are not always observable to the human eye**.** For instance,

while most properties of co-operating with a learner to accomplish a learning goal are observable, it would not to be easy to observe a student demonstrating mental associations. Oxford (1990) claims that teachers often find it difficult to identify learning strategies their learners use.

9. LLS are often conscious. The majority of strategies are conscious efforts of students to control their learning but after some amount of use and practice, LLS, just like any other behavior or skill, may become automatic. At this point, Ellis (1994) puts forward that if learning strategies become so automatic for the learners that they are not able to identify them while employing them, learning strategies lose their significance as strategies and they may be simply referred to as processes. However, automatic learning that becomes unconscious is usually the most desirable act in strategy training.

10. LLS can be taught. In comparison to learning styles or personality traits, learning strategies can be taught. So, strategy training can easily be done and is considered an essential part of language education. The aim here is to assist learners to be conscious of the strategies usage in order to distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate ones.

11. LLS are flexible; that is they are not always found in predictable order or accurate patterns. According to Williams and Burden (1997), learners exercise the way they use, combine and sequence strategies. On the other hand, Oxford (1990) suggests combining strategies in a predictable way occasionally by learners. For instance, in reading a text, students skim or scan to preview the passage and later they read it closely by guessing to fill in any gaps, etc.

12. LLS are influenced by different factors. As stated by Oxford (1990), students who are more conscious, advanced and motivated seem to use a greater range of appropriate strategies. With regard to the motivated learners, motivation is related to the way learning strategies are used by learners. Some of these factors may be degree of awareness, task requirements, learning stage, expectations of teachers, age, sex, nationality/ethnicity, learning style, personality traits, motivation level, purpose for learning and the language itself.

LLS' list of key features provides us an important view while at the same time, discussing their characteristics that involve challenging features, like consciousness, for example. The following section of this thesis addresses the classification of language learning strategies. Developing communicative competence of language learners has been the main goal of language learning.

Many scholars in the field of language learning and teaching have classified LLS in several categories. As described previously, Rubin, the pioneer in the field of LLS divided it into two parts - cognitive and metacognitive, communication and social strategies. O'Malley classified LLS into three main categories - metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies. Oxford's model of LLS, which is the most extensive classification by far today, divided language learning strategies into two categories – direct and indirect strategies. She assigned memory, cognitive and compensation strategies as direct strategies and metacognitive, affective and social strategies as indirect strategies. Özseven (1993) asserts that when you compare Rubin's and Wenden's inventory on language learning strategies with Oxford's, the latter strategies are more contemporary. Tüz (1995) adds that Oxford's inventory has proven to be consistent due to its many applications in different countries around the world. Most of these efforts to classify LLS reflect more or less the same categorization without any drastic changes.

As a final note, over the course of my research, I came to a conclusion that Oxford's inventory is the most appropriate, convenient and comprehensive for the purpose of the current study. In the following section, the categorization of various researchers in LLS will be briefly summarized.

2.8.1 Rubin's classification of LLS. Rubin, who is one of earliest pioneers in the field of LLS, divided language learning strategies into two primary categories: 1) strategies which directly affect learning; and 2) strategies which indirectly affect learning. The first category includes clarification, verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing, practice, and inductive and deductive reasoning. For example, learners repeat sentences, guess the meaning from key words, take notes and

write them repeatedly, make evaluation between the native and the target language, and ask questions to check whether they understood properly or not.

The second category involves two subcategories: a) making practice opportunities; and b) using production tricks, ie., communication strategies. For example, learners create situations to speak with native speakers and set aside sufficient time to watch shows and/or listen to podcasts. Thus, learners improve their English competence. Besides, they produce a variety of circumstances to clarify and comprehend the meaning. Finally, Rubin's studies established a foundation for the evolution of the comprehensive LLS organizations made by Oxford (1990), and later O'Malley and Chamot.

Table 3

Rubin (1981)'s Classification of LLS

Primary strategy classification	Representative secondary strategies	Representative examples
	Clarification/verification	Asks for an example of how to use a word or expression, repeats words to confirm understanding
Strategies that directly affect learning	Monitoring	Corrects errors in own /other's pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling, grammar, style.
	Memorization	Takes notes of new items, pronounces out loud, finds a mnemonic, writes items repeatedly
	Guessing/inductive inference	Guesses meaning from key words, structures, pictures, context, etc.

Table 3 (cont'd)

	Deductive reasoning	Compares native/other language to target language/Groups words Looks for rules of co-occurrence
	Practice	Experiments with new sounds, Repeats sentences until pronounced easily, Listens carefully and imitates
Processes that contribute indirectly to learning	Creates opportunities for practice	Creates situation with native speaker, Initiates conversation with fellow students, Spend time in language lab, listening to TV, etc.
	Production tricks	Uses circumlocutions, synonyms, or cognates, Uses formulaic interaction, Contextualizes to clarify meaning.

2.8.2 O'Malley and Chamot's classification of LLS. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) suggested a more comprehensive schema by dividing previous studies conducted in the area of LLS into three main categories: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies.

Metacognitive strategy is a term that refers to executive skills or strategies that specifically plan and think about the learning process that is taking place. In addition, observing a learner's production and/or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is finished complete this strategy. Strategies associated with self-monitoring, self-evaluation, advance organizers, self-management and selective attention are placed under the metacognitive strategies.

On the other hand, cognitive Strategies are not just more inadequate to fulfill specific learning tasks but they are also open to more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. The most critical cognitive strategies to be considered are transfer, contextualization, substitution, deduction/induction, elaboration, auditory representation and repetition.

Social/affective strategies include techniques where learners interact with others and control themselves to enhance their learning. They are commonly considered to be applicable to many tasks. Questioning for clarification, rephrasing, self-talk and cooperation with others to overcome a problem exemplify models of socio-affective strategies.

This classification of LLS is widely accepted by scholars and researchers. It is theoretically believed to be supportive for learners to better understand learning procedures.

Table 4

O`Malley and Chamot's Taxonomy of LLS

LEARNER STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION
1) METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
Planning	Previewing the organization of a learning task, proposing strategies for handling and upcoming task
Directed attention	Deciding in advance to attend to a learning task
Selective attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of a learning task
Self-management	Understanding and arranging the conditions enabling one to learn
Self-monitoring	Checking, verifying, and correcting one's performance/comprehension

Table 4 (cont.d)

Problem identification	Explicitly identifying the central point needing resolution in a task or identifying an aspect of the task.
Self-evaluation	Checking outcomes of one‘s own performance
2) COGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
Repetition	Repeating a word or phrase while performing a language task
Resourcing	Using reference sources about the target language
Groupings	Ordering, classifying, or labeling materials used in a task
Note taking	Writing down key words in abbreviated form
Deduction/Induction	Consciously using rules to produce or understand the language
Substitution	Selecting alternative approaches to accomplish a task
Elaboration	Relating new information to prior knowledge
Summarization	Summarizing information mentally or by writing
Translation	Rendering ideas from one language to another
Transfer	Using previously acquired linguistic knowledge to accomplish a task
Inferencing	Using information to guess the meanings or usages of language items
3) SOCIAL AND AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES	
Questioning for clarification	Asking for clarification, explanation, or verification about the task or material, asking questions to the self.
Cooperation	Working together with peers to solve a problem
Self-talk	Reducing anxiety by using mental techniques
Self-reinforcement	Providing personal motivation when a task has been accomplished

Taken from taken from O’Malley and Chamot, 1990:137-139

2.8.3 Oxford's classification of language learning strategies. Among all existing language learning taxonomies, Oxford (1990) is generally believed to provide the most comprehensive, extensive, and systematic framework that arranges specific strategies into a hierarchy of levels. Oxford (1990) sees the aim of language learning

strategies as being oriented towards the broad goal of communicative competence. She firmly believes the development of communicative competence is developed through strategies. Oxford`s taxonomy involves two main LLS categories - the direct and indirect strategies (Figures 2 and 3). Direct strategies are behaviors that directly facilitate the learning of a language. Oxford (1990) states that they are similar in ways that actors perform on a stage in a play, while she associates the indirect strategies to the director of the play. When the performers deal with the language, they also deal with the director who is responsible for supporting, planning, assisting, improving and encouraging the actors.

Direct strategies are separated into three subcategories: Memory, Cognitive and Compensation Strategies.

Memory Strategies: In early historical periods, people used memory strategies to remember practical information such as weather, farming techniques or the date of their birth. In more recent history, "the mind is such a powerful mechanism that it can store trillions of bits of information; however, only part of it is used when memory strategies help the learner" (Saltuk 2001: 30-31).

According to Oxford, (1990, p.39, 40) memory strategies are generally used to link the verbal with the visual and this is beneficial for four reasons:

1. The mind's capacity for storage of visual information exceeds its capacity for verbal material.
2. The most efficiently packaged chunks of information are transferred to long-term memory through visual images
3. Visual images might be the most effective means to aid recall of verbal material.
4. Visual learning is preferred by a large proportion of learners.

Compensation Strategies: These strategies help learners to tackle knowledge gaps and difficulties to stay in communication. Their purpose is to make up for a limited range of grammar and vocabulary. When learners are faced with unknown expressions, they utilize guessing strategies, in other words, they make inferences.

When they do not know the meanings of all words, they use a variety of linguistic or non-linguistic clues to guess the meaning. Ten strategies are arranged into strategies of guessing intelligently and tackling limitations in speaking and writing.

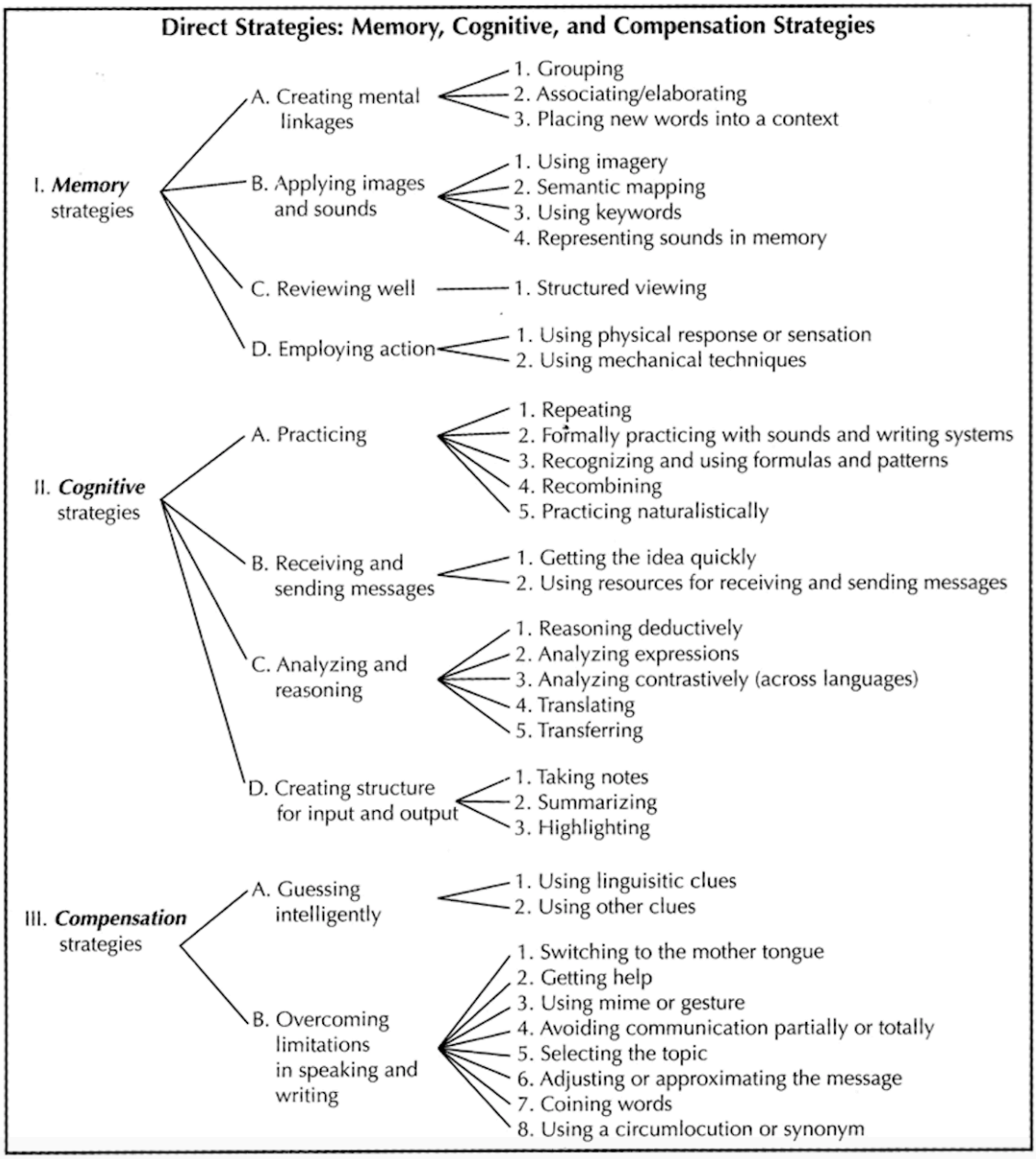

Figure 2. Oxford`s classification system of direct strategies.

