

T.C
MALTEPE UNIVERSITY
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ENGLISH TEACHING PROGRAM

**THE IMPACT OF LEARNER'S ATTITUDES AND
LEARNING STRATEGIES OF ELT DEPARTMENT
STUDENTS ON ACADEMIC SUCCESS**

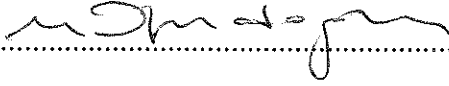
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ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF LEARNERS' ATTITUDES AND LEARNING STRATEGIES OF ELT DEPARTMENT STUDENTS ON ACADEMIC SUCCESS

The purpose of the study is to examine the English language learning strategies and learning attitudes of pre-service teachers (who are in their 3rd and 4th year in the English Language Teaching Department at university). The effects of these learning strategies and attitudes on their academic success levels are examined in this research. The relationship between language learning strategies and language learning attitudes of pre-service teachers are researched, also, the relationship between these strategies and attitudes are assessed according to personal information which is arranged by gender, academic success level, and attending preparatory class or not.

This research shows when the frequency of the use of cognitive, metacognitive strategies is increased, the academic grades of the pre-service teachers also increases by the same proportion and the development levels of English learning attitudes do not affect the academic success scores. Pre-service teachers who have attended a preparatory class use metacognitive and cognitive strategies more frequently than the others who haven't attended the preparatory class. The other attributes can be listed as: the attitudes of pre-service male teachers towards learning English in a self image and inhibition dimension are more positive than pre-service female teachers. The attitudes of pre-service teachers who attended preparatory class towards learning English have more self-image dimension but pre-service teachers who didn't attend preparatory class are in inhibition level. The research indicates that usage frequency of language learning strategies' lower dimensions have relationships towards most of the learning attitudes' lower dimensions except for inhibition level.

Keywords: English, learning, strategies, attitude, academic success.

ÖZET

ÖĞRENCİ TUTUMLARININ VE İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİNİN İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN AKADEMİK BAŞARISINA ETKİSİ

Bu çalışmanın amacı, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü öğrencilerinin İngilizceye karşı tutumlarını ve İngilizce Öğrenme Stratejilerini araştırmaktır. Araştırmada Öğrenme Stratejilerinin ve Öğrenci Tutumlarının akademik başarıya olan etkisine bakılmaktadır. Cinsiyete, akademik başarılarına ve hazırlık sınıfında eğitim alıp almama durumlarına göre; strateji ve tutumları arasındaki farklılıklar değerlendirilmiştir.

Bilişsel, üst bilişsel stratejileri kullanma sıklığı artarken, öğrencilerin akademik başarı notları aynı yönde artar ve akademik başarı notları, öğrencilerin İngilizce Öğrenme Tutumlarını geliştirme seviyesini etkilemez. Hazırlık sınıfında okuyan öğrencilerin bilişsel ve üstbilişsel stratejileri daha fazla kullandığı sonucu bulunmuştur. Diğer ana sonuçlar gösterir ki; İngilizce öğrenimine karşı erkek öğrencilerin özeleştirici tutumları, kız öğrencilere göre daha pozitifdir; buna karşın, erkek öğrencilerin dil öğrenmeye karşı daha çekingen oldukları söylenebilir. Yabancı dile karşı hazırlık sınıfında İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin tutumları, hazırlık sınıfında okumayan öğrencilere göre daha pozitifdir. Dil öğrenme stratejilerinin ve öğrenme tutumlarının alt boyutları arasında, çekingenlik boyutu hariç, istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İngilizce, öğrenme, strateji, tutum ve akademik başarı

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	iv
TEZ ÖZETİ	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF GRAPHICS	x
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Aim of the Research Study	2
1.2. Significance of the Research Study	3
1.3. Language Learning Strategies	4
1.4. Categorization of Learning Strategies	11
1.4.1 Rubin and O'Malley's Categorization	13
1.4.1.1 Cognitive Learning Strategies	14
1.4.1.2 Metacognitive Learning Strategies	15
1.4.1.3 Social/ Affective Learning Strategies	16
1.4.2 Oxford's Categorization	16
1.4.2.1 Direct Strategies	17
1.4.2.1.1 Memory Strategies.....	17
1.4.2.1.1.1. Creating Mental Linkages	18
1.4.2.1.1.2. Applying Images and Sounds	19
1.4.2.1.1.3. Reviewing Well	21
1.4.2.1.1.4. Employing Action	22
1.4.2.1.2 Cognitive Strategies	23

1.4.2.1.2.1. Practicing.....	23
1.4.2.1.2.2. Receiving and Sending Messages	25
1.4.2.1.2.3. Analyzing and Reasoning.....	26
1.4.2.1.2.4. Creating Structure for Input and Output	28
1.4.2.1.3 Compensation Strategies	29
1.4.2.1.3.1. Guessing Intelligently in Listening and Writing..	29
1.4.2.1.3.2. Overcoming Limitations in Speaking and Writing	30
1.4.2.2 Indirect Strategies	34
1.4.2.2.1 Metacognitive Strategies	34
1.4.2.2.1.1. Centering Your Learning	34
1.4.2.2.1.2. Arranging and Planning Your Learning	35
1.4.2.2.1.3. Evaluating Your Learning	37
1.4.2.2.2 Affective Strategies	38
1.4.2.2.2.1. Lowering Your Anxiety	38
1.4.2.2.2.2. Encouraging Yourself	39
1.4.2.2.2.3. Taking Your Emotional Temperature	40
1.4.2.2.3 Social Strategies	41
1.4.2.2.3.1. Asking Questions	41
1.4.2.2.3.2. Cooperating with Others	42
1.4.2.2.3.3. Empathizing with Others	43
1.5 Learner Attitudes	46
CHAPTER 2.....	53
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	53
2.1. Aim of Research	53
2.2. Participants, Numbers and Sample of the Research	55
2.3. Gathering Research Data	55
2.3.1. Questions Regarding Personal Information	55
2.3.2. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning	55
2.3.3. Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire	58

2.4. Data Analysis	59
2.5. Limitations of the Research	61
CHAPTER 3.....	62
FINDINGS.....	62
3.1. Findings	62
3.1.1. Findings in Regard to Personal Information of Pre-service Teachers in the Sample Group	62
3.1.2. Findings Regarding the Usage Frequency of Strategies which Pre-service Teachers' Teachers' in the Sample Group Used in Learning English.....	68
3.1.3. Findings in Regard to English Learning Attitudes of Pre-service Teachers in the Sample Group	82
3.1.4. Findings of the Relationships between the Usage Frequencies Language Learning Strategies of Pre-service Teachers in Sample Group and Levels of Development Regarding Language Learning Attitudes.....	93
DISCUSSION	97
CONCLUSION	116
REFERENCES	135
APPENDICES.....	144
Appendix-1: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning	144
Appendix-2: Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire	146
Appendix-3: Copyright Permission Letter	149

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1 Definitions of Language Learning Strategies.....	10
Table 1.2 Rubin and O'Malley's Categorizations, O'Malley's and Chamot Categorization and Oxford's Categorization of Learning Strategies.....	12
Table 3.1 Distribution of Pre-service Teachers according to Their Gender.....	62
Table 3.2 Distribution of Pre-service Teachers according to Their Academic Success Points.....	64
Table 3.3 Distribution of Pre-service Teachers according to Their Preparatory Class Education (Whether They Attended or Not).....	65
Table 3.4 Academic Success Level and Personal Features.....	67
Table 3.5 Usage Frequencies of Strategies that English Pre-service Teachers Use....	69
Table 3.6 Lower Dimension Points Statistics Related to Strategies Used in Learning Language.....	77
Table 3.7 Analyzing of Strategy Lower Dimension Points according to Personal Features.....	78
Table 3.8 Relations between Academic Success Levels and Strategy Lower Dimension Points.....	81
Table 3.9 Answers of the Pre-service Teachers to the Statements in regard to their English Learning Attitudes.....	83
Table 3.10 Statistics Related to Language Learning Lower Dimension Points.....	87
Table 3.11 Analysis of Attitude Lower Dimension Points according to Personal Features.....	88
Table 3.12 Relationships between Academic Success Points and Attitude Lower Dimension Points.....	92
Table 3.13 Relationships between Strategy Lower Dimension Points and Attitude Lower Dimension Points.....	94

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Oxford's Diagram of Strategy System Showing Direct Strategies	33
Figure 1.2 Oxford's Diagram of Strategy System Showing Indirect Strategies	45
Figure 3.1 Distribution of Pre-service Teachers according to Their Gender	63
Figure 3.2 Percentage Distribution of Pre-service Teachers according to Their Preparatory Class Education (Whether They Attended or Not).....	64
Figure 3.4 English Learning Attitude Lower Dimension Point Means	66

LIST OF GRAPHICS

Graphic 1. Frequency Usage of Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies and Academic Success Point Range Graphic.....	121
Graphic 2. Development Levels of Language Learning Attitudes and Academic Success Points Range Graphic	123

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This section is related to studies on learning strategies and learner attitudes. First, the basic concepts such as strategy and learning strategy are defined. Then, the ideas of pioneering academicians are referred to and explained in detail in order to give background information about learning strategies and learner attitudes. In addition to this, categorization of learning strategies is given.

The impact of learners' attitudes and learning strategies of ELT Department students on academic success is displayed through a questionnaire. An adaptation of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (R. Oxford, 1990) which is a self report questionnaire that aims to determine the strategies used by the learner and frequency of use.. It is based on the Oxford strategies taxonomy and thus, it consists of five scales with fifty items. According to (Vidal, 2002:47-48), Oxford's taxonomy is more comprehensive and detailed. Vidal also states that it is also more systematic because it links individual strategies, as well as strategy groups. In addition, the academician writes that it is evident throughout Oxford's works and preoccupation with teaching/learning improvement. Her effort to translate and her experience as a teacher are also useful advice for teachers and learners in general.

On the other hand, Magogwe and Oliver (2007:339) points out that Oxford's inventory of language learning strategies is reliable and accurate across many cultural groups, and it connects individual strategies, as well as groups of strategies,

with each of the four language skill areas of listening, reading, speaking and writing.

What is more, Chen (2009:306) claims that the SILL has been shown to be psychometrically more powerful than most other self-report learning strategy questionnaires. Furthermore, Booney, Cortina, Smith-Darden and Fiori (2008:4) put forward that the SILL is one of the most widely used instruments in the field. They expand this idea by saying that the SILL was designed as a means of determining which learning strategies students reported using, and how often they were using these strategies when learning a foreign language. Consequently, SILL is used for this research.

The aim of the study is to reveal that making use of learning strategies improves the quality of learning. Also, it is supposed that what is found out is whether the attitudes of pre-service teacher towards the learning process have positive or negative effects.

1.1. Aim of the Research Study

The aim of the study is to prove the relationship between learning strategies and learners' attitudes on academic success of the students in The English Language Teaching (ELT) Department at university. In addition to this, this study aims to find out whether learning strategies and learners' attitudes have any impact on the academic success of the students. Thus, this study will aim to answer the following questions:

1. What are the language learning strategies of the pre-service teacher in the ELT Department of university?

2. What are the types of pre-service teachers' attitudes in the ELT Department of university?
3. Is there a significant difference between the academic success of the pre-service teachers who use learning strategies and those who don't?
4. Is there a significant difference between the academic success of the pre-service teachers and their attitudes?

1.2. Significance of the Research Study

It is assumed that the results of the research provide scientific information about the relation between the use of learning strategies, pre-service teacher attitudes and academic success. So, the results are expected to shed light onto the statement of the problem as indicated in the following. In this study, it has been understood that learning strategies are expected to increase both the competence and the performance of ELT Department pre-service teachers of university.

In the following part, studies on language learning strategies are examined. Ideas of the pioneering academicians are summarized. While doing so, the term strategy is defined in the context of second language learning.

1.3 Language Learning Strategies

There are individual differences in the way people learn. According to (Acunsa, 2005:4) these differences depend on the people's cognitive processes. The author suggests that people may learn through seeing, hearing, drawing, writing or memorizing. Moreover some learners enjoy practicing whereas others prefer dealing with details or using their mental abilities.

So as to make learning easier and more interesting, new techniques in accordance with the learners' learning strategies should be presented. Thus the learning process will take place fast and efficiently (Acunsa, 2005:5). In addition, making use of learning strategies by the learner will facilitate continuous effective learning during the language learning process. As the author suggests (Acunsa, 2005:4) most learners are not aware of the strategies behind the learning tasks, and if they are aware of what they are doing, language learning process will take place in a more effective way. In order to make learners aware of the learning strategies and thus make them active participants of their own learning processes, the meaning of language learning strategies should be well perceived and defined.

Oxford (1990) points out that it comes from the ancient Greek word "strategia" which means general ship or the art of war. Oxford states the main characteristics of strategies as planning, competition, conscious manipulation and movement toward a goal. The scholar also says that the strategy concept became influential in education.

However, there are several definitions of “strategy”; some of them will be provided here. The definition is provided by Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (Richards and Schmidt, 2002:515):

“Procedures used in learning, thinking, etc., which serve as a way of reaching a goal. In language learning, learning strategies and communication strategies are those conscious or unconscious processes which language learners make use of in learning and using a language.”

There are some factors affecting the choice of learners’ strategy, such as a learners’ age, gender, nationality or the learners’ degree of awareness. Acunsal found out that there is a significant difference in using language learning strategies depending on nationality, academic achievement, and gender (Acunsal, 2005:66). According to Yalçın (Yalçın, 2006:48), there is a connection between language learning strategies and language proficiency level, gender, motivation, culture, and age. The writer states that all these variables have effects on learners’ choice of language learning strategies. The author puts forward that there is a strong relationship between the frequency and number of strategies utilized and language proficiency. It is also reported that there is a significant difference between males and females in the use of language learning strategies; women prefer to use more metacognitive and cognitive strategies than men (Yalçın, 2006:49). Moreover, the author asserts that motivation is one of the most important factors of successful language learning, and together with attitude, it plays an important role in language learning process. In addition, the writer claims that culture is an important element in language learning as the culture of a student is partly composed of prior formal and

informal educational experiences. The author also reports that the difference in strategy use frequency across cultures differ in accordance with culture in different parts of the world (Yalçın, 2006:51). Furthermore, (Karatay, 2006:15) states that different aged students use different learning strategies. In order to make use of the learning strategies, learners should be informed about them, thus they would choose the best one for themselves (Acunsal, 2005:6). In the light of definitions, the term “learning strategy” is defined for the purpose of this research.

Wenden and Rubin (1987:19) state “*learner strategies include any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of information, that is what learners do to learn and do to regulate their learning*”. In this sense, Johnson and Johnson, (1999:195) define learning strategies as techniques used by second language learners for keeping in mind and arranging samples of the target language. Moreover, these strategies contribute to the development of the target language. In the same study, they point out that learning strategies cover the learner's personal involvement in the learning process, enable the learner to sort and organize the target language data, cause the learner to monitor his or her progress (Johnson and Johnson, 1999:196).

Hurd and Lewis (2008:9) assert that language learning strategies are the operations or processes which are consciously selected and employed by the learner to learn the target language or facilitate a language task. According to them, strategies offer a set of options from which learners consciously select in real time, taking into account changes occurring in the environment, in order to optimize their chances of success in achieving their goals in learning and using the target language.

In addition, they defend that, as such, the term of strategy characterizes the relationship between intention and action, and is based on a view of learners as responsible agents who are aware of their needs, preferences, goals and problems.

On the other hand, Richards and Schmidt (2002:301) give definition of language learning strategies in two domains; learning strategies in first language learning and learning strategies in second language learning. They describe the first one as: in general, the ways in which learners attempt to work out the meanings and uses of words, grammatical rules, and other aspects of the language they are learning. In first language learning, the word “strategy” is sometimes used to refer to the ways that children process language, without implying either intentionality or awareness. For example, in trying to understand a sentence, a child may “use” the learning strategy that the first mentioned noun in a sentence refers to the person or thing performing an action. The child may then think that the sentence *The boy was chased by the dog* means the same thing as *The boy chased the dog*.

It is seen that the definition of the learning strategies in first language learning is essential in order to fully understand the learning strategies in second language learning as the current study is about the impact of learning strategies on academic success of the learners’ of second language at university level. In this sense, the definition of learning strategies in second language learners’ given by Richards and Schmidt (2002:301) is provided:

In second language learning, a strategy is usually an intentional or potentially intentional behaviour carried out with the goal of learning. (...) Learning strategies

may be applied to simple tasks such as learning a list of new words, or more complex tasks involving language comprehension and production.

Another academician, Oxford (1990:1) defines learning strategies as the steps that students take to enhance their own learning. These steps are important in learning language to build up communicative competence. These strategies contribute to all parts of learning (Oxford, 1990:4). In this connection, Graham (1997:37) also presents evidence which shows learning strategies are apt to be imperceptible mental activities. What's more, Graham (2006:167) puts forward that learning strategies are actions taken to enhance the learning of a foreign language through the steps of storage, retention, recall and application of information.

Riding and Rayner (2005:79) indicate that individuals form the learning strategies as part of response to meet interest of the environment and use them to complete a specific task successfully. They see these learning strategies as cognitive tools thus; they introduce the concept of strategic learner in their study. The strategic learners use the knowledge; about themselves, about different types of academic tasks, about strategies for acquiring, integrating and applying new learning (Riding and Rayner, 2005:89). They also add that in order to be a strategic learner, one should create a plan to reach a goal, select the strategies to use to achieve a goal, implement the methods to carry out the plan, monitor the progress, modify the plan or the goal, evaluate the outcome in order to make decision about further learning (Riding and Rayner, 2005:90).

Hurd and Lewis (2008:8) put forward that learning strategies, 'learning how to learn' in other words, are critical and necessary components of the language learning process. Whether one is a strategic learner or not, Johnson and Johnson (1999:197) expand the definition of learning strategies by saying that they change as learners' become more advanced; successful language learners' use more strategies than less successful ones; successful language learners who use learning strategies pay attention both to meaning and form.

In addition to their definitions, Richards and Schmidt (2002:301) separate learning strategies into four categories; cognitive strategies such as analyzing the target language, comparing what is newly come across with what is already known in either the first language or the second language, and arrange information; metacognitive strategies, which include being aware of individual's own learning, making a plan that is organized, and monitoring individual's progress; social strategies such as looking for native speaker friends or working with peers in a classroom environment; and resource management strategies such as setting aside a regular time and place for language study.

Hurd and Lewis (2008:9) state that students must draw on knowledge of themselves as learners, of the learning task and of appropriate strategies to use in a given context, in order to develop a meaningful interface with the learning environment. According to Gamamge, (2003:2) all language learners', whether they are skilled learners or not, tend to use some kind of language learning strategy in order to enhance language skills.

Table 1.1 gives a summary of definitions related to language learning strategies. Within the table, different points of views regarding language learning strategies are provided.

Table 1.1 Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

RESEARCHERS	DEFINITIONS
Bialystok, E. (1978)	Language learning strategies are defined as optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language (p. 71).
Rubin, J. (1987)	Learning strategies are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which is constructed by the learner and affects learning directly (p. 23).
Chamot, A. (1987)	Learning strategies are 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).
O'Malley, J., and Chamot, A. (1990)	the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information (p. 1)
Oxford, R. (1990)	Learning strategies are 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).

Source: Yalçın, M. (2006). Differences in the Perceptions on Language Learning Strategies of English Preparatory Class Students Studying at Gazi University. Unpublished Master of Art Thesis, Gazi University, Ankara:3.

Oxford (1990:9) provides twelve key features of language learning strategies as listed below:

1. They contribute to the main goal; communicative competence.
2. They allow learners to become more self-directed.
3. They expand the role of teachers.
4. They are problem-oriented.
5. They are specific actions taken by the learner.

6. They involve many aspects of the learner, not only the cognitive.
7. They support learning both directly and indirectly.
8. They are not always observable.
9. They are often conscious.
10. They can be taught.
11. They are flexible.
12. They are influenced by a variety of factors.

However, there are different definitions and categorizations of language learning strategies. It can be said that all language learners use not all but some of these strategies and they contribute to language learning (Yalçın, 2006:4). Learners' being aware of the ways they learn most effectively is important in language learning as they use different strategies in performing the tasks and processing the target language (Acunsal, 2005:7). In addition to the provided information, the categorization of learning strategies will be examined in the following part.

1.4 Categorization of Learning Strategies

Many academics categorized language learning strategies in many ways in the field of language learning. However, the ideas of three pioneering scholars will be studied in two groups: Rubin and O'Malley's categorization, and Oxford's categorization. Many of the researchers cited the studies of Rubin (Akbari and Hosseini, 2008:147; Chen, 2009:305; Griffiths, 2003:368; Hong-Nam and Leavell, 2006:400; Magogwe and Oliver, 2007:339), O'Malley (Magogwe and Oliver,

2007:338; McMullen, 2009:419; Purdie and Oliver, 1999:376; Sheorey, 1999:174; Yilmaz, 2010:683) and Oxford (Abbasi, Ahmad and Khattak, 2010:4939; Booney, Cortina, Smith-Darden, and Fiori, 2008:3; Kavasoglu, 2009:993; Nacera, 2010:4021; Wang, Spencer and Xing, 2009:46).

Table 1.2 shows the categorization of learning strategies by Rubin and O'malley, and Oxford. The first group is of Rubin's (1987) and O'Malley's (1995) categorization. Similarly, they both divide learning strategies into two; *Cognitive Learning Strategies*, and *Metacognitive Learning Strategies* (O'Malley and Chamot, 1995:47-49; Wenden and Rubin, 1987:23-25). The second, Oxford divided learning strategies into two categories; *Direct Strategies* and *Indirect Strategies* (Oxford, 1990:16).

Table 1.2. Rubin and O'Malley's Categorization, O'Malley and Chamot's Categorization and Oxford's Categorization of Learning Strategies.

Rubin and O'Malley's Categorization	O'Malley and Chamot's Categorization	Oxford's Categorization	
Cognitive Learning Strategies	Cognitive Learning Strategies	Direct Strategies	Memory Strategies
	Metacognitive Learning Strategies		Cognitive Strategies
Metacognitive Learning Strategies	Social/Affective Learning Strategies	Indirect Strategies	Compensation Strategies
			Metacognitive Strategies
			Affective Strategies
			Social Strategies

Rubin and O'Malley's, O'Malley and Chamot's Categorization and also Oxford's categorization of the learning strategies are explained by the help of the table 1.2.

1.4.1 Rubin and O'Malley's Categorization

As previously explained, Rubin and O'Malley are pioneering academicians in the field. Ideas of Rubin (1987) and O'Malley (1995) regarding learning strategies are studied in the following part.

Wenden and Rubin (1987:23) point out that recent studies have indicated that there are two main learning strategies: cognitive and metacognitive strategies. They put forward that metacognitive strategies refer to knowledge about cognitive processes and regulation of cognition through planning, monitoring and evaluating. They added that cognitive strategies refer to the steps used in learning that require analysis, transformation or synthesis of learning materials. They say that these strategies have been tried to separate each others, although it is difficult to be separated.

On the other hand, Ehrman, Leaver and Oxford (2003:317) suggest that O'Malley and Chamot emphasize the interaction of teacher and student. In this connection, O'Malley and Chamot (1995:43-56) divide language learning strategies into three main groups: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. Even though Wenden and Rubin (1987:23-25) did not include social/affective strategies into their categorization, it will be comprised in this part. The study forges ahead with classification of Cognitive Learning Strategies, Metacognitive Learning Strategies, and Social/Affective Learning Strategies.

