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DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEPTIONS ON LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES OF ENGLISH PREPARATORY CLASS STUDENTS STUDYING AT GAZI UNIVERSITY

M.A THESIS

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Mehmet Yalçın'a ait "Gazi Üniversitesi İngilizce Hazırlık Okulunda Okuyan Öğrencilerin Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Algılamalarındaki Farklılıklar" adlı çalışma jürimiz tarafından Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim dalında YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ABSTRACT
DIFFERENCES IN THE PERCEPTIONS ON LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES OF ENGLISH PREPARATORY CLASS STUDENTS STUDYING AT GAZI UNIVERSITY

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The present study investigates the use of *language learning strategies* reported by students of English at the Preparatory School of Gazi University. It is based on five independent variables (learners' gender, faculty, type of High School background, previous English learning experience, and proficiency level), six dependent variables (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies) and possible relationships between these variables. 334 students from Grade B (104 students), Grade C (99 students), and Grade D (131 students) classes participated in the study. The researcher used a two-part instrument to collect data.

The treatment of the data was carried out through SPSS 12.0 for Windows. The results of the study indicated the following:

1. Students of English at Preparatory School of Gazi University use language learning strategies at medium level.
2. Females use language learning strategies more than males.
3. Students from the Faculty of Medicine use language learning strategies more than students from other three faculties (Faculty of Economic and Administrative Sciences, Faculty of Engineering and Architecture, Faculty of Technical Education).
4. Generally, students from Private Lycées use language learning strategies more than students from other four lycées.
5. A statistically significant difference is seen between students' previous English learning experience and their use of compensation strategies.
6. There are three statistically significant differences between the pairs D / B and D / C Grades in the uses of memory, metacognitive and social strategies.

In the light of the results, it was suggested that Learning Strategy Training be integrated in the present curriculum.

Key words: Learning, Foreign Language Learning and Language Learning Strategies

ÖZET

GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ İNGİLİZCE HAZIRLIK OKULUNDA OKUYAN ÖĞRENCİLERİN DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ALGILAMALARINDAKİ FARKLILIKLAR

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Bu çalışma Gazi Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Öğretimi Araştırma ve Uygulama Merkezi İngilizce Hazırlık sınıflarında okuyan öğrencilerin *dil öğrenme stratejilerini* araştırmaktadır. Çalışma, beş bağımsız değişken (öğrencilerin cinsiyeti, okuyacakları fakülte, hangi liseden mezun oldukları, önceki İngilizce öğrenme deneyimleri ve yeterlik seviyeleri), altı bağımlı değişken (hafıza, bilişsel, telafi, bilişi yönetme, duyuşsal ve sosyal stratejiler(i)) ve bu değişkenler arasındaki muhtemel ilişkiler üzerine kuruludur. Toplam 334 öğrenci (104-B, 99-C, ve 131-D kuru) çalışmaya katıldı. Bu çalışmada veri toplamak için, iki bölümden oluşan bir anket kullanıldı.

Verilerin analizinde SPSS kullanılmıştır. Analiz sonucunda elde edilen bulgular maddeler halinde aşağıdaki şekildedir:

1- Gazi Üniversitesi İngilizce Hazırlık sınıflarında okuyan öğrenciler dil öğrenme stratejilerini orta düzeyde kullanmaktadırlar.
2- Kız öğrenciler erkek öğrencilere nazaran daha çok strateji kullanmaktadırlar.
3- Tıp fakültesinde okuyacak öğrenciler, diğer fakültelerde okuyacak öğrencilere oranla daha fazla strateji kullanmaktadırlar.
4- Özel lise/Anadolu lisesi ve Özel lise/Teknik lise çiftleri arasında strateji kullanımı bakımından istatistiksel farklar vardır.
5- Telafi stratejileri kullanımında, İngilizce öğrenme tecrübesine sahip olan öğrenciler ile olmayan öğrenciler arasında istatistik fark gözlemlenmektedir.
6- D / B ve D / C kuru çiftleri arasında öğrencilerin hafıza, bilişi yönetme ve sosyal stratejileri kullanımlarında istatistiksel farklar vardır.

Elde edilen sonuçların ışığında, Öğrenme Stratejileri Eğitiminin müfredata eklenmesi konusunda önerilerde bulunuldu.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğrenme, Yabancı Dil Öğrenimi ve Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The significance of language learning strategies as key elements in the acquisition of English as a second or foreign language is a subject that has received considerable attention of researchers worldwide (Green & Oxford, 1995). Research on language learning strategies has also been done in Turkey. Karahan (1991), Yüzbaşıoğulları (1991), Kaya (1995) and Erton (2004) did research on the related topic. However, it is difficult to state that everything is known about the use of language learning strategies of the students in Turkey. Thus, this current study deals with the use of language learning strategies of students learning English at the Preparatory School of Gazi University.

1.1 Background to the Study

The late 1960s witnessed a change in the methodology of language learning and teaching. The focus on teachers and teaching methods turned to learners and learning. That was due to the vast array of options in language learning/teaching area as well as the developments in cognitive psychology (Wenden, 1987: 4). Accordingly, researchers and educators began to examine what successful second language learners do to achieve their goals. Subsequent studies also showed that some language learners acquire a second (or third or fourth) language more quickly and more effectively than others. Finally, it was also found that several factors are involved in this difference (such as intelligence, motivation, learning styles and age), and that one important factor affecting students' success is their use of learning strategies (Mitchell & Myles, 1998: 18-19).

In terms of language learning, learning strategies are strategies that help a learner develop a language system (Rubin, 1987). To understand the process of language acquisition, researchers are concerned with learning strategies rather than communication strategies or production strategies which relate to language use (O'Malley, Chamot and Kupper, 1995). A great deal of research has been conducted to identify and classify language learning strategies (Chamot, 1987; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; O'Malley, Chamot and Kupper, 1995; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1987; Brown & Palinscar, 1982; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern & Todesco, 1978). Some of the research has handled how learning strategies function in the second language acquisition process, and other researchers have dealt with the teachability of strategies (Vance, 1999: 3).

Different researchers have produced different definitions for language learning strategies and these definitions occasionally overlap. However, they sometimes disagree on which behaviors and processes should be placed under the term *language learning strategies* (Wenden, 1987). O'Malley & Chamot define learning strategies as "special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (1990: 1). Rigney (as cited in Oxford, 1989: 235) describes them as "operations or steps used by a learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage or retrieval of information". Wenden's definition is wide-reaching; it clarifies not only what learners do to learn and regulate the learning of a second language, but also what learners know about the strategies they use and the factors that make learning a second language easier (Wenden, 1987). Oxford defines learning strategies as "behaviors or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful, self-directed and enjoyable" (1989: 235). Table 1. 1 gives a summary of definitions related to language learning strategies.

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 behaviors 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 leaner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations (p. 8).

Just as different researchers have different definitions of learning strategies, they also organize strategies into different frameworks. Chamot (1987) organizes them into three types: cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective, and omits some of the compensation strategies Oxford mentions. Ellis (1994) distinguishes two types of language learning strategies: those that help learners to master the linguistic content of the target language (similar to cognitive) and those that help learners to become a skilled speaker, listener, reader and writer (similar to metacognitive). Rubin (1987: 23) divides strategies into two primary categories: strategies that affect learning directly and those that affect learning indirectly. Under these are three kinds of strategies: learning strategies (both cognitive and metacognitive), communication strategies (basically what Oxford calls "compensation" strategies) and social strategies (Rubin, 1987). Naiman et al. organize strategies into five broad categories: 1) Active Task Approach, 2) Realization of Language as a System, 3) Realization of Language as a Means of Communication and Interaction, 4) Management of Affective Demands, and 5) Monitoring of L2 Performance (Skehan, 1989: 76-77). According to Oxford (1994), there are a dozen strategy classification systems grouped into at least five typologies. Oxford, herself (1990), divides strategies into

direct (including memory, cognitive, and compensation) and indirect (metacognitive, affective and social) strategies. These can be summarized as follows:

a) Memory Strategies are strategies that help with the storage and retrieval of new information. Using sounds and mental pictures in association with the new information or using flash cards are examples of this strategy category.

b) Cognitive Strategies are techniques related to transformation, direct analysis, or synthesis of the language. Reasoning, translating, analyzing, and practicing functions in natural situations are instances of cognitive strategies.

c) Compensation Strategies enable learners to fill in gaps of information with techniques such as predicting from context, using gestures, native language use, and using descriptions.

d) Metacognitive Strategies involve planning and thinking about learning. Examples include establishing goals and objectives, self-monitoring, evaluation of progress, and planning of how and when to learn.

e) Affective Strategies are those that help learners to maintain stable attitudes, emotions, and motivations helpful to consistent language learning. Examples include self-encouragement and talking with others.

f) Social Strategies relate to interacting with others in various social environments (Holt, 2006: 4-5).

Although researchers agree that a certain behavior is a learning strategy, and their accompanying frameworks include a similar category, they sometimes disagree about which category it should be put under. For example, both Rubin's (1987) and Oxford's (1990) frameworks include a category of indirect strategies. Yet the strategy of "clarification or verification" is placed in the direct category by Rubin and in the indirect category by Oxford. Chamot (1987) and Rubin (1987) agree that questioning for clarification is a language learning strategy but Chamot sees it as a social/affective learning strategy because it requires interaction with another person but Rubin takes it as a cognitive learning strategy.

Despite different definitions and categorizations, language learning strategy researchers agree that language learners use these behaviors and processes and these contribute to language learning (Vance, 1999: 6).

1. 2 Statement of the Problem

Students learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in universities often face the difficult task of gaining a certain degree of proficiency especially in preparatory classes. What is generally observed is that while some learners experience great difficulty in learning a new language, others adapt to the learning atmosphere quickly and make progress easily. Naturally, some students are brighter than others and some study harder than others. However, this does not explain the situation clearly. Obviously, there are other factors which lead students to success or failure. Chamot (1993: 308) asseverates that "successful language learners differ from less successful ones in a number of ways, of which perhaps the most important is the degree to which they are strategic in their approach to the various tasks which comprise language learning".

The effects of language learning strategies on foreign language learning have been evidenced in quite a few studies in different places heretofore. Nevertheless, not many studies have been carried out on the topic, especially in the context of Preparatory Schools at university level in Turkey.

This study aims to explore the language learning strategies utilized by students of English at the Preparatory School of Gazi University. It also aims to analyze the use of six categories of language learning strategies in accordance with learners' gender, faculty, type of high school background, previous English learning experience, and proficiency level.

1. 3 Significance of the Study

The need for English in Turkey is an ever-increasing phenomenon today. It is required in almost all fields, from academic studies to commerce. Being a language of science, technology, and international communication mostly, the English language is popular in universities throughout Turkey. Several universities have English as a medium of instruction; and still others offer English instruction in some of their departments. Therefore, most universities provide English preparatory classes for students.

Preparatory classes last two academic terms (an academic year). The regulations for preparatory classes sometimes differ according to the decisions reached in university faculty councils. In other words, a one-year English preparatory program is obligatory in some departments whereas it is not in others.

Every year, approximately 1500 students go through a preparatory year and try to get the required points to pass on at Gazi University. To effectively cope with the learning demands of this huge group of students, the researcher thinks that it is vital to investigate the use of language learning strategies by these students. The results of the study might help with producing new ideas to better the training of the English language at the institution.

1. 4 Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in the present study:

a) What language learning strategies do the students of English at the Preparatory School of Gazi University utilize, and how often do they use them?

b) Is there a difference between the students' use of language learning strategies and their gender?

c) Is there a difference between the students' use of language learning strategies and their faculties?

d) Is there a difference between the students' use of language learning strategies and their type of high school graduation?

e) Is there a difference between the students' use of language learning strategies and their previous English learning experience (whether they had a prep-class/an intensive English course experience before)?

f) Is there a difference between the students' use of language learning strategies and their proficiency levels (B Grade-high proficiency group, C Grade-mid proficiency group, and D Grade- low proficiency group)?

1.5 Limitations of the Study

a) The research included only students of English at the Preparatory School of Gazi University. For this reason, it is possible to generalize the results of the study to preparatory programs of other universities only to some extent.

b) The study took gender, faculty, type of high school graduation, previous English learning experience and proficiency level as independent variables. However, research suggests that certain individual variables also affect language learning (such as motivation, learning styles, and attitude). These variables go beyond the scope of this study. Therefore, they are excluded from the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

Learning is defined as a change in an individual's knowledge or behavior. This change may be something deliberate or unintentional, for better or worse. Cases when students acquire information presented in classroom or when they look up a vocabulary item in the dictionary are examples of deliberate learning. On the other hand, a child who has experienced injection before might feel anxious when he sees a doctor coming with a needle. Needless to say, this is an example of unintentional learning. In order for something to qualify as learning, it must occur through the interaction of a person with his or her environment. Changes such as growing taller or turning grey are not instances of learning. Similarly, temporary changes which result from illness, fatigue, or hunger are not included in a general definition of learning. For example, a person who has not eaten anything for two days does not learn to be hungry, and a person who is ill does not learn to run more slowly (Woolfolk, 2001: 200, 201 ; Slavin, 2000: 140, 141).

2.1 Learning Theories

Learning has been explained mainly with two approaches. One of them is behavioral and the other is cognitive. Behavioral theorists focus on the relationship between stimulus (S) and response (R). Behavior is acquired or changed when the organism (whether it is a hungry rat or a child in school), forms connections between S and R. The connections may arise due to the closeness of S and R (contiguity theory advocated by Watson), or by satisfaction which comes from giving a correct R to a given S (reinforcement theory advocated by Thorndike). Consequently, learning, in the behavioral approach, is a habit-formation process, which is realized by means of the reinforcement of a stimulus-response sequence (Child, 2004: 143).

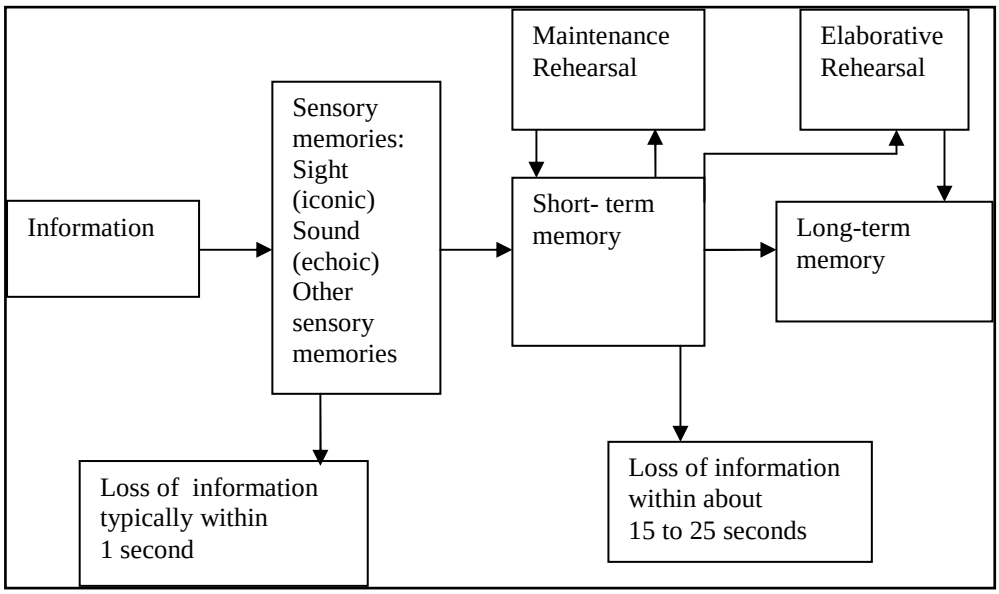
This approach suggests that the environmental factors are more important than the learner and the learner is a passive receiver of information.