Cognitive Strategies: These strategies are some of the most popular strategies utilized by learners. In particular, "practicing, receiving, sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output" (Saltuk 2001: 28-29). They

are not only utilized for mentally processing the language to receive and send messages, but also for reasoning and analyzing. They are structured for both input and output. On the other hand, the excessive use of these cognitive strategies may result in making mistakes when learners generalize the rules they have learned with no questioning, or when learners transfer expressions between languages, mostly from L1 to the target language (Oxford 1990).

Indirect strategies are also separated into three subcategories: Metacognitive, Affective and Social Strategies. According to Oxford,

> ...indirect strategies work best when used in combination with direct strategies. By definition, direct strategies involve the new language directly, whereas indirect strategies provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy, and other means (1990, p.151)

Metacognitive Strategies: They are described as behaviors used for centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating one's learning. "Beyond the cognitive" strategies are implemented to give "executive control over the learning process" (Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 404). These strategies provide guidance for the learners that are generally "overwhelmed by too much unfamiliar vocabulary, confusing rules, different writing systems, seemingly inexplicable social customs, and non-traditional instructional approaches" (Oxford, 1990, p.136).

Affective Strategies: These strategies are associated with emotions, motivations and values. Since people experience positive and negative emotions and attitudes in all aspects of their lives, affective factors play a key role in language learning. Oxford and Crookall (1989) describe these strategies as techniques like self-reinforcement and positive self-talk that help learners gain better control over their emotions, motivations and attitudes related to the language learning process.

Social Strategies: They are critical in the process of language learning as language is used between people to communicate. Therefore, practice is made possible by having learners interact in diverse environments. Co-operating with others, asking questions, and empathizing with other people are the three subcategories involved in

social strategies.

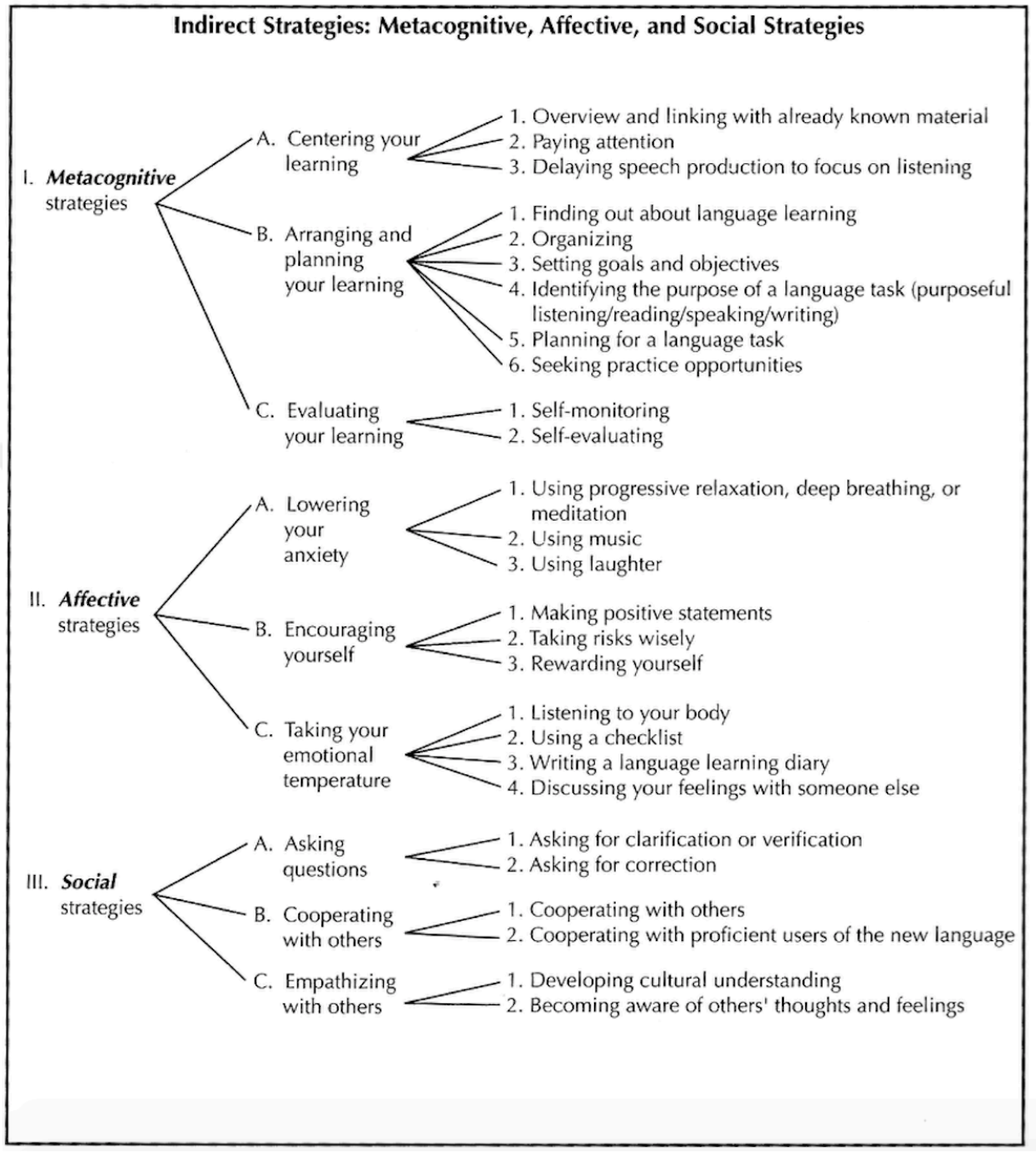

Figure 3. Oxford`s classification system of indirect strategies.

Based on the framework explained above, Oxford (1990) established an inventory termed as the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to collect data about language learning strategies. More information regarding the inventory is

given in chapter 3.

Oxford's classification scheme is detailed, elaborate and systematic. Her classification is more functional compared with others and has provided language teachers with valuable insights in what language learners require to know and should do to organize and control their learning. Learners might have a better understanding in the learning stages and learning strategies more directly and may be more likely to choose the strategies they require with better self-assurance. Hence, this classification is embraced to serve as the basis for the current study.

2.9 Learner Autonomy and Language Learning Strategies

Learner strategies are undoubtedly central elements in the realization of learner autonomy and research on autonomy should include the study on learning strategies due to the fact that they are mainly linked with learners' selection. Many scholars in the area of language learner autonomy label learning strategies as relevant or even crucial (Cotterall, 1995; Little, 2000; Littlewood, 1996; Wenden, 1991). In meaning, LLS use includes consciousness, awareness, and intentionality to some extent (Cohen, 2003).

Because the conscious or semi-conscious and purposeful use of strategies includes control over learning to some extent, research on the behavior of autonomous learner allures insights from research on learning strategies. To control one's own learning learners require understanding their own learning processes, require being able to make informed choices regarding their learning paths, and require to be proactive in organizing and addressing their own learning. All mentioned properties of control needs students to be able to use effective LLS. Wenden (1991) highlights the connection between autonomy and learning strategies by underlining the necessity to include strategy training into plans to develop learner autonomy. She calls the autonomous learner as the ''one who has acquired the strategies and knowledge to take some responsibility for his/her language learning and is willing and self-confident enough to do so'' (Wenden, 1991, p. 163).

According to Vygotsky, the aim of learning is to progress an individual to an independent, self- regulated (autonomous), and a problem-solving one. This may happen only by the assistance of "more capable others" who help the learner. This help is metaphorically acknowledged as scaffolding. When the time is right and the structure requires less and less external support or scaffolding, then, it is slowly disconnected. The idea of scaffolding is meant to remember the significance of the "social" part of "social cognition."

Consistent with the mentioned scholars above, Chamot (2001) states the reason why learning strategies are critical during the course of fostering learner autonomy under the two main reasons.

First one is that language learning process involving cognitive, social and affective processes can be better comprehended if the current strategies of learners are revealed. The second reason is that classifying the strategy profile of L2 students can offer valuable insight for training less successful students who are believed to lack the awareness of strategy use in the learning process. Wenden (1987) discusses that learning strategies can assist students in comprehending the nature of a language and then fundamentals of the language learning process. Learning strategies can assist students in organizing the content of their own learning, in shaping the techniques and methods that will be used and in self-evaluating the learning process and learning experiences.

To assist students to adopt better control on their own learning, it is important to support them to become aware of and recognize the strategies that they already practice or would possibly use (Holmes and Ramos, 1991). Learning strategies are one group of learner training content that should involve planning to help students become more autonomous (Wenden, 1991). Learning strategies can assist students to observe and self-evaluate their L2 learning performance and transfer effective learning strategies to new learning contexts, too (Cohen, 1998).

To conclude from what is stated above to this point, learning strategies are truly efficient in terms of promoting learner autonomy owing to the fact they usually lead the students to direct and take control of their own learning process in a more aware, efficient and effective sense.

2.10 Summary of Literature Review

In this chapter, the literature on the theory of learner autonomy and language learning strategies were reviewed. The definitions of learner autonomy along with LLS and various perspectives on the understanding of the concepts with the applicability of them were discussed. In short, the use of autonomy and strategy are considered as highly crucial for foreign language achievement.

Chapter 3

Methodology

This chapter details the methodological approach with regards to the design of this study. Participants, universe, data collection procedure, and data analysis are explained in this part of the paper.

3.1 Research Design

The purpose of the study is to investigate the correlation between students' learner autonomy and their language learning strategy preferences. The researcher did not implement any experiments or manipulate data in any way; data were only collected using the questionnaires. Moreover, this study is descriptive and inferential; the findings are based on survey research that predict important factors on considerable variables and assertions about the participants. Descriptive statistics were analyzed to investigate the relationship between learner autonomy and LLS.

Furthermore, this research is a quantitative study; data were collected using two questionnaires. The questionnaire is designed to find out students' preferences of language learning strategies and their level of learner autonomy. The participants are EFL students from a private university, thus taking young adult learners into focus. Lastly, there is a descriptive aspect to the research; from the data collected, specific variables will be ranked and correlated with demographic data to discover any significant relationships, if any.

3.2 Universe and Participants

The study consists of 190 students enrolled in a medical school in Izmir. The majority of the students represented in the study are from the Department of Physiotherapy (30.5 %), followed by Nursing (26.8%), Medicine (24.7%) and Dentistry (8.9%). The participants' English proficiency levels vary; they were selected

by using a convenience sampling technique. The majority of the participants represented in the sample are from IELTS 3-4 level (36.3%) followed by KET levels at 28.9%. PET level students represent 20.5% of the sample population while IELTS 4-5 level are the least represented at 14.2%. The mother tongue of the learners is Turkish; their social and economic backgrounds are similarly represented.

The range of the participants' ages are from 18 to 23. The average age of participants is 19.8; the median age is 19. In addition, 26.8% of the population are aged 18 and 24.2% are aged between 19 and 20. These figures assist in evaluating the results of the questionnaire as the range amongst age groups is not that great since the university students are in their first three years of education.

As table 7 illustrates, there is not an equal distribution among the respondents in terms of gender. While 22.6% of the respondents are male, the remaining 77.4% are female participants. A homogenous sample regarding gender is not attained but it is expected not to create any limitations in the results in terms of gender.

The institution where the current study is carried out is a "branch university" of a larger institution that mainly offers degrees in the areas of medicine; for example, the Faculty of Medicine, the Faculty of Dentistry and the Faculty of Health Sciences. During the admission process, students must take an English proficiency exam. This exam is carried out to assess the students' existing competence in English. Students who do not achieve a certain score are required to attend a 4-year English Language Training Program (800 hours in total) in addition to their curriculum courses for at least one semester or until they have scored satisfactory on the proficiency exam. Here, one of the main aims is to prepare the students for international examinations they might take following graduation (PLAB, USMLE, TOEFL, etc.).