1.4.1.1 Cognitive Learning Strategies

O'Malley and Chamot (1995:44) stress; "*cognitive strategies operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning*". Acunsa (2005:10) found out that the interaction between a learner and the material is important in the learning process. Goh (2002:186) states that usage of various mental techniques for overcoming limited information processing capacities is focused in cognitive strategies. These strategies require application of a specific technique to a particular task such as repetition, deductive reasoning, retrieval and rehearsal (Hurd, Beaven and Ortega, 2001:345; Lewalter, 2003:179).

Interaction with materials to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task are covered by cognitive strategies (Figura and Jarvis, 2007:450). In the study, Riazi (1997:122) found that cognitive strategies led students to work with, think about and manipulate materials required for task completion. On the other hand Kesici, Şahin and Aktürk (2009:530) suggest that cognitive strategies are used by the learners to encode, organize and retrieve newly learned information. Acunsa (2005:10) also puts forward that dictionaries, textbooks, key words or summaries of the given texts, and visual images are the most important resources in cognitive learning strategies. In their study, Purdie and Oliver (1999:381) found that cognitive strategies are the least used of the learning strategies.

1.4.1.2 Metacognitive Learning Strategies

Wenden and Rubin (1987:25) write that learners use metacognitive strategies for regulating, overseeing or self-directing language learning. According to Figura and Jarvis (2007:450), metacognitive learning strategies are general skills that learners can manage, direct, regulate and guide their learning.

Learners who use of metacognitive strategies have higher order executive skills such as planning, monitoring, evaluating and re-planning of their own learning (Ehrman and Leaver, 2003:407; Graham, Santos and Vanderplank, 2008:53; Griffiths, 2003:369; Hurd, Beaven and Ortega, 2001:345; Lewalter, 2003:179). What's more, Takeuchi (2003:387) thinks that metacognitive strategies are vital for successful learning.

Kim, Park and Baek (2009:801) point out those metacognitive strategies allow learners to use meta-cognition – which is thinking about one's learning and thinking – in problem solving. Wenden (1999:436) indicates that metacognitive strategies should be recognized as complementary component of meta-cognition.

Hurd, Beaven and Ortega (2001:343) write that metacognitive knowledge concerns one's own cognitive processes and products. Graham (2006:166) presents evidence which shows that there are three aspects of metacognitive knowledge; (1) what learners know about how humans in general learn; (2) what learners' know about the nature of a task; and (3) what learners' know about different strategies.

Wenden and Rubin (1987:25) also suggest that the learners' regulate their learning by planning, monitoring and evaluating. In addition, O'Malley and Chamot (1995:46) elaborate planning, monitoring and evaluating processes by the help of stating and focusing on special aspects of learning tasks, planning for the organization, reviewing attention to a task, checking comprehension after completion. These are the main skills of metacognitive strategies.

1.4.1.3 Social/Affective Learning Strategies

O'Malley and Chamot (1995:45-46) indicate that social/affective learning strategies involve interaction with another person. These strategies include steps as working with peers to solve a problem and getting feedback, eliciting explanation or examples from a peer or a teacher, thinking to assure oneself in a learning activity. It is supported that learners will be successful by performing these tasks. Group work tasks are required in these strategies. Supportively, Acunsal (2005:10) puts forward that interaction with another person is involved in social/affective learning strategies and practicing with other participants is essential.

1.4.2 Oxford's Categorization

In the study, one of the other pioneering academicians, Oxford indicates that there are two major classes of learning strategies: Direct Strategies and Indirect Strategies (1990:14-15). The scholar (Oxford, 1990:51) writes that direct strategies are about using the new language. In addition, the academician states that the indirect strategies provide rich and powerful support towards the language learning effort.

What is more, the academician claims that indirect strategies work in concert with direct strategies (Oxford, 1990:173).

In their study, Magogwe and Oliver (2007:340) put forward that Oxford's categorization of learning strategies is comprehensive, detailed, systematic and reliable. Yalçın (2003:21-22) demonstrates that Oxford's categorization of learning strategies tries to include most of the classification of strategies that were made before by the other academics. Oxford (1990:37) places the categories in language learning strategies as Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies and Compensation Strategies under Direct Strategies and Metacognitive Strategies, Affective Strategies and Social Strategies under Indirect Strategies (Oxford, 1990:135).

1.4.2.1 Direct Strategies

Strategies directly related to target language are named direct strategies. Mental processing of the language is essential in direct strategies (Oxford, 1990:37). Direct strategies are divided into three subcategories: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies (Oxford, 1990:38).

1.4.2.1.1 Memory Strategies

Oxford (1990:38) indicates that memory strategies are sometimes called mnemonics and have been used for thousands of years. Acunsal (2005:10) appends that in ancient times, memory strategies were used to remember practical information related to weather or farming. Kitakawa (2008:152) writes that memory strategies

(eg. grouping or using imagery) help learners store and retrieve information. Oxford asserts that memory strategies reflect very simple principles such as sorting things in order, making associations and renewing. All of these principles involve meaning. Memory strategies help learners to cope with the difficulty of remembering the newly learned words. They enable learners to hoard verbal material and then recall it when needed for use (Oxford, 1990:39). In the study, Oxford divides memory strategies into four sets as Creating Mental Linkages, Applying Images and Sounds, Reviewing Well and Employing Action.

1.4.2.1.1.1. Creating Mental Linkages

Oxford (1990:40) writes that there are three strategies under this title and these strategies are the cornerstone for the rest of the memory strategies. These are grouping, associating/elaborating and placing new words into a context.

Grouping: It involves classifying or reclassifying what is heard or read into meaningful groups, thus reducing the number of unrelated elements (Oxford, 1990:58). Martínez (1995:183) also adds that the term means grouping words into semantic fields. Sorting the new information can be done according to various criteria (Kozmonová, 2008:12). New language material is classified or reclassified in groups according to its word class, feelings associated with it, synonyms, antonyms or a topic or speech act in which it is employed (Li, 2004:16; Zankl, 2009:28-29). Kozmonová (2008:12) points out that the typical example of grouping in text books is that the words are presented according to the mentioned criterion such as clothes, food and drink, house etc.

Associating/elaborating: It involves associating new language information with familiar concepts already in memory (Oxford, 1990:60). According to Zankl (2009:29), it is important that the associations should bear a meaning for the learner. Li (2004:16) gives example of the association as between school and book, paper and tree, country and earth. On the other hand, Kozmonová (2008:12-13) emphasizes that making associations may differ according to individualities of the learners. So, something that is meaningful can be seen as meaningless by another learner.

Placing new words into a context: It involves placing new words or expressions that have been heard or read into a meaningful context as a way of remembering it (Oxford, 1990:60). The contextualization of the new words can be either written or spoken (Martínez, 1995:183). Zankl (2009:29) puts forward that the process of placing new words into a context can range from a sentence to a whole story. It is suggested that making use of this strategy helps learners' remember new information more easily (Zankl, 2009:29; Kozmonová, 2008:13). In addition, Kozmonová (2008:13) asserts that this strategy is used by more advanced learners than by beginners as it requires more developed grammar knowledge. It is also reported that creating contexts for new language information varies depending on the individual.

1.4.2.1.1.2. Applying Images and Sounds

There are four strategies involved in remembering by means of visual images or sounds. These strategies are, using imagery, semantic mapping, using keywords, and representing sounds in memory.

Using imagery: It is a good way to remember to create a mental image of what has been heard or read in the new language (Oxford, 1990:61). The image can be a picture of an object, a set of locations for remembering a sequence of words or expressions, or a mental representation of the letters of a word (Oxford, 1990:41; Li, 2004:16). Most of the textbooks designed for children are full of pictures as presenting new vocabulary by using pictures or real objects are helpful for young learners. Moreover, using imagery helps learners transform abstract words into concrete ones and it is useful for the learners who prefer visual learning style (Kozmonová, 2008:13).

Semantic mapping: It involves arranging concepts and relationships on paper to create a semantic map, a diagram in which the key concepts are highlighted and are linked with related concepts with arrows or lines starting from the centre (Oxford, 1990:61-62; Zankl, 2009:29; Li, 2004:16).

Using keywords: It combines sounds and images so that the learners can more easily remember what they hear or read in the new language (Oxford, 1990:62). Zankl (2009:29) writes that this strategy seems simple but it involves some steps; learners should find a link for the new word either in their mother tongue or in any other language – called “auditory link”; after that the relation between these words should be visualized in an image – called “visual link”. Moreover the association should be meaningful to the learner (Zankl, 2009:29; Li, 2004:16). It is reported that making use of this strategy helps learners remember abstract words (Kozmonová, 2008:14).

Representing sounds in memory: It helps learners remember what they hear by making auditory rather than visual representations of sounds. It involves linking the new word with familiar words or sounds from any language including the learners' own language or any other (Oxford, 1990:63; Li, 2004:16). This way, the learner can associate new word with an already known word (Zankl, 2009:29). Typical example of this strategy is using rhymes. Rhymes are helpful and contribute remembering new words more easily. There is no need for the rhymes to be meaningful (Kozmonová, 2008:14).

1.4.2.1.1.3. Reviewing Well

There is just one strategy in this category, structured reviewing. It is useful for remembering new material in target language.

Structured reviewing: It entails reviewing at different intervals, at first close together and then increasingly far apart (Oxford, 1990:66). The goal is "overlearning" -- that is, being so familiar with the information that it becomes natural and automatic (Oxford, 1990:42; Zankl, 2009:29-30). This strategy involves reviewing the newly learned language material in carefully spaced intervals, that is to say, a review 10 minutes after the initial learning, then 20 minutes later, an hour or two hours later, and so on. The main aim is to remember new target language information (Li, 2004:16). Making use of this strategy is very important for all learners no matter how old they are and is useful in all the school subjects.

Moreover, it should be used especially in the lessons for young learners. It is necessary to repeat all vocabulary and grammar explained so far again and again so as to make them automatic for learners (Kozmonová, 2008:15).

1.4.2.1.1.4. Employing Action

There are two strategies in this set and both of them involve some kind of meaningful movement or action. These strategies will appeal to the learners who are kinesthetic or who enjoy tactile modes of learning. These two strategies are using physical response or sensation, and using mechanical techniques.

Using physical response or sensation: It involves physically acting out a newly heard expression. The teaching strategy Total Physical Response is based on this strategy (Oxford, 1990:66; Kozmonová, 2008:16). The strategy presents a way of employing the kinesthetic element which contributes to remembering new information better (Kozmonová, 2008:15). In this strategy, learners physically act out a new utterance such as closing the window or going to the door, or they associate a new word with a sensation like “sun” with “warm” (Zankl, 2009:30; Li, 2004:17).

Using mechanical techniques: Mechanical techniques are sometimes useful to remember what has been heard or read (Oxford, 1990:68). The strategy involves moving or changing something which is concrete, in order to remember new target language information, e.g. writing words on cards with the new word written on one side and the definition on the other side (Oxford, 1990:43; Li, 2004:17). According to Kozmonová (2008:16), the most frequently used technique in this strategy is making use of flashcards.

1.4.2.1.2 Cognitive Strategies

In the study, Acunsal (2005:12) writes that these strategies are used when a learner is acquiring a new language and they are the most popular strategies used by learners. In addition, Nam and Oxford (1998:53) writes that cognitive strategies enhance the person's mental processing of information.

Kozmonová (2008:18) suggests that the cognitive strategies refer to cognition that is used by learners to complete a task. Oxford (1990:43) states that cognitive strategies are essential in learning a new language and they can vary from repeating to analyzing expressions to summarizing. Kitakawa (2008:152) suggests that cognitive strategies provide learners with the opportunity to understand and produce new language in many different ways. In the study, Oxford (1990:44) divides cognitive strategies into four sets as Practicing, Receiving and Sending Messages, Analyzing and Reasoning, and Creating Structure for Input and Output.

1.4.2.1.2.1. Practicing

There are five types of strategies in this set. They are repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, and practicing naturalistically.

Repeating: It involves saying or doing something over and over (Oxford, 1990:45). Repeating can be done in various ways such as listening to recordings of a native speaker, reading a text several times, imitating the way a native speaker uses the language, saying or writing a word, a phrase or a sentence several times (Zankl,

2009:30; Kozmonová, 2008:18). However, this strategy may not be seen as creative, important or meaningful at first sight, it is essential for all four language skills (Oxford, 1990:70; Kozmonová, 2008:18).

Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems: It is focused on perception of sounds rather than on comprehension of meaning in listening. It relates with writing in learning new writing systems necessary for using the target language such as a different alphabet (Oxford, 1990:71-72). Practicing with sounds is related to intonation and stress. Practicing with writing systems is related to writing skill and it concentrates mainly on copying (Kozmonová, 2008:19). Zankl (2009:30) suggests that one useful tactic for this strategy is to make learners record themselves.

Recognizing and using formulas and patterns: It involves being aware of and/or using routine formulas (single, unanalyzed units); and unanalyzed patterns (which have at least one slot to be filled) (Oxford, 1990:45). It greatly enhances the learners' comprehension and production (Oxford, 1990:72). By teaching learners' such fixed phrases, learners' become more fluent and better understand what is said in the target language, thus learners' become more self-confident (Zankl, 2009:30).

Recombining: It involves constructing a meaningful sentence or longer expression by putting together known elements in new ways. Whether the result is serious or silly, it always provides a good practice (Oxford, 1990:74). Newly learned phrases are linked with already known ones (Zankl, 2009:30).

Kozmonová (2008:19) asserts that the easiest example of recombining is joining two pieces of words, phrases or sentences by inserting a suitable conjunction to create a meaningful context.

Practicing naturalistically: It is focused on using the language for actual communication. Any of the four skills or a combination of them might be involved (Oxford, 1990:74). It emphasizes using authentic contexts and materials (Kozmonová, 2008:19). Communicative competence is essential in language learning, and making use of this strategy helps learners develop their communicative competence (Kozmonová, 2008:20). Typical examples are participating in a conversation, reading a book or article, listening to a lecture, or writing a letter in the new language (Zankl, 2009:31).

1.4.2.1.2.2. Receiving and Sending Messages

According to Kozmonová (2008:24), this group of strategies deals with working with new information. There are two strategies in this set. They are getting the idea quickly, and using resources for receiving and sending messages.

Getting the idea quickly: It helps learners understand what they need or want to understand, and it allows them to disregard the rest or use it as only background information. For the aim of this strategy, skimming and scanning techniques are used (Oxford, 1990:80). Skimming is identification of general topic or information while scanning is identification of certain limited information (Kozmonová, 2008:24). Often a preview question assists with this strategy (Oxford, 1990:46).

Learners can understand messages in the foreign language more quickly by the help of this strategy (Zankl, 2009:31).

Using resources for receiving and sending messages: It involves using resources to find out the meaning of what is heard or read in the new language, or to produce messages in the new language (Oxford, 1990:81). The resources may be either printed or non-printed such as dictionaries, grammar books, encyclopaedias, history books, video tapes, television, or exhibitions (Zankl, 2009:31).

1.4.2.1.2.3. Analyzing and Reasoning

The strategies in this set concern logical analysis and reasoning. These strategies are useful for avoiding mistakes caused by overgeneralization of language rules (Kozmonová, 2008:25). Learners can often use these strategies to understand the meaning of a new expression or to create a new expression. These strategies are reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, analyzing contrastively, translating, and transferring.

Reasoning deductively: It involves deriving hypotheses about the meaning of what is heard by means of general rules the learner already knows (Oxford, 1990:82). It refers to the use of applying general rules to specific situations (Zankl, 2009:31). Kozmonová (2008:25) writes that, in this strategy, already known rules to construct, translate or understand information are applied by learner. It requires using general rules and applying them to new target language situations (Oxford, 1990:45).

Analyzing expressions: It involves determining the meaning of a new expression by breaking it down into parts; using the meanings of various parts to identify the meaning of the whole expression (Oxford, 1990:45; Zankl, 2009:31). This strategy is able to be demonstrated on the English words such as bookcase, cupboard or armchair (Kozmonová, 2008:26).

Analyzing contrastively: This strategy is based on similarities between the target language and the mother tongue. It involves analyzing elements of the new language to determine likeness and differences in comparison with one's native language (Oxford, 1990:83-84). By making use of this strategy, learners become conscious of the similarities and they remember words more easily (Kozmonová, 2008:26).

Translating: It involves converting a target language expression into the native language; or converting the native language into the target language (Oxford, 1990:45; Zankl, 2009:31). It allows learners to use their own language as the basis for understanding what they hear or read in the target language. However, it helps learners to understand the target language better and makes many things clearer for learners, it must be used with care and word-for-word translation should be avoided (Oxford, 1990:84; Kozmonová, 2008:26).

Transferring: It involves directly applying knowledge of words, concepts, or structures from one language to another in order to understand or produce an expression in the new language (Oxford, 1990:46). The linguistic code of the mother tongue is applied to the target language (Zankl, 2009:32). It works well as long as the

language elements or concepts are directly parallel (Oxford, 1990:85).

1.4.2.1.2.4. Creating Structure for Input and Output

The strategies in this set are about organizing information in the target language (Kozmonová, 2008:27). They are ways to create structure, which is necessary for both comprehension and production in the new language. There are three strategies in this set. These strategies are taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting.

Taking notes: It involves writing down the main idea or specific points. This strategy can involve raw notes, or it can comprise more systematic form of note-taking and it can be in various forms such as shopping list format or semantic map (Oxford, 1990:46; Zankl, 2009:32). This strategy helps learners understand target language information better and focus on writing down the main ideas of a text being read or listened to (Kozmonová, 2008:27). The focus of it is on understanding, not writing (Oxford, 1990:86).

Summarizing: Summarizing is a way of preparation for memorization of the most important pieces of information (Zankl, 2009:32; Kozmonová, 2008:27). It involves making a summary or abstract of a longer passage (Oxford, 1990:46). It can be more challenging than taking notes, because it often requires greater condensation of thought (Oxford, 1990:88).

Highlighting: It involves using a variety of emphasis techniques (such as using capital letters, bold printing, circling, underlining, starring, or color-coding) to focus on important information in a passage (Oxford, 1990:46; Zankl, 2009:32). It emphasizes the major points. There is no limit to think of ways of highlighting (Oxford, 1990:89). Kozmonová (2008:27) presents evidence that this strategy is generally used when the most important points in the new information needs to be emphasized.

1.4.2.1.3 Compensation Strategies

Oxford (1990:47) puts forward that compensation strategies enable learners to use the target language. Acunsal (2005:13) suggests that learners use compensation strategies in the event that appropriate vocabulary or structure isn't within their knowledge. Kitakawa (2008:152) suggests that compensation strategies provide learners with the opportunity to use the target language even if they have a large knowledge gaps. In the study, Oxford (1990:48) divides compensation strategies into two sets as Guessing Intelligently, and Overcoming Limitations in Speaking and Writing.

1.4.2.1.3.1. Guessing Intelligently in Listening and Writing

These strategies refer to two different kinds of clues: linguistic and non-linguistic. Strategies in this group are useful in listening and reading activities in language learning setting (Kozmonová, 2008:29). The strategies are using linguistic clues, and using other clues.

Using linguistic clues: It involves seeking and using language-based clues in order to guess the meaning of what is heard or read in the target language, in the absence of complete knowledge or vocabulary, grammar, or other target language elements (Oxford, 1990:49). Zankl (2009:32) emphasizes that linguistic clues can be used if the learners have previous knowledge of the target language.

Using other clues: It involves seeking and using clues that are not language-based in order to guess the meaning of what is heard or read in the target language (Oxford, 1990:49).

1.4.2.1.3.2. Overcoming Limitations in Speaking and Writing

There are eight strategies in this set. They are switching to the mother tongue, getting help, using mime or gesture, avoiding communication partially or totally, selecting the topic, adjusting or approximating the message, coining words, and using a circumlocution or synonym.

Switching to the mother tongue: Zankl (2009:33) writes that according to this strategy, learners switch to the mother tongue and use the unknown word(s) in their mother tongue without providing a translation for the word(s). It involves using the mother tongue for an expression without translating it. This strategy may include adding word endings from the new language onto words from the mother tongue (Oxford, 1990:50).

Getting help: It involves asking someone for help by hesitating or explicitly asking for the person to provide the unknown word or phrase, or missing expression in the target language (Oxford, 1990:50; Zankl, 2009:33).

Using mime or gesture: It involves using physical motion, such as mime or gesture, in place of an expression to indicate the meaning (Oxford, 1990:50).

Avoiding communication partially or totally: It involves partially or totally avoiding communication when difficulties are encountered, or there is a lack of certain vocabulary or grammar. This strategy may involve avoiding communication completely, avoiding certain topics, avoiding certain expressions, abandoning communication in mid-utterance, or refusing to talk on certain topics or expressions (Oxford, 1990:50; Zankl, 2009:33).

Selecting the topic: In order to prevent avoiding communication completely, the strategy of selecting the topic may be employed. If employed, the learners will have the opportunity to choose the topic they like or they will have opportunity to choose the topic on which they have the required language knowledge (Zankl, 2009:33). It involves choosing the topic of conversation in order to direct the communication to one's own interests and make sure the topic is one in which the learner has sufficient vocabulary and grammar to converse (Oxford, 1990:50).

Adjusting or approximating the message: This strategy is used in the event that a learner lacks a certain expression (Zankl, 2009:33). It is used to alter the message by omitting some items of information, to make ideas simpler or less precise, or to say something slightly different that means almost the same thing (Oxford, 1990:50).

Coining words: It involves making up new words to communicate the desired idea (Oxford, 1990:50).

Using a circumlocution or synonym: It involves getting the meaning across by describing the concept or using a word that means the same thing (Oxford, 1990:51). According to Zankl (2009:33), this strategy requires a certain level of proficiency at least enough for using synonyms.

Figure 1.1 shows Oxford's diagram of strategy system showing direct strategies.