On the contrary, the cognitive approach puts the emphasis on what goes on inside the learner's head. Cognitive theorists think that the learner is actively involved in the learning process not as just responding to circumstances but as organizing and reorganizing incoming information. In the cognitive approach, learning involves using mental structures to process information often with a unique or insightful result (Tuckman, 1991: 24; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990:1). Additionally, cognitive theorists assume that learning is the result of our attempts to understand the world. To do this, we use all the mental tools available to us. The ways we think about situations, along with our knowledge, expectations, feelings, and interactions with others and the environment, influence how and what we learn (Woolfolk, 2001: 240-241).

2.2 Information-Processing Theory

Cognitive psychologists have tried to find answers to these questions: How does the human mind acquire information? What determines how much information is learned? Why are some information remembered and other information soon forgotten? What can be done to improve the retention of information? Accordingly, research on human memory has enabled learning theorists to explain the learning process. This process is usually referred to as the Atkinson-Shiffrin model of information-processing (Slavin, 2000: 175; Dembo, 1988: 324). The model is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: *Information-Processing Model*



The information-processing model consists of four main components. These are sensory memory, short-term memory, long-term memory and executive control (or executive processes). It is essentially concerned with information and the processes that are used to act upon that information. Information from the external world initially enters sensory memory (SM). There are separate sensory registers for each sense modality, and apparently they can keep vast quantities of information but only for a matter of milliseconds. Although all of the information that is sensed is registered, only part of it is attended to, transformed, and entered into short-term memory (STM) (Klausmeier, 1985:105-106).

Short-term memory is a storage system that can retain a limited amount of information for a few seconds. In addition to being of limited duration, STM is of limited capacity; it holds 7 ± 2 units of information. The information may be held longer if it is rehearsed or operated on in some other way (Slavin, 2000: 177; Gagné et al., 1993: 41). Short-term memory is also known as working memory (WM) – a mechanism for keeping information while we assess it and think about it. This term means that the significance of short-term memory is not its duration, but what it performs actively. The mind conducts operations on information, organizes it for storage or discarding, and links it to other information.

Once a person performs some cognitive operations on the information in short-term memory, it will be stored in long-term memory (LTM), and presumably retained there indefinitely. Storage means a set of processes whereby incoming information is integrated with known information in various ways. The function of LTM is to store information for later use (Hamilton & Ghatala, 1994: 80; Gagné et al., 1993: 42).

Information-processing views of memory take the computer as a model. A computer receives input from a keyboard or other device. Human beings, like computers, have various ways of receiving input (through their sense organs). The information is coded, stored, retrieved from storage, and processed electronically by the computer. Second, the computer processing of the information is controlled and monitored by a program that has also been put into the computer. Human beings encode, store, and process information; nevertheless, the process is controlled and monitored by programs that they learn. Finally, after the information is processed by the computer, it is outputted to the environment through a device such as a printer in the form of a computer printout. After human beings process information, they may generate and make vocal responses, such as speaking, or muscular movements, such as typing. In some instances, human beings do not respond overtly; instead, they store the processed information in long-term memory (Hamilton & Ghatala, 1994: 21-22; Klausmeier, 1985:104).

In summary, like the computer, the human mind takes in information, performs operations on it to change its form and content, stores the information, retrieves it when needed, and generates responses to it. Hence, processing involves gathering and representing information, or encoding; holding information, or storage; and getting at the information when needed, or retrieval. The complete system is guided by control processes that determine how and when information will flow through the system (Woolfolk, 2001:243).

Information in LTM is stored in one of two forms, episodic or semantic. Episodic memory is the recall of events in our lives. These episodic memories not only reflect what happened but also where it happened, like a videotape we can replay for ourselves. Semantic memory stores “meaning”. It is the knowledge of general concepts and principles, and their associations. Underwood (1978: 238)

suggests that our organized knowledge of words and concepts and how they are associated is part of our semantic knowledge. When we read a sentence in a book, we save the meaning of the sentence, not the separate words or grammatical features of the sentence (Hamilton & Ghatala, 1994: 81; Dembo, 1988: 327).

Anderson classifies semantic memory under two types of knowledge: knowledge about things (called *declarative knowledge*), and knowledge about how to do things (called *procedural knowledge*). Declarative knowledge is *knowing* that something is the case. For instance, we know that the earth turns around the sun. We know that lemons are yellow. Procedural knowledge is *knowing* how to perform activities. For instance, we know how to drive a car, tie our shoelaces, solve a math problem, and identify the topic sentence of a paragraph (cited in Hamilton & Ghatala, 1994: 81; Dembo, 1988: 327). Procedural memories appear to be represented as "condition-action" rules, which are referred to as productions. These specify what to do under certain conditions, and involve the form of 'IF X, THEN Y'. The following are examples of productions:

IF Figure is two dimensional And figure is
three-sided And figure is closed
THEN Classify figure as triangle
And say "triangle"
IF Encounter word I do not know
THEN Look the word up in the dictionary (Long, 2000: 18; Hamilton & Ghatala, 1994: 83).

The last component of the information-processing theory is the executive processes that monitor and direct the cognitive activities in progress. These skills are responsible for assessing a learning problem, determining learning strategies to resolve the problem, assessing the effectiveness of the chosen strategy, and changing strategies to improve learning effectiveness (Dembo, 1988: 327).

The principles of the executive processes are based on *metacognition*, which has two major aspects: (1) knowledge and beliefs about cognitive phenomena, and (2) the regulation and control of cognitive behavior. Flavell states:

> "Metacognition" refers to one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them, e.g. the learning-relevant properties of information or data. …. Metacognition refers, among other things, to the active monitoring and consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes in relation to the cognitive objectives on which they bear, usually in the service of some concrete goal or objective (cited in Dembo, 1988: 327, 328).

Essentially, metacognition involves the study of how individuals think about their own thinking in order to develop strategies to solve problems. As advanced learners, when faced with a new learning problem, we know what makes it difficult or easy, what we can do to make a difficult problem more manageable, and after we have attacked the problem, whether we have solved the problem (Dembo, 1988: 328).

Briefly, cognitive perspective maintains that learning is an active, constructivist process whereby learners select and organize input, relate it to prior knowledge, keep what is important, use the information appropriately; and reflect on the outcomes of their learning efforts (Gagné et al., 1993; Shuell, 1986). In this respect, second language acquisition could be realized successfully when learners are actively involved in directing their own learning not only in classroom but also in non-classroom settings. Second language learners select from target language input, analyze language functions and forms perceived as important, think about their own learning efforts, anticipate the kinds of language demands they might encounter, and activate prior knowledge and skills to apply to new language learning tasks. Due to this intricate set of mental processes, second language acquisition has been conceived as a complex cognitive skill (Chamot et al, 1996: 176).

2.3 Second/Foreign Language and Foreign Language Learning

Mitchell & Myles (1998) define 'second languages' as any languages other than the learner's 'native language' or 'mother tongue'. They include both languages of wider communication spoken within the local region or community (for example, at the workplace, or in the media) and truly foreign languages (for instance, English language being learnt in Turkey) which have no immediate local uses or speakers.

Hence, second language acquisition (SLA) differs from first language acquisition. The former is the process whereby learners learn an additional language after they have acquired their mother tongue. Second language acquisition does not contrast with foreign language acquisition since the fundamental learning processes are essentially the same for more local and for more remote target languages (pp.1, 2). SLA is an all-embracing term for both untutored (informal and unstructured -as when a new language is 'picked up' in the community) acquisition and tutored (formal, planned and systematic -as in a classroom-based learning) acquisition (Ellis, 1985: 5).

Second language acquisition is sometimes thought to be different from second language learning. The reason for this is that the term 'acquisition' is used to refer to picking up a second language through exposure, while the term 'learning' is used to refer to the conscious study of a second language. However, for the sake of ease and the scope of the study, the researcher uses the terms 'second language acquisition', 'second language learning', 'foreign language acquisition' and 'foreign language learning' interchangeably throughout the present study. To sum up, the term 'second language acquisition' refers to the subconscious or conscious processes by which a language other than the mother tongue is learnt in a natural or tutored setting (Ellis, 1985: 6).

Second language learning is an immensely sophisticated phenomenon. Millions of people have experience of second language learning. The major discussion about processes of second language learning is how much of the human learning originates from innate tendencies, that is, some forms of genetic pre-programming, and how much of it originates from social and cultural experiences which affect people as they grow up (Mitchell & Myles, 1998: 7). Accordingly, language learning has intrigued both psychologists and linguists. In the 1940s & 50s, linguists (Leonard Bloomfield, Edward Sapir, Charles Hockett, Charles Fries and others) were mainly interested in a strict application of the scientific principle of observation of human languages. In their view, the linguist's job was to describe human languages and to identify the structural features of those languages (Brown, 2000: 8).

The structural linguist dealt with only the overtly observable data. Such attitudes are seen in B.F Skinner's ideas, especially in *Verbal Behavior* (1957). Skinner extrapolated stimulus-response behavior in animals to the linguistic behavior of humans. Behavior is determined by the reinforcement received from the environment. Skinner advocated the idea that language could be and was taught to the young child by the same mechanisms which he believed explained other types of learning. In Skinner's case, the mechanisms were those offered by general behavioristic learning theory- essentially, copying and memorizing behaviors present in the surrounding environment. In this way, language could be learned only by imitating others' speech (Brown, 2000: 8; Maher & Groves, 1996: 42).

In the 1960s, the generative-transformational school of linguistics was developed through Noam Chomsky's influence. Chomsky attempted to show that human language cannot be researched only with the help of observable stimuli or responses or the volumes of raw data obtained by field linguists. The generative linguist tried to both describe language (achieving the level of descriptive adequacy) and arrive at an explanatory level of adequacy in the study of language (Brown, 2000:9).

In the early 20th century, ideas of generative-transformational revolution appeared. Ferdinand de Saussare (1916) stated that there existed a difference between parole (what Skinner "observes", and what Chomsky called performance) and langue (similar to the concept of competence). According to Chomsky, a child is born with a theory about the structure of language. Consequently, it enables children to work out how a language is organized. This genetic predisposition is called a language acquisition device (LAD). Children recognize grammatical structures such as noun phrases and verb phrases via LAD. Linguistic universals (nouns, adjectives, and verbs) are available in all languages and the child is predisposed to recognize these linguistic universals. This source of knowledge is known as Universal Grammar. Additionally, Chomsky made a distinction between the surface structure of what is spoken and the deep structure. The surface structure represents the actual words and phrases which constitute the sentence, whereas the deep structure refers to the meaning of the sentence. Transformational grammar is the capacity to transform

this deep structure into the surface structure (Mitchell & Myles, 1998: 7; Brown, 2000:10; Malim, 1994: 173).

Chomsky (1965) also distinguished between competence and performance in the study of language. Competence means the mental representations of linguistic rules which make up the speaker-hearer's internalized grammar. Performance means the comprehension and production of language. Language acquisition studies (both first and second) mainly deal with how competence is developed. As the internalized rules are not observed overtly, it is necessary to examine how the learner performs, especially in production. The learners' utterances are thought to be as windows through which the internalized rule can be viewed. In a sense, SLA research is about performance; it monitors actual utterances. However, these are treated as evidence for what happens inside the learner's head. One of the significant aspects of SLA research is exactly to what extent competence can be inferred from performance (Ellis, 1985: 5, 6).

In a similar way, cognitive psychologists suggested that meaning, understanding, and knowing were important data for psychological study. Cognitivists tried to discover psychological principles of organization and functioning instead of dealing solely with stimulus-response connections. Like generative linguists, cognitive psychologists attempted to discover underlying motivations and deeper structures of human behavior by using a rational approach. They moved away from the strictly empirical study typical of behaviorists and utilized the tools of logic, reason, extrapolation, and inference in order to explain human behavior. It was very important to go beyond descriptive to explanatory power (Brown, 2000: 10).

The structural linguist and the behavioral psychologist were concerned with description, answering what questions about human behavior: objective measurement of behavior in controlled circumstances. In the same way, the generative linguist and cognitive psychologist were concerned with the what question; but they were much more interested in the why question: what underlying reasons, genetic and environmental factors and circumstances caused a particular event? Chomsky, in his explanations of language behavior in terms of the structures related to the comprehension and production of language, rejected the behaviorist paradigm of

learning. Studies of child development, spearheaded by Piaget, centred on the cognitive structures and processes that underlie human development and growth (Brown, 2000: 10).

Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky argue that human beings construct their own version of reality; consequently, multiple ways of knowing and describing are equally reasonable. This is the reason they are often associated with constructivism. A constructivist perspective differs from the behavioristic view and the cognitive psychological view in that it focuses on the significance of individuals' construction of reality. Piaget and Vygotsky, described as constructivist, exhibit some differences since they emphasize social context. Piaget (1972) underlined the importance of individual cognitive development as a relatively solitary act. Biological timetables and stages of development were fundamental; social interaction was thought to trigger development at the right moment in time. On the other hand, Vygotsky (1978), described as a "social" constructivist by some, asserted that social interaction was basic in cognitive development and rejected ideas of predetermined stages (Brown, 2000: 11). Table 2.1 gives a summary of concepts and approaches described in the three perspectives above (Brown, 2000: 12).

Table 2.1: *Schools of thought in second language acquisition*

Time Frame	Schools of Thought	Typical Themes
Early 1900s & 1940s & 1950s	Structuralism & Behaviorism	description observable performance scientific method empiricism surface structure conditioning, reinforcement
1960s & 1970s	Rationalism & Cognitive Psychology	generative linguistics acquisition, innateness interlanguage systematicity universal grammar competence deep structure
1980s, 1990s & early 2000s	Constructivism	interactive discourse socio-cultural variables cooperative group learning interlanguage variability interactionist hypothesis

Language learning and language proficiency often include a cognitive component. In Cummin's (1984) model of language proficiency, tasks vary from cognitively demanding ones to cognitively undemanding ones, while language varies on a scale from context-embedded to context-reduced (O'Malley et al., 1985: 558).

2.4 Overview of Language Learning Strategies

Many models of second language acquisition (Gardner & McIntyre, 1993; McIntyre, 1994; McLaughlin, 1987) have the features of language learning strategies. Skehan (1989) mentions language learning strategies as one of the most important individual difference factors in L2 acquisition (Green & Oxford, 1995: 262, 263). Canale and Swain (1980) formulated their model of communicative competence as including grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic knowledge. The strategic component means communication strategies, which can be discriminated from learning strategies by the intent of the strategy use in this model (O'Malley et al., 1985: 559). The word 'strategy' is derived from ancient Greek word 'strategia'. It means "steps or actions generals take for the purpose of winning a war". The warlike meaning of strategia is gone now but the control and goal-directedness are prevalent (Oxford, 2001: 361).