The English Language Training Program is composed of four components - integrated skills, listening, speaking and an extensive reading course. Among these, one of the most critical is *Integrated Skills*, a course students attend four hours a week. The next important course is a *Listening and Speaking* course that students take one hour each week. In *Extensive Reading*, students study previously assigned reading

passages, next, the assigned teachers spend 5 minutes with each student asking direct questions from the reading passages to assess student comprehension and score their performances.

Table 5

Sample distribution according to the students' departments

Departments	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Dentistry	17	8.9	8.9	8.9
Physiothr.	58	30.5	30.5	39.5
Nursing	51	26.8	26.8	66.3
Medicine	47	24.7	24.7	91.1
Nutrition	17	8.9	8.9	

Table 6

Sample distribution according to the students' levels

Level	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
KET	55	28.9	28.9	28.9
PET	39	20.5	20.5	49.5
IELTS 3-4	69	36.3	36.3	85.8
IELTS 4-5	27	14.2	14.2	100.0
Total	190	100.0	100.0	

Table 7

Sample distribution according to gender of the students

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	43	22.6	22.6	22.6
Female	147	77.4	77.4	100.0
Total	190	100.0	100.0	

3.3.1 Sampling. The target population of the study included students at a medical university in Izmir. The population was so large that it would be challenging to access

all the students at the institution. Therefore, convenience sampling techniques were used because the participants were chosen according to their convenient accessibility and proximity to the teachers. The convenience sampling technique is widely regarded as a fast, inexpensive, and easy method to obtain a representative sample of a population by many scholars. Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996) declare,

> Researchers often need to select a convenience sample or face the possibility that they will be unable to do the study. Although a sample randomly drawn from a population is more desirable, it usually is better to do a study with a convenience sample than to do no study at all -- assuming, of course, that the sample suits the purpose of the study (p. 228).

While sampling, it was essential that the selected sample was representative of the target population, thus it was made sure there were participants from every department at the university. There were 190 participants sampled in the study and the response rate of the questionnaire was 100%.

3.3.2 Sources of data. Two survey instruments were used to collect the data for this study: a) a questionnaire on Autonomy; and b) a questionnaire on LLS. Before administering the questionnaire to the students, they were combined into one. In addition, a demographic section was added. So, the questionnaire included three parts: a) demographic information such as gender, age, major and their level of English; b) Autonomy Inventory about language learning (Dafei, 2007; Zhang and Li, 2004); and c) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990). Below are brief descriptions of both questionnaires.

1. LLS Questionnaire: In order to measure usage of strategy, Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was utilized in this study. The SILL was devised by Rebecca Oxford (1990) as an instrument for assessing the frequency of use of language learning strategies by language learners. There are two versions: one for native speakers of English (80 items) and the other one is for learners of English as a second or foreign language (50 items). Excluding personal details including age, gender, major and level of English, the questionnaire includes six parts, separately covering six major LLS grouped by Oxford. These strategies were not

explicitly indicated in the questionnaire but were embodied in 50 statements. Part A consists of nine items about memory strategies; Part B involves 14 items of cognitive strategies; Part C contains six items of compensation strategies; Part D covers nine statements regarding use of metacognitive strategies; Part E involves six items regarding affective strategies; and Part F includes six items regarding social strategies. (These strategies are thoroughly examined in the literature review)

Students responded over a five-point Likert scale, selections for responses included: 1) Never, or almost never true of me; 2) Usually not true of me; 3) Sometimes true of me; 4) Usually true of me; 5) Always or almost completely true of me. Consequently, higher score indicates students' frequency in utilizing the strategy.

In Oxford's SILL, the total average illustrates how frequently a student tends to use LLS. The frequency of strategy use is divided into three levels—high, medium and low. The high level involves two sub-levels. An average ranging from 4.5 to 5.0 shows that a student always or almost always uses LLS; and an average ranging from 3.5 to 4.4 suggests that a student generally uses LLS. The total average score of the medium level is from 2.5 to 3.4 reveals that a student sometimes uses strategies. The low level involves two sub-levels, too. An average ranging from 1.5 to 2.4 shows that a student generally does not use learning strategies; and an average ranging from 1.0 to 1.4 reveals that a student never or almost never uses learning strategies. The averages for every part of the questionnaire reveal which groups of strategies the students have a tendency to use most frequently.

2. Questionnaire to investigate the learner autonomy of the participants;

In order to measure the degree of participants' autonomy in language learning, the researcher administered a questionnaire designed by Zhang and Li (2004), a survey instrument that is highly valid and reliable. The questionnaire is originally composed of three main parts: 11 close-ended items with Likert scale choices and 5 open-ended questions for instructors (see Appendix A). Participants were instructed to answer each item on a five-point Likert scale (1=never, 2=seldom, 3=occasionally, 4=often, 5=always). For the current study, only the first part of the questionnaire was administrated since interviewing with two instructors would not significantly benefit

this paper. In order to turn the participants' selected choices into scores, the choices A, B, C, D and E are numbered one, two, three, four and five, respectively.

There are several reasons for selecting this questionnaire for my study. Firstly, out of all the different types of questionnaires reviewed that measure the current aspect of the learners concerning their degree of autonomy during language learning, this one was the most suitable one. Since this questionnaire was administrated during the end of the school year, there was no time to employ a long-term study. Lastly, and perhaps most importantly, another preference as to why this questionnaire was the most suitable was because the statements in the questionnaire "were revised and predicted on the foundation of the learning strategies classified by Oxford (1990, p. 17), Wenden (1998, p. 34-52) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990)" (as cited in Dafei, 2007).

3.3.3 Data collection procedures. The data for the study was collected by means of the answers given to the questions and statements of the questionnaire (See Appendix A). The statements were translated into Turkish by the researcher himself and tested by a Turkish linguist and a translator paying attention that the statements reserved their true meaning and that the translation was clearly understood.

Questionnaires were distributed to 190 students during their regular English classes. Before the questionnaire was administrated, consent was obtained from the Director. In addition, the subjects were informed that their participation was entirely voluntary, that their responses would be confidential, that their participation would contribute to a Master's Degree Study, and that it would not be used for other purposes nor affect the students' grades or anyone's opinion related to their performances.

Before the questionnaires were handed out to students, a thorough explanation detailing the aims of the study were stated. Participants were informed that there were no right or wrong responses to any of the items in the questionnaire and that they needed to answer each honestly. The participants were able to ask questions and to request support while they were answering the questions. When needed, the teachers provided further explanations of the statements. The students were given about 20 minutes to finish the questionnaire in class.

3.3.4 Data analysis procedures. The data collected using the two questionnaires was quantitative. Each answer was assigned a numerical value to calculate frequencies, percentages, and the mean average to analyze the data. “Never, or almost never true of me” stood for one point, “Usually not true of me” stood for two points, “Sometimes true of me” stood for three points, “Usually true of me” stood for four points, and “Always or almost completely true of me” stood for five points.

After gathering the open questionnaire responses, in order to analyze the data, the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used. The relationship between the two concepts (learner autonomy and LLS) was investigated using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). SEM refers to a set of mathematical models, computer algorithms, and statistical methods that fit networks of constructs to data (Kaplan 2007). Another tool that was used is *t*-statistic**.** The two sample t-statistic simply tests whether or not the mean values of two independent populations are statistically different. Descriptive and statistical techniques were utilized to demonstrate the data, draw conclusions and discuss under each research question in the following chapter.

3.3.5 Validity and reliability. The questionnaire on learner autonomy and the LLS was designed in accordance with the objectives of the present study. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was utilized to check the reliability of the scales used in the questionnaire. In other words, the validity of the items in the scales was checked. If the items were not valid, they were removed from the scale. CFA was used once again and the scale was revised and finalized. Additionally, to test the reliability of the questionnaire Cronbach-alpha values were calculated.

Each item was checked in accordance to CFA and Corrected Item-Total Correlation to calculate whether there were any negative values or need for revisions. After finalizing the scales, none of the items showed signs of negative correlations; hence there were no items that would result in a significant rise in terms of reliability if removed from the scale. The average scale of the questions were investigated using Hotelling's T-Squared to determine whether they were equal to each other. It was found to be statistically significant in all dimensions. Consequently, each question in the scale is essential to assess the different characteristics of the participants.

Reliability calculation of the autonomy questionnaire and some descriptive results are given in table 8.

The Cronbach-alpha value of the autonomy questionnaire measured 0.766 – indicating a high level of reliability. Additionally, the average of all items (Grand Mean) was calculated and found to be 3.308.

Table 8

Reliability calculation of the Autonomy questionnaire

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item is Deleted
O1	3.57	.887	.503	.735
O3	2.60	.890	.505	.735
O4	3.39	.846	.445	.745
O7	3.23	1.047	.325	.770
O8	3.08	.961	.465	.742
O9	3.34	1.010	.444	.746
O10	3.79	.847	.582	.723
O11	3.46	.858	.498	.737
Autonomy: Cronbach's Alpha=.766 Item Means=3.308 Item Variances=.848				

The reliability of the direct strategies was also investigated by Cronbach's Alpha statistics. The scale of direct strategies consists of three dimensions. All dimensions were examined independently and the results are reported in table 9. According to table 9, items related with cognitive strategies had the highest reliability while the lowest one was 0.765. When calculated as a whole, direct strategies' reliability coefficient was calculated as 0.924, and the average was 3.057.

The reliability of indirect strategies was also investigated by Cronbach's Alpha statistics. Indirect strategies are composed of three sub-dimensions. Each was analyzed

and the results are given in table 10. In table 10 items related with meta-cognitive strategies had the highest reliability coefficient of 0.852 while the lowest one was social strategies with 0.732. Indirect strategy scales were found to be reliable. When calculated as a whole, indirect strategies' reliability coefficient was calculated as 0.913, and the average mean was 3.027.

Table 9

Reliability Analysis of Direct strategies and Some Descriptive Results

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Memory: Alpha=.784			Cognitive: Alpha=.876		
Item Means=3.12			Item Means=2.877		
Item Var.=1.053			Item Var.=1.24		
M1	3.61	.907	COG1	2.86	1.148
M2	3.09	1.027	COG2	3.54	1.072
M3	3.05	1.179	COG3	2.13	1.152
M4	3.31	.994	COG4	2.74	1.055
M7	2.52	1.167	COG5	2.51	1.242
M8	2.63	1.003	COG6	3.68	1.077
M9	3.64	.867	COG8	2.53	1.042
Compensation. Alpha=.765			COG9	3,48	1,058
Item Means=3.437					
Item Var.=1.207					
COM1	3.28	1.089	Cog10	3.06	1.148
COM2	3.77	1.074	Cog11	3.36	1.039
COM3	3.53	1.087	Cog12	2.67	1.107
COM5	2.88	1.203	Cog13	2.57	1.119
COM6	3.73	1.033	Cog14	2.27	1.185

Dörnyei (2007) states, "just like theatre performances, a research study should address rehearsal to ensure the high quality (reliability and validity) of the outcomes

in the specific context" (p. 75). To conclude, it is sufficing to say that the statistical findings for reliability statistics are at an acceptable level.

Table 10

Reliability Analysis of Indirect Strategies and Some Descriptive Results

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Meta-Cognitive :Alpha=.852			AF.4	2.95	1.165
Item Means=2.816					
Item Var.=1.3					
MCG1	3.00	1.094	AF.5	1.56	1.081
MCG5	2.55	1.198	AF.6	2.81	1.245
MCG6	2.67	1.200	Social. Alpha=.732		
			Item Means=3.306		
			Item Var.=1.22		
MCG7	2.61	1.087	SOC1	4.03	.866
MCG8	3.26	1.118	SOC2	3.21	1.206
Affective. Alpha=.795			SOC4	3.28	1.075
Item Means=2.606					
Item Var.=1.355					
AF.2	2.98	1.173	SOC5	3.12	1.029
AF.3	2.73	1.150	SOC6	2.89	1.297

3.4 Limitations

There are two limitations that need to be addressed about the current study. The nature of this study is limited to the data collected from 190 students studying at a medical university in Izmir. Having 190 participants were found to be statistically relevant for broad generalizations about the relationship between autonomy and language learning strategies of participants and their language levels, academic achievement and gender. However, the students were admitted to this university based upon high scores received on a national entrance exam administered by Turkey's

Ministry of Education. Thus, many teachers feel that because of the competitive and rigorous university admission procedures, the students would already have high levels of cognitive and metacognitive skills. Because of this, it can be difficult to generalize the results in different groups of students in other educational settings.

The data was collected from 190 students enrolled at a medical university in Turkey. So, the results of the research are valid for non-native learners of English in the context of Turkey. Furthermore, the results reflect the data of mostly female participants since the study was conducted at a medical university that is female - dominant. In addition, although the participants report to have autonomy and use of some strategies, it is hard to identify whether they are really using them or not. Bearing these issues in mind, findings should still reflect some aspects of the issues in question.