DIRECT STRATEGIES

(Memory, Cognitive, and Compensation Strategies)

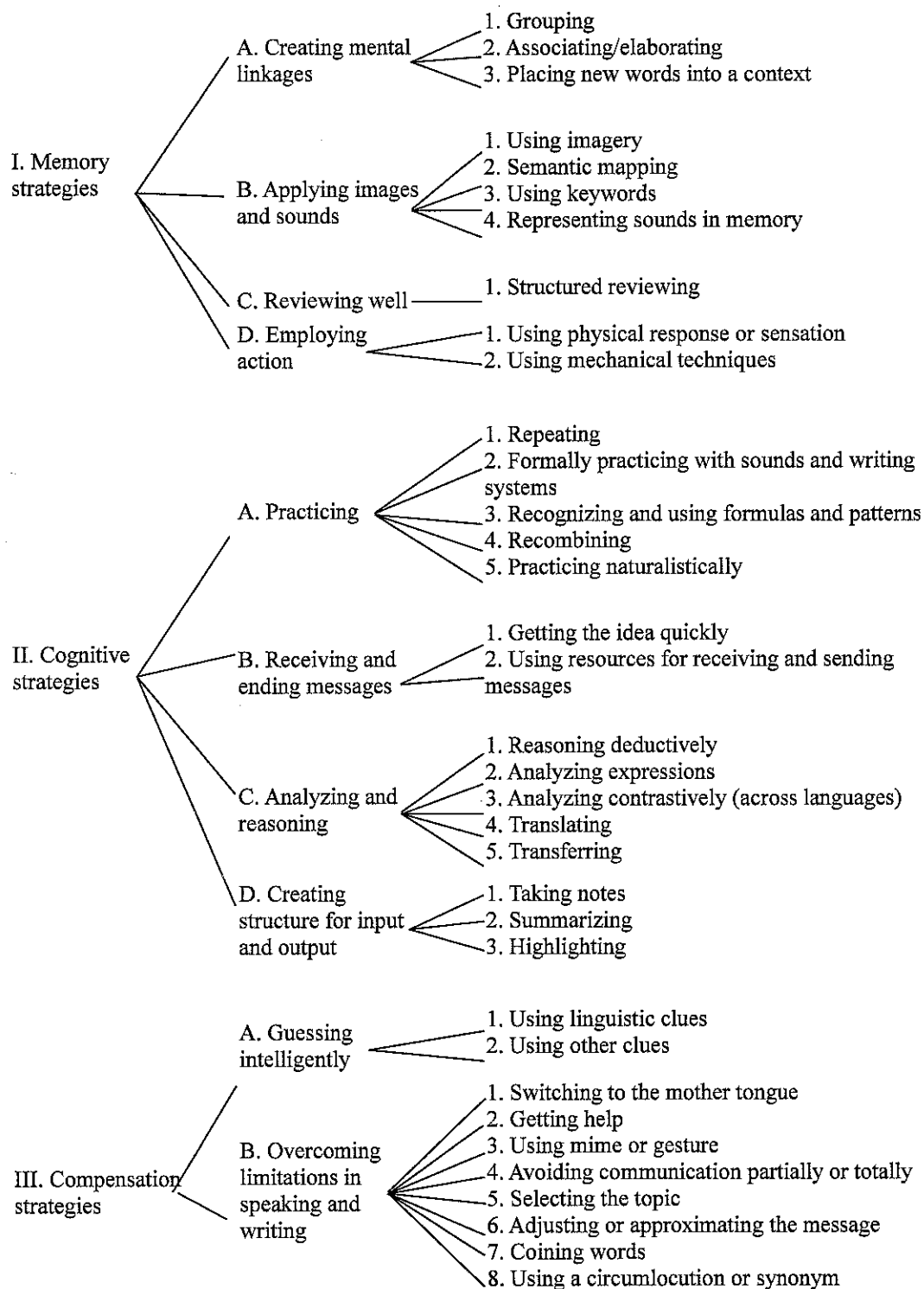


Figure 1.1 Oxford's Diagram of Strategy System Showing Direct Strategies

Source: Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. U.S.A.: Heinle & Heinle Publishers, p.18-19.

1.4.2.2 Indirect Strategies

Strategies indirectly related to target language are named indirect strategies. These strategies boost the process of language learning indirectly (Oxford, 1990:135). Oxford also (1990:136) divides indirect strategies into three subcategories: metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies.

1.4.2.2.1 Metacognitive Strategies

Oxford shows that the term “metacognitive” means beyond or beside the cognitive. So, the scholar infers that metacognitive strategies are actions which go beyond cognitive devices and they provide a way for learners to relate their own learning process (Oxford, 1990:136). Metacognitive strategies deal with everything related to learners’ control of their learning (Kozmonová, 2008:32).

Kitakawa (2008:152) asserts that these strategies let learners control their own cognition. It means that learners can coordinate their own learning processes. Oxford (1990:136) divides metacognitive strategies into three sets as Centring Your Learning, Arranging and Planning Your Learning, and Evaluating Your Learning.

1.4.2.2.1.1. Centring Your Learning

The strategies in this group focus on learners’ awareness of learning process (Kozmonová, 2008:33). There are three strategies in this set. They are overviewing and linking with already known material, paying attention, and delaying speech production to focus on listening. They help learners to converge their attention and

energies on certain language tasks, activities, skills or materials.

Overviewing and linking with already known material: It involves overviewing comprehensively a key concept, principle, or set of materials in an upcoming language activity and associating it with what is already known (Oxford, 1990:138).

Paying attention: It involves deciding in advance to pay attention in general to a language learning task and to ignore distracters – which is called “direct attention” – or to pay attention to specific aspects of the target language – which is called “selective attention” (Oxford, 1990:138; Zankl, 2009:34).

Delaying speech production to focus on listening: It involves deciding in advance to delay speech production in the new language either totally or partially, until comprehension skills are better developed (Oxford, 1990:138). This strategy is generally used by beginners who have low level of proficiency in the target language (Zankl, 2009:34).

1.4.2.2.1.2. Arranging and Planning Your Learning

These strategies help pre-service teachers to organize and plan so as to get the most out of language learning. They are finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task, and seeking practice opportunities.

Finding out about language learning: Zankl (2009:34) suggests that one of the ways of encouraging learners to find out more about language learning is to give them the opportunity to talk about problems that they encountered, is to ask questions and to exchange their personal experience. This strategy involves making efforts to find out how language learning works by reading books and talking with other people, and then using this information to help improve one's own language learning (Oxford, 1990:139).

Organizing: It involves understanding and using conditions related to optimal learning of the new language (Oxford, 1990:139).

Setting goals and objectives: It involves setting aims for language learning, including long-term goals such as being able to use the language for informal conversation by the end of the year; or short-term objectives such as finishing reading a short story by Monday (Oxford, 1990:139).

Identifying the purpose of a language task: It involves deciding the purpose of a particular language task and also listening, reading, speaking or writing (Oxford, 1990:139).

Planning for a language task: It involves planning for the language elements and functions necessary for an anticipated language task or situation. It involves four steps: describing the task or situation, determining its requirements, checking one's own linguistic resources, and determining additional language elements or functions necessary for the task or situation (Oxford, 1990:139).

Seeking practice opportunities: It involves seeking out or creating opportunities to practice the new language in naturalistic situations such as going to a foreign language cinema (Oxford, 1990:139). This strategy gives learners opportunity to apply their knowledge of target language in naturalistic situations (Zankl, 2009:35).

1.4.2.2.1.3. Evaluating Your Learning

Not only the teachers but also the learners should be able to evaluate themselves. The strategies in this group refer to learners' ability to reflect their language performance (Kozmonová, 2008:35). Both of the strategies in this set aid learners in checking their language performance. These strategies are self-monitoring, and self-evaluating.

Self-monitoring: It involves identifying errors in understanding or producing the new language determining which ones are important, tracking the source of important errors, and trying to eliminate such errors (Oxford, 1990:140). Martínez (1995:183) summarizes this strategy as learning from previous errors in writing. In addition, Kozmonová (2008:35) writes that the strategy focuses on learners' paying attention to their errors. By using this strategy, mistakes in one's own oral or written utterances in the target language can be found and analyzed (Zankl, 2009:35).

Self-evaluating: It involves evaluating one's own progress in the new language such as checking to see whether one is reading faster and understanding more than one month or six months ago (Oxford, 1990:141).

1.4.2.2.2 Affective Strategies

Learners' feelings – such as feelings of happiness when a task is fulfilled successfully, of nervousness before a test – are connected with learning process. Learners should take control of their feelings (Kozmonová, 2008:36). Acunsa (2005:17) puts forward that affective factors have an important role in language learning process as people have both positive and negative emotions and attitudes towards everything. In this sense, learners should use affective strategies in order to be able to regulate and gain control over affective factors such as emotions, motivations and values (Oxford, 1990:140; Kitakawa, 2008:152). In the study, Oxford (1990:140) states that affective strategies are about emotions, attitudes, motivations and values. The academic divides affective strategies into three sets as Lowering Your Anxiety, Encouraging Yourself, and Taking Your Emotional Temperature.

1.4.2.2.2.1. Lowering Your Anxiety

The strategies in this group deal with ways of taking control of learners' anxiety during learning process and reducing it (Kozmonová, 2008:36). The strategies in this set are using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation, using music, and using laughter. Each of them has a physical component and a mental component.

Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation: It involves using the technique of alternately tensing and relaxing all of the major muscle groups in the body, as well as the muscles in the neck and face, in order to relax; or the technique of breathing deeply from the diaphragm; or the technique of meditating by focusing on a mental image or sound (Oxford, 1990:143).

Using music: It involves listening to soothing music such as a classical concert as a way to relax (Oxford, 1990:143).

Using laughter: It involves relaxing by watching a funny video, reading a humorous book, listening to jokes (Oxford, 1990:143).

1.4.2.2.2. Encouraging Yourself

The strategies in this group deal with learners' self-encouragement (Kozmonová, 2008:38). There are three strategies in this set. They are making positive statements, taking risks wisely, and rewarding yourself. Often forgotten by the language learners, self-encouragement is the most powerful way of being encouraged.

Making positive statements: It involves saying or writing positive statements to oneself in order to feel more confident in learning the new language (Oxford, 1990:143). Zankl (2009:36) provides a list of possible positive statements:

- I understand a lot more of what is said to me now.
- I pay attention well.
- It's OK if I make mistakes.
- Everybody makes mistakes; I can learn from mine!
- I'm reading faster than I was a month ago.

Taking risks wisely: It pushes one to take risks in a language learning situation, even though there is a chance of making mistake or looking foolish. It involves tempering the risks with a good judgment (Oxford, 1990:144).

Rewarding yourself: It involves giving oneself a valuable reward for a particularly good performance in the new language (Oxford, 1990:144).

1.4.2.2.3. Taking Your Emotional Temperature

Kozmonová (2008:39) asserts that learners' feelings influence their learning, so feelings should be considered in the learning process. The strategies in this set help learners to assess their feelings, motivations and attitudes, and to tolerate to language tasks. The strategies are listening to your body, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary, and discussing your feelings with someone else.

Listening to your body: It involves paying attention to signals given by the body. These signals may be negative or they may be positive (Oxford, 1990:144).

Using a checklist: It involves using a checklist to discover feelings, attitudes and motivations concerning language learning in general as well as concerning specific language tasks (Oxford, 1990:144).

Writing a language learning diary: It involves writing a diary or journal to keep track of events and feelings in the process of learning a new language (Oxford, 1990:144).

Discussing your feelings with someone else: It involves talking with another person to discover and express feelings about language learning (Oxford, 1990:144).

1.4.2.2.3 Social Strategies

Using a language is a form of communication, and it is a kind of social behaviour. This social behaviour takes place between and among people. So, there must be other people in language learning process, and at this point, social strategies step in (Oxford, 1990:144). By the help of social strategies, learning takes places through interaction with others (Kitakawa, 2008:152). Oxford (1990:145) divides social strategies into three sets as Asking Questions, Cooperating with Others, and Empathizing With Others.

1.4.2.2.3.1. Asking Questions

In daily life, people ask questions when they want to get some information, or something is not clear for them and needs to be explained again, so it is really natural

to ask questions. Moreover, asking questions shows one's being interested in the topic (Kozmonová, 2008:41). There are two strategies in this set. They are asking for clarification or verification, and asking for correction.

Asking for clarification or verification: It involves asking the speaker to repeat, paraphrase, explain, slow down, or give examples; or asking if a specific utterance is correct (Oxford, 1990:146). The aim of using this strategy is to improve already existing knowledge (Zankl, 2009:37).

Asking for correction: It involves asking for correction in a conversation. Mostly this strategy occurs in conversation but it may also be applied to writing (Oxford, 1990:147).

1.4.2.2.3.2. Cooperating with Others

The main purpose of learning another language either inside the classroom or outside the classroom is to develop communicative competence. As involvement of other people around is inevitable in communication, it is impossible to avoid working with other people. As a result, cooperating with others is an essential strategy in language learning context (Kozmonová, 2008:42). These strategies are the basis of cooperative language learning which not only increase learners' language performance but also enhance self-worth and social acceptance. The strategies are cooperating with peers, and cooperating with proficient users of the new language.

Cooperating with peers: It involves working with other language learners to improve language skills (Oxford, 1990:147). Zankl (2009:37) write that this strategy is used generally during games or pair/group work.

Cooperating with proficient users of the new language: It involves working with native speakers or other proficient users of the new language, outside of the language classroom (Oxford, 1990:147).

1.4.2.2.3.3. Empathizing with Others

The strategies in this group are based on understanding others' culture, thoughts and feelings (Kozmonová, 2008:43). There are two strategies in this set. They are developing cultural understanding, and becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings.

Developing cultural understanding: It involves trying to empathize with another person through learning about the culture and trying to understand the other person's relation to that culture (Oxford, 1990:147). Developing cultural understanding provides individuals with a better understanding of another person's point of view. With the recent developments in internet, the European Union and increased mobility, making use of this strategy and thus becoming familiar with the elements of the customs of other cultures so as to be able to communicate successfully and not to unknowingly offend others has become increasingly necessary (Zankl, 2009:37).

Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings: It involves observing the behaviors of others as a possible expression of their thoughts and feelings (Oxford, 1990:147). Kozmonová (2008:44) states that learners will be aware of the ways to react and what to say by using this strategy.

Figure 1.2 shows Oxford's diagram of strategy system showing indirect strategies.

INDIRECT STRATEGIES

(Metacognitive, Affective, and Social Strategies)

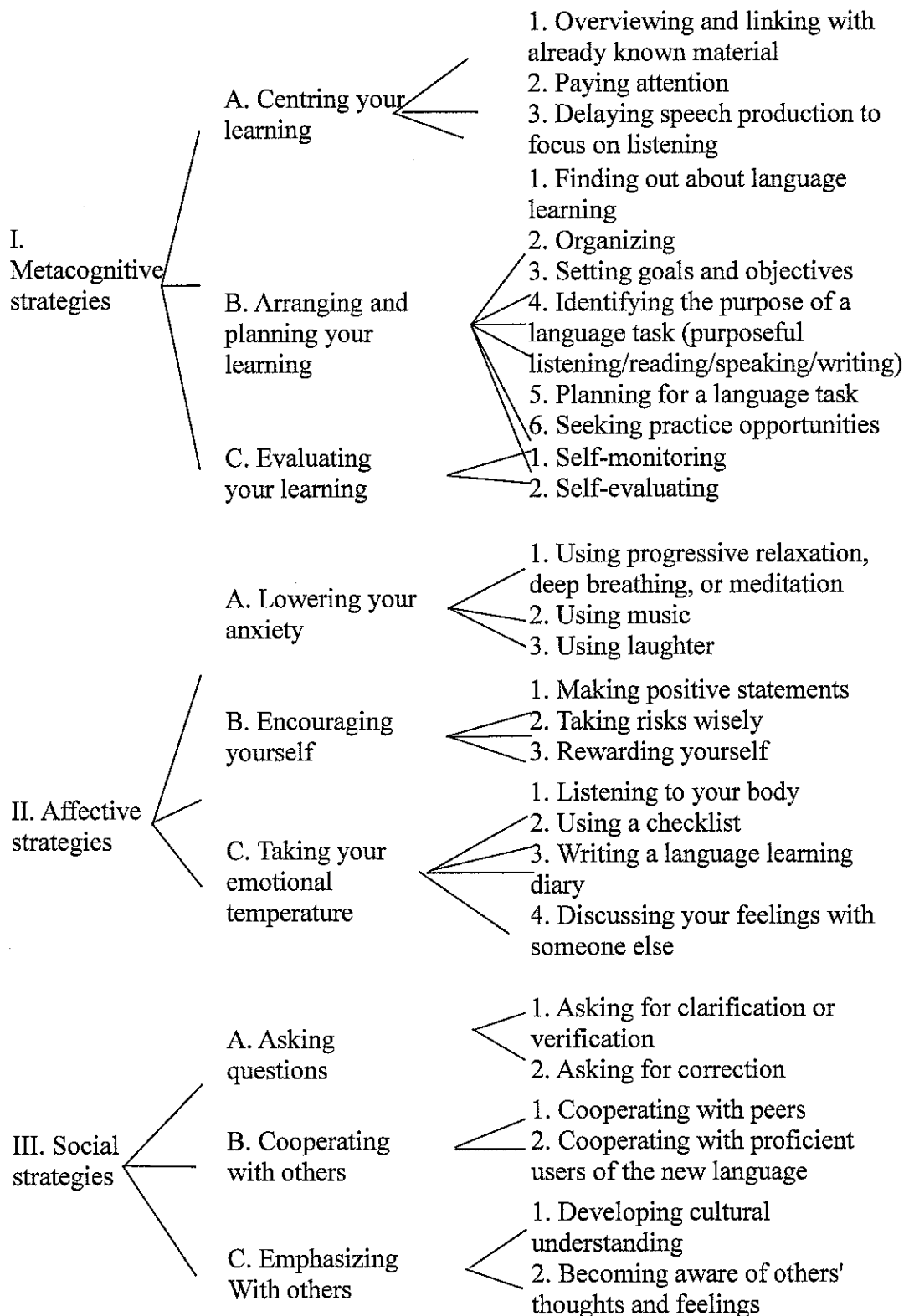


Figure 1.2 Oxford's Diagram of Strategy System Showing Indirect Strategies

Source: Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know*. U.S.A.: Heinle & Heinle Publishers:20-21.

1.5 Learner Attitudes

The basic concept of attitude should be defined for the purpose of further analyzing learner attitudes. One of the pioneering academics, Gardner, states that the concept of attitude is complex as there are many different descriptions of it. He defines attitudes as assessable reactions of an individual. He puts forward that attitudes have cognitive and affective components. He also claims that attitudes can be observed throughout behaviours but they may not be observed directly (Gardner, 1985:8-9). Additively, LoCastro (2001:72) asserts that the connection between attitudes and behaviour is obviously hard to predict and assess. According to Kormos and Csizér (2007:243), attitudes are expected to shape the way people's behaviours.

Siregar (2010:72) defends that attitudes can represent internal thoughts, feelings and tendencies in behaviour across a variety of contexts. It is assumed that attitudes are individual. Furthermore, Johnson and Johnson (1999:14) give the definition:

Attitudes may be thought of as opinions, beliefs, ways of responding, with respect to some set of problems. They may not be formulated verbally until someone asks; they may not even be immediately available to conscious attention. They may be formed from haphazard experience, or they may be the result of deliberate thought. They may conform to cultural or peer-group norms or not. As such, they are vague, loose and difficult to capture. They may exert considerable control over a learner's behaviour in numerous ways, and therefore may be related directly or indirectly to levels of achievement.

In their study, Johnson and Johnson (1999:19) defend that attitudes interact with many different concepts such as motivation and personality. Learners' attitudes and motivation have an important role in language learning (Merisuo-Storm, 2007:226). Therefore, *“positive attitudes towards language learning can raise learners’ motivation and help language learning”* (Merisuo-Storm, 2007:234). Attitudes are so important that positive attitudes can increase the motivation of the learner and support the learning process while negative attitudes can do the opposite (Merisuo-Storm, 2007:228). Hussein, Demirok and Uzunboylu (2009:432) provide that attitudes *“may guide you to (...) behaviours, for example, an individual choosing to listen to classical music. Moreover, people have negative attitudes towards snakes mean that; these people incline to keep away from them”*. Abovementioned determinations prove the idea of Merisuo-Storm. The academician (Merisuo-Storm, 2007:228) suggests that examining the attitudes of the learners is very important for a teacher.

On the other hand, attitudes are found to be individual and Siregar (2010:72) provides some characteristics of attitudes: they are learned, they are not inherited, they are likely to be relatively stable, and they have a tendency to persist. Furthermore, Karahan (2007:75) provides three components of attitudes: (1) attitudes tend to have a cognitive component (beliefs or perceptions about the object or situations); (2) attitudes have an evaluative component (object or situation may generate like or dislike); (3) attitudes have a behavioural component (certain attitudes cause learners to adopt particular learning behaviours).

Attitudes provide individuals with the opportunity to value the learning situation or its outcome before getting involved with the learning experience (Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2004:432). In this context, as Siregar (2010:72) puts forward, attitudes have an important role in language growth or decay, restoration or destruction. For instance, status and importance of a language in a society and within an individual can be adopted and learnt, thus attitudes towards a language are shaped. As a result, attitudes, in relation to language, can be defined as feelings, perceptions or behaviours towards a language itself, a culture or a group of people (Diallo, 2005, p.29). In their study, Hussein, Demirok and Uzunboylu (2009:432) found that learner attitudes have an influence on the students' academic success. In addition they also put forward that learners should be open to new things in order to learn new knowledge. Furthermore, Siregar (2010:72) asserts that learning a language is closely related to the attitudes toward the languages. Within this scope, definitions of language attitudes are examined in the following part.

Richards and Schmidt (2002:286) give description of the term in their study the attitudes which speakers of different languages or language varieties have towards each other's languages or to their own language. Expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status, etc. Attitudes towards a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language. Language attitudes may have an effect on second language or foreign language learning.

Johnson and Johnson (1999:14) state that attitudes have been explored in relation to language learning range from anxiety about the language and the learning situation. Through attitudes to speakers of L2, the country in which it is spoken or in the classroom with the teacher and other learners, has the nature of language learning. Particular elements in the learning activities, tests and beliefs are also about the language learning in general.

According to Liao (2008:403) language attitudes are established by the learners' understanding of social meanings of the linguistic features as well as the local history and social settings. People develop attitudes towards language depending on their views about those who speak the language. According to Sakuragi (2008:83), attitudes toward specific languages relate to a person's desire to study, interest in, and fascination with a particular language. Moreover, there are certain attitudes in society, social or ethnic groups towards each other. These attitudes affect attitudes towards cultural institutions such as language. In this sense, attitudes to a language reflect attitudes to the users of the language and they are influenced by social and political factors (Mukhuba, 2005:271). Henry and Apelgren (2008:609) suggest that language learning attitudes are absolute products of the learner's identification with the language, the culture and the speakers of the target language community. According to the authors, the community in which the target language is spoken is the determinative and the strongest factor of motivation in attitude formation. In addition, Duan (2004:17) suggests that there is a possible correlation between language attitudes and learners' age, gender, language ability, language background and cultural background.

Furthermore, Sakuragi (2006:22) divides language attitudes into two: a general attitude toward language education and an attitude toward a specific language. First one is about the importance of studying language in general and the second one is about a particular language and whether the learner feels that the language is important or not. Johnson and Johnson (1999:14-15) also add that information related to attitudes has a place in language teaching in two areas. One of them is to prepare the learner to learn, thus to change the attitude of the learner. The other one is to make the teacher not to choose the learning activities with potential result of conflict between the teacher and the learners.

Duan (2004:17) puts forward that language attitude is an umbrella term. Under of it are eight specific attitudes: (1) attitudes to language variation, dialect and speech style; (2) attitudes to learning a new language; (3) attitudes to specific minority language; (4) attitudes to language groups, communities and minorities; (5) attitudes to language lessons; (6) attitudes to uses of a specific language; (7) attitudes of parents to language learning; and (8) attitudes to language preference.

In the context of language attitudes, motivation refers to the combination of effort and desire to achieve the goal of learning language. There are two basic motivational triggers of language attitudes: instrumental and integrative. If a learner sees the target language as prestige and success indicator, it can be said that the motivation is instrumental. On the contrary, if the learner sees the target language as a means of being a member of the users of that language, the motivation is integrative. In most of the language learning settings the motivation behind language attitudes is instrumental (Siregar, 2010:73).