McLaughlin (1987) and Oxford (1990) assert that Selinker's (1972) model of interlanguage development is directly related to several core processes and one of them is the use of learning strategies. Selinker also states that the systematic nature of the interlanguage is clearly identified by recognizable strategies. In Ellis's (1985) model, which is based on declarative and procedural knowledge, he classifies three processes for developing L2 knowledge as learning strategies, production strategies, and communication strategies. The learner has two aspects of knowledge: declarative and procedural (Fearch & Kasper, 1983b). Declarative knowledge is 'knowing that'; it involves internalized and memorized chunks of language. Procedural knowledge is 'knowing how'; it involves the strategies and procedures employed by the learner

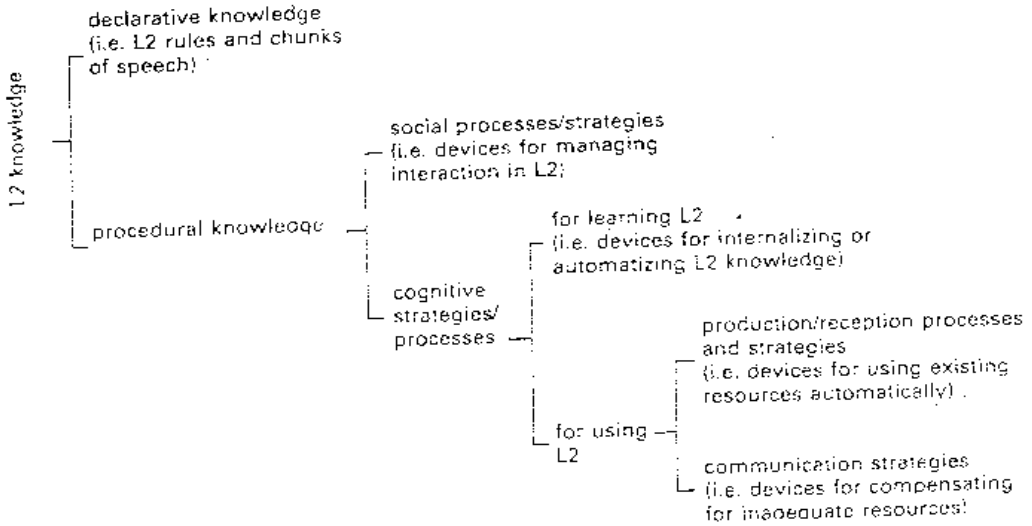
to process L2 data for acquisition and for use (Ellis, 1985: 163). Procedural knowledge can be further divided into two sub-categories as social and cognitive components. The social component embodies the behavioral strategies used by the learner to manage interactional opportunities (that is, the use of L2 in face-to-face contact or in contact with L2 texts). Fillmore (1979) mentions a number of general social strategies utilized by five Spanish-speaking children learning English in play situations with native-speaking children.

The cognitive component of procedural knowledge embodies the various mental processes involved in internalizing and automatizing new L2 knowledge and in using L2 knowledge in conjunction with other knowledge sources to communicate in the L2. Consequently, these processes in question involve both learning and using the L2. Learning processes explain how learners accumulate new L2 rules and automize existing ones by attending to input and by simplifying through the use of existing knowledge. The processes related to using L2 knowledge consist of production and reception strategies and also communication strategies.

Tarone (1981) defines the former (production and reception strategies) as attempts to utilize existing L2 knowledge efficiently and clearly with a minimum of effort. The latter (communication strategies) occur when the speaker finds it difficult to communicate his message in the way he planned to, and so is forced to look for alternative means to express it. Accordingly, communication strategies are the result of an initial failure to implement a production plan. Hence, language use involves both production and reception strategies. These operate when the learner uses available resources easily and subconsciously. It also embodies communication strategies, which are realized when the learner needs to make up for inadequate means and which, in return, are to require greater effort and to be closer to consciousness (Ellis, 1985: 163, 164).

Figure 2.2 exhibits a framework of the different strategies.

Figure 2.2: *Types of L2 Knowledge* (Ellis, 1985: 165)



McLaughlin (1987) bases his own integrated model of L2 teaching and learning on this three-part distinction. However, other researchers (like Oxford, 1990) suggest that it is almost invariably impossible to distinguish between these three kinds of strategies and that often all three lead to learning (Green & Oxford, 1995: 262, 263).

Social psychologists have also contributed to the theory of language learning and of language learning strategies. For example, Mac Intyre's (1994) model of language learning underlines the significance of affective factors and connects the use of language learning strategies with task demands, proficiency, aptitude, situation, attitude, motivation, previous success, anxiety, self-confidence, sanctions against strategy use, goals, and criteria for success. This model necessitates students (affected by all the variables mentioned above) to be aware of the strategy, have a reason to use it and not have a reason not to use it (Green & Oxford, 1995: 263).

Similarly, Wenden (1987) states that research on learning strategies in L2 acquisition relates to the field of cognitive science. The following questions are concerned with the research on learning strategies in second language acquisition:

1. What do L2 learners do to learn a second language?
2. How do they manage or self-direct these efforts?
3. What do they know about which aspects of their L2 learning process?

4. How can their learning skills be refined and developed?

According to Wenden (1987: 6, 7) the first three questions embody the features of language learning strategies. Firstly, learning strategies refer to language learning behaviors learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language. Information about these behaviors has been obtained through observing language learners or having them describe what they are doing while performing a learning or communication task. Secondly, learning strategies refer to learners' strategic knowledge (what learners know about the strategies they use). Information about these behaviors could be obtained through statements learners make when asked to think over specific or general aspects of their language learning (e.g. when they are interviewed, complete a questionnaire, or write in a diary). Finally, learning strategies refer to learners' knowledge about aspects of their language learning rather than the strategies they utilize (e.g. personal factors that facilitate L2 learning; general principles for learning a second language successfully; things that are easy or difficult about learning a certain language; how successfully or poorly they can use the language). This knowledge may have influence on the selection of strategies.

Weinstein and Mayer (1986: 315) define learning strategies as "behaviors or thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner's encoding process". In a similar fashion, Oxford (1990: 8) mentions learning strategies as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information…; specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations". Scarcella and Oxford (1992: 63) continue to clarify learning strategies for L2 as "specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques-such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult task-used by students to enhance their own learning". Likewise, Oxford (1990) and Rigney (1978) define language learning strategies as "specific actions or techniques that students use, often intentionally, to improve their progress in developing L2 skills" (cited in Hsiao & Oxford, 2002: 369). These strategies embody several behaviors that can foster the development of language competence in many ways (Green & Oxford, 1995: 262). Research (Naiman, Fröhlich, & Todesco,

1975; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern & Todesco, 1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1983) provides the characteristics of good language learners. These can be listed as follows:

1. find their way, taking charge of their learning,
2. organize information about language,
3. are creative, developing a "feel" for the language by experimenting with its grammar and words,
4. make their own opportunities for practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom,
5. learn to live with uncertainty by not getting flustered and by continuing to talk or listen without understanding every word,
6. use mnemonics and other memory strategies to recall what has been learned,
7. make errors work for them and not against them,
8. use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language, in learning a second language,
9. use contextual cues to help them in comprehension,
10. learn to make intelligent guesses,
11. learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform "beyond their competence",
12. learn certain tricks that help to keep conversations going,
13. learn certain production strategies to fill in gaps in their own competence,
14. learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language according to the formality of the situation (Brown, 2000: 123).

Research (Abraham & Vann, 1987; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Block, 1986; Galloway & Labarca, 1991) has also exhibited that effective L2 learners are aware of the strategies they use and why they use them. Those learners can apply their strategies to the language task (satisfying their own personal needs as learners). Similarly, less successful learners are able to identify their own strategies. However, they have difficulty choosing the appropriate strategies or they are bad at forming them into a useful "strategy chain" (Green & Oxford, 1995: 262).

Learning strategies for L2 help learners build autonomy and it requires learners to take conscious control of their own learning process (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002: 369). Holec defines autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" and stresses three key components:

1. a dual emphasis on the ability to carry out autonomous learning and on the learning structures that allow the possibility of developing and exercising that ability;

2. an insistence that autonomy can only be developed through the practice of self-directed learning;

3. a principle of full control by learners over decisions relating to their own learning and a concept of teaching or counselling as support (Benson, 1996:29).

Allwright suggests that autonomy is a term "associated with a radical restructuring of our whole conception of language pedagogy, a restructuring that involves the rejection of the traditional classroom and the introduction of wholly new ways of working". Furthermore, he adds that there might be ways to promote autonomy within the context of whole-class instruction (Benson, 1996:29).

Wenden (1991) places Allwright's ideas into a broader theoretical framework. In doing so, she tries to put learning strategy training within the wider theoretical context of learner autonomy. She defines learner autonomy in the following terms:

> In effect, 'successful' or 'expert' or 'intelligent' learners have learned how to learn. They have acquired the learning strategies, the knowledge about learning, and the attitudes that enable them to use these skills and knowledge confidently, flexibly, appropriately and independently of a teacher. Therefore, they are autonomous (p.15) (Benson, 1996:29).

Hsiao & Oxford (2002: 369) mention two characteristics of autonomy:

a) willingness to perform a language task with little or no assistance, with flexibility according to the situation, and with transferability to other contexts;

b) relevant action, including the use of appropriate L2 learning strategies for accomplishing the task.

Autonomy in L2 is closely related to the concept of self-regulation in the field of psychology (Vygotsky 1978). He assumes that certain metacognitive actions, such as planning and monitoring one's learning, together with all higher-order

cognitive functions, such as analyzing and synthesizing, are internalized through social interactions with more competent adults or peers who provide the learner with scaffolding, that is, assistance that is gradually removed when no longer needed by the increasingly independent, self-regulated learner. Social interaction implicitly requires learners to use social strategies, such as asking questions for clarification or verification, asking for help, and collaborating via language. In Vygotsky's perspective, social speech (talking with others) is ultimately internalized to guide action (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002: 369).

All things considered, strategies are the L2 learners' tool kit for active, conscious, purposeful, and attentive learning and they bring about greater proficiency, learner autonomy, and self-regulation (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002: 372).

2.5 Language Learning Strategies

In the late 60s and early 70s, teachers and researchers encountered many options of methods and materials in the field of language learning and teaching. Together with the influence of cognitive psychology, there occurred a shift from teachers and teaching towards learners and learning. That move was directed to defining how learners can take charge of their own learning and explaining how teachers can help students become more autonomous. Consequently, the new trend led to the study of the characteristics learners bring to the learning environment. An important group of these traits embodies learning strategies; in other words, "any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (Rubin, 1987: 15;Chamot, 1990:1,2).

Rubin (1987: 15) gives utmost importance to the role of learning strategies in second language acquisition by stating the following:

> ... all other things being equal, some students will be more successful than others in learning a second or foreign language. The learning strategy literature assumes that some of this success can be attributed to particular sets of cognitive and metacognitive behaviors which learners engage in.

2.5.1 Major Researchers and Their Studies in Language Learning Strategies

Research on language learning strategies is said to have started with the study 'The Method of Inference in Foreign Language Study' by Aaron Carton (1966). In his work, he suggested that learners show considerable differences in their tendency to make inferences and in their ability to make valid, logical, and reasonable inferences. Furthermore, he noticed that tolerance of risk also changes with the ability to make good inferences. In another article (1971), Carton gives a detailed discussion of inferencing as a strategy used by second language learners. He puts inferencing into three types of cues:

1. intra-lingual cues- in which the cues are supplied by the target language- used when a student already has some knowledge of the target language,
2. inter-lingual cues- which are brought to bear on loans between languages, cognates and regularities of phonological transformations from one language to another
3. extra-lingual cues- in which the learner uses what he/she knows about the real world to predict what is said in a foreign communication.

Carton sees language learning as a kind of problem-solving. That is, the learner can make use of his/her prior experience and knowledge in the processing of language (Rubin, 1987:19-20). Beginning with Aaron Carton (1966) and extending to Rebecca Oxford (2002), several researchers have contributed to the definitions and classifications of the area 'Language Learning Strategies'.

2.5.1.1 Wong-Fillmore's Research

Lily Wong-Fillmore (1976, 1979) did research on how the children increased in communicative competence in English. The subjects were five Mexican children (aged from 5.7 to 7.3 years) who were attending (English-speaking) school in California. Each child formed a pair with a native American child, and their conversations were recorded for an hour each week in a school playroom. At first, it was assumed that there would not be much variation in English proficiency over the nine-month study. However, the result was just the opposite. In the end, there were extremely wide differences, and the major problem was how to explain them adequately. Wong-Fillmore ignored aptitude as a basis for the variation. Rather, she placed the focus on the cognitive and social strategies utilized by the children which helped in language learning (Skehan, 1989: 72-73). She identified three social and five cognitive strategies as shown in Table 2.2:

Table 2.2: *Children's language learning strategies*

Social strategies	Cognitive strategies
S-1 Join a group and act as if you understand what is going on, even if you do not. S-2 Give the impression, with a few well-chosen words, that you speak the language. S-3 Count on your friends for help.	C-1 Assume what people are saying is relevant to the situation at hand. Metastrategy: Guess C-2 Get some expressions you understand, and start talking. C-3 Look for recurring parts in the formulas you know. C-4 Make the most of what you have got C-5 Work on the big things first: save the details for later.

In Wong-Fillmore's view, three social strategies were more important. She observed that the children's interests were basically in establishing social relationships rather than learning language, but they were obliged to learn English in order to establish such relations. The first social strategy implies that learners should join groups, and act as though they understand what happens in them.

2.5.1.2 Naiman et al.'s Research

Based on the work by Stern (1975), Naiman, Fröhlich, Todesco, and Stern (1978) planned to interview a group of successful and unsuccessful language learners to obtain information about the strategies they had used learning languages. However, they restricted their study only to good language learners (GLLs). The following are the strategies they identified at the end of the study:

Strategy 1: Active Task Approach: *Good language learners actively involve themselves in the language learning task.*

Strategy 2: Realization of Language as a System: *Good language learners develop or exploit an awareness of language as a system.*

Strategy 3: Realization of Language as a Means of Communication and Interaction: *GLLs develop and exploit an awareness of language as a means of communication (i.e. conveying and receiving messages) and interaction (i.e. behaving in a culturally appropriate manner).*

Strategy 4: Management of Affective Demands: *GLLs realize initially or with time that they must cope with affective demands made upon them by language learning and succeed in doing so.*

Strategy 5: Monitoring of L2 Performance: *GLLs constantly revise their L2 systems. They monitor the language they are acquiring by testing their inferences (guesses), by looking for needed adjustments as they learn new material or by asking native informants when they think corrections are needed* (Rubin, 1987: 20-21; Skehan, 1989: 76-77).

2.5.1.3 Joan Rubin's Research

Rubin (1981) conducted research on young adult learners and focused on the cognitive processes they utilized. Rubin proposed the following list of strategies:

1. Clarification/verification

e.g. a- Asks for example of how to use a word/expression
b- Puts word in sentence to check understanding
c- Looks up word in the dictionary
d- Paraphrases a sentence to check understanding.

2. Monitoring

e.g. a- Corrects error in own/other's pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling, grammar, style.
b- Notes sources of own errors, e.g. own language interference, other language interference.

3. Memorization

e.g. a- Takes notes of new items with or without examples, contexts, or definitions.
b- Finds some associations (semantic, visual, etc.)