3.5 Delimitations

Delimitations are the characteristics that limit the scope and define the boundaries of the study. Delimiting factors can include the choice of objectives, the research questions, variables of interest, theoretical perspectives that the researcher implemented (as opposed to what would have been implemented), and the population you choose to study. There is a population of international students at the institution where the data was collected. In order to better serve its purpose, in this study, the researcher only sought participants who were Turkish or who has studied K through 12 in Turkey.

Another delimitation is that the researcher chose to include only closed-ended Likert-scale responses in the questionnaire and chose not to integrate other research methods like think- aloud protocols or interviews. The reasoning behind this decision is that including other measures would have made people unwilling to take and complete the questionnaire. So it can also be said that having additional methods would have influenced the reliability of the data in a negative way.

Chapter 4

Results

In this chapter the analyses of the results of the two-part questionnaires on learner autonomy and LLS is presented. The data was interpreted in relation to the research questions formulated for the research and the aim in this chapter was to examine the answers for the research questions.

4.1 Research Question 1: To what extent is autonomy and LLS related to

a. Gender

By using Independent Samples **t test,** it was investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students in terms of gender from a statistical point. There were no significant differences in all components for statistical purposes. The results obtained are given in table 11.

Table 11

Differences by Gender

Components	Sex	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t	*p*
AUTONOMY	Male	43	3.4186	.69430	1.459	*.146*
	Female	147	3.2755	.52300		
MEMORY	Male	43	3.0930	.77490	-.299	*.765*
	Female	147	3.1283	.64924		
COGNITIVE	Male	43	3.0179	.75646	1.499	*.136*
	Female	147	2.8352	.68725		
COMPENS.	Male	43	3.4465	.80456	.091	*.927*
	Female	147	3.4340	.78666		
META-COGNITIVE	Male	43	3.0279	1.04524	1.759	*.080*
	Female	147	2.7537	.85209		

Table 11 (cont.d)

AFFECTIVE	Male	43	2.9721	1.00530	.100	*.920*
	Female	147	2.9565	.86405		
SOCIAL	Male	43	3.3907	.94612	.701	*.486*
	Female	147	3.2816	.70837		
DIRECT STR.	Male	43	3.1858	.70996	.475	*.635*
	Female	147	3.1325	.62820		
INDIRECT STR.	Male	43	3.1302	.89902	1.008	*.315*
	Female	147	2.9973	.71649		

To what extent is autonomy and LLS related to

b. Age

By utilizing ANOVA (One Way Analysis Variance), the researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students` ages and their scores from a statistical point. There was no statistically significant difference in components of Autonomy, Memory, Compensation, Affective, Direct Strategies. The results obtained are given in table 12.

Table 12

Differences by Age

Components	Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	p
AUTONOMY	18	54	3.4468	.55191	1.902	.112
	19	46	3.2609	.50057		
	20	46	3.1766	.57105		
	21	26	3.4087	.61903		
	22 +	18	3.2014	.63179		

Table 12 (cont.d)

	Total	190	3.3079	.56747		
	18	54	3.1984	.65578	1.206	.310
	19	46	3.1460	.48139		
	20	46	2.9565	.76004		
MEMORY	21	26	3.2582	.78456		
	22 +	18	3.0397	.76666		
	Total	190	3.1203	.67769		
	18	54	3.5333	.80938	1.636	.167
	19	46	3.4696	.77656		
	20	46	3.2565	.81613		
COMPENSATION	21	26	3.6462	.73170		
	22 +	18	3.2222	.69921		
	Total	190	3.4368	.78862		
	18	54	3.1593	.89221	1.694	.153
	19	46	2.9174	.81821		
	20	46	2.7435	.96762		
AFFECTIVE	21	26	3.1077	.94696		
	22 +	18	2.8111	.73716		
	Total	190	2.9600	.89518		
	18	54	3.2563	.65898	2.231	.067
	19	46	3.1478	.54760		
	20	46	2.9450	.64264		
DIRECT STRATEGIES	21	26	3.3330	.72610		
	22 +	18	3.0389	.64060		
	Total	190	3.1446	.64603		

The researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students` ages and their frequency of cognitive strategy use based on their scores. According to ANOVA, statistically significant difference was found. (F=2.996 p=0,020). In order to see between what age groups these differences are, a multiple comparison test called Bonferroni was applied. According to results run by Bonferroni

test, a statistically significant difference was identified between the students aged 18 and 20 in terms of using cognitive strategies. The 18 year olds were found to adopt cognitive strategies at a higher level than 20 years old did. (p=0,031). The results obtained are given in table 13.

Table 13

Frequency of Cognitive Strategy Use Based on Age.

Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	p
18	54	3.0370	.75513	2.996	*.020*
19	46	2.8278	.59809		
20	46	2.6221	.60522		
21	26	3.0947	.82743		
22 +	18	2.8547	.70545		
Total	190	2.8765	.70562		

The researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students` ages and their frequency of meta-cognitive strategy use based on their scores. According to ANOVA, statistically significant difference was found (F=4.736 p=0.001). In order to see between what age groups these differences are, a multiple comparison test called Bonferroni was applied. According to results run by Bonferroni test, a statistically significant difference was identified between the students aged 18 and who are 20 in terms of using meta-cognitive strategies. The ones that are 18 were found to adopt meta-cognitive strategies at a higher level than the ones who are 20 years old (p=0.002). Another significant finding was that students that are 21 use meta-cognitive strategies more frequently than 21 year olds did (p=0.002).

The smallest t statistic of the model was calculated as 4.45. Thus, all relations between the paths (arrows) were found to be significant. Results obtained with structural equation model can be seen in table 14.

Table 14

Frequency of Meta-Cognitive Strategy Use Based on Age

Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	*p*
18	54	3.0778	.95674	4.736	*.001*
19	46	2.7304	.72934		
20	46	2.4174	.83034		
21	26	3.1538	.97539		
22 +	18	2.7778	.86742		
Total	190	2.8158	.90382		

The researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students` ages and their frequency of social strategy use based on their scores. According to ANOVA, statistically significant difference was found (F=2.565 p=0.040). In order to see between what age groups these differences are, a multiple comparison test called LSD (Least Significant Difference) test was applied. According to results run by LSD test, a statistically significant difference was identified between the students that are 18 and the ones who are 20 in terms of using social strategies (p=0.031). The ones that are 18 were found to adopt social strategies at a higher level than 20 years olds. Another significant finding was that students that are 21 used social strategies more frequently than 21 year olds did (p=0.008). The results obtained are given in table 15.

Table 15

Frequency of Social Strategy Use Based on Age

Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	*p*
18	54	3.4481	.77794	2.565	*.040*

Table 15 (cont.d)

19	46	3.2217	.70708
20	46	3.0609	.77845
21	26	3.5538	.68424
22 +	18	3.3667	.83525
Total	190	3.3063	.76723

The researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students` ages and their frequency of indirect strategy use based on their scores. According to ANOVA, statistically significant difference was found (F=3.539 p=0.008). In order to see between what age groups these differences are, a multiple comparison test called Bonferroni was applied. According to results run by Bonferroni test, a statistically significant difference was identified between the students that are 18 and who are 20 in terms of using indirect strategies (p=0.012). The ones that are 18 were found to adopt indirect strategies at a higher level than 20 years olds. Another significant finding was that students that are 21 use indirect strategies more frequently than 21 year olds (p=0.039). The results obtained are given in table 16.

Table 16

Frequency of Indirect Strategy Use Based on Age

Age	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	*p*
18	54	3.2284	.76436	3.539	*.008*
19	46	2.9565	.64379		
20	46	2.7406	.77354		
21	26	3.2718	.79172		
22 +	18	2.9852	.74713		
Total	190	3.0274	.76111		

To what extent is autonomy and LLS related to

c. Proficiency

The researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students` language proficiency levels and their scores from a statistical point. There was no statistically significant difference in components of memory, compensation, affective, social, and direct Strategies. The results obtained are given in table 17.

Table 17

Frequency of LLS Use Based on Proficiency Levels

Components	Proficiency	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	*P*
Memory Strategies	KET	55	3.0753	.70085	2.213	*.088*
	PET	39	3.0000	.65874		
	IELTS 3-4	69	3.1097	.64966		
	IELTS 4-5	27	3.4127	.68206		
	Total	190	3.1203	.67769		
Compensation Strategies	KET	55	3.3091	.83871	1.859	*.138*
	PET	39	3.2974	.79983		
	IELTS 3-4	69	3.5913	.72146		
	IELTS 4-5	27	3.5037	.79493		
	Total	190	3.4368	.78862		
Affective Strategies	KET	55	2.9200	.89740	1.326	*.267*
	PET	39	2.8462	.81106		
	IELTS 3-4	69	2.9362	.91619		
	IELTS 4-5	27	3.2667	.93480		
	Total	190	2.9600	.89518		
Social Strategies	KET	55	3.2000	.73937	1.975	*.119*
	PET	39	3.1846	.70395		

Table 17 (cont.d)

Direct Strategies	IELTS 3-4	69	3.3507	.82134		
	IELTS 4-5	27	3.5852	.72308		
	Total	190	3.3063	.76723		
	KET	55	3.0428	.67485	2.566	*.056*
	PET	39	3.0275	.62814		
	IELTS 3-4	69	3.1880	.58287		
	IELTS 4-5	27	3.4099	.70864		
	Total	190	3.1446	.64603		

The researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students` autonomy and their proficiency levels. According to ANOVA, statistically significant difference was found (F=3,509 p=0,016). In order to see between what proficiency level these differences are, a multiple comparison test called Bonferroni was applied. According to results run by Bonferroni test, a statistically significant difference was identified between the students that are studying at PET and IELTS 4-5 in terms of autonomy. The ones that are at IELTS 4-5 level were found to be more autonomous compared to the ones are studying at PET level. (p=0.031). The results obtained are given in table 18.

Table 18

Autonomy and Proficiency Levels

Component	Level	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	*P*
AUTONOMY	KET	55	3.3909	.50407	3.509	*.016*
	PET	39	3.1571	.56175		
	IELTS 3-4	69	3.2319	.57012		
	IELTS 4-5	27	3.5509	.61361		
	Total	190	3.3079	.56747		

The researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students` cognitive Strategy use and their proficiency levels. According to ANOVA, statistically significant difference was found (F=4.568 p=0.004). In order to see between what proficiency level these differences are, a multiple comparison test called Bonferroni was applied.

According to results run by Bonferroni test, a statistically significant difference was identified between the students that are studying at IELTS 4-5 and all other levels in terms of using cognitive strategies. The ones that are at IELTS 4-5 level were found to be using cognitive skills more frequently than all the other levels did. (p=0.015). The results obtained are given in table 19.

Table 19

Frequency of cognitive strategy use based on proficiency levels

Proficiency Level	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	*P*
KET	55	2.7441	.72585	4.568	*.004*
PET	39	2.7850	.61594		
IELTS 3-4	69	2.8629	.65296		
IELTS 4-5	27	3.3134	.77920		
Total	190	2.8765	.70562		

The researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students` meta-cognitive strategy use and their proficiency levels. According to ANOVA, statistically significant difference was found. (F=3.846 p=0.011). In order to see between what proficiency level these differences are, a multiple comparison test called Bonferroni was applied. According to results run by Bonferroni test, a statistically significant difference was identified between the students that are studying at IELTS 4-5 and all other levels in terms of using meta-cognitive strategies. The ones that are at IELTS 4-5 level were found to be using meta-cognitive skills more frequently than all the other levels. (p=0.021). The results obtained are given in table 20.

Table 20

Frequency of Meta-Cognitive Strategy Use Based on Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Level	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	*P*
KET	55	2.7927	.88608	3.846	*.011*
PET	39	2.6872	.74663		
IELTS 3-4	69	2.7014	.91884		
IELTS 4-5	27	3.3407	.96845		
Total	190	2.8158	.90382		

The researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students` meta-cognitive strategy use and their proficiency levels. According to ANOVA, statistically significant difference was found (F=2.668 p=0.049). In order to see between what proficiency levels these differences are, a multiple comparison test called LSD (Least Significant Difference) test was applied. According to results run by LSD test, a statistically significant difference was identified between the students that are studying at IELTS 4-5 and all other levels in terms of using indirect strategies. The ones that are at IELTS 4-5 level were found to be using indirect Strategies more frequently than all the other levels (p=0.017). The results obtained are given in table 21.