Language attitudes are made up of cognitive, affective and behavioural components (McBride, 2006:6; Kormos and Csizér, 2007:243). McBride (2006:6-7) makes these aspects of language learning clear; (1) language attitudes are cognitive and they contain beliefs about the world (for example, learning English will help me become more successful in the professional world); (2) language attitudes are affective and they evoke feelings about an attitude object (for example, showing enthusiasm about hearing Keloglan stories in English); (3) language attitudes are behavioural and systematically linked to behaviour (for example, learning English). Similarly Dede (2004:544) asserts that language attitudes have the abovementioned cognitive, affective, and behavioural qualities. The writer adds that these components may or may not have any psychological reality; however they provide a useful foothold for measuring language attitudes.

Siregar (2010:72) states that there are five implications of language attitudes: (1) language attitudes usually entail attitude to the speakers of the particular language or dialect; (2) language attitudes influence sound change; (3) language attitudes may influence how teachers deal with pupils; (4) language attitudes may affect second language learning; (5) language attitudes may affect whether or not varieties are mutually intelligible.

The learners' attitude towards the language is usually inward-centred (Mukhuba, 2005:273). Ladegaard (1998:254) asserts that attitudes have serious educational implications in language learning context. Furthermore, Sachdev and Hanlon (2001:71) assert that positive language attitudes are important predictors of language maintenance, learning and revitalization. In this context, the correlation

between success and attitude in language learning process is inevitable. In their study Serin, Serin and Ceylan (2010:1937) explain this situation as the positive attitudes of the learners are strengthened by their success while negative attitudes of them are strengthened by their failures. They defend that negative attitudes block the learners' effort to learn the target language. Furthermore, they put forward that successful students have positive attitudes toward learning the target language however unsuccessful students have negative attitudes.

Duan (2004:14) puts forward that a questionnaire is the most often used method in measuring language attitudes. The questions in these questionnaires are valuable as they provide a general picture of how people feel about the particular languages. In the light of this information, questions on language attitudes in combination with an adaptation of Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning are provided in the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The sections hereafter delve into the aim and methods of the field research which were implemented within the scope of this project referring particularly to the number of participants and samples of research, data gathering tools, analysis of the data and findings.

The scope of the research was determined by defining information through questions and the use of data gathering tools. These produced variables which aided in achieving the aim of the research, particularly with the use of participants samples. The findings of the research were then interpreted.

2.1. Aim of Research

The research is implemented with the intent of analysing English learning attitudes and strategies used in English learning by the learners who study in the English Language Teaching Department. In accordance with this purpose, learners were asked their opinions about the subject.

The question put forth in this research was: "Which strategies do pre-service teachers in the English Language Teaching Department use to learn English and to what extent are their attitudes towards learning English developed" This question attempts to be answered by the analysis of gathered data from the questionnaire and

by the help of hypothesis tests. In the research, the use of this method was applied.

Hypotheses were implemented based on the aim and are identified as:

H₁: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' usage frequencies of language learning strategies differ in regard to their gender.

H₂: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' usage frequencies of language learning strategies differ in regard to their academic success levels.

H₃: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' usage frequencies of language learning strategies differ in regard to their preparatory class education (whether they attended in preparatory class or not).

H₄: Levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' differ according to their gender.

H₅: Levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' differ according to their academic success levels.

H₆: Levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' differ according to their preparatory class education.

H₇: There is a significant relationship between the usage frequencies of language learning strategies and levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers'.

2.2. Participants, Numbers and Sample of the Research

Pre-service teachers who study in the English Language Teaching Department and who are in their 3rd or 4th year in 2010-2011, make-up the target of the research. Samples were generated from 60 learners at İstanbul Maltepe University and İstanbul Aydın University who were chosen amongst those learners by a convenient sample method.

2.3. Gathering Research Data

Questions and statements in the questionnaire which were prepared within the scope of this research were addressed to pre- service English Teachers. The process of data collection was completed in approximately two months. These questions and statements, in other words variables of research are titled as:

2.3.1. Questions Regarding Personal Information

This part of the questionnaire includes information questions such as pre-service teachers' gender, academic success point and preparatory class education. Other social, cultural and educational background issues were not taken into consideration due to the limitations of the study.

2.3.2. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

The Language Learning Strategies Scale which was prepared by Oxford

(1990) and personal information form which was prepared by the researcher were used as data gathering tools. The Language Learning Strategies Scale which includes 6 dimensions and 50 items is a 5 point Likert type scale. The Scale was prepared into two different types, one for the students whose mother tongue is English and the other one was for the foreigners who wanted to learn English. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning Questionnaire (SILL) is taken from the thesis of Bade Hale Ünal Acunsal (2005).

While data gathering tools have been used in different studies before, Cronbach's reliability and co-efficiency had been determined and results from 0.80 to 0.98 had been obtained.

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning has been used in many studies (El-Dip, 2004; Ehrman and Oxfors,1990; Humphreys and Hamp-Lyons,2004; Ian and Oxford, 2003; Lafford, 2004; Oxfors, Cho, Leung and Kim, 2004; Wherton,2000).In this study, the reliability and co-efficiency of The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning Scale has been determined as 0.912 from the gathered data.

In regard to the frequency of strategy usage in The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning Scale, according to the answers that pre-service teachers gave, 6 points such as "memory strategy usage frequency point", "cognitive strategy usage frequency point", "compensation strategy usage frequency point", "metacognitive strategy usage frequency point", "affective strategy usage frequency point" and "social strategy usage frequency point" have been calculated for each student depending on the number of items that lower the dimension points.

The following upper and lower limits are as follows:

	<u>Lower</u>	<u>Upper</u>
	<u>Limit</u>	<u>Limit</u>
Strategy depends on memory usage frequency point	9	45
Cognitive strategy usage frequency point	14	70
Strategy depends on compensation usage frequency point	6	30
Upper cognitive strategy usage frequency	9	45
Affective strategy usage frequency	6	30
Social strategy usage frequency point	6	30

The high point for the related lower dimension points out that English Learning Strategy usage frequency increases.

Categories for point types whose limitation values are 6 and 30

24-30	“High”
18-23	“Above Average”
12-17	“Average”
6-11	“Low”

Categories for point types whose limitation values are 9 and 45

36-45	“High”
27-35	“Above Average”
18-26	“Average”
9-17	“Low”

Categories for point types whose limitation values are 14 and 70

56-70	“High”
42-55	“Above Average”
28-41	“Average”
14-27	“Low”

2.3.3. Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire

Another data gathering tool used in this study was a “Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire” that was adopted from Orwig (1999). All participants answered the questions, which encompassed a number of opinions about the participants’ attitudes toward learning English. By the help of this scale, foreign language learning attitudes have been tried to be measured. Foreign language learning attitudes of pre-service teachers are measured in 5 dimensions such as: Self-Image, Inhibition, Risk-taking, Ego Permeability and Ambiguity. For each dimension, points between 8-64 have been calculated. Their points have been evaluated as follows:

64-48	“High”
47-36	“Above Average”
35-16	“Average”
15-0	“Low”

The highest point for the related lower dimension points out that student’s English learning attitudes relating to the lower dimension are developed. In this

study, the reliability and co-efficiency of the Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire scale has been determined to be 0.603 from gathered data.

At the same time, their varied types of attitude toward English-learning in terms of personality traits were examined by having them complete the related questionnaire of the study. Of a total of 27 questions, each was rated as *strongly agree*, *agree*, *neither agree nor disagree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*, and also given point values of 8, 6, 4, 2, and 0 respectively. Five clusters were derived from the items based on the personality traits involved. There were eight items in each cluster, some of which overlapped. By adding the points in each column—that is, attributes of personality—scores for language-learning attitudes were calculated.

2.4. Data Analysis

SPSS 18.0 statistics packaged software is used in the evaluation and analysis of gathered data. Frequency and percentage distribution related to all questions and answers to statements in the scale have been calculated, these distributions are shown in the tables and graphs. Determining statistics such as mean, standard deviation mode, median, minimum and maximum values have also been used. In hypothesis test parts, more than two needed independent group ANOVA parametric tests or two independent group parametric tests have also been used.

In all of the hypothesis tests regarding comparing means, hypotheses are developed as follows:

H_0 : Means are not different in analyzed variance groups.

H_1 : Means are different in analyzed variance groups.

If p value is lower than 0.05 significance value during the decision phase of the test, H_0 hypothesis is rejected and it is interpreted as means that are different among analyzed variance groups, otherwise, if p value is higher than 0.05 significance value, H_0 hypothesis cannot be rejected and it is interpreted as means that are not different among analyzed variance groups.

The Pearson correlation analysis has been used in analysis of relations between lower dimensions in scales involved in the questionnaire. The hypothesis tested in this analysis is "There is no statistical relation between two point types." If found p value in the test is lower than 0.05, H_0 hypothesis is rejected and it is interpreted statistically that there is a significant relation between two point types, otherwise, in other words if the p value is higher than or equal to 0.05 significance value, H_0 hypothesis cannot be rejected and it is expounded statistically that there is no significant relation between two point types. Found correlation co-efficient (r) as a result of correlation analysis shows the strength of the relation between two variances and it can be valued between -1 and +1. Strength of the relation increases when it gets closer to the values. If the co-efficient is positive, it shows that there is a direct proportion, if it is negative; it shows that there is an inverse proportion between two variances.

2.5. Limitations of the Research

This research is limited to the answers of the contributor sample group which consists of 60 pre-service teachers aged 19-24. Limitations in the sample are the impossibility of analyzing the whole population. The other limitation of the research is assuming that contributors gave true, honest answers. Besides, it is assumed that the chosen sample was presented to the population adequately and the population can be generalized according to the sample.

CHAPTER3

FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

3.1. Findings

In this part, frequency and percentage distribution of answers to the questions have been shown and interpreted by tables and graphs. Results of the research have been reached by analyzing these answers and interpreting the findings of the hypothesis tests.

3.1.1. Findings in Regard to Personal Information of Pre-service Teachers in the Sample Group

In this part, pre-service teachers have primarily been asked personal information questions such as gender, academic success point, and preparatory class education. Pre-service teachers are between 19-24 years old. In Table 3.1. Distribution of pre-service teachers according to their gender in the sample group is given.

Table 3.1. Distribution of Pre-service teachers according to Their Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	25	41,7	41,7	41,7
Female	35	58,3	58,3	100,0
Total	60	100,0	100,0	

In Figure 3.1., distribution of pre-service teachers according to their gender has been shown on pie graph.

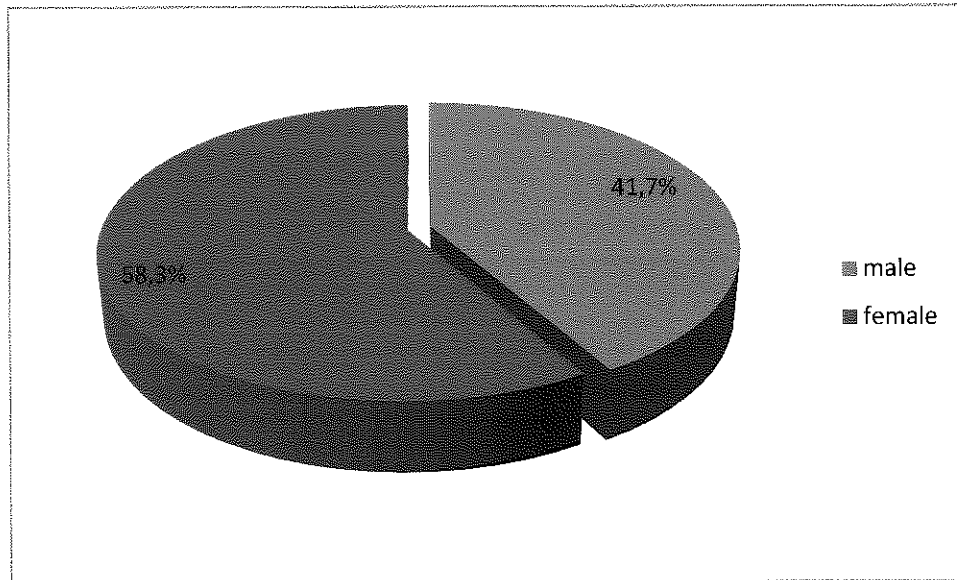


Figure 3.1. Distribution of Pre-service Teachers according to Their Gender

In this study, it has been observed that there are more females than males in The English Language Teaching Faculties Department at the chosen universities. In the sample group, 58.3% of pre-service teachers are females and 41.7% of pre-service teachers are males.

In table 3.2., distribution of pre-service teachers according to their academic success levels has been given. Academic success levels have been calculated out of 100 and they have been turned into point intervals.

Table 3.2. Distribution of Pre-service Teachers according to Their Academic Success Points

	Frequency	Percent	Valid P ercent	Cumulative Percent
Between 55-69 Points	12	20.0	20.0	20.0
Between 70-84 Points	37	61.7	61.7	81.7
Between 85-100 Points	11	18.3	18.3	100.0
Total	60	100.0	100.0	

In Figure 3.2., distribution of pre-service teachers according to their academic success levels is shown on the graph.

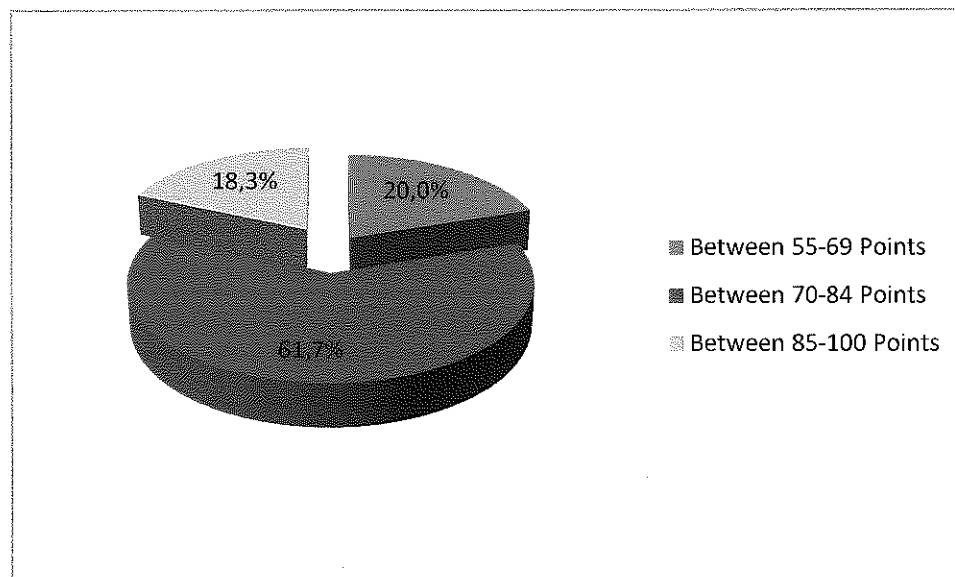


Figure 3.2. Percentage Distribution of Pre-service Teachers according to Their Academic Success Levels

It has been determined that academic success points of pre-service teachers in the sample group varies between 41.20 and 96.25 and the average academic success point is $76,0687 \pm 10,11067$. However, it has been observed that most of (59%) pre-service teachers' academic success point is between 70-84 points; 20.5% of pre-service teachers' success point is between 55-69 points and 20.5% of pre-service teachers' success point is between 85-100 points. In Table 3.3., distribution of pre-service teachers according to their preparatory class education (whether they studied or not) has been given.

Table 3.3. Distribution of Pre-service Teachers according to Their Preparatory Class Education (Whether They Attended or Not)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Attended in preparatory class	35	58,3	58,3	58,3
Not attended in preparatory class	25	41,7	41,7	100,0
Total	60	100,0	100,0	

In Figure 3.3., percentage distribution of pre-service teachers according to their preparatory class education has been shown.

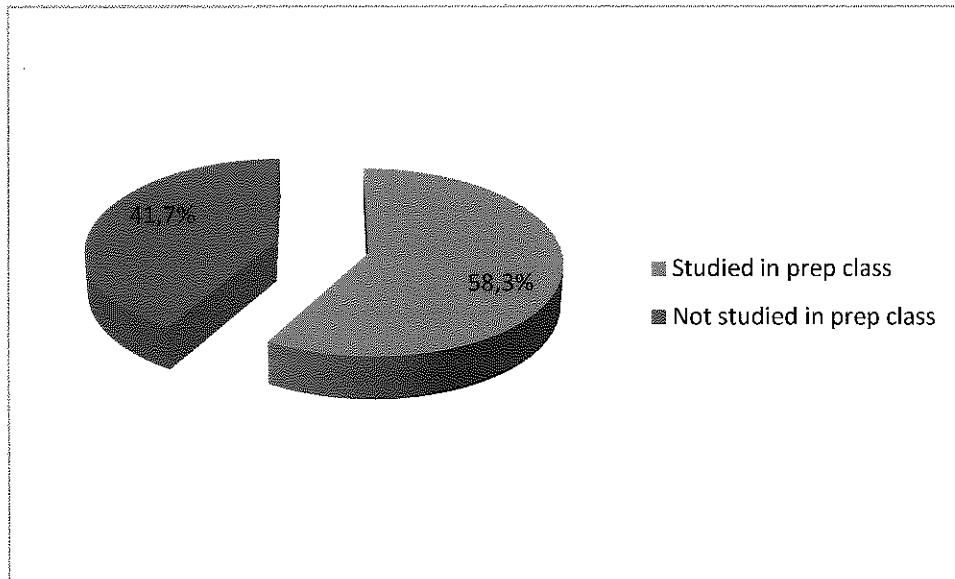


Figure 3.3. Percentage Distribution of Pre-service Teachers According to Their Preparatory Class Education (Whether They Attended or Not)

41.7% of pre-service teachers in the sample group are pre-service teachers that didn't attend in preparatory class and, 58.3% of them are pre-service teachers that attended in preparatory class.

In Table 3.4., the results of the hypothesis tests having to do with the analysis of variables such as academic success points, gender and preparatory class education has been given.

Table 3.4. Academic Success Level and Personal Features

Properties	Groups	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Test Statistic	Sig. (p)
Gender	Male	25	73,72	11,48975	-1,467 (t)	0,150
	Female	35	77,74	8,79158		
Preparatory Class Education	Attended in prep class	35	73,59	10,329	-2,387 (t)	0,020
	Haven't attended in prep class	25	79,53	8,871		

It has been determined that the mean academic success point ($77,74 \pm 8,79$) of female pre-service teachers was higher than the mean academic success point ($73,72 \pm 11,49$) of male pre-service teachers but statistically there is no significant difference ($t = -1,467$; $p = 0,150 > 0,05$) between the two groups' means. Another finding was that female pre-service teachers were more successful but there was no significant difference with male pre-service teachers.

It has been determined that there is a statistically significant difference between academic success points and pre-service teachers who studied in preparatory class or not ($t = -2,387$; $p = 0,020 < 0,05$).

After analyzing the personal features of pre-service teachers in the sample group, the strategies that pre-service teachers used in learning English have been analyzed.

3.1.2. Findings Regarding the Usage Frequencies of Strategies which Pre-service Teachers' in the Sample Group Used in Learning English

This part reviews the answers which English pre-service teachers in the sample group gave regarding usage frequency of strategy in the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning.. Frequency and percentage distributions of usage frequency of these strategies among choices for each strategy have been given in Table 3.5. Moreover, in this part, determining statistics in regard to points of lower dimensions (memory strategy usage frequency, cognitive strategy usage frequency, compensation strategy usage frequency, metacognitive strategy usage frequency, affective strategy usage frequency and social strategy usage frequency) in Strategic Inventory for Language Learning have been interpreted. In addition to that, results of hypothesis tests which were developed in regard to determine whether hypotheses such as “H₁: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' usage frequency of language learning strategies differs in regard to pre-service teachers' gender.”; “H₂: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' frequency of language learning strategies usage differs in regard to pre-service teachers' academic success levels.”; “H₃: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' frequency of language learning strategies usage differs in regard to their preparatory class education” supported or not, have been analyzed.

Strategy	strategy category	Mean \bar{x}	Std. Deviation (σ)	1		2		3		4		5	
				F	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	F	%
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	Metacognitive	4,2167	,90370	1	1,7	2	3,3	7	11,7	23	38,3	27	45
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	Compensation	4,1000	,81719	0	0	2	3,3	11	18,3	26	43,3	21	35
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	Metacognitive	4,0667	1,02290	1	1,7	2	3,3	17	28,3	12	20	28	46,7
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	Metacognitive	4,0500	,90993	0	0	4	6,7	11	18,3	23	38,3	22	36,7
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	Cognitive	3,9667	1,10418	2	3,3	5	8,3	10	16,7	19	31,7	24	40
1. I think of the relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	Memory	3,9333	,84104	1	1,7	0	0	17	28,3	26	43,3	16	26,7
38. I think about my progress in learning English.	Metacognitive	3,9167	1,01333	1	1,7	4	6,7	15	25	19	31,7	21	35
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	Social	3,8667	1,03280	1	1,7	6	10	12	20	22	36,7	19	31,7
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	Metacognitive	3,8500	,86013	0	0	5	8,3	12	20	30	50	13	21,7
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	Cognitive	3,8167	,91117	0	0	5	8,3	16	26,7	24	40	15	25
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	Metacognitive	3,8000	1,05445	2	3,3	5	8,3	13	21,7	23	38,3	17	28,3
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	Compensation	3,7667	1,07934	3	5	5	8,3	10	16,7	27	45	15	25
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	Social	3,7333	1,13297	2	3,3	8	13,3	12	20	20	33,3	18	30
3. I connect the sound of an English word and an image or picture of the world to help me remember the word.	Affective	3,7167	1,04300	1	1,7	8	13,3	13	21,7	23	38,3	15	25
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them	Memory	3,6500	1,00549	1	1,7	7	11,7	17	28,3	22	36,7	13	21,7
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.	Cognitive	3,6333	1,17843	5	8,3	4	6,7	14	23,3	22	36,7	15	25
16. I read for pleasure in English.	Cognitive	3,6167	1,12131	3	5	5	8,3	20	33,3	16	26,7	16	26,7
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	Compensation	3,6000	1,04476	1	1,7	8	13,3	19	31,7	18	30	14	23,3
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	Memory	3,5833	1,01333	2	3,3	6	10	18	30	23	38,3	11	18,3
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	Cognitive	3,5667	1,07934	2	3,3	9	15	14	23,3	23	38,3	12	20
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	Cognitive	3,5167	1,08130	1	1,7	11	18,3	17	28,3	18	30	13	21,7
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	Metacognitive	3,4833	1,04948	2	3,3	7	11,7	23	38,3	16	26,7	12	20
49. I ask questions in English.	Social	3,4833	1,08130	1	1,7	9	15	25	41,7	10	16,7	15	25
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.	Metacognitive	3,4500	1,19922	5	8,3	8	13,3	14	23,3	21	35	12	20
12. I practice the sounds of English.	Cognitive	3,4167	1,12433	2	3,3	14	23,3	11	18,3	23	38,3	10	16,7
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	Affective	3,4167	1,26614	7	11,7	4	6,7	21	35	13	21,7	15	25
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	Affective	3,4167	1,26614	5	8,3	9	15	18	30	12	20	16	26,7

Table 3.6 continue

Strategy	Strategy category	Mean (\bar{x})	Std. Deviation (σ)	1		2		3		4		5	
				F	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	F	%
13.	I use the English word I know in different ways.	3,833	,94046	1	1,7	10	16,7	20	33,3	23	38,3	6	10
9.	I remember the new words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	3,333	1,08404	5	8,3	5	8,3	23	38,3	19	31,7	8	13,3
19.	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	3,267	1,11791	2	3,3	14	23,3	21	35	12	20	11	18,3
21.	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	3,233	1,07934	4	6,7	9	15	24	40	15	25	8	13,3
26.	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	3,233	1,14042	6	10	6	10	25	41,7	14	23,3	9	15
47.	I practice my English with other students.	3,217	1,18023	7	11,7	7	11,7	20	33,3	18	30	8	13,3
8.	I review English lessons often.	3,200	1,16153	7	11,7	8	13,3	17	28,3	22	36,7	6	10
14.	I start conversations in English.	3,183	,98276	4	6,7	8	13,3	25	41,7	19	31,7	4	6,7
20.	I try to find patterns in English.	3,183	,96536	2	3,3	12	20	24	40	17	28,3	5	8,3
24.	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	3,183	,98276	2	3,3	13	21,7	22	36,7	18	30	5	8,3
28.	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	3,183	1,04948	5	8,3	8	13,3	23	38,3	19	31,7	5	8,3
10.	I say or write new English words several times.	3,133	1,28177	5	8,3	19	31,7	10	16,7	15	25	11	18,3
34.	I plan my schedule so I have enough time to study English.	3,083	1,38137	10	16,7	11	18,3	16	26,7	10	16,7	13	21,7
42.	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying English.	3,067	1,40056	10	16,7	14	23,3	10	16,7	14	23,3	12	20
48.	I ask for help from English speakers.	3,033	1,14931	6	10	15	25	15	25	19	31,7	5	8,3
44.	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	2,883	1,32884	12	20	12	20	15	25	13	21,7	8	13,3
46.	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	2,883	1,27680	8	13,3	20	33,3	11	18,3	13	21,7	8	13,3
7.	I physically act out new English words.	2,817	1,12734	9	15	14	23,3	19	31,7	15	25	3	5
41.	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	2,683	1,42009	19	31,7	9	15	10	16,7	16	26,7	6	10
5.	I use rhymes to remember new English words.	2,417	1,10916	14	23,3	19	31,7	18	30	6	10	3	5
6.	I use flashcards to remember new English words.	2,367	1,26178	21	35	11	18,3	17	28,3	7	11,7	4	6,7
43.	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	1,833	1,25099	37	61,7	7	11,7	9	15	3	5	4	6,7

Table 3.5. Usage Frequencies of Strategies that English Pre-service Teachers Use

They are coded as: 1: Almost Never, 2: Seldom, 3: Sometimes, 4: Usually, 5: Almost Always

Table 3.5. has been organized in a descending sort. High mean points out more frequent usage of related strategy. In the table, strategies on higher sorts are strategies which are used more frequently in English learning; in the table, strategies on lower sorts are strategies which are used less frequently in English learning.