4. Guessing/Inductive inferencing

a- Uses clues from the following to guess the meaning
- other items in the sentence or phrase
- syntactic structure
- context of discourse, etc., etc.

b- Ignores difficult word order

5. Deductive reasoning: Looks for and uses general rules

e.g. a- Compares native/other language to target language to identify similarities and differences
b- Infers grammatical rules by analogy
c- Notes exceptions to rules
d- Finds meaning by breaking down word into parts

6. Practice

e.g. a- Experiments with new sounds in isolation and in context , uses mirror for practice
b- Talks to self in target language
c- Drills self on words in different forms

It is obviously seen that all the strategies have a cognitive aspect, and suggest a considerable degree of self-awareness in the learning process. In this respect, the strategies are thought to be ones related to on the spot learning ('direct' strategies in Rubin's perspective) such as clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inferencing, and deductive reasoning and those related to out of class activities ('indirect' strategies in Rubin's perspective) such as monitoring, memorization and practice (Rubin, 1987: 23-24). Findings from three studies can be summarized in Table 2.3:

Table 2.3: *Comparison of findings from Naiman et al.'s, Rubin's, and Wong-Fillmore's research*

Naiman *et al*	Rubin	Wong-Fillmore Social	Cognitive
1 Active task approach	1 Clarification verification	1 Join a group	1 Assume relevance of what is being said
2 Language is a system	2 Memorization	2 Give the impression you can speak the language	2 Get some expressions
3 Language is a means of communication and interaction	3 Guessing, inductive inferencing	3 Count on your friends	3 Look for recurring parts in a formulae
4 Management of affective demands	4 Deductive reasoning		4 Make the most of what you have got
5 Monitoring of performance	5 Monitoring		5 Work on the big things first

The table shows remarkable similarities and differences between the findings. For example, Naiman et al. (1978) give the primary importance to Active Task Approach. This might be similar to Rubin's 'clarification/verification', 'memorization' and 'practice' strategies, and Wong-Fillmore's 'get some expressions' and 'make the most of what you have got'. It also embraces all Wong-Fillmore's social strategies. Similarly, Naiman et al.'s second strategy, Realization of Language as a System, appears to embody Rubin's 'guessing/inductive inferencing' and 'deductive reasoning' beside Wong-Fillmore's 'look for recurring parts in formulae'. Lastly, Naiman et al.'s Monitoring of Performance strategy is closely allied with Rubin's 'monitoring'. To sum up, the similarities include the learner's capacity to involve himself in the learning situation; his predispositions; and his capacity to assess (Skehan, 1989: 81).

There are differences among the studies as well. The first group of differences are due to the fact that strategies proposed by one researcher do not overlap those proposed by the others. Naiman et al.'s (1978) "Management of Affective Demands" is an example of this category, as is Wong-Fillmore's "Work on

the Big Things First". Beyond this, there are others which could be more significant. Above all, Naiman and Rubin take account of the reflections of learners about their own learning. For example, "the Monitoring Strategy" leads learners to evaluate their own progress and to separate themselves from the actual learning abilities beyond Wong-Fillmore's young learners. Furthermore, consciousness of learning becomes important with "the Realization of Language as a System Strategy". Naiman et al. (1978) focus on referring back to the L1 and the concept of inferencing, and Rubin similarly mentions guessing and inferencing as well as deductive reasoning. In this respect, Naiman and Rubin seem to deal with quite powerful metacognitive abilities while Wong-Fillmore is more occupied with immediate, context-dependent language use. There are also differences between Naiman –Rubin and Wong-Fillmore in terms of the circumstances where relevant activity occurs. According to Wong-Fillmore, this almost exclusively exists during actual language functioning- learning to talk includes talking to learn. This is important for the other researchers, too. Conversely, Naiman and Rubin, in their analysis, include situations where language use is not involved, but where relevant activity is. Both of them mention practice and memorization as important activities (Skehan, 1989: 82).

There are significant differences related to the language learning theories that are implicitly seen in the works of the investigators. Wong-Fillmore mentions progress as a slow, hard-won process in which the language system develops gradually, virtually grudgingly, out of the use of formulaic speech. Additionally, Wong-Fillmore's 'theory' of language learning pinpoints that the context of speech is necessary for guessing meaning (C1: Assume relevance). Consequently, there is a strong comprehension-driven element to most effective progress, along with the environment that provides the clues for those children most eager and capable to exploit them to make language understood. By contrast, Naiman et al. (1978) and Rubin (1981) focus on the development of a system through analysis. Rubin assumes two fundamental processes: guessing/inductive inferencing and deductive reasoning, implying a learner for whom mental processing and mental transformation- not necessarily linguistic- are much more important. Naiman et al. (1978) also underline the importance of analysis and indicate that linguistic material

is involved, e.g. ‘referring back to the L1 judiciously’. They highlight the benefits of perceiving the systematic nature of language, while Rubin puts the emphasis on general processes of cognition (Skehan, 1989: 82).

The time allocated for learning is the final issue. Certain behaviors, e.g. deductive reasoning, contribute directly to the process of language learning. In contrast, Naiman’s “Active Task Approach”, Wong-Fillmore’s “Social Strategies”, Rubin’s “Memorization and Practice” all indicate that more time is spent learning (Skehan, 1989: 82).

2.5.1.4 Bialystok’s Research

Bialystok (1977, 1981) mentions the effects of the use of two functional strategies- inferencing and functional practicing- and two formal strategies- monitoring and formal practicing. Bialystok states that the focus of functional practicing strategies is language use. Conversely, formal practicing strategies relate to language form. The results exhibited that the use of all four strategies influenced achievement in certain kinds of tests positively, and that the functional strategies greatly affected performance for all tasks (Rubin, 1987: 21). She defines learning strategies as “optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language”. The strategy type that the learners use depends on the type of knowledge required for a given task. According to Bialystok, there are three types of knowledge: explicit linguistic knowledge, implicit linguistic knowledge, and general knowledge of the world. She assumes that inferencing might be used with implicit linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world. Monitoring, formal practicing (such as verbal drills in a second language class), and functional practicing (such as completing a transaction at a store) contribute to both explicit and implicit knowledge. That is to say, if strategies are implicitly introduced in a formal setting, they can contribute to implicit linguistic knowledge, leading to students’ ability to understand and produce spontaneous language (O’Malley et al., 1985: 559).

2.5.1.5 Politzer and Mc Groarty's Research

Politzer and Mc Groarty (1985) conducted a study on a group of 37 students in an eight-week course in the USA through a questionnaire. The group was composed of Hispanic and Asian students. They also administered three pre- and post-course proficiency tests: an aural comprehension test, a grammar test and a communicative test. There were three sections in the questionnaire: 1- a 14-item scale on classroom behaviors; 2- a 15-item scale on individual study; 3- a 22-item scale on interaction with others outside the classroom. The scales in question distinguished between the two ethnic groups. Politzer and Mc Groarty pointed out that different groups may have different norms for behavior and these behaviors can only be assessed within the set of cultural assumptions that prevail in each group. Some of the items from their study can be seen in Table 2.4 (Skehan, 1989: 84).

Table 2.4: *Items from Politzer and Mc Groarty's scales*

Classroom behavior
6 Do you interrupt yourself when you notice that you have made a mistake?
8* Do you speak to fellow students (in class) in your native language?
12 Do you ask the teacher when and by whom an expression can be used?
14 Do you often guess the meaning of new words from the rest of the sentence in which they are used?
Learning behavior during individual study
3 Do you sometimes think about differences between English and your native language and – as a result- avoid making mistakes?
4* Do you try to memorize sentences as much as possible without analyzing them by grammar rules?
11 Do you keep track (e.g. by checking vocabulary lists or vocabulary cards) of words that you have learned?
12* When memorizing words or phrases, do you generally associate them with words or phrases in your native language rather than with other words or phrases in English or with pictures or actions?
Interactions with others outside the classroom
2 If you see that someone does not understand you, do you often try to rephrase what you are saying?
3 If you are not sure whether what you said is grammatically correct, do you ask for confirmation?
8 Can you often guess the meaning of what somebody said either from his/her expressions or from gestures?
18* In social gatherings, do you, whenever possible, try to talk to individuals who speak your native language?

* = An answer of 'No' is regarded as the 'positive' strategy

2.5.1.6 O'Malley et al.'s Research

O'Malley, Chamot, Stewer-Manzares, Kupper and Russo started another major research programme in the USA in the 1980s. In a preliminary study, O'Malley et al. gathered strategy data via interviews with secondary-school ESL learners, interviews with their teachers and observation. Interviewees were asked for strategy reports for the various activities (i.e. pronunciation, oral drills, grammar exercises and vocabulary and situations outside the classroom). At the end of the study, O'Malley et al. (1985, 557-560) listed the strategies shown in Table 2.5:

Table 2.5: *Learning strategy definitions* (O'Malley et al., 1985:582-84)

LEARNING STRATEGY	DESCRIPTION
A. METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
Advance organizers	Making a preview of the organizing concept or principle in a learning activity
Directed attention	Deciding in advance what to attend to in a learning task
Selective attention	Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of the language input or situational details in a task
Self-management	Understanding and arranging for the conditions that help one learn
Advance preparation	Planning for and rehearsing linguistic components necessary for a language task
Self-monitoring	Correcting one's speech for accuracy or for appropriateness to context
Delayed production	Consciously deciding to postpone speaking in favour of initial listening
Self-evaluation	Checking learning outcomes against internal standards
Self-reinforcements	Arranging rewards for successfully completing a language learning activity
B. COGNITIVE STRATEGIES	
Repetition	Imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal
Resourcing	Using target language reference materials
Directed physical response	Relating new information to physical actions with directives
Translation	Using the first language to understand and produce the second language
Grouping	Reordering or reclassifying material to be learned
Note-taking	Writing down main ideas, important points, outlines, or summaries of information

Deduction	Conscious application of rules
Recombination	Constructing language by combining known elements in a new way
Imagery	Relating new information to visual concepts in memory
Auditory representation	Retention of the sound or similar sound for a word, phrase, etc.
Keyword	Remembering a new word in the second language by mnemonic or associated techniques, e.g. keywords
Contextualization	Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence
Elaboration	Relating new information to existing concepts
Transfer	Using previously acquired knowledge to facilitate new learning
Inferencing	Using available information to guess meanings of new items, predict outcomes, etc.
C. SOCIAL STRATEGIES	
Cooperation	Working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, pool information, etc.
Questions for clarification	Asking a teacher, etc. for repetition, paraphrasing, explanation, and/or examples

They did not include many of the strategies advocated by Naiman et al. (1978) and Wong-Fillmore (1976, 1979). Little emphasis is put on the strategy of "Realization of Language as a Means of Communication" (GLL 2), or "Management of Affective Demands" (GLL 4), or on Wong-Fillmore's "Social Strategies". Additionally, there is little interest in the interaction and input-maximizing strategies that Naiman et al. (1978) and Wong-Fillmore (1976) pinpointed. This is surely due to the different settings for the respective studies, i.e. classrooms vs. naturalistic environments.

Another striking aspect of the study is the greater focus on metacognitive strategies, of which there are nine. These are similar to the Monitoring strategies reported by Naiman et al. (1978) and Rubin (1981), but monitoring is only one of the several strategies in O'Malley et al.'s (1985a) perspective. Essentially, the learner is assumed to have a significant role as a self-reflective being, along with control over his own learning processes (Skehan, 1985: 86-88).

2.5.1.7 Oxford's System and Its Comparison with Rubin's

Rubin's taxonomy, the systems suggested by Bialystok (1978) and O'Malley & Chamot (1990) provided the basis for Oxford's (1990) work on L2 learning strategies. Oxford (1990) also divided language learning strategies into two-direct and indirect- but with significant differences. To be more precise, Oxford defined the first type of language learning strategies as ones that directly include the language being learned. She placed memory, cognitive and compensation strategies under this category. Oxford defined the second type of language learning strategies as ones that are necessary or helpful for learning the language. She further divided them into three: metacognitive, affective and social categories. Oxford (1990) asseverates that direct and indirect strategies and these six strategy groupings are a kind of network within which different kinds of strategies support and enhance each other's effects in order to foster L2 learning (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002: 369 ; Nisbet, 2002: 17). Table 2.6 provides a comparison of these two systems:

Table 2.6: *A Comparison of Rubin's and Oxford's Strategy Classifications*

Rubin (1981)	Oxford (1990)
Direct Strategies	
Clarification/Verification	Indirect Social Strategies
Monitoring	Indirect Metacognitive Strategies
Memorization	Direct Memory Strategies
Guessing/Inductive Inferencing	Direct Compensation Strategies
Deductive Reasoning	Direct Cognitive Strategies
Practice	Direct Cognitive Strategies
Indirect Strategies	
Create Opportunities for Practice	Indirect Social Strategies
Production Tricks	Direct Compensation Strategies

The table above shows a comparison between Rubin's and Oxford's classification of learning strategies into specific categories and reveals a significant degree of difference. This is owing to the differences between Rubin's and Oxford's definitions of direct/indirect strategies from the very beginning. Rubin's clarification/verification and monitoring - two of the direct strategies- are matched with Oxford's indirect strategies (asking questions for clarification/verification =

social strategy; monitoring = metacognitive strategy). Production tricks (one kind of Rubin's indirect strategies) overlap a subset of Oxford's compensation strategies (among the direct strategies) (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002: 369).

2.5.1.8 O'Malley et al.'s System and Its Comparison with Oxford's

O'Malley & Chamot's (1990) strategy system is composed of three broad types of learning strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective (or sometimes called socioaffective or social-affective) and it has gained considerable importance since its introduction. This classification is mainly based on Brown & Palinscar's (1982) and Anderson's (1985) cognitive psychological concepts. Table 1.6 shows the comparison between O'Malley & Chamot's (1990) system with Oxford's (1990) system. A considerable level of overlapping is seen between the two strategy systems; however, there are also many differences which are shown in Table 2.7 (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002: 371).

Table 2.7: *A Comparison of Two Major Strategy Classification Systems*

O'Malley &Chamot (1990) O'Malley,Chamot, Stewner-Manzares, Küpper &Russo (1985) O'Malley,Chamot, Stewner-Manzares, Russo, & Küpper (1985)	Oxford (1990)
Metacognitive Strategies	
Advance Organizers	Metacognitive Strategies
Directed Attention	Metacognitive Strategies
Selective Attention	Metacognitive Strategies
Self-Management	Metacognitive Strategies
Functional Planning	Metacognitive Strategies
Self-Monitoring	Metacognitive Strategies
Self-Evaluation	Metacognitive Strategies
Delayed Production	Metacognitive Strategies
Cognitive Strategies	
Repetiton	Cognitive Strategies
Resourcing	Cognitive Strategies
Translation	Cognitive Strategies
Grouping	Memory Strategies
Note Taking	Cognitive Strategies
Deduction	Cognitive Strategies
Recombination	Cognitive Strategies

Imagery	Memory Strategies
Auditory Representation	Memory Strategies
Keyword	Memory Strategies
Contextualization	Memory Strategies
Elaboration	Memory Strategies
Transfer	Cognitive Strategies
Inferencing	Compensation Strategies
Socioaffective Strategies	
Cooperation	Social Strategies
Question for Clarification	Social Strategies
Self-Talk	Affective Strategies

The cognitive strategies of O'Malley & Chamot somehow match a combination of Oxford's memory and cognitive strategies. Nevertheless, Oxford's compensation strategy (inferencing)-make up for missing knowledge- is part of O'Malley & Chamot's cognitive category.

Unlike O'Malley & Chamot, Oxford makes a distinction between memory strategies and cognitive strategies as memory strategies seem to have a very clear, specific function which teases them apart from many cognitive strategies. Naturally, memory strategies refer to cognition. However, those included as memory strategies are certain mnemonic devices that help learners move information to long-term memory for storage and retrieve it from long-term memory when it is needed for further use. While cognitive strategies contribute to deep processing, most of the memory devices do not contribute to deep processing of language information.

To Oxford, compensation strategies are techniques used by learners to compensate for missing knowledge. This strategy is vital for making up for inadequate knowledge during reading or listening. In Oxford's system, some other compensation strategies make up for missing information while the learner is speaking or writing. Compensation strategies for speaking are often termed communication strategies. Communication strategies are not overtly expressed in the O'Malley & Chamot system. As seen in Table 1.6, O'Malley & Chamot's (1990) metacognitive strategies are similar to those of Oxford's (1990). The main function of this category is planning, organizing and evaluating one's own learning.