Table 21

Frequency of Direct Strategy Use Based on Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Level	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	F	*P*
KET	55	2.9709	.73128	2.668	*.049*
PET	39	2.9060	.67116		
IELTS 3-4	69	2.9961	.79590		
IELTS 4-5	27	3.3975	.78195		
Total	190	3.0274	.76111		

4.2 Research Question 2: Does the frequency of direct LLS use increase if autonomy increases?

In structural equation modeling (SEM), autonomy is linked with direct strategies and compliance measurements of the model were obtained as $\chi 2=129.31$ df.=75; $\chi^2/df=1.72$ RMSEA=0.062, NNFI=0.95 CFI=0.96, IFI=0.96 RMR=0.065 and GFI=0.91. Obtained compliance measurements show that the structural models are at an acceptable level.

In order to have a meaningful relationship, the t statistics must be no less than at a level of 1.96. Paths between latent variables and observed variables represent their relationship. A unit of 0.79 was noted between students' frequency of direct LLS use and autonomy.

According to the relation above, a one unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.79 unit increase in frequency of direct LLS use. Consequently, if autonomy increases, the frequencies of direct LLS use increases proportionally.

4.2.1 Does the frequency of memory strategy use increase if autonomy increases? In structural equation modeling, autonomy is linked with the frequency of memory strategy use and compliance measurements of the model were obtained as $\chi 2=158.95$ df.=89; $\chi^2/df=1.78$, RMSEA=0.064, NNFI=0.95 CFI=0.96, IFI=0.96 RMR=0.059 and GFI=0.90. Obtained compliance measurements shows that the structural models are at the least acceptable level. Results obtained with SEM can be seen in figure 4.

According to figure 4, a unit of 8.1 was noted between students' frequency of memory LLS use and autonomy. According to the relationship above, a one unit increase in students' autonomy brings a 0.81 unit increase in frequency of memory LLS use. (t=8,15 p<0,01). Consequently, if autonomy increases, the frequencies of memory LLS use increase.

Autonomous latent variable is found as the observed variables associated with the highest correlation of 0.65 units O10 variable. Autonomous hidden variables are associated with 0.43 unit variance in O10 variable (t=9,25 p<0,01). The least correlation of observed variables associated with O7 was noted as a unit of 0.39. Autonomous hidden variable of O7 the observed variables explain a variance of 0.15 units (t=5,13 p<0,01). All observed variables that are associated with autonomy hidden variables were significant.

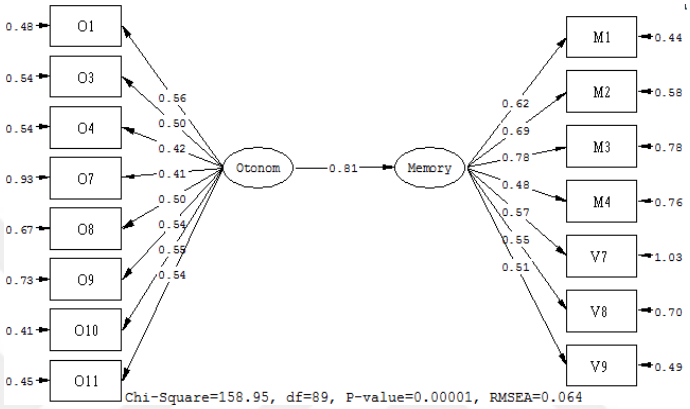

Figure 4. Relations between autonomy and frequency of memory strategy use

4.2.2 Does the frequency of cognitive strategy use increase if autonomy increases? In the structural equation modeling, autonomy was linked with cognitive strategies and compliance measurements of the model were obtained as $\chi 2=340.36$ df.=188; $\chi^2/df=1.81$, RMSEA=0.065, NNFI=0.95 CFI=0.96, IFI=0.96 RMR=0.064 and GFI=0,85. The compliance measurements indicate that the structural models are at the least acceptable level. The smallest t statistic of the model is calculated as 4.73. Thus, all relations between the paths (arrows) were found to be significant. Results obtained with SEM can be seen in figure 5. According to figure 5,

A unit of 0.80 was noted between students' frequency of direct LLS use and autonomy. According to the relationship above, a one unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.81 unit increase in frequency of cognitive LLS use. (t=7,65 p<0,01). Consequently, if autonomy increases, the frequencies of cognitive LLS use also increase.

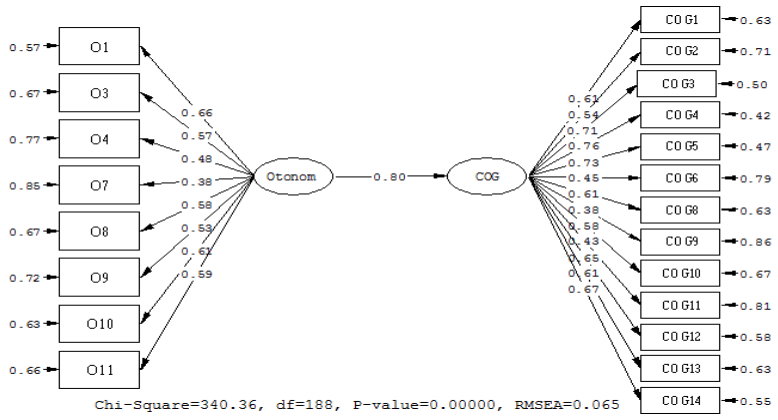

Figure 5. Relations between autonomy and frequency of cognitive LLS usage

4.2.3 Does the frequency of compensation strategy use increases if autonomy increases? In the structural equation modeling, autonomy was linked with compensation strategies and compliance measurements of the model were obtained as $\chi 2=75.72$ df.=62; $\chi^2/df=1.22$, RMSEA=0.034, NNFI=0.99 CFI=0.99, IFI=0.99 RMR=0.048 GFI=0.94. Compliance measurements demonstrated that the structural models are at an acceptable level. The smallest t statistic of the model is calculated as 4.16. Thus, all relations between the paths (arrows) were found to be significant.

The results obtained with structural equation modeling can be seen in figure 6. According to the figure 6, a unit of 0.76 was noted between students' frequency of compensation strategy use and autonomy. According to the relationship above, a one-unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.76 unit increase in frequency of cognitive LLS use (t=7,91 p<0,01). Consequently, if autonomy increases, the frequency of compensation strategy use also increases.

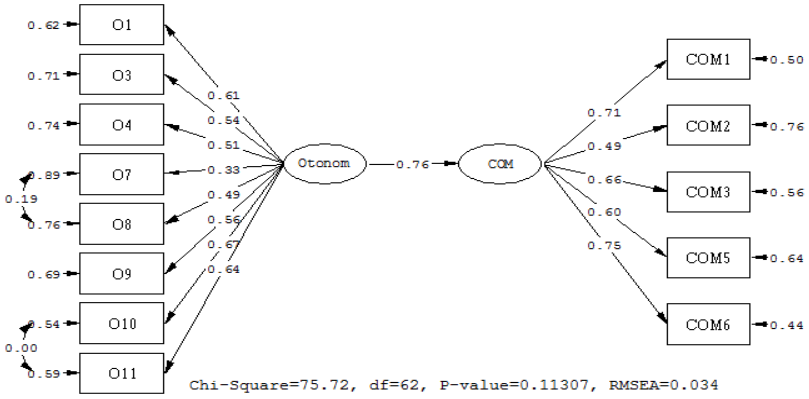

Figure 6. Relations between autonomy and frequency of compensation strategy use

4.3 Research Question 3: Does the frequency of indirect LLS use increase if autonomy increases?

A unit of 0.50 was noted between students' frequency of indirect LLS use and autonomy. According to the relationship above, a one unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.79 unit increase in frequency of direct LLS use (t=5,14 p<0,01). Consequently, if autonomy increases, the indirect LLS frequency use also increases.

4.3.1 Does the frequency of meta-cognitive strategy use increase if autonomy increases? In the structural equation modeling, autonomy was linked to compensation strategies and compliance measurements of the model were obtained as $\chi 2$=127.21 df.=64; χ^2/df=1.98, RMSEA=0.072, NNFI=0.96 CFI=0.97, IFI=0.97 RMR=0.061 GFI=0.91. Obtained compliance measurements show that the structural models are at an acceptable level. The smallest t statistic of the model is calculated as 5.01. Thus, all relations between the paths (arrows) were found to be significant. The results obtained with SEM can be seen in figure 7. According to the figure 7, a unit of 0.80 was noted between students' frequency of meta-cognitive strategy use and autonomy. According to the relationship above, a one unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.80 unit increase in frequency of cognitive LLS use (t=9,33 p<0,01). Consequently, if autonomy increases, the frequency of meta-cognitive strategy use increases.

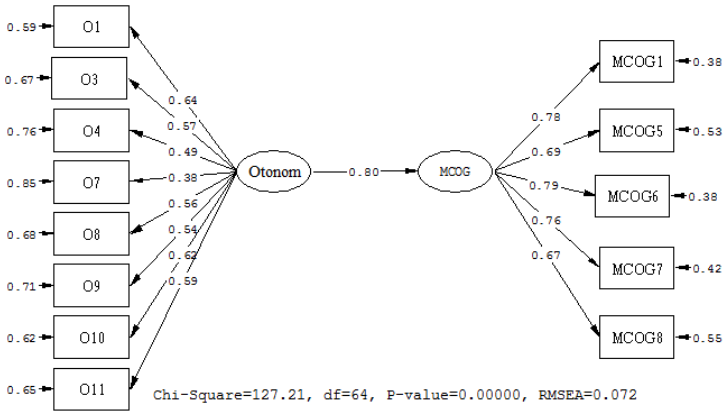

Figure 7. Relations between autonomy and frequency of meta-cognitive strategy use

4.3.2 Does the frequency of affective strategy use increase if autonomy increases? In structural equation modeling, autonomy was linked with affective strategies and compliance measurements of the model were obtained as $\chi 2=121,23$ df.=64; $\chi^2/df=1.89$, RMSEA=0.069, NNFI=0.95 CFI=0.96, IFI=0.96 RMR=0.067 GFI=0.91. Obtained compliance measurements show that the structural models are at an acceptable level. The smallest t statistic of the model is calculated as 5.53. Thus, all relations between the paths (arrows) were found to be significant. Results obtained with SEM can be seen in figure 8. According to the figure 8, a unit of 0.71 was noted between students' frequency of affective strategy use and autonomy. According to the relationship above, a one unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.71 unit increase in frequency of affective LLS use (t=8,28 p<0,01). Consequently, if autonomy increases, the frequency of affective strategy use increases.

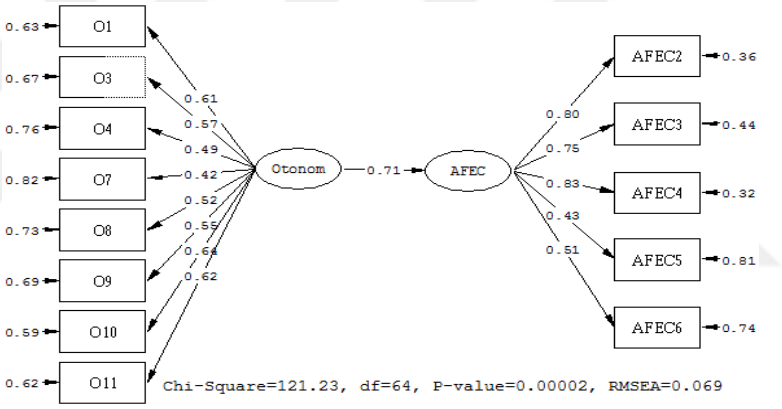

Figure 8. *Relations between autonomy and frequency of affective strategy use*

4.3.3 Does the frequency of social strategy use increases if autonomy increases? In structural equation modeling, autonomy was linked with social strategies and compliance measurements of the model were obtained as $\chi 2=122,14$ df.=63; $\chi^2/df=1.93$ RMSEA=0.070, NNFI=0.95 CFI=0.96, IFI=0.96 RMR=0.060 GFI=0.91. The obtained compliance measurements reveal that the structural models are at an acceptable level. The smallest t statistic of the model is calculated as 4.58. Thus, all relations between the paths (arrows) were found to be significant. Results obtained with SEM can be seen in figure 9. According to figure 9, a unit of 0.84 was noted between students' frequency of social strategy use and autonomy. According to

the relationship above, one unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.84 unit increase in frequency of social LLS use (t=5,06 p<0,01). Consequently, if autonomy increases, the frequency of social strategy use increases.