*Numbers in front of questions show question numbers in “Strategy Inventory for Language Learning” questionnaire.

During the interpretation of means, strategies that have a mean between 1,00-2,33 have been handled as “seldom/almost never used strategies”, strategies that have a mean between 2,34-3,66 have been handled as “sometimes used strategies” and strategies that have a mean between 3,67-5,00 have been handled as “almost always used strategies”. According to this explanation, strategies that pre-service English teachers almost always used are as follows:

32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.

(Metacognitive) ($\bar{x} = 4.217 \pm 0.090370$)

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

(Compensation) ($\bar{x} = 4.10 \pm 0.81719$)

33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.

(Metacognitive) ($\bar{x} = 4.0667 \pm 1.02290$)

31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.

(Metacognitive) ($\bar{x} = 4.05 \pm 0.90993$)

15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.

(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.9667 \pm 1.10418$)

1. I think of the relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.

(Memory) ($\bar{x} = 3.9333 \pm 0.84104$)

38. I think about my progress in learning English.

(Metacognitive) ($\bar{x} = 2.0833 \pm 1.0133$)

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again. (Social) ($\bar{x} = 3.8667 \pm 1.03280$)

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.

(Metacognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.850 \pm 0.86013$)

18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully. (Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 2.1833 \pm 0.9117$)

37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.

(Metacognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.800 \pm 1.0544$)

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

(Compensation) ($\bar{x} = 3.7667 \pm 1.07934$)

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

(Social) ($\bar{x} = 3.7333 \pm 1.13297$)

3. I connect the sound of an English word and an image or picture of the world to help me remember the word. (Memory) ($\bar{x} = 3.7167 \pm 1.0430$)

It has been determined that 6 strategies are metacognitive strategies, 2 strategies are compensation strategies, 2 strategies are cognitive strategies, 2 strategies are memory strategies and 2 strategies are social strategies out of 14 strategies that pre-service teachers used most frequently in English learning. It has been interpreted that metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used strategies in English learning.

Strategies that pre-service English teachers sometimes used are as follows:

2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them

(Compensation) ($\bar{x} = 3.65 \pm 1.00549$)

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

(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.6333 \pm 1.17843$)

16. I read for pleasure in English.

(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.6167 \pm 1.21131$)

25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.

(Compensation) ($\bar{x} = 3.600 \pm 1.04476$)

4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used. (Memory) ($\bar{x} = 3.5833 \pm 1.0133$)

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

(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.5667 \pm 1.07934$)

17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.

(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.5167 \pm 1.0813$)

36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.

(Metacognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.4833 \pm 1.04948$)

49. I ask questions in English.

(Social) ($\bar{x} = 3.4833 \pm 1.08130$)

35. I look for people I can talk to in English.

(Metacognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.45 \pm 1.1992$)

12. I practice the sounds of English

(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.4167 \pm 1.12433$)

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.

(Affective) ($\bar{x} = 3.4167 \pm 1.26614$)

40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
(Affective) ($\bar{x} = 3.4167 \pm 1.26614$)
11. I try to talk like native English speakers
(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.40 \pm 1.10775$)
13. I use the English word I know in different ways.
(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.3833 \pm 0.94046$)
9. I remember the new words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign. (Memory) ($\bar{x} = 3.3333 \pm 1.08404$)
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English
(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.2667 \pm 1.1179$)
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.2333 \pm 1.07934$)
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
(Compensation) ($\bar{x} = 3.2333 \pm 1.14042$)
47. I practice my English with other students.
(Social) ($\bar{x} = 3.2667 \pm 1.18023$)
8. I review English lessons often
(Memory) ($\bar{x} = 3.20 \pm 1.16178$)
14. I start conversations in English.
(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.1833 \pm 0.98276$)
20. I try to find patterns in English
(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.1833 \pm 0.96536$)
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
(Compensation) ($\bar{x} = 3.1833 \pm 0.98276$)

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

(Compensation) ($\bar{x} = 3.1833 \pm 1.04948$)

10. I say or write new English words several times

(Cognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.1333 \pm 1.28177$)

34. I plan my schedule so I have enough time to study English

(Metacognitive) ($\bar{x} = 3.0833 \pm 1.38137$)

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

(Affective) ($\bar{x} = 3.0667 \pm 1.40056$)

48. I ask for help from English speakers

(Social) ($\bar{x} = 3.0333 \pm 1.14931$)

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

(Affective) ($\bar{x} = 2.8833 \pm 1.32884$)

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

(Social) ($\bar{x} = 2.8833 \pm 1.27680$)

7. I physically act out new English words

(Memory) ($\bar{x} = 2.8167 \pm 1.1273$)

41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.

(Affective) ($\bar{x} = 2.6833 \pm 1.42009$)

5. I use rhymes to remember new English words

(Memory) ($\bar{x} = 2.4167 \pm 1.10916$)

6. I use flashcards to remember new English words

(Memory) ($\bar{x} = 2.3667 \pm 1.26178$)

It has been determined that 12 strategies are cognitive strategies, 7 strategies are memory strategies, 5 strategies are affective strategies, 4 strategies are social strategies, 3

strategies are metacognitive strategies and 4 strategies are compensation strategies out of 35 strategies that pre-service teachers used most frequently in English learning. It has been interpreted that cognitive strategies are the most primarily used strategies in English learning.

Strategies that English pre-service teachers used seldom in English learning are as follows:

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

(Affective) ($\bar{x} = 1.8333 \pm 1.25099$)

It has been determined that the other strategy that pre-service teachers used in English learning was affective strategy. The least used strategy by pre-service teachers was to write down feelings in a language learning diary.

A point has been calculated for lower dimensions in regard to learning English for each student in the sample group. Determining statistics related to sorted point types such as memory strategy usage points (between 9-45 points), cognitive strategy usage points (between 14-70 points), compensation strategy usage points (between 6-30 points), metacognitive strategy usage points (between 9-45 points), affective strategy usage points (6-30 points), social strategy usage points (6-30 points) have been given in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6. Lower Dimension Points Statistics Related to Strategies Used in Learning Language

	Usage Points of Memory Strategy	Usage Points of Cognitive Strategy	Usage Points of Compensation Strategy	Usage Points of Metacognitive Strategy	Usage Points of Affective Strategy	Usage Points of Social Strategy
N Valid	60	60	60	60	60	60
Mean	29,0167	48,3167	21,0667	33,9167	17,3000	20,2167
Median	30,0000	49,0000	21,0000	34,0000	18,0000	20,0000
Mode	30,00 ^a	49,00	21,00	34,00	19,00	20,00
Std. Deviation	5,73863	7,08422	3,55044	5,92979	4,64794	4,69797
Minimum	19,00	33,00	13,00	17,00	7,00	11,00
Maximum	40,00	63,00	30,00	44,00	30,00	30,00

Memory strategy usage points differ between 19-40 and that's because its mean is 29.0167 ± 5.738 . It shows that usage of these strategies is in an "above average" group. Cognitive strategy usage points differ between 33-63 and that's because its mean is 48.3167 ± 7.0842 . It shows that usage of these strategies is in an "above average" group. Compensation strategy usage points differ between 13-30 and that's because its mean is 21.00 ± 3.5504 . It shows that usage of these strategies is in an "above average" group. Metacognitive strategy usage points differ between 17-44 and that's because its mean is 33.9167 ± 5.92979 . It shows that usage of these strategies is in an "above average" group. Affective strategy usage points differ between 7-30 and that's because its mean is 17.30 ± 4.6479 . It shows that usage of these strategies is in an "above average" group. Social strategy usage points differ between 11-30 and that's because its mean is 20.2167 ± 4.698 . It shows that usage of these strategies is in an "above average" group. It is apparent that usage frequencies of all the strategy groups in language learning are mostly in an "above average" group.

After analyzing usage frequencies of strategy groups used in language learning in general, frequencies considering pre-service teachers' features in the sample group such as gender, academic success level and education in preparation class, have been analyzed. In table 3.7., results of the hypothesis tests used in these analyses have been given.

Table 3.7. Analyzing of Strategy Lower Dimension Points according to Personal Features

	N	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
Male	25	28,48	48,40	21,160	32,360	16,48	19,12
Female	35	29,40	48,26	21,00	35,028	17,885	21,00
Test Statistics (t)		-,615	,076	,169	-1,697	-1,136	-1,557
Sig. (p)		,541	,940	,866	,096	,262	,125
Between Points 55-69	12	28,75	45,25	19,75	31,08	16,83	22,17
Between Points 70-84	37	28,32	48,08	21,24	32,24	17,27	18,81
Between Points 85-100	11	31,64	52,45	21,90	39,27	17,30	19,14
Test Statistics (F)		1,450	3,252	1,188	7,423	,151	,675
Sig. (p)		,243	0,046*	,312	0,001*	,860	,513
Attended in prep class	35	28,03	48,09	21,00	32,46	16,74	19,17
Not attended in prep class	25	30,40	48,64	21,16	35,96	18,08	20,19
Test Statistics (t)	-1,583	-0,299	-0,167	-2,354	-1,041	-0,676	21,45
Sig. (p)		,120	,766	,868	,022*	,304	,502

*Means related to points types in the relevant column differs significantly between groups in relevant lines ($p < 0,05$).

Obtained findings according to Table 3.7. are as follows:

- Strategy usage frequencies in all lower dimensions of the pre-service teachers of English Language Teaching Department statistically don't differ significantly according to their gender ($p > 0,05$). As for that, findings, which support one of the

hypotheses in the research which is “H₁: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers’ usage frequencies of language learning strategies differ in regard to their gender.”, couldn’t have been supported.

- Language learning strategies usage frequencies of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers in cognitive and metacognitive strategies lower dimension, differ significantly according to academic success levels ($F=3.252$; $p = 0.046 < 0.05$ and $F=7.423$; $p=0.001 < 0.05$) pre-service teachers are in. As for that, for cognitive and metacognitive strategies, findings have been obtained which support “H₂: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers’ usage frequencies of language learning strategies differ in regard to their academic success levels” hypothesis which tested in the research. Post Hoc Scheffe tests have been implemented with the intent of determining that there are differences between which two academic success level groups in cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

- According to the results of these tests;
 - Pre-service teachers whose academic success levels are between 85-100, compared to the ones whose academic success levels are between 70-84 ($p=0.008 < 0.05$) and also compared to the ones whose academic success levels are between 55-59 ($p=0.003 < 0.05$), use metacognitive strategies more frequently with statistically significant differences (differences between means are 6.03 and 8.19).

- Compared to the ones whose academic success levels are between 55-59, pre-service teachers whose academic success levels are between 85-100 use cognitive strategies more frequently with statistically significant differences (difference between means is 7.20).

- Language learning strategies usage frequencies of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers only in metacognitive strategies lower dimension, differ significantly according to pre-service teachers' education in preparatory class ($p=0.022 < 0.05$). As for that, for only metacognitive strategies, findings have been obtained which support "H₃: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' usage frequencies of language learning strategies differ in regard to their preparatory class education" hypothesis which tested in the research. As a result, analyzing mean values related to relevant lower dimension points, finds that pre-service teachers who didn't have preparatory class education use metacognitive strategies having statistically significant differences compared to the pre-service teachers who had preparatory class education.

Correlation analysis has also been utilised alternatively to Table 3.7.in analyzing relations between academic success levels and strategies usage frequency in learning English. Relations between these points and strategy lower dimension points have been analyzed with correlation analysis by not grouping academic success levels but by taking points directly. Results of this analysis have been given in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8. Relations between Academic Success Points and Strategy Lower Dimension Points

		Academic Success Points
Memory	r	0,114
	p	0,384
Cognitive	r	0,272
	p	0,036*
Memory	r	0,189
	p	0,149
Metacognitive	r	0,426
	p	0,001*
Affective	r	0,119
	p	0,366
Social	r	0,243
	p	0,061

*The relation between the two point types is statistically significant.

In regard to Table 3.8.; positive oriented and statistical correlations are found between academic success level points and memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social lower dimension strategy usage frequencies. In other words, when the usage of cognitive and metacognitive strategies gets higher, pre-service teachers' academic success level points statistically get higher, too. Findings support "H₂: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' usage frequency of language learning strategies differ in regard to pre-service teachers' academic success levels" hypothesis which is tested in the research, for only metacognitive strategies before, have been obtained. As a result of correlation analysis, findings support this hypothesis for cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

After analyzing strategies, pre-service teachers in the sample group first used them generally and then according to personal features. The language learning attitudes of pre-service teachers have been analyzed.

3.1.3. Findings in Regard to English Learning Attitudes of Pre-service Teachers in the Sample Group

In this part, the answers of the pre-service English teachers in the sample group in regard to their level of agreement with the statements in The Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire have been evaluated. Frequency and percentage distributions of answers among choices (strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, strongly agree) to these statements have been given in Table 3.9. Along with this, determining statistics in regard to points relating to lower dimensions in The Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire (self image, inhibition, risk taking, ego permeability and ambiguity) have been interpreted. In addition to this, results of hypothesis tests aimed to determine whether hypotheses such as “H₅: Levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers differ according to their academic success levels.”, “H₆: Levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers differ according to their preparatory class education” support or not, have been analyzed.

Table 3.9 Answers of the Pre-service teachers to the Statements in Regard to Their English Learning Attitudes

Attitudes Questions	Mean (\bar{X})	Std. Deviation (σ)	0		2		4		6		8	
			f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
19. You should say "yes" if you mean yes and "no" if you mean no. Not to do so is dishonest.	6,5667	1,65054	0	,0	1	1,7	11	18,3	18	30,0	30	50,0
5. I think that I could learn pretty much any language I really put my mind to, given the right circumstances.	6,5333	1,76084	1	1,7	2	3,3	5	8,3	24	40,0	28	46,7
12. I like getting to know people from other countries, in general.	6,4000	1,59661	0	,0	1	1,7	11	18,3	23	38,3	25	41,7
20. You have to understand people's culture and value system before you can be sure whether some things are right or wrong.	6,4000	1,63852	0	,0	1	1,7	12	20,0	21	35,0	26	43,3
13. Speaking the language of the community where I'll be living will let me help people more than I could otherwise.	6,2333	1,65054	2	3,3	5	8,3	35	58,3	18	30,0	60	100,0
15. I think the people of the country where I'll be living would like for me to learn their language.	6,1667	1,73856	0	,0	2	3,3	14	23,3	21	35,0	23	38,3
17. There is a right and a wrong way to do almost everything, and I think it's my duty to figure out which is which and do it right.	6,1000	1,66418	0	,0	1	1,7	16	26,7	22	36,7	21	35,0
18. It annoys me when people don't give me a clear-cut answer, but just beat around the bush.	5,9333	1,68610	0	,0	1	1,7	19	31,7	21	35,0	19	31,7
4. I don't have any idea about how to go about learning a language.	5,8667	2,07868	3	5,0	2	3,3	10	16,7	26	43,3	19	31,7
16. I won't really be able to get to know people well if I don't speak their language.	5,8000	2,04027	1	1,7	6	10,0	10	16,7	24	40,0	19	31,7
3. My language learning aptitude is probably pretty high.	5,7000	1,72027	0	,0	4	6,7	15	25,0	27	45,0	14	23,3
11. It is a mark of respect to people to learn their language if you're living in their country.	5,7000	1,83469	1	1,7	3	5,0	15	25,0	26	43,3	15	25,0
26. I want to have everything worked out in my own head before I answer.	5,7000	2,04442	3	5,0	2	3,3	12	20,0	27	45,0	16	26,7
21. I like to mimic other accents, and people say I do it well.	5,6333	2,19373	3	5,0	3	5,0	15	25,0	20	33,3	19	31,7
23. I find it easy to "put myself in other people's shoes" and imagine how they feel.	5,6333	1,93072	1	1,7	4	6,7	16	26,7	23	38,3	16	26,7
1. I think I'm a pretty good language learner.	5,6000	1,87038	2	3,3	2	3,3	15	25,0	28	46,7	13	21,7
9. I find it hard to make conversation even with people who speak my own language.	5,3000	2,23455	2	3,3	8	13,3	15	25,0	19	31,7	16	26,7
14. I don't like the idea of relying on speaking English (or my mother tongue) in another country	5,0333	2,37192	5	8,3	6	10,0	15	25,0	21	35,0	13	21,7
7. I'm afraid people will laugh at me if I don't say things right	4,9333	2,83959	9	15,0	6	10,0	12	20,0	14	23,3	19	31,7
27. I'd call myself a risk-taker	4,4667	2,18986	5	8,3	8	13,3	22	36,7	18	30,0	7	11,7
24. In school, if I didn't know an answer for sure, I'd sometimes answer out loud in class anyway.	4,4333	2,01996	4	6,7	8	13,3	24	40,0	19	31,7	5	8,3
25. I often think out loud, trying out my ideas on other people.	4,3000	2,04442	2	3,3	13	21,7	27	45,0	10	16,7	8	13,3
6. I worry a lot about making mistakes.	4,2667	2,37120	6	10,0	13	21,7	15	25,0	19	31,7	7	11,7
22. I can do impersonations of famous people.	4,2333	1,91662	3	5,0	11	18,3	26	43,3	16	26,7	4	6,7
2. Learning a language may be important to my goals, but I don't expect it to be much fun.	4,1667	2,61136	8	13,3	14	23,3	13	21,7	15	25,0	10	16,7
8. I end up trembling and practically in a cold sweat when I have to talk in front of people	4,1000	2,39845	6	10,0	16	26,7	14	23,3	17	28,3	7	11,7
10. I feel a resistance from within when I try to speak in a foreign language, even if I've practiced.	3,8000	2,20015	6	10,0	17	28,3	18	30,0	15	25,0	4	6,7

* The numbers in front of the questions show the numbers of the questions in the questionnaire.

During the interpretation of means, statements which had means between 0.00-2.66 have been handled as "statements with low agreement", statements which had means between 2.67-5.33 have been handled as "statements with average agreement", and statements which had means between 5.34-8.00 have been handled as "statements with high agreement".

According to this explanation, statements with high agreement related to English learning attitudes of English pre-service teachers are as follows:

19. You should say "yes" if you mean yes and "no" if you mean no. Not to do so is dishonest ($\bar{x} = 6.5667 \pm 1.6505$)

5. I think that I could learn pretty much any language I really put my mind to, given the right circumstances ($\bar{x} = 6.5333 \pm 1.76084$)

12. I like getting to know people from other countries, in general.
($\bar{x} = 6.400 \pm 1.59661$)

20. You have to understand peoples' culture and value system before you can be sure whether some things are right or wrong ($\bar{x} = 6.400 \pm 1.63852$)

13. Speaking the language of the community where I'll be living will let me help people more than I could otherwise ($\bar{x} = 6.2333 \pm 1.65054$)

15. I think the people of the country where I'll be living would like for me to learn their language ($\bar{x} = 6.1667 \pm 1.7385$)

17. There is a right and a wrong way to do almost everything, and I think it's my duty to figure out which is which and do it right ($\bar{x} = 6.100 \pm 1.66418$)

18. It annoys me when people don't give me a clear-cut answer, but just beat around the bush ($\bar{x}=5.9333 \pm 1.6861$)
4. I don't have any idea about how to go about learning a language ($\bar{x} = 5.8667 \pm 2.07868$)
16. I won't really be able to get to know people well if I don't speak their language ($\bar{x} = 5.800 \pm 2.04027$)
3. My language learning aptitude is probably pretty high ($\bar{x} = 5.700 \pm 1.72027$)
11. It is a mark of respect to people to learn their language if you're living in their country ($\bar{x} = 5.700 \pm 1.83469$)
26. I want to have everything worked out in my own head before I answer ($\bar{x} = 5.700 \pm 2.04442$)
21. I like to mimic other accents and people say I do it well ($\bar{x} = 5.6333 \pm 2.19373$)
23. I find it easy to "put myself in other people's shoes" and imagine how they feel ($\bar{x} = 5.6333 \pm 1.93072$)
1. I think I'm a pretty good language learner ($\bar{x} = 5.600 \pm 1.87038$)

Statements with average agreement related to English learning attitudes of pre-service English teachers are as follows:

9. I find it hard to make conversation even with people who speak my own language ($\bar{x} = 5.300 \pm 2.23455$)
14. I don't like the idea of relying on speaking English (or my mother tongue) in another country ($\bar{x} = 5.0333 \pm 2.37192$)
7. I'm afraid people will laugh at me if I don't say things right ($\bar{x} = 4.9333 \pm 2.83959$)

27. I'd call myself a risk-taker ($\bar{x} = 4.4667 \pm 2.18986$)
24. In school, if I didn't know an answer for sure, I'd sometimes answer out loud in class anyway ($\bar{x} = 4.4333 \pm 2.01996$)
25. I often think out loud, trying out my ideas on other people ($\bar{x} = 4.300 \pm 2.04442$)
6. I worry a lot about making mistakes ($\bar{x} = 4.2667 \pm 2.37120$)
22. I can do impersonations of famous people ($\bar{x} = 4.2333 \pm 1.91662$)
2. Learning a language may be important to my goals, but I don't expect it to be much fun ($\bar{x} = 4.1667 \pm 2.61136$)
8. I end up trembling and practically in a cold sweat when I have to talk in front of people ($\bar{x} = 3.900 \pm 2.39845$)
10. I feel a resistance from within when I try to speak in a foreign language, even if I've practiced ($\bar{x} = 3.800 \pm 2.20015$)

Any statements with low agreement related to English learning attitudes of English pre-service teachers haven't been detected.