The two systems take into consideration strategies handling both affect and social interaction. Affective strategies are techniques through which the learner manages his or her emotions, feelings and motivational states. Social strategies are techniques including learning with other people. As understood from Table 1.6, O'Malley & Chamot put affective & social strategies together to form a subcategory known as social-affective, socio-affective or socioaffective. Conversely, Oxford categorized affective and social strategies under separate headings and introduced many more affective & social strategies than did O'Malley & Chamot. The logic behind this was that affective & social strategies deserve considerable attention as part of the "whole learner" (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002: 372).

Oxford's classification focuses on the communicative nature of language like Bialystok's model. On the other hand, it has a strong theoretical base and provides a comprehensive taxonomy of metacognitive and cognitive strategies like O'Malley & Chamot's (1990) system. Furthermore, Oxford's model handles the social and affective dimensions (these are less developed in O'Malley & Chamot's (1990) system). There are also memory and compensation strategies as distinct categories in Oxford's model. Lastly, Oxford's classification system is presented with her widely recognized Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Nisbet, 2002: 17). Consequently, Oxford's Language Learning Strategy Classification and the accompanying strategy inventory (SILL) were chosen as the basis of research in the present study.

2.5.2 A Review of Oxford's Language Learning Strategy Classification

Oxford (1990), in her book 'Language Learning Strategies What Every Teacher Should Know', gives a comprehensive account of language learning strategies. She explicates the whole idea as follows. There are two main sections in Oxford's language learning strategies taxonomy: direct and indirect strategies.

2.5.2.1 Direct Strategies:

Strategies that are directly related to the target language are called direct strategies. All direct strategies need processing the language mentally; however, this processing is realized differently and for different aims by the three sets of direct strategies (memory, cognitive, and compensation). Memory strategies (like grouping or using imagery) embody a significant function; that is, helping learners to store and retrieve new information. Cognitive strategies (like summarizing or reasoning deductively) provide learners with tools to understand and produce new language. Compensation strategies (such as guessing or using synonyms) enable learners to use the language despite their inadequate knowledge (Oxford, 1990: 37).

2.5.2.1.1 Memory Strategies:

People have used Memory Strategies (called *mnemonics*) for ages. McCown and Roop (1992:240) define mnemonics as techniques that help us to organize or elaborate information we want to retain. These techniques work by relating well-known or familiar information to the new information to be learned. Hamilton and Ghatala (1994:128) give a summary of mnemonic techniques in Table 2.8:

Table 2.8: *Summary of Mnemonic Techniques*

Technique	Description	Uses
First-letter mnemonics	The letters of items to be remembered are used to form a phrase or word	Remembering sequence of items or list of items
Peg method	Numbers 1-10 are associated with rhyming words (one is a bun, two is a shoe…); each item to be remembered is then imaged interacting with one of the pegs (a bottle of milk dancing with a bun)	Remembering lists such as grocery items or errands; also useful for remembering temporal or spatial sequences, as in directions or steps in a complex procedure
Method of loci	Items to be remembered are linked with distinct landmarks along a familiar route	Remembering the key points in a speech, lists of items
Key-word method	The first item to be learned is linked with a familiar word to which it is acoustically similar; this key word is then linked to the second item to be learned by means of an image or sentence	Remembering the English translations of foreign words; definitions of English words; technical vocabulary; states and capitals; presidents and their terms

In ancient times, for example, orators could remember a long speech by the help of connecting different parts of the speech with different rooms of a house or temple, and then "taking a walk" from room to room. Before literacy was widespread, memory strategies were used to remember practical information about farming, weather, or when they were born. After literacy became widespread, people gave up their previous habits and called those techniques as "gimmicks" (Oxford, 1990: 38).

Memory Strategies are of four sets: Creating Mental Images, Applying Images and Sounds, Reviewing Well and Employing Actions. Memory strategies work better when the learner uses metacognitive strategies, like paying attention and affective strategies, like reducing anxiety through deep breathing.

Memory Strategies are utilized through very simple principles, such as arranging things in order, making associations, and reviewing. All these principles include meaning. When a new language is being learned, the arrangement and associations must be meaningful to the learner and the material reviewed must have significance.

Most language learners have some difficulties in remembering the large amount of vocabulary essential to achieve fluency. Memory strategies are helpful for learners to cope with these difficulties. They enable learners to store verbal material and then retrieve it if needed for communication. Additionally, the memory strategy of structured reviewing helps move information from the "fact level" to the "skill level", where knowledge is more procedural and automatic. The skill level is significant in that information is more easily retrieved and less easily lost after a period of disuse on this level (Oxford, 1990: 39).

Memory strategies often include pairing different kinds of material. In language learning, learners might give verbal labels to pictures, or create visual images of words or phrases. This process has four implications for language learning. First, the mind's storage capacity for visual information goes beyond its capacity for verbal material. Second, it is through visual images that the most efficiently packaged chunks of information are transferred to long-term memory. Third, visual images may have the most potential to help remember verbal material. Fourth, quite a lot of learners have a preference for visual learning.

Many language learners benefit from visual imagery; however, others have aural (sound-oriented), kinaesthetic (motion-oriented), or tactile (touch-oriented) learning style preferences and benefit from connecting material with sound, motion or touch (Oxford, 1990: 40). Below are the sub-groups of memory strategies:

a) Creating Mental Linkages

I. Grouping: Classifying or reclassifying language material into meaningful units.

II. Associating/Elaborating: Relating new language information to concepts already in memory.

III. Placing new words in a context: Placing a word or phrase in a meaningful sentence, conversation, or story in order to remember it.

b) Applying Images and Sounds

I. Using imagery: Relating new language information to concepts in memory by means of meaningful visual imagery.

II. Semantic mapping: Making an arrangement of words into a picture, which has a key concept at the centre or at the top, and related words and concepts linked with the key concept by means of lines and arrows.

III. Using keywords: Remembering a new word by using auditory and visual links.

IV. Representing sounds in memory: Remembering new language information according to its sound (Oxford, 1990: 41, 42).

c) Reviewing Well

I. Structured reviewing: Reviewing in carefully spaced intervals.

d) Employing Action

I. Using physical response or sensation: Physically acting out a new expression (e.g. going to the door), or meaningfully relating a new expression to a physical feeling or sensation (e.g. warmth).

II. Using mechanical techniques: Using creative but tangible techniques, especially involving moving or changing something which is concrete, in order to remember new target language information (Oxford, 1990: 42, 43).

2.5.2.1.2 Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are vital in learning a new language. These strategies vary from repeating to analyzing expressions to summarizing. Cognitive strategies are utilized by a common function- manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner. Research reports that cognitive strategies are the most popular strategies among language learners (Oxford, 1990: 43).

There are four sets of cognitive strategies: Practicing, Receiving and Sending Messages, Analyzing and Reasoning, and Creating Structure for Input and Output. Following are important cognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990: 45).

a) Practicing

I. Repeating: Saying or doing something over and over.

II. Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems: Practicing sounds or practicing the new writing system of the target language.

III. Recognizing and using formulas and patterns: Being aware of and/or using routine formulas (such as “Hello, how are you?”), and unanalyzed patterns (such as “It’s time -------“).

IV. Recombining: Combining known elements in new ways to produce a longer sequence.

V. Practicing naturalistically: Practicing the new language in natural, realistic settings (Oxford, 1990: 45).

b) Receiving and Sending Messages

I. Getting the ideas quickly: Using skimming to determine the main ideas or scanning to find specific details of interest.

II. Using resources for receiving and sending messages: Using print or non-print resources.

c) Analyzing and Reasoning

I. Reasoning deductively: Using general rules and applying them to new target language situations.

II. Analyzing expressions: Determining the meaning of a new expression by breaking it down into parts.

III. Analyzing contrastively: Comparing elements of the new language with those of one's own language.

IV. Translating: Converting a target language expression into the native language.

V. Transferring: Directly applying knowledge of words, concepts, or structures from one language to another.

d) Creating Structure for Input and Output

I. Taking notes: Writing down the main idea or specific points.

II. Summarizing: Making a summary or abstract of a longer passage.

III. Highlighting: Using a variety of emphasis techniques to focus on important information in a passage (Oxford, 1990: 46, 47).

2.5.2.1.3 Compensation Strategies

Compensation strategies are for either comprehension or production despite limitations in knowledge. Learners use these strategies with the aim of making up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar and, especially, of vocabulary. There are two groups of compensation strategies: Guessing Intelligently in Listening and Reading, and Overcoming Limitations in Speaking and Writing.

Guessing strategies (sometimes called "Inferencing") include using several clues- linguistic and non-linguistic- to guess the meaning when the learner does not know all the words. When good language learners are faced with unknown expressions, they make educated guesses. On the contrary, poor language learners often panic, tune out or take a dictionary and look up every unfamiliar word.

Guessing is utilized not only by beginners but also by advanced learners and even native speakers. They use it when they do not know a word, when they have not heard something well enough or when the meaning is hidden between the lines.

Compensation occurs both in understanding the new language and producing it. Compensation strategies permit learners to produce spoken or written expressions in the new language without complete knowledge (Oxford, 1990: 48).

a) Guessing Intelligently in Listening and Reading

I. Using linguistic clues: Seeking and using language-based clues in order to guess the meaning of what is heard or read in the target language.

II. Using other clues: 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).

b) Overcoming Limitations in Speaking and Writing

I. Switching to the mother tongue: Using the mother tongue for an expression without translating it.

II. Getting help: Asking someone for help.

III. Using mime or gesture: Using physical motion.

IV. Avoiding communication partially or totally: Partially or totally avoiding communication when difficulties are anticipated.

V. Selecting the topic: Choosing the topic of conversation in order to direct the communication.

VI. Adjusting or approximating the message: Altering the message by omitting some items of information.

VII. Coining words: Making up new words to communicate the desired idea.

VIII. Using a circumlocution or synonym: Getting the meaning across by describing the concept (circumlocution) or using a word that means the same thing (synonym) (Oxford, 1990: 50, 51).

2.5.2.2 Indirect Strategies

Strategies that are indirectly related to the target language are called *indirect* strategies. Indirect strategies are divided into three categories; metacognitive, affective, and social. *Metacognitive strategies* permit learners to control their own cognition- that is, to coordinate the process of learning by using such functions as

centring, arranging, planning and evaluating. *Affective strategies* are utilized to regulate emotions, motivations and attitudes. *Social strategies* aid learners to learn via interaction with others. All these strategies are named 'indirect' as they support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language. Indirect strategies are useful in almost all language learning situations and can be applied to all language skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing (Oxford, 1990: 135).

2.5.2.2.1 Metacognitive Strategies

"Metacognitive" means beyond the cognitive. Hence, metacognitive strategies are actions which exceed cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning.

Metacognitive strategies are significant for successful language learning. These help learners to cope with too much "newness" which is caused by the target language (unfamiliar vocabulary, confusing rules, different writing systems, seemingly inexplicable social customs and non-traditional instructional approaches). Metacognitive strategies fall into three groups: Centering Your Learning, Arranging and Planning Your Learning, and Evaluating Your Learning (Oxford, 1990: 136).

a) Centering Your Learning

I. Overviewing and Linking with Already Known Material: Overviewing comprehensively a key concept, principle, or set of materials in an upcoming language activity and associating it with what is already known.

II. Paying Attention: Deciding in advance to pay attention in general to a language learning task.

III. Delaying Speech Production to Focus on Listening: Deciding in advance to delay speech production in the new language.

b) Arranging and Planning Your Learning

I. Finding Out About Language Learning: Making efforts to find out how language learning works.

II. Organizing: Understanding and using conditions related to optimal learning of the new language.
III. Setting Goals and Objectives: Setting aims for language learning.
IV. Identifying the Purpose of a Language Task: Deciding the purpose of a particular language task involving listening, reading, speaking, or writing.
V. Planning for a Language Task: Planning for the language elements and functions necessary for an anticipated language task or situation.
VI. Seeking Practice Opportunities: Seeking out or creating opportunities to practice the new language in naturalistic situations.

c) Evaluating Your Learning
I. Self-Monitoring: Identifying errors in understanding or producing the new language, determining which ones are important.
II. Self-Evaluating: Evaluating one's own progress in the new language (Oxford, 1990: 138-140).

2.5.2.2.2 Affective Strategies

The term 'affective' is related to emotions, attitudes, motivations and values. Affective factors influence language learning; therefore, language learners should gain control over these factors through affective strategies. H. Douglas Brown states that the affective side of the learners is perhaps one of the most important factors on language learning success or failure. Good language learners are believed to control their emotions and attitudes about learning (Oxford, 1990: 140).

a) Lowering Your Anxiety
I. Using Progressive Relaxation, Deep Breathing, or Meditation: Using the technique of alternately tensing and relaxing all of the major muscle groups in the body.
II. Using Music: Listening to soothing music, such as a classical concert, as a way to relax.
III. Using Laughter: Using laughter to relax (e.g. by watching a funny movie).

b) Encouraging Yourself

I. Making Positive Statements: Saying or writing positive statements to oneself in order to feel more confident in learning the new language.

II. Taking Risks Wisely: Pushing oneself to take risks in a language learning situation.

III. Rewarding Yourself: Giving oneself a valuable reward for a particularly good performance.

c) Taking Your Emotional Temperature

I. Listening to Your Body: Paying attention to signals given by the body.

II. Using a Checklist: Using a checklist to discover feelings, attitudes, and motivations concerning language learning.

III. Writing a Language Learning Diary: Writing a diary or journal to keep track of events and feelings in the process of language learning.

IV. Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else: Talking with another person to discover and express feelings about language learning (Oxford, 1990:143, 144).

2.5.2.2.3 Social Strategies

As language is a form of social behavior, language learning involves other people. Consequently, appropriate social strategies are vital in this process (Oxford, 1990: 144). Three sets of social strategies can be distinguished as follows:

a) Asking Questions

I. Asking for Clarification or Verification: Asking the speaker to repeat, paraphrase, explain, slow down, or give examples; asking if a specific utterance is correct.

II. Asking for Correction: Asking someone for correction in a conversation.

b) Cooperating with Others

I. Cooperating with Peers: Working with other language learners to improve language skills.

II. Cooperating with Proficient Users of the New Language: Working with native speakers or other proficient users of the new language, usually outside the language classroom.

c) Empathizing with Others

I. Developing Cultural Understanding: Trying to empathize with another person through learning about the culture.

II. Becoming Aware of Others' Thoughts and Feelings: Observing the behaviors of others as a possible expression of their thoughts and feelings (Oxford, 1990:146, 147).

2.6 Variables Affecting the Use of Language Learning Strategies

A lot of research on language learning strategies (Politzer & Mc Groarty, 1985; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989) has investigated connections between strategy use and learner variables such as language proficiency level, gender, motivation, learning styles, culture, and age. On the whole, all these variables have been found to affect learners' choices of language learning strategies (Al-Otaibi, 2004: 42).

2.6.1 Language Proficiency Level

Several studies (Green & Oxford, 1995; Ku, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Bremner, 1999; Wharton, 2000) have handled the relationship between strategy use and language proficiency level. Mostly, it has been found that there is a strong relationship between the frequency and number of strategies utilized and language proficiency (Al-Otaibi, 2004: 43). Park (1997) did research on the relationships between learning strategy use and language proficiency within a Korean context. He used the SILL to measure learning strategies and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) to examine language proficiency with 332 Korean EFL university students. The results indicated that Korean students used metacognitive and compensation strategies most frequently and the study concluded

"the more students used language learning strategies, the higher their TOEFL scores" (Song, 2004: 25).