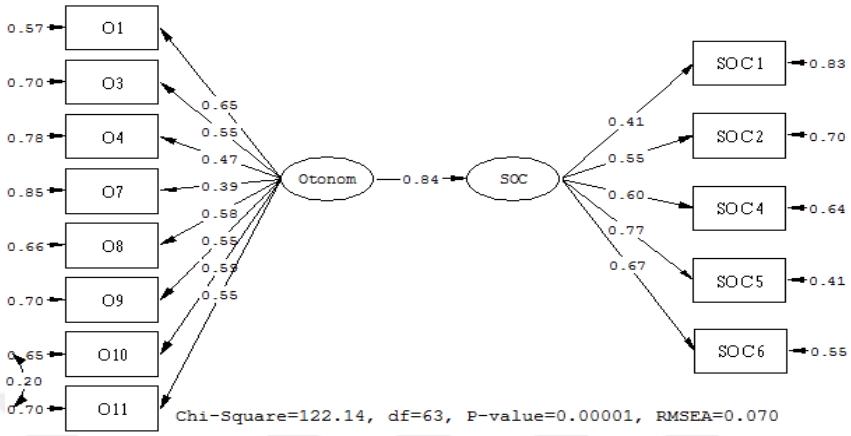

Figure 9. Relations between Autonomy and frequency of Social strategy use

4.4 Research Question 4: Does the frequency of indirect LLS use increase if direct LLS use increases?

In structural equation modeling, direct strategies were linked with indirect strategies and compliance measurements of the model were obtained as $\chi 2=15,26$ df.=8; $\chi^2/df=1.90$ RMSEA=0.069, NNFI=0.96 CFI=0.98, IFI=0.98 RMR=0.050 GFI=0.97. Obtained compliance measurements show that the structural models are at an acceptable level. The smallest t statistic of the model is calculated as 4.81. Thus, all relations between the paths (arrows) were found to be significant. Results obtained with SEM can be seen in figure 10. According to figure 10, a unit of 0.57 was noted between students' frequency of direct strategy use and indirect strategy use. According to the relationship above, one unit increase in students' direct strategy use brings 0.57 unit increase in frequency of indirect strategy use (t=5,41 p<0,01). Consequently, if indirect strategy use increases, the frequency of direct strategy use increases.

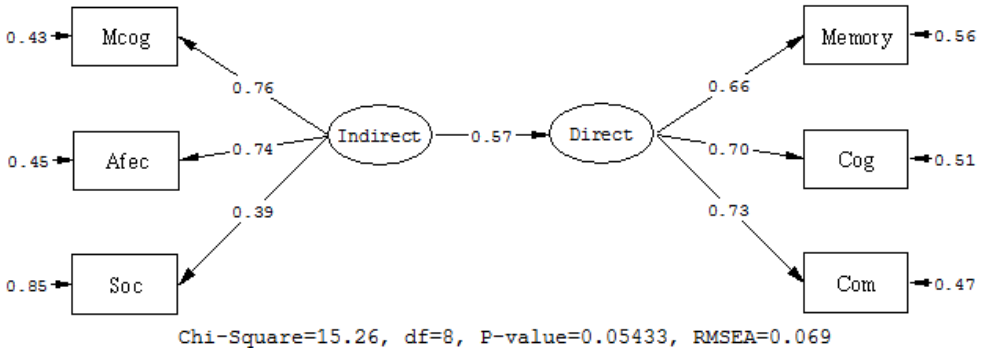

Figure 10. Relations regarding frequency of direct and indirect strategy use

4.5 Research Question 5: Do indirect LLS play a mediatory role between autonomy and direct LLS?

In the research, possible impact of indirect strategies to direct strategies were also investigated to obtain full model. Compliance measurements of the model were obtained as $\chi 2=121.73$ df.=74; $\chi^2/df=1.64$ RMSEA=0.058, NNFI=0.95 CFI=0.96, IFI=0.96 RMR=0.060 GFI=0.92. Obtained compliance measurements show that the structural models are at an acceptable level. The smallest t statistic of the model is calculated as 2.57. Thus, all relations between the paths (arrows) were found to be significant. Results obtained with SEM can be seen in figure 11. According to figure 11, in full model, a unit of 0.65 was noted between students' frequency of direct LLS use and autonomy. According to the relationship above, one unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.65 unit increase in frequency of direct LLS use. (t=6.30 p<0.01). Consequently, if autonomy increases, the frequency of direct LLS use increases.

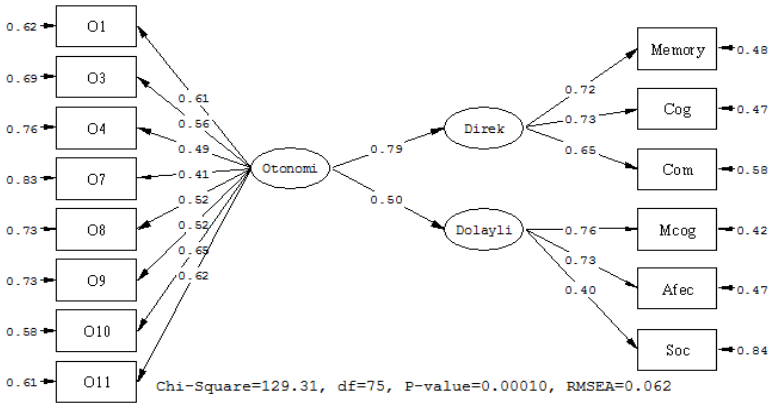

Figure 11. Relations regarding frequency of autonomy and direct and indirect strategy use

In full model, a unit of 0.45 was noted between students' frequency of indirect LLS use and autonomy. According to the relationship above, one unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.45 unit increase in frequency of indirect LLS use (t=4.63 p<0.01). Consequently, if autonomy increases, the frequency of indirect LLS use increases.

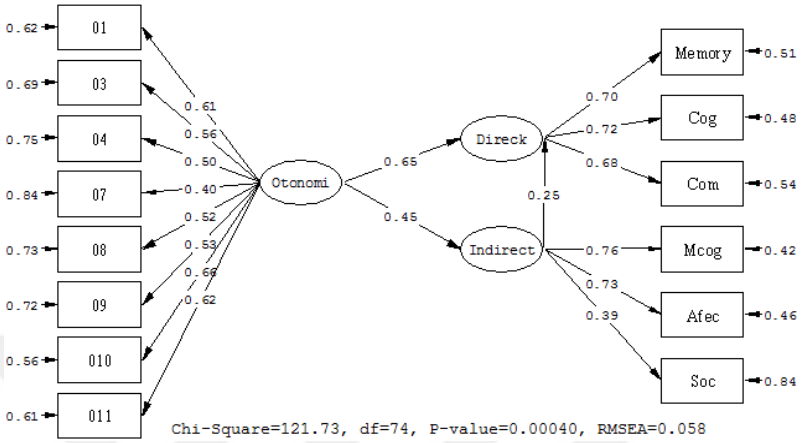

Figure 12. Paths (arrows) and relationships for the full model

With full model, a statistically significant correlation of 0.25 units in the same direction was found between students' direct and indirect LLS use. According to the relationship above, one unit increase in students' indirect strategy use brings 0.25 unit increase in frequency of direct strategy use. Just like before, we can see at the full mode that the frequency of indirect strategy use increases if direct strategy use increases. According to full model, as it can be seen in figure 12, indirect strategies play a mediatory role between direct strategies and autonomy.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

In the present study, the researcher has investigated the correlation between autonomy and LLS of students in a university setting in an EFL context. Herein, the results of the data analysis given in the previous chapter are discussed in detail in relation to the research questions. In this chapter, we discuss the main findings regarding the research questions. At the end of the discussion, the researcher will come up with conclusions, suggestions and recommendations for further studies in foreign language learning.

5.1 Discussion and Findings for Research Questions

In this section, the discussions of the results are provided in the same order as the results were given.

Discussion of the research question 1. To what extent is autonomy and LLS related to gender, age and language proficiency?

By using independent sample t-tests, the researcher investigated to see whether there is a significant difference between students in terms of gender from a statistical point. According to the interactional effects the variables, there were no significant differences in all components for statistical purposes. The current findings were largely inconsistent with those of many past studies that reported females exhibited greater strategy use and autonomy than males (Green & Oxford, 1995; Lan & Oxford, 2003). On the other hand, Green and Oxford (1995) and Peacock and Ho (2003) stated significant gender differences in the use of metacognitive and social categories. On the contrary, researchers such as Griffiths (2003), Lee and Oxford (2008) and Nisbet, Tindall, and Arroyo (2005) reported there were no significant differences when controlling for gender. This finding differs on various social and cultural factors, which would entail further studies to be carried out in detail.

Even though females are usually assumed to be better language learners than males, the evidence in this study does not support the assumption. This can be partially explained because "gender, as one of the many essential facets of social identity, act together with race, age, class, ethnicity, sexuality, (dis)ability, and social status in framing students' language learning experiences, trajectories, and outcomes" (Norton & Pavlenko, 2004, p. 504). However, after examining the findings, it is a good assumption to generalize that both female and male students could be good language learners. In academia, the continuing challenge is to find out how learners can learn most effectively regardless of gender. Besides, teachers should try to realize how both their female and male learners can be supported to succeed at maximum levels as language learners.

The researcher investigated to see whether there was a significant difference between students` ages and their scores from a statistical point. By utilizing ANOVA (One Way Analysis Variance), no statistically significant difference in components of autonomy, memory, compensation, affective, and direct Strategies were found. However, the relationship between frequency of cognitive strategy use and students` ages were found statistically significant (F=2,996 p=0,020). According to Bonferroni test, students aged 18 were found to adopt cognitive strategies at a higher level than students aged 20 years old (p=0,031). Scores of meta-cognitive strategy use were also found significant (F=4,736 p=0,001). Bonferroni test indicated that 18 year olds were found to adopt meta-cognitive strategies at a higher level than 20 year olds (p=0,002) and students aged 21 used meta-cognitive strategies more frequently than 20 year olds (p=0,002).

Likewise, when social strategy was run using ANOVA, the results indicated were also significant (F=2,565 p=0,040). In accordance with the LSD (Least Significant Difference) test, students aged 18 were found to adopt social strategies at a higher level than 20 year olds (p=0,031). Also, students aged 21 used social strategies more frequently than 20 year olds (p=0,008). Lastly, ANOVA results noted that indirect strategy use was also meaningful (F=3,539 p=0,008) as students aged 18 were found to adopt indirect strategies at a higher level than 20 year olds (p=0,012). The

Bonferroni also illustrated that 21 year olds used indirect strategies more frequently than 21 year olds (p=0,039).

The results revealed that the amount of differences between the age groups of students and their scores was not great. However, it can be seen above that some younger students have the tendency to adopt cognitive, meta-cognitive, social and indirect strategies more than the other students and there is no evidence to support that older students do better than younger students. Even though consensus is remote from universal, the majority of the studies regarding age-related differences in language learning appear to show that, in general, the younger is the better.

Griffiths (2008) believes maturational, socio-affective, cognitive, individual and psychological factors along with learning settings and teaching methods may possibly explain this phenomenon. When teachers are dealing with learners from different age groups, they should be flexible with their methods so that learners are able to learn in a way that they feel comfortable and which brings them success. Despite the broad belief that younger learners perform better at language development than older learners, the research conducted by Julie, Hiro, and Kang show that it is likely that older learners are good language learners, as well. Rubin (1975) incorporated age as one of the factors that needs further research, and even 40 years later, ongoing research into age related learner differences in language learning is crucial so that students from all age groups can get enough amount support from teachers and educators.

To investigate to see if there is a significant difference between students` language proficiency levels and their scores, ANOVA tests were applied and no statistically significant difference was found between in memory, compensation, affective, social, and direct strategies. With autonomy, a significant difference was detected (F=3.509 p=0.016). According to results run by Bonferroni test; IELTS 4-5 level students were more autonomous compared to the ones at PET level. (p=0.031). There was also significant difference regarding cognitive Strategy use (F=4.568 p=0.004). Bonferroni test results showed that IELTS 4-5 level students were using cognitive skills more than students at all the other levels. (p=0,015). Meta-Cognitive

strategy use scores of were also meaningful (F=3.846 p=0,011). IELTS 4-5 level students were using meta-cognitive skills more than students at all the other levels (p=0.021). Lastly, according to ANOVA, indirect strategies were found to be used by IELTS 4-5 students (F=2.668 p=0.049) more frequently than students at all the other levels. (p=0.017).

As to the significant effects of proficiency, the test results showed that high-proficiency learners had considerable greater autonomy and strategy use compared to their low-proficiency counterparts. IELTS 4-5 level students received the highest scores in all seven categories, except for compensation strategies, which were also meaningful.

Research shows that more proficient language learners have a tendency to adopt a wider range of strategies and employ them more frequently than less proficient learners (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, 1996,). Besides Griffiths (2003) states that more proficient students orchestrate strategy use more effectively, merging strategies into strategy clusters for complex tasks and ensure that any selected strategy is appropriate at the time. Less proficient L2 learners frequently use strategies, desperately unaware how to utilize the needed strategy.