A score has been calculated for each student in the sample group for lower dimensions in regard to the answers they gave in the language learning scale. Points related to these lower dimensions are ranked as Self Image, Inhibition, Risk Taking, Ego Permeability and Ambiguity. There are 8 items in each lower dimension and points differ between 0-64. During the calculation of these points, for statements that state negative opinions and sorted as "4. I don't have any idea about how to go about learning a language", "6. I worry a lot about making mistakes", "7. I'm afraid people will laugh at me if I don't say things right", "8. I end up trembling and practically in a cold sweat when I have to talk in front of people", "9. I find it hard to make

conversation even with people who speak my own language” and “10.

I feel a resistance from within when I try to speak in a foreign language, even if I've practiced”, points have been handled as 0: Strongly Agree, 2: Agree, 4: Neither Agree nor Disagree, 6: Disagree and 8: Strongly Disagree by coding them adversely. Determining statistics related to calculated lower dimension points have been given in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10. Statistics Related to Language Learning Lower Dimension Points

	Self-image	Inhibition	Risk Taking	Ego Permeability	Ambiguity
N	60	60	60	60	60
Mean	40,167	38,233	43,700	44,533	46,833
Median	40,000	38,000	42,000	46,000	47,000
Mode	38,000	38,000	42,000	48,000	44,000
Std. Deviation	5,975	7,734	7,436	6,868	6,702
Minimum	28,000	20,000	26,000	32,000	32,000
Maximum	54,000	54,000	64,000	62,000	62,000

According to point means sorted as Self Image ($\bar{x} = 40.167 \pm 5.975$), Inhibition ($\bar{x} = 38.233 \pm 7.734$), Risk Taking ($\bar{x} = 43.700 \pm 7.436$), Ego Permeability ($\bar{x} = 44.533 \pm 6.868$) and Ambiguity ($\bar{x} = 46.833 \pm 6.702$) it has been found that attitude took part in “above average” positive levels in all language learning attitude lower dimensions. As for that, it can be said that the English learning attitudes of the pre-service teachers in the sample group are at a highly positive level. In Figure 3.4., the graph which includes these means has been given.

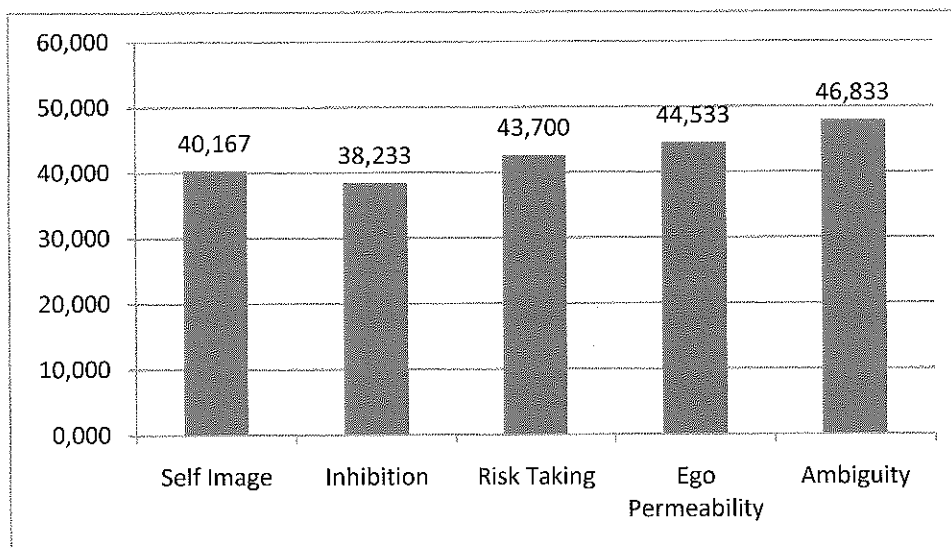


Figure 3.4 English Learning Attitude Lower Dimension Point Means

In Figure 3.4., as can be seen, the lower dimension which has the highest point mean among English learning attitudes, the lower dimension points of pre-service teachers in the sample group is “ambiguity”. Point means related to ego permeability, risk taking, self image lower dimensions follow this in that rank. It is stated that “inhibition” is the lower dimension which has the least points among English learning attitudes lower dimension points of pre-service teachers in the sample group. As for that, it can be interpreted that English learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers are sorted from most positive to least positive as: ambiguity, permeability, risk taking, self image and inhibition.

After analyzing pre-service teachers’ English learning attitudes in general, they have been analyzed taking into consideration pre-service teachers’ features such as gender, academic success level and preparation class education. In Table 3.11, results of hypothesis used in these analyses have been given.

Table 3.11. Analysis of Attitude Lower Dimension Points according to Personal Features

	N	Self Image	Inhibition	Risk Taking	Ego Permeability	Ambiguity
Male	25	42,72	40,80	44,96	45,12	45,84
Female	35	38,34	36,40	42,80	44,11	47,54
Test Statistics (t)		2,978	2,186	1,11	0,578	-0,970
Sig. (p)		0,004*	0,034*	0,268	0,566	0,354
Between Points	55-69	39,50	37,83	39,83	41,17	43,00
Between Points	70-84	39,89	38,05	44,86	44,59	47,24
Between Points	85-100	41,81	39,27	44,00	48,00	49,64
Test Statistics (F)		0,525	0,122	2,168	3,041	3,219
Sig. (p)		0,594	0,886	0,124	0,056	0,047
Attended in prep class	35	41,49	34,64	45,09	44,06	45,77
Haven't attend in prep class	25	38,32	40,80	41,76	45,20	48,32
Test Statistics (t)		2,080	3,202	1,671	-,603	-1,538
Sig. (p)		0,042*	0,002*	0,102	0,550	0,130

*Means in regard to the relevant column statistically differ significantly among groups in each relevant line.

According to Table 3.11, findings are as follows:

- English learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers in “self image” and “inhibition” dimensions differ significantly according to their gender ($t= 2.978$; $p= 0.0040 < 0.05$; $t= 2.186$; $p=0.034$) . It has been stated that English learning attitudes of male pre-service teachers in the self image dimension ($\bar{x} = 42.72$) are more positive than English learning attitudes of female pre-service teachers in self image dimension ($\bar{x} = 38.34$) with a statistically significant difference.

It has been stated that English learning attitudes of male pre-service teachers in the inhibition dimension ($\bar{x}=40.80$), are more positive than English learning attitudes of female pre-service teachers in the inhibition dimension ($\bar{x}=36.40$) with a statistically significant difference. According to this, findings, only support “H₄: Levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers differ according to their gender” hypothesis which is one of the tested hypotheses and this research has obtained.

- English learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers statistically don't differ significantly in any of the lower dimensions according to their academic success levels ($p>0.05$). As for that, any findings support “H₅: levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers differ according to their academic success levels” hypothesis, which is one of the tested hypotheses in this research, results haven't been affirmed. The hypothesis is not supported.
- English learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers in “self image” and “inhibition” dimensions differ significantly according to their education in preparatory class ($t=2.080$; $p=0.0042$ and $t=3.202$; $p=0.002<0.05$). It has been found that the English learning attitudes of pre-service teachers who had preparation class education in the self image dimension ($\bar{x}=41.49$) were more positive than the English learning attitudes of pre-service teachers who didn't have a preparation class

in the self image dimension ($\bar{x} = 38.32$) with a statistically significant difference.

It has been found that the English learning attitudes of pre-service teachers who didn't have preparation class education in the inhibition dimension ($\bar{x} = 40.86$) were more positive than the English learning attitudes of pre-service teachers who had preparation class in the inhibition dimension ($\bar{x} = 34.64$) with a statistically significant difference. These findings support "H₆: Levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers differ according to their preparatory class education" hypothesis, which is one of the tested hypotheses in this research. The results have been affirmed. The hypothesis is supported.

Correlation analyses are also utilised alternatively in Table 3.11 by analyzing relationships between levels of academic success and development relating to English learning attitudes. Relationships between these points and all lower dimension points by not grouping (as between 55-69 points) but by directly taking points, have been analyzed with correlation analysis. Results of this analysis are given in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12 Relationships between Academic Success Points and Attitude Lower Dimension Points

		Academic Success Points
Self Image	r	0,133
	p	0,312
Inhibition	r	-0,025
	p	0,849
Risk Taking	r	0,225
	p	0,084
Ego Permeability	r	0,356
	p	0,005*
Ambiguity	r	0,341
	p	0,008*

According to Table 3.12, statistically significant differences between academic success levels and English learning attitudes in the “ego-permeability” and “ambiguity” dimensions ($p= 0.005 < 0.05$ and $p= 0.008 < 0.05$). As for these findings, they support “H₃: Levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers differ according to pre-service teachers’ academic success levels” hypothesis which is one of the tested hypotheses in this research, have also been obtained by correlation analysis. As a result, levels of development have been reached according to the English learning attitudes of pre-service teachers, effecting academic levels in ego-permeability and ambiguity dimensions to a similar degree.

After analyzing the language learning attitudes of pre-service teachers in the sample group in general at first and then relationships between the frequency of language usage and learning strategies and levels of development related to language learning attitude. A thorough analysis has been completed.

3.1.4. Findings of the Relationships Between the Usage Frequencies of Language Learning Strategies of Pre-service teachers in Sample Group and Levels of Development Regarding Language Learning Attitudes

In this part, binary correlation analysis between points regarding lower dimensions in the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (memory strategy usage frequency, cognitive strategy usage frequency, compensation strategy usage frequency, metacognitive strategy usage frequency, affective strategy usage frequency and social strategy usage frequency) and points regarding lower dimensions in the Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire (self image, inhibition, risk taking, ego-permeability and ambiguity) have been done. These findings support “H₇: There is a significant relationship between the usage frequency of language learning strategies and the levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers” hypothesis, which is one of the tested hypotheses in this research, results have been obtained. The hypothesis is supported. In Table 3.13, the results of the correlation analysis are given.

Table 3.13. Relationships between Strategy Lower Dimension Points and Attitude Lower Dimension Points

*Relationships between two points are statistically significant.

		Self-Image	Inhibition	Risk Taking	Ego Permeability	Ambiguity
Memory	R	,115	-,112	,242	,260 [*]	,280 [*]
	P	,383	,393	,063	,045 [*]	,030 [*]
Cognitive	R	,383 ^{**}	,235	,451 ^{**}	,440 ^{**}	,496 ^{**}
	P	,003 [*]	,071	,000 [*]	,000 [*]	,000 [*]
Compensation	R	,364 ^{**}	,050	,365 ^{**}	,495 ^{**}	,389 ^{**}
	P	,004 [*]	,704	,004 [*]	,000 [*]	,002 [*]
Metacognitive	R	,265 [*]	,030	,242	,478 ^{**}	,346 ^{**}
	P	,040 [*]	,820	,063	,000 [*]	,007 [*]
Affective	R	,126	-,076	,389 ^{**}	,404 ^{**}	,406 ^{**}
	P	,336	,561	,002 [*]	,001 [*]	,001 [*]
Social	R	,185	,063	,459 ^{**}	,354 ^{**}	,247
	P	,158	,633	,000 [*]	,006 [*]	,057

- It is determined that there is a statistically significant ($p= 0.045 < 0.05$; $p= 0.030 < 0.05$) and positive ($r= 0.260 > 0$; $r= 0.280 > 0$) relationship between memory strategy usage frequency and the levels of development in language learning attitudes in the “ego-permeability” and “ambiguity” dimensions.
- It is determined that there is a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and positive ($r > 0$) relationship between the level of development in language learning attitudes and cognitive strategy usage frequency in the “ego-permeability”, “self image” and “risk taking” dimensions.

- It is determined that there is a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and positive ($r > 0$) relationship between the level of development in language learning attitudes and compensation strategy usage frequency in the “ego-permeability”, “self image”, “risk taking” and “ambiguity” dimensions.
- It is determined that there is a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and positive ($r > 0$) relationship between the level of development in language learning attitudes and metacognitive strategy usage frequency in the “ego-permeability”, “self image” and “ambiguity” dimensions.
- It is determined that there is a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and positive ($r > 0$) relationship between the level of development in language learning attitudes and affective strategy usage frequency in the “ego-permeability”, “ambiguity” and “risk taking” dimensions.
- It is determined that there is a statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) and positive ($r > 0$) relationship between the level of development in language learning attitudes and social strategy usage frequency in the “ego-permeability” and “risk taking” dimensions.

According to the findings sorted above, it has been found that strategy usage in all the lower dimensions has been related to at least one language learning attitude lower dimension, so, this supports “H₇: There is a significant relationship between the usage frequencies of language learning strategies and levels of development in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-

service teachers” hypothesis. However, it is remarkable that the “inhibition” lower dimension which takes part among language learning attitudes lower dimensions has no significant relationship with any of the strategy lower dimensions in any way.

It is also remarkable that relationships between language learning attitudes, development levels and memory strategy usage frequency are not statistically significant and it is negative. With the evaluation of relationships between strategy lower dimension scores and attitude lower dimension scores in general, it has been found that when strategy usage frequency gets higher, the levels of development in language learning attitudes has changed in a positive way.

DISCUSSION

The language learning strategies and learners' attitudes have been researched in the English Language Teaching Department at Maltepe University and Aydin University within the scope of this study. Two questionnaires were distributed to the pre-service teachers which are The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, developed by Oxford (1990) and The Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaires developed by Summer Institute of Linguistics. Through the results of the questionnaires, usage frequency of language learning strategies and learning attitudes are evaluated with the help of the SPSS 18.0 package program.

The impact of using language learning strategies and language learning attitudes on academic success of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' is evaluated in the study. Before distributing the questionnaires to the pre-service teachers', they were asked to answer some personal questions;

- such as gender (25 male / 35 female),
- whether they attended a preparatory class or not (35 of them attended preparatory class / 25 of them did not attend preparatory class)
- grades of academic success (55 – 69 points = 12 pre-service teachers / 70 – 84 points = 37 pre-service teachers / 85 – 100 points = 11 pre-service teachers).

The relationship between academic success and gender of the pre-service teachers', also attending a preparatory class or not is as follows;

Firstly, differences of gender and academic success are evaluated. According to the academic success of pre-service teachers', it is observed that pre-service female teachers are more successful than pre-service male teachers. However, the differences between female and males' academic success scores are not significant in regard to the statistical analysis.

It is claimed that there are significant differences between pre-service teachers' who attended the preparatory class and who didn't attend, according to the academic success of pre-service teachers. Results of the analysis show that the academic grades of pre-service teachers who didn't attend the preparatory class (79.53 ± 8.87) are higher than the academic grades of pre-service teachers who attended the preparatory class (73.59 ± 10.32). It is claimed that pre-service teachers who didn't attend preparatory class are more successful than pre-service teachers who attended preparatory class in regard to these results of statistical analysis.

Through assessing the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire, it is indicated that metacognitive strategies are used most frequently by pre-service teachers. In addition to this, cognitive strategies are sometimes used strategies; also affective strategies are used least frequently by pre-service teachers.

In accordance with the questionnaires in the research, it is put forth that frequency usage of "cognitive, metacognitive, affective, social, memory and compensation strategies" are in an "above average" group.

In line with the hypotheses, the results of statistical analysis are expounded as follows;

H₁: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' usage frequency of language learning strategies differs in regard to their gender.

According to analysis of strategy lower dimension points, "English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' usage frequency of language learning strategies differs in regard to their gender." hypothesis is not supported. Female pre-service teachers are more successful in academic grades but there is no significant statistical difference with male pre-service teachers.

The results of the research correspond to some of the academic studies' results in literature. Karamanoğlu (2005) states that there is no significant difference between usage frequency of language learning strategies and gender of learners while doing research with German language teachers and also Tabanlıoğlu (2003) indicates that learners' genders do not affect usage frequency of the language learning strategies.

While trying to determine whether there are any differences between language learning strategies of female and male participants, Tabanlıoğlu (2003:48-77) carried out a study on the relationship between learning styles and language learning strategies of pre-intermediate English for Academic Purposes participants at the University of Bahçeşehir. Two different inventories are used in order to identify their learning styles and language learning strategies. The results showed that the participants mostly preferred auditory and individual learning styles. Moreover, it has been found that males prefer tactile learning more than females. In the point of language learning strategies, the study revealed that most of the participants use

cognitive strategies. In addition the results showed that there is no significant difference between the strategy preferences in terms of gender.

The study of Griffiths (2003:367-382) on the relationship between course level and reported frequency of language learning strategy used by speakers of other languages showed that there are not significant differences according to the sex or age of the participants while there are significant differences according to their nationalities. On the contrary, the present research revealed evidence to support the idea that the frequency of the language learning strategy usage differs according to the learners' ages. 348 participants between the ages of 14 and 64 from a private language school were involved in Griffith's study. Elementary participants used only three strategies while advanced participants use nine times more strategies than elementary participants. It is demonstrated that advanced students employ more language learning strategies than other levels. Agreeing with the results of Griffiths' study and Tabanlıoğlu's study, the present research showed no evidence to support the idea that there are significant differences in the use of the language learning strategies according to the learners' genders.

Cesur (2008) and Yalçın (2006) confirm that female students who study in preparatory class use language learning strategies more frequently than male students. In addition to this, Özdemir (2004) approves that female students also use strategies more frequently than male students in high school. It is showed that these findings differ from the study.

The first hypothesis is analyzed and discussed, whether usage frequency of language learning strategies differs according to genders of learners’.

H₂: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers’ usage frequency of language learning strategies differs in regard to their academic success levels.

After comparing with pre-service teachers’ academic grades and genders, the result as observed, is that pre-service female teachers are more successful than pre-service male teachers. In the second hypothesis, usage frequency of language learning strategies and academic success levels are analyzed. As for that, according to statistical analysis, it is found that there is a significant difference in metacognitive and cognitive strategies’ usage frequency.

Pre-service teachers who get between 85 – 100 points in cumulative grade point average (CGPA) use metacognitive strategies more frequently than pre-service teachers who get between 70 – 84 and 55 – 69 points in CGPA. Furthermore, pre-service teachers who get between 85 – 100 points in CGPA use cognitive strategies more frequently than other pre-service teachers. It is understood that the use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies helps to develop academic success levels of pre-service teachers.

In the research of Lan and Oxford that (2005), Fleming and Walls (1998) examined foreign language learning strategies of six “good language learners” in two mainstream secondary schools in a British city. Foreign language learning tasks are

completed by the pupils who also participated in semi-structured interviews about the learning strategies they used. Analysis results showed that the pre-service teachers' employed metacognitive strategies, especially planning, and cognitive strategies for understanding and using the language.

Lan and Oxford (2005) support the findings of the second hypothesis, also they add that taking notice of being aware of cognitive and metacognitive strategies' usage affect the academic success levels and language learning.

In terms of learner factors such as age, aptitude, intelligence and language learning strategies, and strategy use in foreign language learning, Yılmaz (2001:72) carried out a study which investigates the relationship between the strategies and proficiency level of the postgraduate preparatory school at Dokuz Eylül University. The scholar found that the mostly used strategies are cognitive strategies. The study revealed a positive correlation between the level of English and strategy use of the participants. While the interconnection between cognitive strategies and the success of the participants is high, the interconnection between their use of metacognitive strategies and their success is low. It is different from this research for correlation analysis. In this study, there is positive correlation between cognitive and metacognitive usage frequency and academic success levels.

The other researches that are not supported by the second hypothesis are given below.

In the study, Tüz (1995:28-48) aimed to demonstrate the correlation between language learning strategy use of more successful and less successful language learners. The scholar used the results of grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing and listening exams, and an inventory on language learning strategies. The study is carried out in Middle East Technical University Development Foundation School with 101 participants. The study revealed that following cognitive and compensation strategies, most of the participants used social strategies. The least used strategies are metacognitive and memory strategies. Results of the study showed that less successful participants use metacognitive strategies more than more successful participants. According to the results of the present research, findings of Yılmaz and Tüz are not supported. The ANOVA results showed that there is a positive correlation between the metacognitive strategy use and academic success of the learners' in this research.

It is discussed and inferred that the second hypothesis "English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' usage frequency of language learning strategies differs in regard to their' academic success levels." is supported. In regard to the research analysis, the relationship between the usage frequency of language learning strategies and attending preparatory class or not are discussed in H₃.

H₃: English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers' usage frequency of language learning strategies differs in regard to their preparatory class education (whether they attended in preparatory class or not).

It is deduced that there is a significant difference in usage frequency of cognitive strategies according to statistical analysis. Moreover; as a result of analyzing mean values of lower dimension points, pre-service teachers' who didn't study in preparatory class use metacognitive strategies more frequently than the others who studied in preparatory class.

Thanks to the statistical analysis of the study, the order of distribution in the frequency usage of learning strategies are cognitive, metacognitive, memory, compensation, social and affective strategies.

The study on the investigation of the relationship between language learning strategies and oral performance of Turkish EFL science graduate participants at the English Preparatory School at Dokuz Eylül University conducted by Özseven (1993) brought to light that indirect strategies are used more than direct strategies. The study also revealed that there is no direct correlation between language learning strategy usage and the success in oral performance of the participants. The scholar found that there is a positive correlation between higher oral performance and the use of direct strategies. It is found that indirect strategies are preferred by most of the participants. Regarding the language learning strategy distribution, the order of strategies employed is metacognitive, compensation, social, memory strategies and affective and cognitive strategies. Social and affective strategies are the last two in this study, but Özseven's results of research social strategy is in the top three.

As a result of this research, it cannot be said that pre-service teachers' use several strategies at the same time but Bozatlı (1998:26-51) centres on vocabulary

language learning strategies of 15 successful freshmen English participants at Middle East Technical University. The participants were chosen according to their final grades. An inventory of forty items to determine the English vocabulary language learning strategies was applied to the participants. Following the inventory, an interview was adapted. The results showed that successful English learners preferred to use several strategies at the same time.

This study is applied in two different universities in Turkey but background of the pre-service teachers is ignored. Metacognitive and cognitive strategies' usage is more frequent than other strategies like Gorevanova's research.