2.6.2 Gender

Research (Politzer, 1983; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989) has shown that there is a significant difference between males and females in the use of language learning strategies (Al-Otaibi, 2004: 49). Ehrman & Oxford (1989) reported that females from different cultures studying in the USA were more intuitive than males, who were more sensing oriented. Females were more feeling-oriented as well. They also noticed that feeling- and intuition-oriented learners demonstrated superiority for language learning strategy use, which could explain the female superiority in learning strategies use. According to Bacon (1993), women use more metacognitive and cognitive strategies than men and that there are no significant differences between comprehension levels of men and women (Saleh, 1997:61).

2.6.3 Motivation

Motivation is one of the most important factors to successful language acquisition (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Gardner (1985) suggests that the major determining factor in language learning is motivation. Together with attitude, motivation plays an important role while learners actively engage in language learning (Al-Otaibi, 2004: 55).

2.6.4 Learning Styles

Learning styles are defined as the general approaches such as global or analytic, auditory or visual. Students use them in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject. Cornett (1983, 9) states that styles are "the general patterns that give general directions to learning behavior". Ehrman & Oxford (1990) mentioned nine major style dimensions related to L2 learning. Sensory preferences,

personality types, desired degree of generality, and biological differences are said to be of great importance in L2 learning (Oxford, 2001: 359).

Sensory Preferences: Sensory preferences can be analyzed into four types: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic (movement-oriented), and tactile (touch-oriented). Visual students want to read and get much from visual stimulation. On the other hand, auditory students get by without visual input. They like classroom interactions in role-plays and similar activities. Kinaesthetic and tactile students prefer a lot of movement and love working with tangible objects, collages, and flashcards (Oxford, 2001: 360).

Personality Types: Personality type is another aspect that is important for L2 education. It consists of four different kinds: extroverted versus introverted; intuitive-random versus sensing-sequential; thinking versus feeling and closure-oriented/judging versus open/perceiving. Ehrman & Oxford (1989, 1990) observed significant connections between personality type and language proficiency (Oxford, 2001: 360).

Desired Degree of Generality: This characteristic mainly distinguishes learners who focus on the basic idea or big picture from learners who concentrate on details. Global or holistic students prefer socially interactive, communicative events. However, analytic students like dealing with grammatical details and avoid free-flowing communicative activities (Oxford, 2001: 361).

Biological Differences: There is also a relationship between L2 learning and biological factors, such as biorhythms, sustenance, and location. Biorhythms determine the times students feel good and ready to learn. Sustenance relates to learners' need for eating and drinking while learning. Some learners are comfortable learning with a candy bar, a cup of coffee, or a soda in hand, but others are not. Location refers to the environmental factors: temperature, lightning, sound and even the firmness of the chairs. L2 learners display great differences with regard to these factors (Oxford, 2001: 361).

Oxford advocates the idea that when the learner consciously chooses strategies that fit his or her learning style and the L2 task at hand, these strategies become a useful tool-kit for active, conscious, and purposeful self-regulation of learning (Oxford, 2001: 359).

2.6.5 Culture

Several studies (including Rubin, 1975; A.D. Cohen, 1977; Chamot & O'Malley, 1984; and Oxford & Nyikos, 1989) have mentioned "culture" as an important factor in strategy use. This is because the culture of a student is partly composed of prior formal and informal educational experiences. O'Malley & Chamot (1990) reports on students who belong to a culture whose educational system focuses on rote memorization. According to their observations, successful learners have highly developed memory strategies; however, most learners from that background have less developed problem-solving and comprehension strategies. Also, the SILL questionnaire results in different parts of the world have exhibited differences in strategy use frequency across cultures (Kaylani, 1996: 79).

2.6.6 Age

Scarcella & Oxford (1992) state that age relates to language learning success. Johnson & Newport (1989) revealed that early-age (3 to 7) learners acquired second language better than older L2 learners because early learners are more likely to attain fluency, native-like pronunciation, and very basic grammatical rules (cited in Ehrman & Oxford, 1995: 68). Young L2 learners have less language anxiety when they learn a second language. A number of studies (Burt & Krashen, 1982; Oyama, 1976; Snow & Hoefnagel-Hohle, 1978) proved this connection Some other well-known studies (Burling, 1981; Schmidt, 1983; Schumann, 1978) also suggest that adults seem to find it hard to develop a new language (Griffiths, 2003: 48). On the contrary, adult learners have advantages in understanding the grammatical structure and patterns, and easily transmit their knowledge to the language learning context (Chang, 2003: 36). Bialystok (1981) also studied the relationship between learners' language learning strategy choices and their ages. The results showed that older students used language learning strategies more than younger students and that made a difference in their successes (cited in Tamada, 1997: 11).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents brief information on the study. The researcher will touch upon the subject, the setting, the participants, the instrument, data collection procedures, and the analysis of the data respectively.

3.2 Problem

This study handles the use of language learning strategies of students of English at the Preparatory School of Gazi University. It aims to:

a) investigate language learning strategies of English preparatory class students at Gazi University ,

b) gain insights into students' perceptions of and approaches to language learning strategies,

c) provide suggestions related to the topic at hand according to the results of the research.

The instrument in this study involves six categories of language learning strategies [memory (mem.), cognitive (cog.), compensation (com.), metacognitive (met.), affective (aff.), and social (soc.) strategies]. Considering students' use of these strategies, the study addresses the following questions:

1- What language learning strategies do the students of English at the Preparatory School of Gazi University utilize, and how often do they use them?

2- Is there a difference in the students' use of language learning strategies according to their gender?

3- Is there a difference in the students' use of language learning strategies according to their faculties?

4- Is there a difference in the students' use of language learning strategies according their type of high school background?

5- Is there a difference in the students' use of language learning strategies according to their previous English learning experience (whether they had a prep-class / an intensive English course experience before)?

6- Is there a difference in the students' use of language learning strategies according to their proficiency levels (B Grade-high proficiency group, C Grade-mid proficiency group, and D Grade- low proficiency group)?

3.3 Setting

The instrument (composed of the PIQ-Personal Information Questionnaire- and the SILL- Strategy Inventory for Language Learning-) was administered to English preparatory classes of Gazi University Research and Application Center for Instruction of Foreign Languages. There are four grades at the school: Grade A (the highest grade classes -students from the Department of ELT), Grade B (the second highest grade classes where there are students from the rest of the university), Grade C (the third highest English grade classes for students apart from ELT department), Grade D (the lowest English grade classes for students apart from ELT department).

The grades are determined through a preliminary exam called Exemption Exam (EE). Students take the exam just before the beginning of the academic year. Afterwards, they are put into different grade classes (A, B, C and D) in terms of the scores they have gained in EE. Grade A students start the school from intermediate level and finish it with advanced level. They attend English classes 25 hours a week. Grade B students start the school from pre-intermediate level and finish it with upper intermediate level. They have 20 hours of English a week. Grade C students begin from elementary level and study up to upper intermediate level; they have 23 hours of English in a week. Grade D students start from novice level and finish with upper intermediate level; they have 25 hours of English in a week. In the school, there are

students from the faculty of education, engineering and architecture, technical education, economic and administrative sciences and medicine.

3.4 Participants

334 prep-class students participated in the study. These students were from B, C and D Grade classes. The researcher did not include students from A Grade classes. Grade A students study at the faculty of education, department of English language teaching; they are going to be English language teachers themselves. It is thought that their approaches to and use of language learning strategies are different from those studying in other faculties and departments. This difference could be assigned to their English learning background (they are all graduates of high schools with foreign language classes). Additionally, English is directly related to their future professions.

Among the three grades, Grade B students belong to high proficiency level, Grade C students belong to mid proficiency level and Grade D students belong to low proficiency level. These three grades were chosen to observe the differences in the use of language learning strategies across four disciplines (different faculties they are going to study in). Table 3.1 illustrates the distribution of the participants by their grade:

Table 3.1 *Distribution of Participants According to Grade*

Grades	Population	Participants	
	n	*n*	*(%)*
B Grade	247	104	31.1
C Grade	512	99	29.6
D Grade	626	131	39.2
Total	1385	334	100

As shown in table 3.1, 104 students are Grade B students and it is the 31.1 percent of the population. 99 students are Grade C students and it is the 29.6 percent of the population. 131 students are Grade D students and it is the 39.2 percent of the population. Among the participants, 229 of them are male (68.6%) whereas 105 students are female (31.4%). Table 3.2 shows the distribution of the participants by their gender:

Table 3.2 *Distribution of Participants According to Gender*

	n	*(%)*
Male	229	68.6
Female	105	31.4
Total	334	100

Among the participants, 145 students are from the faculty of economic and administrative science, 102 students are from the faculty of engineering and architecture, 79 students are from the faculty of technical education and 8 students are from the faculty of medicine (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 *Distribution of Participants According to Faculty*

	n	*(%)*
Faculty of economic and administrative sciences	145	43.4
Faculty of engineering and architecture	102	30.5
Faculty of technical education	79	23.7
Faculty of medicine	8	2.4
Total	334	100

The schools in secondary education in Turkey mainly fall into five types: Public Lycées, Anatolian/Science Lycées, Private Lycées, Super Lycées, and

Technical/Vocational Lycées. Public Lycées offer a three-year program aiming both at general education as well as the preparation for higher education. Entrance to public lycées requires elementary education diploma. Anatolian/Science Lycées offer programs that are enriched in Western languages as well as basic sciences. Both of these two types of lycées are highly selective; they accept pupils by competitive examinations. Super Lycées provide students with a three-year education, placing emphasis on foreign languages and preparation for higher education. Private Lycées offer essentially the academic high school curricula with emphasis on foreign languages and the university preparatory courses. They are run by the private sector and under the control of the Ministry of National Education. Technical/Vocational Lycées have 3- or 4- year curricula which give pupils training for business, industrial jobs and higher education. They also admit pupils by competitive examinations. Table 3.4 shows the related distribution:

Table 3.4 *Distribution of Participants According to High School Background*

	n	*(%)*
Public	107	32
Anatolian	85	25.4
Private	17	5.1
Super	63	18.9
Technical	62	18.6
Total	334	100

Finally, English backgrounds of the participants were examined. Students were asked whether they had an English prep-class/an intensive English course experience or not. According to their answers, 174 of them had a previous English learning experience. On the other hand, 160 participants did not have a previous English learning experience. Table 3.5 shows the frequency of students' previous English learning experience:

Table 3.5 *Distribution of Participants According to Previous English Learning Experience*

	n	*(%)*
Yes	174	52.1
No	160	47.9
Total	334	100

3.5 Instrument

The instrument used in this study consists of two sections: the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, Version 7.0 [ESL/EFL]), and the Personal Information Questionnaire (PIQ).

Oxford (1990) developed the structured self-report questionnaire, the SILL (ESL/EFL Student Version), so as to find out the variety and frequency of language learning strategies that students utilize. The SILL contains expressions that consist of six categories: memory strategies for storing and retrieving new information; cognitive strategies for understanding and producing the language; compensation strategies for overcoming deficiencies of knowledge in language; metacognitive strategies for directing the learning process; affective strategies for regulating emotions, motivations, and attitudes; and social strategies for increasing learning experiences with other people. The 50 Likert-scale items of the SILL measure frequencies of strategy use and range as “1: never or almost never true of me”, “2: generally not true of me”, “3: somewhat true of me”, “4: generally true of me”, and “5: always or almost always true of me”. The researcher modified the choices, reducing them to *never/rarely/sometimes/often/always* type and placing them under every item so that they could be answered more easily and adequately. These categories were assigned values of 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 respectively. Higher scores indicate more use of language learning strategies. Table 3.6 gives a brief overview

of groups in SILL. The figures in parentheses refer to the number of questions in each group.

Table 3.6 *Overview of Groups in SILL*

Direct Strategies	(29)	Part A	(9)	Memory Strategies
		Part B	(14)	Cognitive Strategies
		Part C	(6)	Compensation Strategies
Indirect Strategies	(21)	Part D	(9)	Metacognitive Strategies
		Part E	(6)	Affective Strategies
		Part F	(6)	Social Strategies

The Personal Information Questionnaire (PIQ) was used to understand the results of this study fully. The PIQ includes questions about learners' gender, faculty, type of high school background, previous English learning experience, and proficiency level. Turkish versions of the SILL and the PIQ were used in the study so as to minimize any possible inconveniences resulting from students' comprehension of English.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

In February, 2006, permission for conducting the questionnaire was asked from Gazi University Research and Application Centre for Instruction of Foreign Languages. The institution granted permission and determined 9 D Grade, 7 C Grade, and 5 B Grade classes. The institution also set a date for the administration of the questionnaire (February 10, 2006). The researcher gathered the data- the SILL and the PIQ- during the class hour with the cooperation of the English instructors in charge of the classes. 345 questionnaires were given to the students. The subjects were reminded that there are no right or wrong answers on the SILL and the PIQ, and they were asked to give an honest response. In addition, they were assured that their responses would be kept confidential. Specific care was also taken to remind the subjects that the SILL does not measure their strategies, that is, they are expected to

mark not what they think about learning English, but how they actually go about learning English.

334 questionnaires returned as valid and the subsequent analysis of the data was carried out using SPSS statistical program.

3.7 Data Analysis

SPSS 12.0 for Windows was used to analyze the data. Mainly, two types of analyses were conducted in the treatment of the data. These are descriptive statistics and a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Descriptive data (means, standard deviations, and frequencies) were explored. A one-way ANOVA was applied to the data to see variation in categorical strategy use (six different strategy categories) by learners' gender, faculty, type of high school background, previous English learning experience, and proficiency level. Six strategy categories and total 50 questions were treated as dependent variables whereas learners' gender, faculty, type of high school background, previous English learning experience, and proficiency level were treated as independent variables.

The researcher used $p = .05$ as significance level throughout the study. $p < .05$ indicates that a result would be considered significant if it could happen by chance fewer than 5 times out of 100. When significance turned out as $p < .05$, a standard Post-Hoc test was performed to decide on where those differences occurred.

50 questions in the SILL (all dependent variables) are accompanied by 5 choices *never/rarely/sometimes/often/always* each. The values for the choices are 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 respectively. Oxford (1990: 291) categorizes the mean strategy scores under three levels, according to the degrees of strategy use: low (1.0-2.4), medium (2.5-3.4), and high (3.5-5.0). The same degrees are adopted in the present study; therefore, the findings are all analyzed according to these criteria.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This study handles language learning strategies utilized by students learning English at Preparatory School of Gazi University in accordance with their gender, faculty, type of high school background, previous English learning experience, and proficiency level (high, medium, and low). The findings are presented with regard to the six research questions.

4.1 Research Question # 1

What language learning strategies do students of English at Preparatory School of Gazi University utilize, and how often do they use them?

There are two main steps to answer the first research question. First of all, frequency tests were run to examine how often each language strategy is used. There are 50 statements in the SILL questionnaire and they are divided into six different strategy categories (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social). First nine statements relate to memory strategies. Students' responses to these statements are given in table 4.1.

Table 4.1 *Distribution of Participants' Responses for Statements 1-9 (Memory Strategies)*

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Statement 1	14	4.2%	56	16.8%	96	28.7%	135	40.4%	33	9.9%
Statement 2	51	15.3%	134	40.1%	111	33.2%	35	10.5%	3	0.9%
Statement 3	43	12.9%	83	24.9%	99	29.6%	91	27.2%	18	5.4%
Statement 4	23	6.9%	96	28.7%	103	30.8%	100	29.9%	12	3.6%
Statement 5	109	32.6%	97	29.0%	86	25.7%	36	10.8%	6	1.8%
Statement 6	111	33.2%	70	21.0%	57	17.1%	76	22.8%	20	6.0%
Statement 7	134	40.1%	121	36.2%	51	15.3%	22	6.6%	4	1.2%
Statement 8	41	12.3%	114	34.1%	109	32.6%	64	19.2%	6	1.8%
Statement 9	54	16.2%	94	28.1%	81	24.3%	90	26.9%	14	4.2%

According to the frequency test run to determine how often students use the strategies, it is possible to say that participants marked the option “always” for Statement 1 (I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English) mostly whereas Statement 2 (I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them) was marked only by 3 % of the total participants.