A probable explanation for the frequently acknowledged effectiveness of learning strategies is that the students need to be more active than a student who is less strategically involved. Language learners are perceived as "an active participant in the learning process, using various mental strategies to sort out the system of the language to be learned" (Williams & Burden, 1997: 13). More than simple passive receptacles for knowledge, these learners develop to be thinking individuals that could influence both the processes and the desired outcome of their own learning; hence, becoming more language proficient. Adoption of strategies involves taking timely, active, coordinated responsibility for learning which is both teachable and learnable.

In terms of autonomy, the research also favors the higher proficient learners. For instance, Dafei (2007) explored the relationship between learner autonomy and

English proficiency; his findings drew similar conclusion to this present study – that learners' English proficiency was significantly and positively related to their learner autonomy. These findings suggest that the more autonomy a learner has, the more probable he/she will obtain high language proficiency.

Although the research regarding LLS and autonomy utilized by successful and unsuccessful language learners and the context of their use may seem unanimous amongst scholars, it would not be right to say that the results are universal. The probable reasons for this lack of consensus may involve various contexts of the studies, differing research methods, or the varying nature of the students themselves. The lack of significant difference on overall strategy use and autonomy might be explained by the fact that the participants are from similar educational and cultural backgrounds. The physical settings of their learning environment and the number of learners in each classroom should also be very parallel.

Moreover, it is quite possible that lower proficient learners should not be asked to do what is expected of higher proficient learners, as they may be active strategy users as well or trying to use similar strategies; nevertheless, it is more likely that there are other factors that are affecting their success. For this reason, if teachers encourage their students to use similar strategies, regardless of their levels, the factors affecting their success should be thoroughly examined.

Discussion of the research question 2 and 3. Does the frequency of LLS use (direct and indirect) increase if autonomy increases?

Considering the inter-relatedness of questions 1 and 2, they will be discussed together below. The findings revealed positive correlations between language learning autonomy and both direct and indirect strategies. According to the results of the t-statistics, a one unit increase in students' autonomy equaled a 0.79 unit increase in frequency of direct LLS use ($t=8,11$ $p<0,01$) and 0.50 unit increase in frequency of indirect LLS use ($t=5,14$ $p<0,01$). Consequently, if autonomy increases, the frequency

of both direct and indirect LLS use also increases. According to the results of Figure 1, 2 and 3, 4, 5 and 6, a one unit increase of autonomy resulted in;

0.81 unit increase in frequency of Memory strategy use ($t=8,15$ $p<0,01$);
0.81 unit increase in frequency of Cognitive LLS use ($t=7,65$ $p<0,01$);
0.76 unit increase in frequency of Compensation LLS use ($t=7,91$ $p<0,01$);
0.80 increase in frequency of Meta-Cognitive LLS use ($t=9,33$ $p<0,01$);
0.71 unit increase in frequency of Affective LLS use ($t=8,28$ $p<0,01$);
0.84 unit increase in frequency of Social LLS use ($t=5,06$ $p<0,01$).

The results demonstrate the students who have higher level of autonomy in the ability and activity sections have a tendency to apply strategies more often. Since there are minor differences among the six strategies, it is safe to state that learners who are more autonomous for English learning activities are very likely to use these strategies more often.

By comparing the analysis of the students' learner autonomy and strategies profile, two findings should be highlighted;

Firstly, students who reported high levels of autonomy were found to use social strategies the most. This finding supports Tüz's findings (1995), which reported social strategy use as the highest among others in another university setting in Turkey. This might be attributed to the students' cultural background and the social context of the institution for language learning in the use of the strategies and autonomy. As mentioned in the literature review section, social strategies involve interacting with others to assist learning and the case in Turkey is that the traditional educational pattern dictates learners to be good listeners and they are not given plenty of chances of cooperation with their teachers. Thus, there is little opportunity to experience the target language in and outside the class. Students rarely have the chance to ask questions for clarification and verification from teachers due to a large number of learners in one class and other contextual constraints.

However, the participants in this study were accepted to study at this university based on receiving very high scores from a university entrance exam administered by Turkey's Ministry of Education. Thus, there is a consensus by many of the teachers that the students may already have high levels of meta-cognitive awareness. Yet, another factor that may justify the correlation of high frequency of social strategies and autonomy is that majority of the students studied at private middle schools and high schools prior to their education at this institution. In Turkey, private schools are renowned for having small classroom sizes and better opportunities for students to express themselves in terms of environment and socializing with others. Given this aspect, it could be assumed that the participants are culturally motivated to use the language and employ the needed strategies.

Secondly, affective strategies were found to be the least significantly correlated variable with autonomy. This finding aligned with many other LLS studies (Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Yılmaz, 2010; Asadifard & Biria, 2013; Ayırır vd., 2012). Affective strategies enable learners to be in control of their emotions, motivations and create positive attitudes in learning the target language (Oxford, 1990). The affective aspect of the students exemplifies self-esteem, motivation, anxiety, culture shock, attitudes, inhibition, risk taking, and tolerance for ambiguity. The affective issues possibly affect language learners' success or failure among all the factors as Stern (1992) claims that language learning may be frustrating in some cases. This scenario illustrates that learners might experience problems associated with high levels of language anxiety (Oxford, 2003). This low frequency use of affective strategies can also show the inadequate chance for the students to practice spending time with the target language in conversations, plays, presentations, or language activities in and outside of class.

Social and affective strategies are the strategies used to describe the ways in that students collaborate with others and control themselves to improve their learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). The components of both strategies are: a) social, for example, asking questions, collaborating with others and empathizing with others; and b) affective, like lowering anxiety, encouraging oneself and lowering emotional temperature. Each are quite efficient in terms of promotion of learner autonomy as

they both encourage students to take actions and make key decisions while learning the target language.

Finally, if autonomy increases, both direct and indirect strategy use increases significantly. The findings indicate that the students who recorded high levels of autonomy were found to use social strategies the most and affective strategies the least. This phenomenon may simply be interpreted in a way that the students in this study do not avoid cooperating, questioning etc. but, on the other hand, they experienced anxiety for producing new language

Discussion of the research question 4. Does the frequency of indirect LLS use increase if direct LLS use increases?

The findings revealed that there were positive correlations between indirect LLS use and direct LLS use. A unit of 0.57 was noted between students' frequency of direct strategy use and indirect strategy use. According to this relationship, a one unit increase in students' direct strategy use resulted in a 0.57 unit increase in frequency of indirect strategy use ($t=5,41$ $p<0,01$). Consequently, if indirect strategy use increases, the frequency of direct strategy use also increases.

First of all, what does it mean to say that indirect strategies support direct strategies? To better understand the relation between direct and indirect strategies, Oxford (1990) presents an example in terms of understanding how direct and indirect strategies work. Her illustration is an analogy from the theater. Direct strategies for managing a new language are similar to the performer in a stage play, dealing with the language itself in a variety of specific tasks and situations. The direct class made up of memory strategies for recalling and reclaiming new information, cognitive strategies for comprehending and making the language, and compensation strategies for producing the language in spite of information gaps. The performer works closely with the director for the best possible outcome.

On the other hand, indirect strategies for the general management of learning may be compared to the director of the play. This class contains metacognitive

strategies to organize the process of learning, affective strategies to regulate emotions, and social strategies to cooperate with others. The director functions as a hub for tasks, such as to focus, organize, guide, check, correct, coach, encourage, and to please the actress, along with making sure that the actress is working compliantly with other performers in the play. The director acts as a conductor and supports the actress. The functions of both the director and the actress become part of the learner, as he or she takes on more responsibility for learning.

She further elaborates regarding the relation of both strategy groups by stating,

> …indirect strategies work best when used in combination with direct strategies. By definition, direct strategies involve the new language directly, whereas indirect strategies provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy, and other means. (Oxford, 1990: 151)

The teachers' role should also be examined at this point. With traditional teaching methods, teachers are the ones who correct learner errors and tell the students what to do and when to do it. However, an increasing number of students are doing more of this for themselves, meanwhile the teachers' role has developed to be somewhat more facilitating and less directive. In this way, it not only promotes the adoption of indirect strategies, but also may lead students to be more autonomous, which would ultimately improve the efficiency and effects of learning. The teacher's functions concerning this matter will be further examined in the conclusion.

In light of the ideas above, it can be drawn to conclude that the findings in this paper align with Oxford's ideas regarding indirect strategies supporting both direct strategies and autonomy.

Discussion of the research question 5. Do indirect LLS play a mediatory role between autonomy and direct LLS?

According to the t-test, a unit of 0.65 was noted between students' frequency of direct LLS use and autonomy and a unit of 0.45 was noted between students' frequency of indirect LLS use and autonomy. According to the relationship above, while one-unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.65-unit increase in frequency of direct LLS use ($t=6,30$ $p<0,01$), one-unit increase in students' autonomy brings 0.45-unit increase in frequency of indirect LLS use ($t=4,63$ $p<0,01$). With full model, a statistically significant correlation of 0.25 units in the same direction was found between students' direct and indirect LLS use. So, one-unit increase in students' indirect strategy use brings 0.25-unit increase in frequency of direct strategy use. Just like the results from the t-test, frequency of indirect strategy uses increases if direct strategy uses increases. According to full model, as it can be seen in figure 9, indirect strategies play a mediatory role between direct strategies and autonomy.

As we have seen in the literature review, autonomous learning philosophy and learning strategy are mutually conditioned and influenced. Diversified English learning strategy is critically important to improve the learning effects. In the end, relying on a single learning strategy tends to have many limitations, and its application is quite limited. The advantages of LLS can only be reflected when students take initiatives, have enthusiasm towards learning and stick to the learning techniques. Therefore, to realize autonomous learning requires the assistance of diversified English learning strategies.

To conclude, many scholars believe that learning strategies are truly efficient in terms of promoting learner autonomy owing to the fact they usually lead the students to direct and take control of their own learning process in a more aware, efficient and effective sense. The findings here support the literature and it is clear that indirect strategies support both direct strategies and autonomy in this study.

5.2 Conclusions

The current study is mainly designed to examine the correlation between autonomy and LLS of non-English majors in a university setting in Turkey. In doing so, related theories or ideas about both autonomy and LLS were addressed. Two questionnaires were used as the instrument and the interactional effects of the variables were calculated. The main findings of the study may be summarized as follows:

Firstly, even though females are usually assumed to be better language learners, evidence showed that gender was not a significant variable in this study. Age was another variable that wasn't statistically significant; however, the younger students did report higher scores. As to the significance of language proficiency, the test results showed that high-proficient learners exhibited considerably greater autonomy and strategy use compared to their low-proficiency counterparts. So except for language proficiency, gender and age did not seem like very important factors in terms of autonomy and LLS in the current study.

Secondly, the participants who reported higher levels of autonomy had the tendency to apply both direct and indirect strategies more often. Since there were only minor differences among the six strategies, it is safe to state that learners who are more autonomous for English learning activities were very likely to use the strategies more often.

Thirdly, the full model showed that indirect strategies play a critical role for learners as indirect strategies had an agent role between direct strategies and autonomy.

In light of the findings that have been discussed so far, several implications can be derived for second or foreign language teaching and learning as well as textbook writers and curriculum designers. First, as autonomous learning lead learners to become more competent to have control on their own learning, autonomy should be promoted at universities. Learners usually start their education at universities with different experiential backgrounds so little is known about their autonomous positions. For leading learners to become masters of their autonomous learning is not a really very difficult goal to fulfill.

To begin with, teachers should be open to change their roles with learners from time to time so that a positive learning environment can be created. In addition, teachers should believe in their students, treat them respectfully while fashioning appropriate education models and build their classrooms where they can discuss equally and cooperate friendly. Students usually expect teachers to tell them what to do and to set learning goals for them (Cotterall 1999). That is why they ought to be put in the center role, based on the guidance of autonomous learning theory. It will take some time but once the learners enhance themselves and their knowledge, they will be able to become higher efficient individuals of autonomous learning. On this matter Dickinson (1995) states, "autonomy is achieved slowly, through struggling towards it, through careful training and careful preparation on the teacher's part as well as on the learner's." Various assessment methods provide for the needs of various groups of students. However, a viable place to start is introducing students to the notion of thinking about learning. It provisions various ways of getting students to become more aware of their learning process. Correspondingly, the existing references of the European Council for teaching and learning foreign languages stress the significance of increasing the capacity to guide learning autonomously. This requires a specific attention that underlines the significance of “learning how to learn” (Bailly, Gremmo & Riley 2002).