Gorevanova (2000:30-48) carried out a study which aimed to determine the relationship between participants' learning styles, language learning strategies and their knowledge of English vocabulary. The participants were second year students from the Department of English and American Literature at Bilkent University, and second year students from the Department of Foreign Philology at Ferghana State University. Four different instruments were used in the study (a background inventory, Perceptual Learning Style Preferences Inventory, Strategy Inventory for Language Learning and Word Level Vocabulary Test). The academic found that there is a negative correlation between the learning styles of the participants and the vocabulary test. Moreover, the study revealed a negative correlation between language learning strategies and the vocabulary test. The mostly used language learning strategies of the participants were compensation, metacognitive and cognitive strategies. The results revealed that the memory strategies were the least used. The three most popular strategies that participants employed were

compensation, metacognitive and cognitive strategies.

The same questionnaire (Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learners) is applied to different learners and usage frequency of language learning strategies differs a bit from this study. Marefat (2003:49) used 60 Iranian female English Language Learners in order to reveal the impact of teaching direct language learning strategies on the retention of vocabulary by EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners. The academic used three different instruments (Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learners, Instrument for Treatment Phase and Instruments to test learners' performance on vocabulary retention). The study showed that if the participants were educated to use direct language learning strategies, both their short and long term retention of vocabulary is affected. Memory strategies were the most frequently used strategies which were followed by cognitive and compensation strategies. Metacognitive and cognitive strategies' usages were the first two unlike Marefat.

A number of affective or emotional variables form an individual's personality, influencing the process of foreign language learning. According to Brown (2000), self-esteem (self-image), inhibition, risk-taking, ego permeability, and tolerance of ambiguity are among the variables that may account for EFL learners' success or failure.

The Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire's results are expounded by dividing "self-image, inhibition, risk-taking, ego-permeability, and ambiguity". The following part shows that pre-service teachers' responses are at a positive level in all

language learning attitudes' lower dimensions.

H₄: Academic success level in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers differs according to their' gender.

There is a significant difference between male and female pre-service teachers according to "self-image and inhibition" lower dimensions in statistical analysis. In addition to this, male pre-service teachers have more positive attitudes than females in terms of self-image and also inhibition dimensions.

Self-image is based on peoples' beliefs and behaviours centred around a self-portrait and once an idea is formed into a belief the picture then becomes a "reality ". People's acts, feelings and manners are always related to this self-image. If a learner has difficulty in learning a subject, they are not suitable for a language discipline, or do not learn the discipline of the mind.

It is necessary to help these pre-service teachers to change their self-image; they will be able to learn with interest and acknowledge the ability to change. The fundamental problem of these pre-service teachers is not that they are slow or lack the ability to learn a language but they have an improperly distorted self-image. The establishment of a positive self-image in the success of foreign language learning plays a very important role. Foreign language learning and learning attitudes are very closely linked by psychological and intellectual factors. Understanding the goal of foreign language learning helps pre-service teachers to enhance the ability of

practical application of language.

H₅: Development level in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers differs according to their academic success levels.

It is not obtained any evidence that is supported by the fifth hypothesis. According to this, there is no significant difference between language learning attitudes and academic success levels of pre-service teachers in all lower dimensions statistically. In addition, correlation analysis is applied; “ambiguity and ego permeability” are supported by the fifth hypothesis. It shows that development of language learning attitudes affect academic success levels.

H₆: Development level in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers differs according to their preparatory class education.

Analysing the relationship between pre-service teachers who attended in preparatory class or not and language learning attitudes; There is a significant positive difference in terms of “self-image and inhibition” in statistical analysis.

According to “self-image” lower dimensions, pre-service teachers who attended in preparatory class have more positive attitudes than pre-service teachers who didn't attend in preparatory class. Learners', who have language class experience, believe in themselves and their foreign language more than others.

Pre-service teachers who didn't attend preparatory class have more "inhibition" than pre-service teachers' who attended preparatory class.

In the study of Naeini and Pandian, according to Coopersmith (1967), self-esteem has been described as "a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that individuals hold towards themselves". Inhibition is another personality factor that is closely related to the notion of self-esteem in that by building sets of defences around their ego, humans try to protect themselves from threats to their self-esteem. Thus the lower the inhibitions (defences), the higher is the self-esteem and the stronger is the ego (Naeini & Pandian, 2010).

The relationship between language learning strategies' usage frequencies and learning attitudes is researched in the last hypothesis statistically.

H₇: There is a significant relation between the usage frequency of language learning strategies and development level in regard to language learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department students. It is supported in statistical analysis by all of the lower dimensions except for inhibition.

- Usage frequency of memory strategy has relationship between ego permeability and ambiguity tolerance.
- Usage frequency of cognitive strategy has relationship between self-image, risk taking, ego permeability and ambiguity tolerance.
- Usage frequency of compensation strategy has relationship between self-image, risk taking, ego permeability and ambiguity tolerance.

- Usage frequency of metacognitive strategy has relationship between self-image, ego permeability and ambiguity tolerance.
- Usage frequency of affective strategy has relationship between risk taking, ego permeability and ambiguity tolerance.
- Usage frequency of social strategy has relationship between risk taking, ego permeability.

There is a significant correlation between the usage frequency of language learning strategies of pre-service teachers in ELT department and their language attitudes.

Lori's research (1990) is similar to the results of this research. It indicates that there is a significant correlation between language learning and pre-service teachers' attitudes, such as ambiguity, self-image. He also emphasized that tolerance is important for language learning, if it is wanted, to reach better academic achievement. "Self-image" attitude is related with the usage of learning strategies in this study, such as cognitive, metacognitive and compensation strategies. However, pre-service teachers have a self-image attitude, their usage frequency of language learning strategies increases but there is not a significant correlation with academic success level like Lori's study.

Lori (1990) investigated the relationships that exist among ambiguity tolerance, self-concept (self-image), English achievement, Arabic achievement, overall school achievement, and students' attitudes toward learning English as a foreign language. He collected data from 280 high school senior enrolled in 13 high

schools in Bahrain. He measured their tolerance of ambiguity by using the MAT-15 (Norton, 1975). The result of data analysis showed that tolerance of ambiguity correlated significantly but very low with English achievement, Arabic achievement, self concept (self-image), and overall school achievement. The result also stated that tolerance of ambiguity correlated significantly low with attitudes toward learning English as a foreign language.

Fotovatnia and Ashouri (2010) also indicate that the level of ambiguity tolerance may also influence the certain language learning strategies' usage. Ehrman and Oxford (1990) found that pre-service teachers with intuitive kinds of personalities who have moderately higher levels of ambiguity tolerance reported that they often guessed from context while sensing type of personalities with lower ambiguity tolerance reported that they disliked having to guess from context.

More recently, Nishimo's (2007) case study of two Japanese learners of English also demonstrated the influence of ambiguity tolerance on the use of strategies. The first student who was comfortable with ambiguity did not want to use a dictionary in extensive reading and wanted to carry on without looking up unfamiliar words. However, the second student who was not so tolerant "first figured out the sentence structure, checked the meanings of unknown words, and then translated it into Japanese" (Nishimo, 2007) to reduce any possible ambiguity.

In regarding to Oxford (2003), language learning attitudes and strategies could determine to what degree or how well learners can learn a foreign language. Use of second language is primarily practiced during daily life communication and

generally has focused on where abundant input exists in that language. She expresses learning styles as the general approaches which could be used in acquiring new language such as analytic, visual, and auditory, while she mentions that learning strategies as “specific actions, behaviours, steps of techniques – such as such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task used by students to enhance their own learning” (Oxford 2003). These learning strategies are divided into six groups: cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social. “These learning strategies can enable students to become more independent, autonomous, lifelong learners.” (Oxford, 2003)

Cognitive strategy can enables the learner to take advantage of the language in direct ways through analysis, reasoning, summarizing, note taking, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing language input to develop wide ranging schemas (Oxford 2003). Use of cognitive strategy provides pre-service teachers to build self image and take risks rashly and without hesitation when presenting their language abilities. The language ego permeability is reinforced by the use of cognitive strategy that explains learners having difficulty learning foreign languages, as they do not have a desire to give up control over self presentation. It is essential to give up controlling self presentation while learning a new language. Lastly, cognitive learning strategy enhances ambiguity in learning process. Metacognitive strategy which is applied for manipulating an overall learning process such as organizing materials, arranging a schedule, monitoring mistakes, evaluating success and etc, also contributes to the creation of self image, has a positive effect on ego permeability, and ambiguity in learning of adults. According to Oxford (2003), memory strategies should assist

learners correlate a second language item or concept with another. While linking their language information for further learning, pre-service teachers suffer from ambiguity in shaping their knowledge and their ego permeability supported.

Other strategies such as compensation, affective and social affect adult learners risk taking during language acquisition in a positive way. Employing these strategies causes ambiguity in language competence of adults and extends their lack of fear of using a second language incorrectly, or in other words, ego permeability when adult learners throw themselves fully into another language by losing themselves.

As a result of these findings; if it is wanted, pre-service teachers frequently use metacognitive, cognitive, memory, compensation and affective strategies, tolerance of ambiguity should be highly allowed in the language learning process.

With a weaker ego that also lacks sufficient self-confidence there is a tendency to improve thicker (less permeable) ego boundaries. Thus ego permeability has been described by Ellis (1994) as “the extent to which L2 learners perceive their L1 to have fixed and rigid or permeable and flexible boundaries and therefore the extent to which they are inhibited”. These factors, as the components of the notion of language ego, proposed by Ehrman (1996) can be well related to second-language acquisition (Naeini & Pandian, 2010). Especially, in metacognitive and cognitive strategies which include overviewing and linking with already known materials, and then analyzing and reasoning knowledge across languages. It shows that ego permeability and language learning strategies are linked together strongly; in

addition to this, they have a positive correlation according to statistically analysis.

Language pre-service teachers are also categorized with risk-taking as another attribute of their personality. "Risk takers show less hesitancy, are more willing to use complex language, and are more tolerant of errors. They are less likely to rehearse before speaking" (Ellis, 1994). Brown (2000) views risk taking as an important factor that is related to inhibition and self-esteem (self-image) in the sense that those with high self-esteem are not afraid of taking risks even if they are laughed at for making mistakes. As Brown put it, "learners have to be able to gamble a bit, to be willing to try out hunches about the language and take the risk of being wrong" (Naeini & Pandian, 2010).

Finally, tolerance of ambiguity is quite important for language learning attitudes. The study's results show that there is a significant correlation between language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity. Brown interpreted what tolerance of ambiguity means shortly;

"Tolerance of ambiguity, also explained as a learning style, refers to the extent of willingness to withstand ideas, propositions, and facts that contradict one's system of beliefs or knowledge. In the process of language learning, those learners are successful who can more easily internalize vocabulary, grammatical rules, and cultural aspects of a foreign language that are incongruent with their own existing linguistic, cognitive, and affective systems" (Brown, 2000). As Ellis (1994) stated, tolerance of ambiguity "entails an ability to deal with ambiguous new stimuli without frustration and without appeals to authority" (Naeini & Pandian, 2010).

In general, it is thought that there is some data for a significant relationship between language learning strategies and learning attitudes. So, thanks to this relationship, it is understood that language learning strategies and learning attitudes impact learners' academic success in this research.

CONCLUSION

The aim of the research study is to analyze the frequency usage of language learning strategies and language learning attitudes of pre-service teachers who are in their 3rd and 4th year in the English Language Teaching Department at university. Findings of the research are analyzed and expounded. The relationship between language learning strategies and language learning attitudes of pre-service teachers are researched, also, the relationship between these strategies and attitudes are assessed according to personal information which is arranged by gender, academic success level, and attending preparatory class or not. The conclusion of the research's findings is shown in this part of the study.

This study is supported by questionnaires given in the English Language Teaching Department at İstanbul Maltepe University and İstanbul Aydın University. The data was obtained from pre-service teachers answering questionnaires about gender, academic success level, attending preparatory class or not, using strategies while learning languages and learning attitudes toward languages.

Two different questionnaires were given to the pre-service teachers. One of them was Rebecca Oxford's (1990) "Strategy Inventory for Language Learning" that was prepared for learning English as a foreign/second language for use all over the world. The inventory consists of fifty items containing six language learning strategies. A 5-point Likert scale was used for statistical analysis and the participants responded to the inventory by choosing one of the options ranging from 1 to 5 being: *Almost Always, Usually, Sometimes, Seldom, and Almost Never*. The questionnaire

was divided into the following six categories: memory strategies, social strategies, affective strategies, metacognitive strategies, compensation strategies, and cognitive strategies.

Oxford's inventory is attractive in a number of ways. According to strategy categorization, the inventory is well – understood, and all items are checked and rechecked for validity and reliability. This inventory is more comprehensible and detailed than the other questionnaires; it is preferred by a lot of researchers (Ehrman and Oxford, 1990; Gorevanova (2000); Ian and Oxford, 2003; Marefat (2003); Tabanlıoğlu (2003)). The other reason for selection was the level of students; it might have also been useful to have the questionnaire translated into their L1.

In this research, participants of the questionnaires have enough language knowledge for understanding the questions, so translation was not necessary for them.

Second questionnaire is the “Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire” from

<http://www.sil.org/lingualinks/languagelearning/prepareforlanguagelearning/attitude.pdf> . Of a total of 27 questions, each was rated as *strongly agree*, *agree*, *neither agree nor disagree*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree*, and also given point values of 8, 6, 4, 2, and 0 respectively. This questionnaire was employed to elicit data about participants' personality traits that accounted for their attitudes to language-learning.

The “Strategy Inventory for Language Learning” and “Language Learning Attitudes” questionnaires’ data were tested with the SPSS 18.00 statistical package program. Data was gained from the questionnaires and the reliability of the scales was analyzed again; and reliability coefficient was established.

Pre-service teachers in the questionnaires;

- Most of the pre-service teachers were female: 58.3%
- Academic success points were between 41.20 and 96.25; mean academic success points were 76.0687 ± 10.11067
- 59% of the pre-service teacher’s academic success points were between 70-84.
- 58.3% of the pre-service teachers attended preparatory class.

It is deduced from the personal information part that there were no significant differences between academic success points and genders, however; there was a significant difference between being educated in preparatory class and academic success points.

It has been determined that the English Language Teaching Department students most frequently used strategy was “to pay attention when someone is speaking English” and the least frequently used strategy was “to write down their feelings in an English language learning diary”. Paying attention to someone when he/she is speaking English was accepted as an indicator of desire for learning English. Since language methods have begun to be developed and applied by using a communicative approach in our country; learners are interested in listening to people

who speak a foreign language. Language learning diaries or writing down their feelings in a notebook were both time consuming and not interesting, so this was the least used strategy in learning language. Writing an essay in Turkish (as their mother tongue) or keeping a diary was not preferred so much by the children.

Strategies that English language Teaching Department students used have been analyzed under 6 lower dimensions such as: memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. Usage frequencies of all strategies take place in the “above average” group. According to the results of this field study, usage frequencies of language learning strategies are sorted as follows:

1. Cognitive strategies.
2. Metacognitive strategies.
3. Memory strategies.
4. Compensation strategies.
5. Social strategies.
6. Affective strategies.

In the research on learning foreign language strategies in Turkey, affective strategies seem to be the least used strategies. Affective strategies include positive techniques for talking to oneself. It support to help anxiety, attitude and motivation about language learning that cannot be used efficiently because of our learn -- by - rote education system, patriarchal family structure and teacher-centred information – transfer – based - education approaches. In this field, research and developmental

studies in all foreign language education is needed.

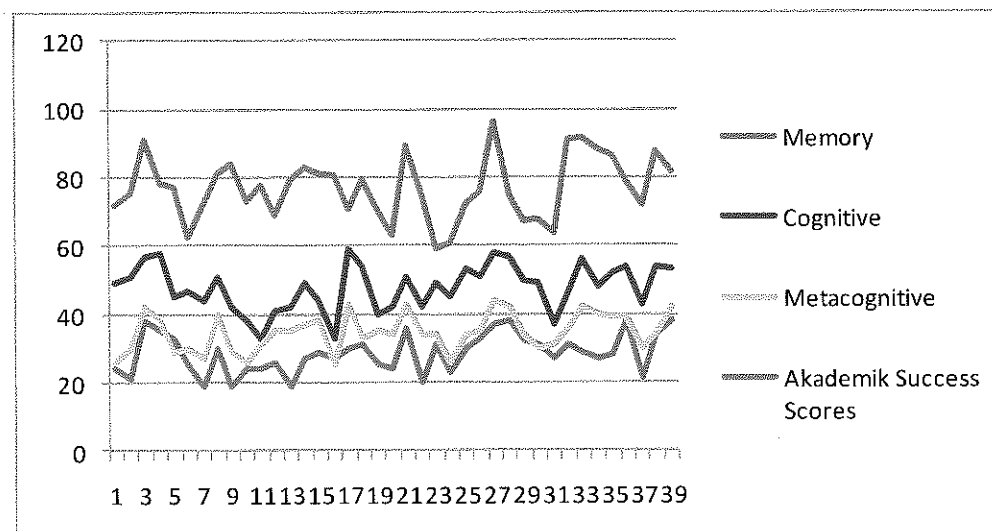
Strategy usages have been analyzed according to lower dimensions of strategy in the Language Learning Questionnaire and the results are as follows:

First of all, according to the numbers of participants in the questionnaire, it was seen that pre- service female teachers were more than pre-service male teachers.

Usage frequencies of strategies in lower dimensions students used in language learning did not differ according to students' gender. That was because usage frequency of strategies statistically do not differ significantly, the results are the same as some studies (Karamanoğlu (2005), Tabanlıoğlu (2003), and Griffiths (2003)) but results of some studies have determined that statistically there are some differences. Pre-service female teachers have used more strategy than pre-service male teachers (Cesur (2008), Yalçın (2006), Özdemir (2004) and Tok (2007)).

Language learning strategy usage frequency of students only in metacognitive strategies lower dimension differs according to which academic success level group they were in. Students whose academic success level was between 85-100, use metacognitive strategies more frequently than students whose academic success levels were between 70-84 and 55-59. When points were taken directly without grouping academic success levels (such as points between 55-69) and analyzed relationships between strategy lower dimensions and these points by correlation analysis, it has been determined that there is a positive relationship between academic success points and strategy usage frequencies in cognitive and

metacognitive lower dimensions. As usage frequency of cognitive and metacognitive strategies get higher, academic success points get higher in direct proportion (Graphic 1).



Graphic 1. Frequency Usage of Memory Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, Metacognitive Strategies and Academic Success Points Range Graphic

Language learning strategies usage frequencies of English Language Teaching Department students only in metacognitive strategies lower dimension, differ significantly according to pre-service teachers' education in preparatory class ($p=0.022 < 0.05$). As a result of analyzing mean values related to relevant lower dimension points, finds that students who didn't have preparatory class education use metacognitive strategies statistically with significant differences compared to the students who had preparatory class education.

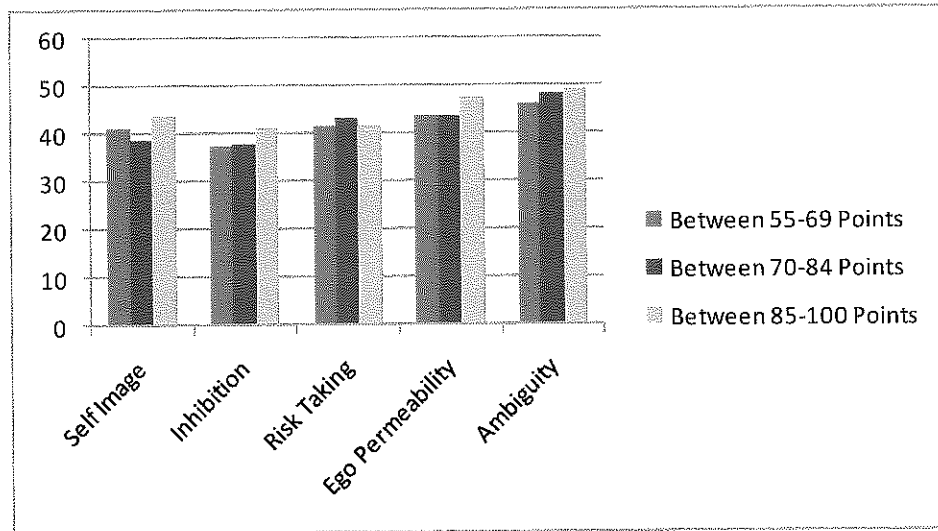
According to language learning attitudes, most of the pre-service teachers share the statement "You should say "yes" if you mean yes and "no" if you mean no.

Not to do so is dishonest”; however, the statement with low agreement is “I feel a resistance from within when I try to speak in a foreign language, even if I have practiced.”

Language learning attitudes of pre-service teachers in the ELT department were considered on 5 lower dimensions such as self image, inhibition, risk taking, ego permeability and ambiguity. It has been stated that attitude took place in “above average” positive levels in all language learning attitude lower dimensions. It can be interpreted that English learning attitudes of the English Language Teaching Department students are sorted by the most positive to least positive as: ambiguity, ego permeability, risk taking, self image and inhibition.

English learning attitudes of English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers in “self image” and “inhibition” dimensions differ significantly according to their gender. It has been stated that English learning attitudes of male pre-service teachers in self image and inhibition dimensions are more positive than English learning attitudes of female pre-service teachers in self image and inhibition dimensions with a statistically significant difference.

Relationships between these points and all lower dimension points by not grouping (as between 55-69 points) but by taking direct points have been analyzed using correlation analysis. There were statistically significant differences between academic success levels and English learning attitudes in the “ego-permeability” and “ambiguity” dimensions. (Graphic 2).



Graphic 2. Development Levels of Language Learning Attitudes and Academic Success Points Range Graphic

English learning attitudes of the English Language Teaching Department pre-service teachers in “self image” and “inhibition” dimensions differ significantly according to their education in preparatory class. It has been stated that English learning attitudes of pre-service teachers who had preparation class education in self image dimension are more positive than English learning attitudes of pre-service teachers who didn’t have preparation class in self image dimension with a statistically significant difference. It has been stated that English learning attitudes of pre-service teachers who didn’t have preparation class education in inhibition dimension are more positive than English learning attitudes of pre-service teachers who had preparation class in inhibition dimension with a statistically significant difference.

Learning styles of university learners are identified by Cesur (2008). Preferences of learning styles of learners are determined as audio-lingual, introverted, randomly, integrative, deductive, and reflective learning styles. It is stated that there is no difference between language learning strategies and learning styles in regard to gender and classifying departments.

According to the findings, it has been stated that strategy usage in all lower dimensions has been related to at least one language learning attitude lower dimension, except for inhibition dimension.

In general, when strategy usage frequency gets higher; development levels of language learning attitudes have increased.

In regard to the findings that are used from some researches, language learning strategies are one of the factors that impact learners' academic success levels. As results of the statistical analysis of the study, one of the other factors is language learning attitudes (Cesur, 2008, Chamot ve Kupper, 1989; Ehrman et. al., 2003). Due to this reason, raising awareness of pre-service teachers becomes important for increasing the academic success. Students should be aware of all of the language learning strategies and how to use them in all skills and all lessons. Most of the researchers accept that education combining language learning strategies and language teaching is more successful than the simple education. Oxford (1990) states how language learning strategies become an effective lesson; some clues are given:

Strategies...

- allow learners to become more self-directed
- expand the role of language teachers
- are problem-oriented
- involve many aspects, not just the cognitive
- can be taught
- are flexible
- are influenced by a variety of factors.

Cognitive, metacognitive, memory, social, compensation and affective strategies are explained in this part by using examples of how to use these strategies in the classroom, and how to make the lesson more sufficient for learners.