Statements 10 to 23 were asked to gather information about the students’ use of cognitive strategies. Frequency test for this part of SILL is summarised below with a table:

Table 4.2 *Distribution of Participants’ Responses for Statements 10-23 (Cognitive Strategies)*

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Statement 10	96	28.7%	99	29.6%	72	21.6%	55	16.5%	12	3.6%
Statement 11	62	18.6%	88	26.3%	91	27.2%	66	19.8%	26	7.8%
Statement 12	104	31.1%	115	34.4%	80	24.0%	31	9.3%	4	1.2%
Statement 13	68	20.4%	131	39.2%	100	29.9%	27	8.1%	7	2.1%
Statement 14	135	40.4%	99	29.6%	73	21.9%	23	6.9%	3	0.9%
Statement 15	72	21.6%	88	26.3%	94	28.1%	58	17.4%	22	6.6%
Statement 16	121	36.2%	108	32.3%	75	22.5%	27	8.1%	3	0.9%
Statement 17	133	39.8%	118	35.3%	54	16.2%	27	8.1%	2	0.6%
Statement 18	51	15.3%	83	24.9%	63	18.9%	112	33.5%	25	7.5%
Statement 19	71	21.3%	87	26.0%	85	25.4%	73	21.9%	18	5.4%
Statement 20	48	14.4%	72	21.6%	110	32.9%	88	26.3%	15	4.5%
Statement 21	97	29.0%	95	28.4%	75	22.5%	56	16.8%	8	2.4%
Statement 22	37	11.1%	86	25.7%	68	20.4%	107	32.0%	36	10.8%
Statement 23	155	46.4%	106	31.7%	46	13.8%	26	7.8%	1	0.3%

According to the participants’ responses, Statement 22 (I try to translate word-for-word) is the mostly used strategy. On the other hand, Statement 23 (I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English) is the least used cognitive strategy.

Students' opinions on compensation strategy were asked through statements 24- 29. Distribution and percentages of the statements 24-29 are given in table 4.3.

Table 4.3 *Distribution of Participants' Responses for Statements 24-29 (Compensation Strategies)*

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Statement 24	6	1.8%	62	18.6%	115	34.4%	123	36.8%	26	7.8%
Statement 25	55	16.5%	74	22.2%	79	23.7%	91	27.2%	35	10.5%
Statement 26	95	28.4%	80	24.0%	81	24.3%	55	16.5%	22	6.6%
Statement 27	32	9.6%	86	25.7%	86	25.7%	77	23.1%	53	15.9%
Statement 28	29	8.7%	59	17.7%	92	27.5%	126	37.7%	28	8.4%
Statement 29	15	4.5%	45	13.5%	88	26.3%	143	42.8%	43	12.9%

As it is seen in the table, 15.9 per cent of the participants stated that they always applied the strategy given in Statement 27 (I read English without looking up every new word). On the other hand, only 6.6 per cent of the participants marked the "always" option for Statement 26 (I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English).

Students' use of metacognitive strategies was examined through statements 30- 38 in SILL. Results of the frequency test for these statements are summarized below in table 4.4.

Table 4.4 *Distribution of Participants' Responses for Statements 30-38 (Metacognitive Strategies)*

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Statement 30	34	10.2%	91	27.2%	94	28.1%	88	26.3%	27	8.1%
Statement 31	26	7.8%	67	20.1%	105	31.4%	108	32.3%	28	8.4%
Statement 32	9	2.7%	37	11.1%	65	19.5%	153	45.8%	70	21.0%
Statement 33	28	8.4%	55	16.5%	97	29.0%	104	31.1%	50	15.0%
Statement 34	62	18.6%	88	26.3%	90	26.9%	71	21.3%	23	6.9%
Statement 35	51	15.3%	87	26.0%	95	28.4%	71	21.3%	30	9.0%
Statement 36	51	15.3%	116	34.7%	92	27.5%	59	17.7%	14	4.2%
Statement 37	43	12.9%	57	17.1%	87	26.0%	95	28.4%	52	15.6%
Statement 38	22	6.6%	66	19.8%	93	27.8%	112	33.5%	40	12.0%

According to participants' responses, the least commonly used metacognitive strategy is represented by Statement 36 (I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English). In contrast, the most commonly used one is represented by Statement 32 (I pay attention when someone is speaking English).

There are statements about affective strategies in the fifth part (Statements 39-44) of SILL. Results of the affective strategy statements are provided in table 4.5.

Table 4.5 *Distribution of Participants' Responses for Statements 39-44 (Affective Strategies)*

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Statement 39	53	15.9%	72	21.6%	92	27.5%	95	28.4%	22	6.6%
Statement 40	50	15.0%	78	23.4%	86	25.7%	80	24.0%	38	11.4%
Statement 41	107	32.0%	78	23.4%	64	19.2%	57	17.1%	27	8.1%
Statement 42	40	12.0%	56	16.8%	70	21.0%	98	29.3%	70	21.0%
Statement 43	287	85.9%	24	7.2%	16	4.8%	5	1.5%	2	0.6%
Statement 44	107	32.0%	88	26.3 %	57	17.1%	57	17.1%	24	7.2%

When the results of the frequency test for this part of the questionnaire were examined, it is noticed that although only 2 participants (0.6%) marked the "always" option for Statement 43 (I write down my feelings in a language learning diary), the majority of the participants marked "always" option for Statement 42 (I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English).

Statements from 45 to 50 are all for social strategies which are used in interactions between people. Distribution and percentages of these statements can be seen in table 4.6.

Table 4.6 *Distribution of Participants' Responses for Statements 45-50 (Social Strategies)*

	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Always	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
Statement 45	13	3.9%	42	12.6%	60	18.0%	134	40.1%	85	25.4%
Statement 46	96	28.7%	60	18.0%	61	18.3%	78	23.4%	39	11.7%
Statement 47	91	27.2%	101	30.2%	101	30.2%	27	8.1%	14	4.2%
Statement 48	36	10.8%	69	20.7%	104	31.1%	106	31.7%	19	5.7%
Statement 49	41	12.3%	107	32.0%	109	32.6%	59	17.7%	18	5.4%
Statement 50	119	35.6%	73	21.9%	63	18.9%	54	16.2%	25	7.5%

Statement 45 (If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down and say it again) was reported as the always used social strategy by 85 students while Statement 47 (I practice English with other students) was reported only by 14 students.

Second step to answer the first research question requires commenting on descriptive statistics. In order to find out which language learning strategy type students use mostly, means of each strategy type were examined. Each strategy type in SILL consists of a group of statements reflecting a language strategy. Hence, instead of considering each statement individually, statements of the same strategy

type were considered together. Total means of each strategy category and Oxford's classification of the mean value (low: 1-2.4; medium: 2.5-3.4; high: 3.5-5) are given below in table 4.7.

Table 4.7 *Total Means of Language Learning Strategy Categories*

	Mean	Oxford's Classification
Memory Strategies	2.61	medium
Cognitive Strategies	2.40	low
Compensation Strategies	3.07	medium
Metacognitive Strategies	3.06	medium
Affective Strategies	2.53	medium
Social Strategies	2.80	medium

As the table suggests, although there is just a slight difference between metacognitive strategies and compensation strategies, compensation strategies are the most commonly used strategies. That is, they mostly compensate for their missing knowledge. On the other hand, the least used one is cognitive strategies. Interestingly, all the mean values are so close to each other that the difference between the mean value of the most favoured strategy and the least favoured one is just 0.67. Students' order of language learning strategies is listed from the mostly used to the least one as follows:

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

4.2 Research Question # 2

Is there a difference in students' use of language learning strategies according to their gender?

a. Memory Strategies

When the means and standard deviations in Table 4.8 are considered, it can be commented that females use memory strategies slightly more than males (24.94 > 20.90). To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of memory strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.8 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Memory Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Male	229	22.90	5.15	.34	9.00	39.00
Female	105	24.94	4.89	.47	12.00	37.00
Total	334	23.54	5.15	.28	9.00	39.00

Table 4.9 shows the related ANOVA results. As seen from the table, the observed value is .00. It is lower than the critical value (p=.05). Therefore, it can be said that there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of memory strategies.

Table 4.9 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Memory Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	298.00	1	298.00	11.57	**.00**
Within Groups	8544.73	332	25.73		
Total	8842.73	333			

b. Cognitive Strategies

Once the means and standard deviations in Table 4.10 are examined, it can be concluded that females use cognitive strategies more than males (36.06 > 32.68). To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of cognitive strategies, ANOVA was run.

Table 4.10 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Cognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Male	229	32.68	8.24	.54	15.00	55.00
Female	105	36.06	7.64	.74	15.00	55.00
Total	334	33.74	8.19	.44	15.00	55.00

The related ANOVA results are provided in Table 4.11. As indicated in the table, the observed value is .00. It is lower than the critical value (p=.05). Hence, it is possible to say that there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of cognitive strategies.

Table 4.11 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Cognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	822.97	1	822.97	12.67	**.00**
Within Groups	21563.89	332	64.95		
Total	22386.87	333			

c. Compensation Strategies

When the means and standard deviations in Table 4.12 are explored, it can be inferred that females use compensation strategies slightly more than males (18.52 > 18.41). To find out whether there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of cognitive strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.12 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Compensation Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Male	229	18.41	3.65	.24	8.00	30.00
Female	105	18.52	2.99	.29	12.00	25.00
Total	334	18.44	3.45	.18	8.00	30.00

Table 4.13 includes the related ANOVA results. It indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of compensation strategies since the observed value is .79. It is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.13 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Compensation Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.85	1	.85	.07	.79
Within Groups	3977.78	332	11.98		
Total	3978.63	333			

d. Metacognitive Strategies

Once the means and standard deviations in Table 4.14 are taken into consideration, it can be commented that females use metacognitive strategies more than males (29.10 > 26.92). To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of metacognitive strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.14 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Metacognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Male	229	26.92	7.38	.48	9.00	44.00
Female	105	29.10	6.79	.66	9.00	43.00
Total	334	27.61	7.26	.39	9.00	44.00

The related ANOVA results are presented in Table 4.15. As seen from the table, the observed value is .01. It is lower than the critical value (p=.05). Therefore, it can be said that there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of metacognitive strategies.

Table 4.15 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Metacognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	344.81	1	341.81	6.58	**.01**
Within Groups	17233.58	332	51.90		
Total	17575.40	333			

e. Affective Strategies

According to the means and standard deviations shown in Table 4.16, it can be commented that females use affective strategies more than males (16.40 > 14.63). To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of affective strategies, ANOVA was conducted.

Table 4.16 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Affective Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Male	229	14.63	4.17	.27	6.00	26.00
Female	105	16.40	3.82	.37	6.00	25.00
Total	334	15.19	4.14	.22	6.00	26.00

The related ANOVA results are in Table 4.17. As seen from the table, the observed value is .00. It is lower than the critical value (p=.05). Therefore, it can be said that there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of affective strategies.

Table 4.17 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Affective Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	223.61	1	223.61	13.52	**.00**
Within Groups	5490.11	332	16.53		
Total	5713.73	333			

f. Social Strategies

When the means and standard deviations in Table 4.18 are considered, it is possible to state that females use social strategies more than males (17.69 > 16.45). To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of social strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.18 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Social Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Male	229	16.45	4.47	.29	7.00	30.00
Female	105	17.69	4.19	.40	6.00	27.00
Total	334	16.84	4.42	.24	6.00	30.00

The related ANOVA results are seen in Table 4.19. As indicated in the table, the observed value is .01. It is lower than the critical value (p=.05). Hence, it can be said that there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in their use of social strategies.

Table 4.19 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Social Strategies in Relation to Students' Gender*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	110.88	1	110.88	5.75	**.01**
Within Groups	6401.01	332	19.28		
Total	6511.90	333			

4.3 Research Question # 3

Is there a difference between students' use of language learning strategies and their faculties?

a. Memory Strategies

The means and standard deviations are given in Table 4.20 and it can be commented that students from faculty of medicine use memory strategies more than students from other three faculties. To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of memory strategies, ANOVA was conducted.

Table 4.20 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Memory Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
F. of Eco. & Adm.	145	23.91	5 .39	.447	9.00	39.00
F. of Engi. & Arc.	102	22.98	4.97	.492	12.00	34.00
F. of Tech. Ed.	79	23.17	4.75	.534	12.00	36.00
F. of Medicine	8	27.75	5.25	1.858	20.00	35.00
Total	334	23.54	5.15	.281	9.00	39.00

Table 4.21 shows the related ANOVA results. It indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of memory strategies since the observed value is .05, which is equal to the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.21 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Memory Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	204.74	3	68.24	2.60	.05
Within Groups	8637.98	330	26.17		
Total	8842.73	333			

b. Cognitive Strategies

Once the means and standard deviations in Table 4.22 are examined, it is reasonable to say that students from faculty of medicine use cognitive strategies more than students from other three faculties. To find out whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of cognitive strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.22 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Cognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
F. of Eco. & Adm.	145	34.54	8.42	.699	16.00	55.00
F. of Engi. & Arc.	102	33.28	7.61	.754	15.00	51.00
F. of Tech. Ed.	79	32.50	8.67	.975	15.00	55.00
F. of Medicine	8	37.50	3.70	1.309	31.00	42.00
Total	334	33.74	8.19	.448	15.00	55.00

The related ANOVA results can be seen in Table 4.23. It shows that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of cognitive strategies since the observed value is .15, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.23 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Cognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	348.41	3	116.13	1.73	.15
Within Groups	22038.46	330	66.78		
Total	22386.87	333			

c. Compensation Strategies

As the means and standard deviations in Table 4.24 exhibit, students from faculty of medicine use compensation strategies more than students from other three faculties. To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of compensation strategies, ANOVA was run.

Table 4.24 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Compensation Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
F. of Eco. & Adm.	145	18.80	3.43	.285	8.00	29.00
F. of Engi. & Arc.	102	18.32	2.86	.283	13.00	24.00
F. of Tech. Ed.	79	17.81	3.96	.445	10.00	29.00
F. of Medicine	8	20.00	4.75	1.679	13.00	30.00
Total	334	18.44	3.45	.189	8.00	30.00

Table 4.25 shows the related ANOVA results. It indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of compensation strategies since the observed value is .11, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.25 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Compensation Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	70.95	3	23.65	1.99	.11
Within Groups	3907.67	330	11.84		
Total	3978.63	333			

d. Metacognitive Strategies

Once the means and standard deviations in Table 4.26 are analyzed, it can be commented that students from faculty of medicine use metacognitive strategies more than students from other three faculties. ANOVA was applied to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of metacognitive strategies.