There is a consensus by scholars in the field EFL that many factors must come together in order for learner autonomy to take place. In Turkey, even though students are welcoming to active and contemporary methods, official educational policies influence the change regarding autonomy negatively and educators have a tendency to be more conservative and hold on to methods they are accustomed with. The primary change that should be made for learner autonomy to be employed more requires a change of disposition. Teaching and learning should be reconsidered and reoriented altogether. Contemporary educators act as a facilitator and students take responsibility for their own learning and realize it is up to them whether they want to learn and how. There must not be any educator that makes their learners study by threat or force, as they are not going to be effective in any way.

Secondly, strategy training could be provided for the university students to use appropriate strategies effectively and extensive embedded strategy training over the academic year can be implemented into English course curriculum and materials during the first year of their studies. Oxford (1990) says that strategy training encourages greater responsibility and self-direction in the language learner.

Additionally, Ehrman (2003) points out that the most effective strategy instruction seems to involve demonstrating when a given strategy may be useful, in addition to how to use and evaluate it, and how to transfer it to other connected tasks and situations. LLS are special ways to assist learners to realize, to learn, and to memorize new knowledge. If learners use these strategies efficiently, they will be able to learn by themselves and evaluate their own progress. Progressively, this could increase their self-confidence. That is why, using appropriate learning strategies could lead students enhance and develop their language skills.

Educators will also need training on how to teach strategy use, which can be provided as a part of in-service training. Besides, as Griffiths and Parr (2001) state a difference from learner and teacher point of view of strategy use, strategy inventories can be provided to both learners and teachers, and be supported by learner interviews to raise awareness regarding use of strategies.

Detailed guidelines for strategy instruction, can also be considered as part of learner development, are presented by Chamot (1999), Cohen (2002), Oxford and Leaver (1996) and many others. An essential argument is that learner development should not ignore cultural beliefs and values (Holliday, 2003). There is no space for cultural imperialism in learner development, strategies, or any other sides of independent L2 learning. Benson (2007) and Palfreyman and Smith (2003) deliver a range of ideas and sources related to learner development in different cultures.

Thirdly, the findings showed that indirect strategies have an agent role between direct strategies and autonomy. Indirect ones are meta-cognitive strategies to organize

process of learning, affective strategies to regulate emotions, and social strategies to cooperate with others. It is possible to interpret this in a way that the teachers' role becomes even more critical as indirect strategies play an important role for the participants in this study and indirect strategies refer to mental preparation.

As educators, we want to create a setting that promotes thinking awareness. One way to achieve it is to focus on the learner's study plan and preparation. English teachers may allow learners to select suitable learning activities they favor and to agree on how long a task should last. Learners can discuss learning goals and materials with the educator. These methods can subsequently raise students' English learning motivation and stimulate their interests. Students should be aware that learning is a long-term process, thus should have a long-term attitude concerning English learning. With cooperation and exchanges, students could not only find their own weaknesses, but also have better in-depth understanding of the characteristics of English learning. For example, with a better understanding of their own weak points and strong points, students could learn from others' strengths to compensate their weak points and accomplish a good combination of learning philosophy and learning strategy.

In conclusion, LLS is the embodiment of learner autonomy, and the notion of learner autonomy is the guidance of learning English. Methods for learner autonomy may boost to the language students' learning initiative, as diverse LLS could also assist English learning, that allows the students do less detours and increase the efficiency of language learning. By putting scientific and rational learning plans into progress and selecting learning instruments carefully, language learning would be better definitive. Based on this rationale, the practice of language learning is enhanced, and both effective and efficient language learning will be accomplished. The researcher hopes that this paper contributes to promoting learner autonomy in Turkish EFL context and the findings could maintain support into developing curriculum, designing syllabus and reviewing classroom materials along with inside and outside classroom practice concerning the promotion of learner autonomy in English language learning and teaching.

5.3 Recommendations for future research

By taking the findings into consideration and as a consequence of the limitations and delimitations of this study, following suggestions can be considered for further research.

Further studies can compare other age groups with the findings of this paper. A longitudinal research can be made to recognize how LLS use of learners advance over a period of time and how it can be related to language proficiency in the end. Further research may address a number of factors that can possibly influence learner autonomy and the use of learning strategies. Ideology of education, culture, settings, teaching methodologies and the students' psychological and emotional features are some variables that form the strategies the learners are using. Additionally, there are learner based factors such as anxiety, attitude, motivation, students' beliefs, family backgrounds and learning styles. Yet it is not possible to discover all these dynamics in one study. Consequently, further research that would take these factors into account is required.

This paper can be repeated on a larger sample of participants in other university settings and questionnaires can be given in pre and post-test method by providing some tasks on learner's degree of autonomy together with their LLS. At the end of the semester, some post tests may be administered to determine whether or not any new outcomes come to light.

In this study, the data were collected from university students only. Further studies can be carried out via gathering data from other university students and even other high school or middle school students to have a better understanding for the curriculum and material developers when designing new programs to increase learner autonomy.

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APPENDIX A

Değerli Şifa Üniversitesi öğrencileri, Bu anket sonuçları akademik bir çalışma için kullanılacaktır. Verdiğiniz cevaplar topluca değerlendirileceğinden, adınızı yazmanız gerekmemektedir.

Anketi içtenlikle yanıtlayarak araştırmanın gerçekleşmesine yaptığınız katkı için teşekkürler.

1. Cinsiyetiniz ?

Bayan ☐ Erkek ☐

2. Yaşınız? _____

3. Hangi bölümde okuyorsunuz?

Diş Hekimliği ☐ Fizyoterapi ☐ Hemşirelik ☐ Tıp ☐ Beslenme ve Diyetetik ☐

4. Hangi seviyede İngilizce dersi alıyorsunuz?

KET ☐ PET ☐ IELTS 3-4 ☐ IELTS 4-5 ☐

5.İngilizce'yi iyi öğrenebilme yeteneğine sahip olduğumu düşünürüm.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

6. İngilizce çalışırken zamanımı iyi kullanırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

7. Derse gelmeden önce o gün işleneceklere bakarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman

8. Sınıf içinde verilen görevleri zamanından önce bitirebildiğimi fark ederim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

9. Günlük ile veya o günün değerlendirmesini yazarak çalışmaların kaydını tutarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

10. Kendi bulduğum sınav sorularıyla kendimi sınava tabii tutarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

11. İlerleme kaydettiğimde kendimi ödüllendiririm.(alışveriş, oyun vb.)

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

12. Pratik yapmak ve dili öğrenmek için sınıf dışı faaliyetlerde bulunurum.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

13. Ders esnasında, grup çalışması veya rol alıp yapılan canlandırma gibi aktivitelerde yer almaya çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

14. İngilizce çalışırken güçlü olduğum ve zayıf olduğum alanları bilirim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

15. Ne seviyemin üstünde, ne de altında kendi seviyeme uygun kitapları seçerim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

16. Yeni öğrendiklerimle bildiklerim arasında ilişki kurarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

17. Yeni bir kelimeyi hatırlamak için, onu cümle içinde kullanırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

18. Yeni bir kelime ile bildiğim bir kelime arasında ses ilişkisi kurarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

19. Yeni bir kelimeyi, zihnimde görüntüsünü canlandırarak veya resmini çizerek hatırlarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

20. Yeni bir kelimeyi hatırlamak için, içinde bu kelimenin geçtiği kafiyeler yaparım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

21. Bir tarafına yeni kelimeyi, diğer tarafına o kelimenin tanımını veya benzeri bilgileri yazdığım küçük kartlar kullanırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

22. Yeni bir kelimeyi hareketlerle ve davranışlarla canlandırırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

23. İngilizce derslerimi sık sık gözden geçiririm.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

24. Yeni bir İngilizce kelimeyi veya ifadeyi sayfada, tahtada veya bir sokak işaretinde gördüğüm zaman hatırlarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

25. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce deyim yada ifadeleri, pratik yapma amacı ile birkaç defa tekrar eder veya yazarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

26. Anadili İngilizce olanların konuşma şeklini (tonlama, vurgu veya telaffuz) taklit ederim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

27. İngilizcenin sesleri veya alfabesi ile ilgili araştırmalar yaparım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

28. Bildiğim İngilizce kelimeleri değişik kombinasyonlar ile kullanırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

29. Sınıf içinde veya dışında İngilizce konuşmaları ben başlatırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

30. İngilizce TV programları veya filmler seyrederim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

31. Eğlence amacı ile İngilizce dergi, kitap, v.s. okurum.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

32. İngilizce kişisel notlar, mektuplar, mesajlar veya raporlar yazarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

33. İngilizce bir şeyler okurken, ilk önce ana fikrini anlamak için okuma metnini çabucak gözden geçiririm, daha sonra başa dönüp daha dikkatli bir şekilde okurum.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

34. Türkçede, yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeye benzer kelime var mı diye dikkat ederim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

35. İngilizcede duyduğum veya okuduğum şeyleri, kelime kelime aynen Türkçe'ye çevirmeden anlamaya çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

36. İngilizce kalıplar bulmaya çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

37. Bilmediğim İngilizce bir kelimenin anlamını, kelimeyi bildiğim kök ve eklerine ayırarak bulurum.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

38. İngilizcede duyarak veya okuyarak öğrendiğim yeni şeylerin özetlerini çıkarırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

39. Okuduğum veya duyduğum bazı şeyleri anlamazsam, bulabildiğim ipuçlarını kullanarak bu kelimenin genel anlamlarını tahmin ederim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

40. İngilizce konuşurken söylemek istediğim tam ifadeyi hatırlayamazsam, söylemek istediğim şeyi anlatmak için el kol hareketleri kullanırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

41. Kullanmam gereken tam kelimeleri bulamıyorsam, aynı anlama gelebilecek yeni kelimeler (örneğin torch yerine headlight) üretirim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

42. Karşılaştığım her yeni kelimeyi anlamak için sözlüğe bakmadan İngilizce kitap, dergi v.s. okurum.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

43. İngilizce konuşurken karşımdaki kişinin ne söyleyeceğini önceden tahmin etmeye çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

44. Söylemem veya yazmam gereken doğru ifadeyi hatırlayamadığımda, ifadeyi anlatmak için farklı bir yol bulurum; örneğin aynı anlama gelen başka bir ifade kullanırım veya cümlelerle açıklarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

45. İngilizcemi kullanmak için mümkün olduğu kadar fazla fırsatlar yaratmaya çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

46. İngilizce kullanırken yaptığım hatalardan ders alırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

47. Birisi İngilizce konuşuyorken, konuşan kişinin söylediklerine dikkat ederim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

48. Nasıl daha iyi İngilizce öğrenebileceğimi bulmaya çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

49. Çalışma programımı, İngilizce çalışmak için yeterince zamanım olacak şekilde ayarlarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

50. Sürekli olarak İngilizce konuşabileceğim insanlar ararım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

51. Mümkün olduğu kadar fazla İngilizce (kitap veya makale) okuma fırsatları yaratmaya çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

52. İngilizce öğrenme hedeflerimi belirlerim. (Örneğin, İngilizcede ne kadar yeterli olmak istediğimi veya uzun vadede nerede kullanmak isteyebileceğimi)

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

53. İngilizce öğrenmede gösterdiğim genel gelişmeyi değerlendiririm.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

54. İngilizce kullanırken kendimi endişeli hissettiğimde rahatlamaya çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

55. İngilizce konuşurken hata yapmaktan korktuğum zaman kendime cesaret verici şeyler söylerim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

56. İngilizce öğrenirken bir başarı gösterdiğimde, kendimi ödüllendiririm.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

57. İngilizce öğrenmemi etkileyebilecek fiziksel stres belirtilerini anlayıp onları gidermeye çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

58. İngilizce öğrenirken hissettiklerimi yazdığım kişisel bir günlük tutarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

59. İngilizce öğrenme süreci ile ilgili duygu ve düşüncelerimi güvenebileceğim biri ile paylaşırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

60. İngilizce konuşurken bir şeyi anlayamazsam, karşımdaki insandan söylediğini tekrar etmesini veya açıklamasını isterim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

61. Çevremdeki kişilerden telaffuzumu düzeltmelerini isterim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

62. İngilizce öğrenirken bir arkadaşımla beraber çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

63. Ana dili İngilizce olan birileriyle konuşurken yardıma ihtiyaç duyduğumda, onlardan yardım isterim.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

64. İngilizce sorular sorarım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

65. İngilizce konuşulan ülkelerin kültürlerini öğrenmeye çalışırım.

Asla ☐ Nadiren ☐ Bazen ☐ Çoğu kez ☐ Her zaman ☐

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