For example, a lecturer, in preparatory school, should support the pre-service teachers' use of cognitive strategies such as practicing, receiving and sending messages to each other, analyzing, understanding the target language, and also producing phrases and sentences. Pre-service teachers should be advised to watch English movies or television programs. Lecturers help pre-service teachers become skilful by teaching them how to get the idea quickly from English passages (skimming and scanning techniques), and how to read and understand a whole passage attentively without looking up each word in the dictionary (cognitive strategies). It is taught to pre-service teachers that using images, sounds or keywords, repetition and practicing help to improve language learning (cognitive strategies).

In this study, it is obviously seen that pre-service teachers who didn't attend preparatory class used metacognitive and cognitive strategies more frequently than pre-service teachers who attended preparatory class.

It is explained in a short way, what the English Preparatory Program is that they aim to prepare the pre-service teachers for studies in their major, reinforcing them with necessary skills and strategies of English. The programs lead pre-service teachers to foster English learning throughout their lives and equip them with English language, obligatory for reaching high, international standards of higher education. Because such kind of vital goals are aimed at, top performance is executed by both instructors and pre-service teachers. As a result of this challenging process, pre-service teachers should obtain the competence to cope with problems they encounter and they exercise high performance. It shows that preparatory school manages to make pre-service teachers study hard and do their best which causes them gain self confidence. Pre-service teachers learn a language in a mass program that helps to also develop metacognitive and cognitive strategies of all skills.

High performance which is sought in preparatory programs enables pre-service teachers to build a positive self image rather than increasing inhibition in learning. The reason behind positive self image building is that language learning contributes to the communicative proficiency.

Pre-service teachers should be educated about language learning strategies in a theoretical and practical way; for example, how to use them effectively in the lessons and how to teach a language by using them in the future. Later, pre-service

teachers should be given an opportunity to apply them in their own lessons at university. Having knowledge about learning strategies and learning attitudes also helps pre-service teachers to be professional in teaching the language in the real classroom environment.

Metacognitive strategies are a part of indirect strategies. For instance, metacognitive strategies improve and allow for organization and planning of learning time, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation of learning. For example, second language readers have a variety of strategies from which to choose when they come across new vocabulary and that they have determined they need to know to understand the main idea of a text.

For word analysis, Anderson (2002) gives examples of dividing the word into its prefix and stem. Another possible strategy is the use of context clues to help to guess the meaning of a word. In Business English lessons, by reading an article, pre-service teachers haven't got enough time and energy for looking up every unknown word. By the help of this strategy, they know how to get an idea about the word from the whole context or sentences. How to choose the best strategies in a given context ought to be shown by lecturers.

“Teaching cognitive and metacognitive skills are aimed at making learners expert students.” (Sternberg, 1998). The result of the study shows that frequency usage of cognitive and metacognitive strategies was more than the other strategies, thus, it can be said that thanks to using these two strategies, the academic success points increased.

In the study, there are no hypotheses that are supported by affective strategies; except for the relationship between learning attitudes. In affective strategies, pre-service teacher's feelings and learning processes are linked to each other. Positive and negative emotions of the pre-service teachers affect the language learning process. Especially at examination time, most of the students are very anxious. By taking a deep breath, meditating, using music or self - encouragement, the pre-service teacher should be able to control their feelings in times of stress. In speaking lessons, a lecturer should use specific music that is relaxing to pre-service teachers in the classroom or use movies for laughter (for instance Mr. Bean) (like Suggestopedia Method, Lazanov, 1979). There is a relationship between affective strategies and learning attitudes such as tolerance of ambiguity, risk-taking and ego permeability. Tolerance of ambiguity is very important for affective strategies exercises. For lowering the ambiguity, lecturer should talk with pre-service teacher for encouraging themselves and also they should discuss how much they take risk in the classroom or real environment while communicating with people or doing exercises in the target language. Affective strategies are unique for each student, so lecturers ought to determine personal characteristics or learning attitudes towards language.

While discussing the social strategies, it is thought that social behaviours take place in group or pair work activities. For developing usage of social strategies, pre-service teachers' should apply these exercises; asking questions, cooperating with peers. These kinds of exercises help to increase pre-service teachers' self-images, tolerance of ambiguity and self-encouragement.

Social and affective strategies may be linked together. Socioaffective strategies include asking native speakers to correct their pronunciation, or asking a classmate to work together on a particular language problem. Developing skills in three areas, such as metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective can help the language learner build up learner independence and autonomy while he can take control of his own learning (Hismanoğlu, 2000).

One of the other language learning strategies is memory strategies which relates to how students remember the target language; for example, using flashcards / imaginaries (visualisation), grouping the words, using body movements or mechanical techniques. While teaching the target language, lecturers should use different exercises that are covered by memory strategies. Memorizing information is easy, when breaking it up into small chunks. Visual tools (pictures, photos, real objects), rhyming, story-telling should help pre-service teachers to learn. These tools and activities are also used in young learners' language education, because young learners like singing songs (like rhymes) or listening to a story. Acronyms are easy to remember and the new words are fun for all learners, for example, "STRONG" stands for: Self-esteem, Trust, Reliability, Opinion, Needs, and Goals. In this study, the results of lower dimensions of hypothesis are not supported by memory strategies. Lecturers should advise and explain how to use memory strategies to the pre-service teachers; they help pre-service teachers to teach target language to young learners. Suitable materials should be used by pre-service teachers.

Compensation strategies are the last strategy of the research. Compensation strategies are used by pre-service teachers to help them to compensate for lack of

knowledge. Cognitive strategies are the mental strategies learners use to make sense of their learning, memory strategies are those used for storage of information, and compensation strategies help pre-service teachers to overcome knowledge gaps to continue the communication (Oxford, 1990). Using mimes or gestures, sometimes mother tongue language and synonyms of words help to overcome limited skills such as speaking and writing. While preparing the language proficiency tests to enter the university, language courses are used to compensation strategies. There are a lot of vocabulary questions and unknown words in these kinds of exams.

Using synonyms is a method of this strategy; for example,

develop = bring out, expand, improve...

approximately = nearly, almost, close to....

In writing exams, pre-service teachers should use a circumlocution method of compensation strategies. If they don't remember any suitable words, they ought to use a word that means the same thing. For example;

kitchen = a place where you cook

student = a person who goes to school for education

Compensation strategies are also related with the learning attitudes such as, self-image, risk-taking ego permeability and tolerance of ambiguity.

After analysing the conclusion part, it can be interpreted for all strategies shortly, in regard to Fedderholdt (1997), if the language learners have knowledge of

using a wide variety of language learning strategies appropriately, they can improve their language skills.

According to the results of the study, pre-service teachers who are in the English Language Teaching department don't put necessary emphasis on affective and social strategies. In order to develop language learning strategies, pre-service teachers should increase the frequency usage of affective and social strategies. Lecturers should also encourage the pre-service teachers to use all of the strategies at suitable times. When having a good grade from written and oral tasks, pre-service teachers should be rewarded. Even if they are afraid of making mistakes while speaking the target language, pre-service teachers ought to push themselves forward.

It can also be stated that there is a positive correlation between the frequency usage of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and academic success levels. It means that using metacognitive and cognitive strategies helps to increase academic success. Strong language learning skills empower language learners.

It cannot be said that a person uses only one language learning strategy while learning a foreign language. Each strategy is linked to other strategies. Orchestrating the strategies is also important for the language learning process.

Anderson (2002) states:

“Knowing how to orchestrate the use of more than one strategy is an important metacognitive skill. The ability to coordinate, organize, and make associations among the various strategies available is a major distinction between strong and weak second language learners. Teachers can assist students by making them aware

of multiple strategies available to them— for example, by teaching them how to use both word analysis and context clues to determine the meaning of an unfamiliar word. The teacher also needs to show students how to recognize when one strategy isn't working and how to move on to another. For example, a student may try to use word analysis to determine the meaning of the word *antimony*, having recognized *anti* as a prefix meaning against. But that strategy won't work in this instance. *Anti* is not a prefix here; antimony is a metallic chemical element that has nothing to do with being against or opposed to something. When the student finds that word analysis does not help her figure out what this word means, she needs to know how to turn to other strategies, such as context clues, to help her understand the word.”

Dilman¹ states that use of strategy in language learning is quite similar to techniques for driving a car properly. It is not sufficient enough for one to claim herself/himself as a good driver if s/he cannot drive well when it is rainy and snowy or cannot deal with long distance journey, if it is a crucial matter to drive in the city centre. Under these conditions, one cannot be regarded as a good driver. In order to drive well, one needs to resist all the possible conditions to be faced during travel in city centre as in long distance. He is required to be ready for exposition to all weather conditions.

The way pre-service teachers use learning strategies is identical with the way one drives car effectively. It could not be possible to manage to improve language skills efficiently without consulting learning strategies which are cognitive, metacognitive, memory, compensation, social, affective strategies.

It would be beneficial to apply learning strategies for suitable conditions. For that reason, the learners are required to be taught which learner strategies they should consult.

Therefore, learning strategies are obligatory in the acquisition of a second language. It must not be forgotten that language learning strategies are keys that open the gates of a different language widely if they are applied according to the needs of a learner.

Besides learning attitudes of pre-service teachers, lecturer's attitudes play an important role of the language learning process. From being the controller of the class to the facilitator, the lecturer's role is changing all the time. Lecturers help and encourage learners to use more and more language and language learning strategies in their lives. Lecturers had better follow the development of the language learning field, and use these new methods, strategies and materials in their classroom effectively. Moreover, lecturers had better choose suitable learning strategies that are oriented to English lessons for improving learners' attitudes.

Organizing seminars, conferences, and panels that demonstrate how to use language learning strategies effectively and how to help learners' attitudes become positive in an English learning environment. In addition to this, some organizations should be held that learners attend such as, preparing an English theatre, stand-up shows, sketches, watching movies...etc.

Suitable English and mother tongue course materials should be developed in regard to language learning strategies. Lecturers also should be educated about these strategies and learners' attitudes. In preparatory class or the first class at university, learners ought to have a chance to take a course on using language learning strategies.

1. retrieved from Assist. Prof. Dr. Hakan Dilman's lecture which was given in June. 2011.

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Appendix-1: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Section I

Name :	_____
Age :	_____
Sex :	_____
Prep Class : Yes	No..... (Choose the answer and write "X")

This inventory below is designed to gather information about strategies you use while learning English language. Read the item and put a cross (X) in the appropriate box for each statement which tells what you actually do when you are learning language.

Section II

When Learning English Language....

When Learning English Language...	Almost Always	Usually	Sometimes	Seldom	Almost Never
1. I think of the relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.					
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them					
3. I connect the sound of an English word and an image or picture of the world to help me remember the word.					
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.					
7. I physically act out new English words.					
8. I review English lessons often.					
9. I remember the new words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.					
10. I say or write new English words several times.					
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.					
12. I practice the sounds of English.					
13. I use the English word I know in different ways.					
14. I start conversations in English.					
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.					
16. I read for pleasure in English.					
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.					
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.					
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.					
20. I try to find patterns in English.					
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.					
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.					
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.					
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.					

Appendix-1: (Continuing)

When Learning English Language...	Almost Always	Usually	Sometimes	Seldom	Almost Never
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.					
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.					
27. I read English without looking up every new word.					
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.					
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.					
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.					
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.					
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.					
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.					
34. I plan my schedule so I have enough time to study English.					
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.					
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.					
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.					
38. I think about my progress in learning English.					
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.					
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.					
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.					
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying English.					
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.					
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.					
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.					
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.					
47. I practice my English with other students.					
48. I ask for help from English speakers.					
49. I ask questions in English.					
50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.					

Appendix-2: Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire

Complete the following questionnaire by checking the box which best describes your feeling about each statement. This is for yourself not for anyone else, so answer as honestly as you can.

SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neither agree nor disagree,
D= Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree

	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. I think I'm a pretty good language learner.					
2. Learning a language may be important to my goals, but I don't expect it to be much fun.					
3. My language learning aptitude is probably pretty high.					
4. I don't have any idea about how to go about learning a language.					
5. I think that I can learn any language if I am given the right circumstances.					
6. I worry a lot about making mistakes.					
7. I'm afraid people will laugh at me if I don't say things right.					
8. I am in cold sweat when I have to talk in front of people.					
9. I find it hard to make conversation even with people who speak my own language.					
10. I feel a resistance from within when I try to speak in a foreign language, even if I've practiced.					
11. It is a mark of respect to people to learn their language if you're living in their country.					
12. I like getting to know people from other countries.					
13. Speaking the language of the community where I'll be living will let me help people more.					
14. I don't like the idea of relying on my mother tongue in another country.					
15. I think the people of the country where I'll be living would like me to learn their language.					
16. I won't really be able to get to know people well if I don't speak their language.					
17. There is a right and a wrong way to do almost everything, and I think it's my duty to figure out which is which and do it right.					
18. It annoys me when people don't give me a specific answer, but just beat around the bush.					

19. You should say “yes” if you mean yes and “no” if you mean no. Not to do so is dishonest.					
20. You have to understand people’s culture and value system before you can be sure whether some things are right or wrong.					
21. I like to mimic other accents, and people say I do it well.					
22. I can do impersonations of famous people.					
23. I find it easy to “put myself in other people’s shoes” and imagine how they feel.					
24. In school, if I didn’t know an answer for sure, I’d sometimes answer out loud in class anyway.					
25. I often think out loud, trying out my ideas on other people.					
26. I want to have everything worked out in my own head before I answer.					
27. I’d call myself a risk-taker.					

Appendix-3: Request for Permission to Publish SIL Copyright

Request for Permission to Publish SIL Copyright Materials

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Contact information about requestor seeking permission:	
Name (requestor)	Miray BAKLACIOĞLU
Title and Institution or Affiliation	English Lecturer at İstanbul Aydın University
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Mobile Telephone	+9 0 535 677 22 19
E-mail Address	miraybaklaci@gmail.com
Fax	----

Description of the SIL copyright materials ["the Work"] permission is requested for:	
Publication date	
Publication title	"Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaire"
Author	
ISBN and Series Number	http://www.sil.org/lingualinks/languagelearning/prepareforlanguagelearning/attitude.pdf (I found the questionnaire from this website)
Series number if applicable	----
Requested "Work" Examples: "Entire Work", "Pages 22-35", "Chapter 2", "Chart on page 27" "Data, Maps, Tables, or quarries"	(whole questionnaire is used in the thesis)

Description of how "the Work" will be used:	
Publication title	"THE IMPACT OF LEARNER'S ATTITUDES AND LEARNING STRATEGIES OF ELT DEPARTMENT STUDENTS ON ACADEMIC SUCCESS" (master thesis topic)
Author/Editor	Miray BAKLACIOĞLU
If to be included in a larger work, give a brief description, including any proposed changes to the original form of "the Work"	The questionnaire includes only 4 pages. But I require your permission for using this questionnaire in my thesis, and also information whether it is used or not before in any academic studies and the "Language Learning Attitudes Questionnaires' results" in these academic studies. I will discuss these results and mine in the thesis.
Proposed publication date:	13.06.2011
Publisher name and contact information:	Miray BAKLACIOĞLU

Name of the copyright holder for the publication, as it will appear in the publication:	Istanbul Maltepe University
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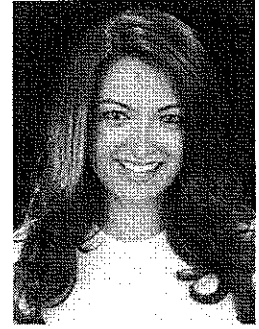
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EDUCATION

M. A. , English Language Teaching Master Programme (with thesis), Maltepe University,

Istanbul, 2008 February – 2011 June.

Thesis: **The Impact Of Learner's Attitudes And Learning Strategies Of ELT**

Department Students On Academic Success

B. A. , Education Faculty – English Language Teaching, Eastern Mediterranean University,

Cyprus, Gazimagusa, 2003 - 2007

High School and Secondary School, Ulubatlı Hasan Anatolian High School,

Bursa, 1995 – 2002

Primary School, Setbaşı Primary School, Bursa, 1990 - 1995

2005 – 2006 Spring Semester

2006 – 2007 Fall Semester

2006 – 2007 Spring Semester

} Degrees of Honour

EXPERIENCE

- **Istanbul Aydın University**, Lecturer in Higher School of Foreign Languages Department, Istanbul, 2009 October - ...
- **Istanbul Aydın University**, Lecturer in Preparatory School, Istanbul, 2008 October – 2009 October.
- **British Council**, Invigilator / Supervisor, Istanbul, 2009.
- **Doğa Schools**, Acarkent Campus, English Language Teacher, Istanbul 2007 August to September 2008.
- **GHS – Özbekstil** (Foreign Trade – Layout department / as a trainee), 1-31 July 2006.

- Professionalized in Business English & English in Business Life in Economy and Finance Department.
- Professionalized in teaching Main Course & Reading & Writing & Listening & Speaking & Business English & Computer Assisted Language Learning Lessons from Beginner Level to Advanced Level
- Experienced in using “Smart Board” in class and computer based class.
- Specialized in “Common European Framework & British Curriculum” Education System.
- Primary & Secondary School Education (4-5-6-7-8 classes)
- Professionalized in teaching Fiction & Non-Fiction & Drama classes & Main course Lessons.
- Done lessons out of class (lessons within nature) within the education system.
- Presented and prepared drama shows for each classes.
- Studied on SBS exam
- Studied and prepared students for CAMBRIDGE EXAMS (STARTERS-MOVERS-FLYERS-KET-PET)
- Created & participated & prepared social activities used during and after lessons
- Worked & participated & studied on OKS and SBS systems.
- Prepared Power Point, Word, Video lessons.

ABROAD

July- August 2003: Lions International Youth Exchange Program, Wales and Birmingham, England.

CERTIFICATES

- 2-5.05.2006: The 2nd International ELT Conference (assistant of conference)
- 24.11.2007: Teachers’ Day Panel, Eastern Mediterranean University, Cyprus, Gazimagusa. (speaker of panel discussion)
- 25.01.2008: Achievement Certificate, Doğa College, İstanbul.
- 08/09.02.2008: Effective Teaching Skills Certificate (Reading Writing Listening Speaking)
- British Side
- 31.05 / 01.06.2008: 4th ELT Conference in Doğa College (assistance of conference)
- 07.06.2008 : ELT Kids Programme
(Instructor: responsible for teaching and simulation sessions)
- 11. May.2008: ALES Verbal – 72.335**
- 18.04.2009: Teaching & Evaluation (MacMillan and Macenta Publishing/Media)
- 10. May.2009: ALES Verbal – 70.565**

- 9.May.2010:** **ALES Verbal – 74.840**
- 16.04.2010: Young Learners Exam Venue Staff Training
(Starters-Movers-Flyers-KET-PET) – British Council
- 23.10.2010: **New Trends and Innovations in ELT /
Foreign Language Acquisition: A Nightmare or a Pleasant
Dream?**
Blaine Ray: TPRS / How does TPRS works?
Prof. Dr. Stephen D. Krashen:
- Language Acquisition – How does it happen?
 - Power of Reading
- Gülfem Aslan: NLP and Language Acquisition
Prof. Dr. Stephen Krashen, Prof. Dr. Cem Alptekin,
Blaine Ray:
- Panel Discussion: Language Acquisition and Teaching Techniques
- 23.04.2011: **IELTS Exam** Venue Staff Training -- British Council
- 26.04.2011: Young Learners Exam Venue Staff Training
(Starters-Movers-Flyers-KET-PET) – British Council

SEMINARS

- 03.08.2007 – Eğitimde Drama Uygulamaları: Bülent Sezgin
- 06.08.2007 – Yeni Sisteme Göre Farklı Öğretme Tarzları: Dr. Süleyman Traş
- 06.08.2007 – Danışma Becerilerinin Eğitim Yönetiminde Kullanılması: Dr. H. İbrahim Erden
- 07.08.2007 – Öğreten ve Öğrenci Penceresinden Kişilik Terörü ve Sınıf Yönetimi: Dr. Kemal Pehlivanoglu
- 07.08.2007 – Akıllı Tahtada Gelinek Nokta ve Öğretene İlgilendiren Boyutlar
- 15.08.2007 – Common European Framework: Nick Ebden (MacMillan Education)
- 15.08.2007 – Effective Teaching Within Drama: Derya Özkul (British Council – Ankara)
- 16.08.2007 – Effective Teaching Speaking Skill to Young Learners: Selly Grayford (British Side)
- 16/17/18.08.2007 – Smart Board (Techno-Class Training)
- 17.08.2007 – Student Centered Speaking Activities – Guy Elders (Pearson-Longman)
- 18.08.2007 – Eğitimde Yeni Paradigmalar
- 07.02.2008 – ESL to EFL: Guy Elders (Pearson-Longman)
- 26.08.2008 – Eğitimde Ölçme Değerlendirme – Cafer Arıkan
- 29.01.2009 – Teaching with Lex – Appeal – Tresa Doguelli (Oxford University Press)
- 29.01.2009 – Developing Strategic Readers – Elna Coetzer (Cambridge University Press)

RESPONSIBILITIES & PROJECTS

- ✓ Study of **Computer Assisted Language Learning Based on General English Courses** for university students at all levels.
- ✓ Project on **Analyzing of Course Book Series (Language Leader – all levels) based on Communicative Approach**, Maltepe University, Faculty of Education, ELT Master Program (with thesis), Istanbul, Fall Semester, 2009.
- ✓ Project on **Evaluation of Exam Papers based on SPSS Programme**, Maltepe University, Faculty of Education, ELT Master Programme (with thesis), Istanbul, Spring Semester, 2008.
- ✓ **“The Impact of the Teacher Attitudes on EFL Students’ Achievement”**, A Research Project Study, EMU, Faculty of Education Department of ELT, Famagusta, 2006.
- ✓ Project on **Adapting Unit and Course Book for EFL Students**, EMU, Faculty of Education Department of ELT, Famagusta, 2006.
- ✓ Project on **Textbook Evaluation in ELT**, (Cutting Edge Students’ Book) EMU, Faculty of Education Department of ELT, Famagusta, 2006.
- ✓ Project on **School Experience for Observation of Classroom**, Faculty of Education, Department of Educational Sciences, Famagusta, 2007.
- ✓ Project on **Teaching Practice Portfolio**, EMU, Faculty of Education Department of ELT, Famagusta, 2007.

- * Observation of classes
- * Preparation of monthly class schedules
- * Presentations and projects on teacher & student improvement
- * Researches on Oral Expression Discussion and Presentation
- * Preparation and application of RUBRIC (British Curriculum)
- * Preparation of Achievement Test for EFL Student.

INTERCULTURAL AND TECHNICAL SKILLS

- * Beginner in German
- * Microsoft Office Programme (Word-Excel-Power Point-Movie Maker),
- * Internet usage
- * SPSS Programme (for statistics and testing/evaluation)

SKILLS AND CAPABILITIES

- Prepared syllabus and materials for Business English lessons
- Plan and coordinate group works
- Arranged activities, songs and materials for classes
- Created and prepared activities for classes
- The ability of establishing communication easily
- Used Task-oriented method

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Born in November 22. 1983, Bursa, single
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- Creative, ambitious, organized
- Trustworthy, hardworking, team - player
- Analytical thinking, researcher
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Scuba diving, Taking a photo, Traditional Turkish Music, Theatre

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