Table 4.26 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Metacognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
F. of Eco. & Adm.	145	28.51	6.86	.570	9.00	43.00
F. of Engi. & Arc.	102	27.24	7.32	.725	9.00	43.00
F. of Tech. Ed.	79	26.17	7.81	.878	13.00	44.00
F. of Medicine	8	30.12	6.12	2.166	23.00	39.00
Total	334	27.61	7.26	.397	9.00	44.00

The related ANOVA results are seen in Table 4.27. It shows that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of metacognitive strategies since the observed value is .08, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.27 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied Total Metacognitive Strategies to in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	343.90	3	114.63	2.19	.08
Within Groups	17231.50	330	52.21		
Total	17575.40	333			

e. Affective Strategies

When the means and standard deviations in Table 4.28 are taken into consideration, it is possible to say that students from faculty of medicine use affective strategies more than students from other three faculties. To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of affective strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.28 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Affective Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
F. of Eco. & Adm.	145	15.48	4.36	.362	6.00	26.00
F. of Engi. & Arc.	102	15.02	3.88	.384	6.00	25.00
F. of Tech. Ed.	79	14.70	3.99	.449	6.00	24.00
F. of Medicine	8	16.75	4.52	1.600	8.00	21.00
Total	334	15.19	4.14	.226	6.00	26.00

Table 4.29 shows the related ANOVA results. It indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of affective strategies since the observed value is .38, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.29 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Affective Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	52.81	3	17.60	1.026	.38
Within Groups	5660.92	330	17.15		
Total	5713.73	333			

f. Social Strategies

The means and standard deviations are in Table 4.30, and it is possible to state that students from faculty of medicine use social strategies slightly more than students from other three faculties. ANOVA was run to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of social strategies.

Table 4.30 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Social Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
F. of Eco. & Adm.	145	17.12	4.34	.36	7.00	27.00
F. of Engi. & Arc.	102	16.41	4.56	.45	6.00	30.00
F. of Tech. Ed.	79	16.38	4.51	.50	7.00	26.00
F. of Medicine	8	17.37	3.15	1.11	14.00	23.00
Total	334	16.84	4.42	.24	6.00	30.00

Table 4.31 shows the related ANOVA results. It indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' faculty choices and their use of social strategies since the observed value is .64. It is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.31 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Social Strategies in Relation to Students' Faculties*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	32.69	3	10.89	.55	.64
Within Groups	6479.20	330	19.63		
Total	6511.90	333			

4.4 Research Question # 4

Is there a difference between students' use of language learning strategies and their type of high school background?

a. Memory Strategies

As the means and standard deviations in Table 4.32 indicate, students from public and private lycées use memory strategies slightly more than students from other three lycées. To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of memory strategies, ANOVA was conducted.

Table 4.32 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Memory Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Public	107	24.46	4.95	.47	14.00	39.00
Anatolian	85	22.70	5.28	.57	9.00	34.00
Private	17	24.05	5.05	1.22	17.00	35.00
Super	63	23.84	5.22	.65	10.00	37.00
Technical	62	22.67	5.08	.64	12.00	39.00
Total	334	23.54	5.15	.28	9.00	39.00

The related ANOVA results can be seen in Table 4.33. It indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of memory strategies since the observed value is .09, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.33 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Memory Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	207.54	4	51.88	1.97	.09
Within Groups	8635.18	329	26.24		
Total	8842.73	333			

b. Cognitive Strategies

Once the means and standard deviations in Table 4.34 are examined, it can be commented that students from private lycées use cognitive strategies slightly more than students from other four lycées. To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of cognitive strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.34 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Cognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Public	107	33.98	8.24	.79	16.00	55.00
Anatolian	85	32.64	7.62	.82	15.00	52.00
Private	17	36.05	7.86	1.90	15.00	46.00
Super	63	35.30	7.55	.95	18.00	50.00
Technical	62	32.45	9.27	1.17	15.00	55.00
Total	334	33.74	8.19	.44	15.00	55.00

Table 4.35 includes the related ANOVA results. It shows that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of cognitive strategies since the observed value is .10, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.35 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Cognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	519.81	4	129.95	1.95	.10
Within Groups	21867.05	329	66.46		
Total	22386.87	333			

c. Compensation Strategies

Table 4.36 shows the means and standard deviations, and it is possible to comment that students from private lycées use compensation strategies slightly more than students from other four lycées. To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of compensation strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.36 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Compensation Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Public	107	18.24	3.35	.32	11.00	25.00
Anatolian	85	18.58	3.08	.33	8.00	29.00
Private	17	20.52	3.62	.87	16.00	30.00
Super	63	18.90	2.97	.37	13.00	25.00
Technical	62	17.58	4.22	.53	10.00	29.00
Total	334	18.44	3.45	.18	8.00	30.00

The related ANOVA results are shown in Table 4.37. It indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of compensation strategies since the observed value is .01, which is lower than the critical value (p=.05). Nonetheless, it is not possible to state where the difference lies through the results of ANOVA. To find out the nature of the difference, Post-Hoc Tukey HSD was conducted. Table 4.38 shows the related Tukey HSD results.

Table 4.37 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Compensation Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	139.60	4	34.90	2.99	**.01**
Within Groups	3839.03	329	11.66		
Total	3978.63	333			

As seen from Table 4. 38, the difference is between Private Lycées and Technical Lycées and the mean difference is 2.948.

Table 4.38 *The Results of Tukey HSD for Differences Between Students' High School Background and Total Compensation Strategies*

(I)h. school	(J) h. school	Mean Diff. (I-J)	Std. Err.	Sig.	95% conf. interval Lower	Upper
Public	Anatolian	-.345	.496	.957	-1.70	1.01
	Private	-2.286	.891	.080	-4.73	.16
	Super	-.661	.542	.740	-2.14	.82
	Technical	.662	.542	.743	-.833	2.15
Anatolian	Public	.345	.496	.957	-1.01	1.70
	Private	-1.941	.907	.206	-4.43	.54
	Super	-.316	.567	.981	-1.87	1.24
	Technical	1.00	.570	.395	-.557	2.57
Private	Public	2.286	.891	.080	-.160	4.73
	Anatolian	1.941	.907	.206	-.548	4.43
	Super	1.621	.933	.411	-.936	4.18
	Technical	**2.948***	.935	**.015**	-.383	5.51
Super	Public	.661	.542	.740	-.826	2.14
	Anatolian	.316	.567	.981	-1.24	1.87
	Private	-1.624	.933	.411	-4.18	.93
	Technical	1.324	.611	.195	-.352	3.00
Technical	Public	-.662	.545	.743	-2.15	.83
	Anatolian	-1.00	.570	.395	-2.57	.55
	Private	**-2.948***	.935	**.015**	-5.51	-.38
	Super	-1.324	.611	.195	-3.00	.35

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

d. Metacognitive Strategies

Once the means and standard deviations in Table 4.39 are analyzed, it can be commented that students from private lycées use metacognitive strategies slightly more than students from other four lycées. ANOVA was applied to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of metacognitive strategies.

Table 4.39 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Metacognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Public	107	28.52	6.76	.65	11.00	43.00
Anatolian	85	26.60	7.04	.76	9.00	42.00
Private	17	30.05	6.85	1.66	9.00	41.00
Super	63	28.22	7.25	.91	13.00	43.00
Technical	62	26.12	8.20	1.04	13.00	44.00
Total	334	27.61	7.26	.39	9.00	44.00

Table 4.40 includes the related ANOVA results. It indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of metacognitive strategies since the observed value is .08, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.40 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Metacognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	437.51	4	109.37	2.10	.08
Within Groups	17137.88	329	52.09		
Total	17575.40	333			

e. Affective Strategies

On paying attention to the means and standard deviations in Table 4.41, it can be commented that students from private lycées use affective strategies slightly more than students from other four lycées. To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of affective strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.41 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Affective Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Public	107	15.82	4.08	.39	6.00	26.00
Anatolian	85	14.44	4.11	.44	6.00	25.00
Private	17	17.82	3.92	.95	10.00	25.00
Super	63	15.07	4.20	.52	6.00	25.00
Technical	62	14.51	3.94	.50	6.00	21.00
Total	334	15.19	4.14	.22	6.00	26.00

Table 4.42 shows the related ANOVA results. It indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of affective strategies since the observed value is .00. It is lower than the critical value (p=.05). However, it is not possible to state where the difference lies through the results of ANOVA. To find out the nature of the difference, Post-Hoc Tukey HSD was conducted. Table 4.43 shows the related Tukey HSD results.

Table 4.42 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Affective Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	236.54	4	59.13	3.55	**.00**
Within Groups	5477.19	329	16.64		
Total	5713.73	333			

As seen from Table 4. 43, there are two significant differences. One is between Private and Anatolian Lycées; the other is between Private and Tehnical Lycées. The mean differences are 3.37 and 3.30 respectively.

Table 4.43 *The Results of Tukey HSD for Differences Between Students' High School Background and Total Affective Strategies*

(I)h. school	(J) h. school	Mean Diff. (I-J)	Std. Err.	Sig.	95% conf. interval Lower	Upper
Public	Anatolian	1.37	.59	.14	-.25	3.00
	Private	-2.00	1.06	.33	-4.92	.92
	Super	.74	.64	.78	-1.03	2.52
	Technical	1.30	.65	.26	-.48	3.09
Anatolian	Public	-1.37	.59	.14	-3.00	.25
	Private	**-3.37***	1.08	**.01**	-6.35	-.40
	Super	-.63	.67	.88	-2.49	1.22
	Technical	-.06	.68	1.00	-1.93	1.80
Private	Public	2.00	1.06	.33	-.92	4.92
	Anatolian	**3.37***	1.08	**.01**	.40	6.35
	Super	2.74	1.11	.10	-.31	5.80
	Technical	**3.30***	.64	**.02**	.24	6.37
Super	Public	-.74	.67	.78	-2.52	1.03
	Anatolian	.63	1.11	.88	-1.22	2.49
	Private	-2.74	.72	.10	-5.80	.31
	Technical	.56	.65	.93	-1.43	2.56
Technical	Public	-1.30	.68	.26	-3.09	.48
	Anatolian	.06	.68	1.00	-1.80	1.93
	Private	**-3.30***	1.11	**.02**	-6.37	-.24
	Super	-.56	.72	.93	-2.56	1.43

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

f. Social Strategies

According to the means and standard deviations in Table 4.44, it can be commented that students from private lycées use social strategies slightly more than students from other four lycées. To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of social strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.44 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Social Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Public	107	17.10	4.40	.42	8.00	27.00
Anatolian	85	16.36	4.26	.46	7.00	30.00
Private	17	18.70	3.72	.90	11.00	26.00
Super	63	16.63	4.64	.58	6.00	26.00
Technical	62	16.75	4.58	.58	7.00	26.00
Total	334	16.84	4.42	.24	6.00	30.00

Table 4.45 shows the related ANOVA results. It indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' high school background and their use of social strategies since the observed value is .33, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.45 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Social Strategies in Relation to Students' High School Background*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	88.83	4	22.20	1.13	.33
Within Groups	6423.06	329	19.52		
Total	6511.90	333			

4.5 Research Question # 5

Is there a difference between students' use of language learning strategies and their previous English learning experience (whether they had a prep-class/an intensive English course experience before)?

a. Memory Strategies

Once the means and standard deviations in Table 4.46 are explored, it is logical to say that students without previous English leaning experience use memory strategies a little bit more than students with previous English leaning experience (24.12 > 23.01). ANOVA was conducted to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of memory strategies.

Table 4.46 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Memory Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Yes	174	23.01	5.19	.39	9.00	37.00
No	160	24.12	5.06	.40	12.00	39.00
Total	334	23.54	5.15	.28	9.00	39.00

The related ANOVA results are shown in Table 4.47. It exhibits that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of memory strategies since the observed value is .05. It is equal to the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.47 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Memory Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	102.12	1	102.28	3.88	.05
Within Groups	8740.44	332	26.32		
Total	8842.73	333			

b. Cognitive Strategies

As the means and standard deviations in Table 4.48 indicate, it can be commented that students with previous English leaning experience use cognitive strategies a little bit more than students without previous English leaning experience (33.86 > 33.62). To find out whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of memory strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.48 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Cognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Yes	174	33.86	7.80	.59	15.00	52.00
No	160	33.62	8.62	.68	15.00	55.00
Total	334	33.74	8.19	.44	15.00	55.00

Table 4.49 shows the related ANOVA results. It exhibits that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of cognitive strategies since the observed value is .79, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.49 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Cognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.68	1	4.68	.06	.79
Within Groups	22382.19	332	67.41		
Total	22386.87	333			

c. Compensation Strategies

c. Compensation Strategies

When the means and standard deviations in Table 4.50 are examined, it is reasonable to state that students with previous English leaning experience use compensation strategies a little bit more than students without previous English leaning experience (18.85 > 18.01). ANOVA was run to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of compensation strategies.

Table 4.50 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Compensation Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Yes	174	18.85	3.15	.23	8.00	29.00
No	160	18.01	3.71	.29	10.00	30.00
Total	334	18.44	3.45	.18	8.00	30.00

The related ANOVA results are seen in Table 4.51. It shows that there is a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of compensation strategies since the observed value is .02. It is lower than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.51 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Compensation Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	58.54	1	58.54	4.95	**.02**
Within Groups	3920.09	332	11.80		
Total	3978.63	333			

d. Metacognitive Strategies

d. Metacognitive Strategies

According to the means and standard deviations in Table 4.52, it can be said that students without previous English leaning experience use metacognitive strategies more than students with previous English leaning experience (28.36 > 26.91). To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of metacognitive strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.52 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Metacognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Yes	174	26.91	7.14	.54	9.00	43.00
No	160	28.36	7.34	.58	9.00	44.00
Total	334	27.61	7.26	.39	9.00	44.00

Table 4.53 shows the related ANOVA results. It exhibits that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of metacognitive strategies since the observed value is .07, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.53 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Metacognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	173.55	1	173.55	3.311	.07
Within Groups	17401.84	332	52.41		
Total	17575.40	333			

e. Affective Strategies

Once the means and standard deviations in Table 4.54 are analyzed, it is possible to state that students with previous English leaning experience use affective strategies more than students without previous English leaning experience (17.86 > 15.54). To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of affective strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.54 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Affective Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Yes	174	17.86	4.12	.31	6.00	25.00
No	160	15.54	4.14	.32	6.00	26.00
Total	334	15.19	4.14	.22	6.00	26.00

The related ANOVA results are in Table 4.55. It shows that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of affective strategies since the observed value is .13. It is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.55 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Affective Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	38.08	1	38.08	2.22	.13
Within Groups	5675.65	332	17.09		
Total	5713.73	333			

f. Social Strategies

When the means and standard deviations in Table 4.56 are considered, it can be commented that students without previous English leaning experience use social strategies more than students with previous English leaning experience (17.18 > 16.53). ANOVA was run to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of social strategies.

Table 4.56 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Social Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
Yes	174	16.53	4.45	.33	6.00	26.00
No	160	17.18	4.37	.34	7.00	30.00
Total	334	16.84	4.42	.24	6.00	30.00

Table 4.57 shows the related ANOVA results. It indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' previous English learning experience and their use of social strategies since the observed value is .18, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.57 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Social Strategies in Relation to Students' Previous English Learning Experience*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	34.86	1	34.86	1.78	.18
Within Groups	6477.03	332	19.50		
Total	6511.90	333			

4.6 Research Question # 6

Is there a difference between students' use of language learning strategies and their proficiency levels (B Grade-high proficiency group, C Grade-mid proficiency group, and D Grade- low proficiency group)?

a. Memory Strategies

According to the means and standard deviations in Table 4.58, it is possible to comment that students from D Grade classes use memory strategies more than students from other C and B Grade classes. To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of memory strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.58 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Memory Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
B Grade	104	22.80	5.57	.54	9.00	34.00
C Grade	99	22.75	5.19	.52	11.00	37.00
D Grade	131	24.73	4.55	.39	14.00	39.00
Total	334	23.54	5.15	.28	9.00	39.00

Table 4.59 shows the related ANOVA results. It exhibits that there is a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of memory strategies since the observed value is .00, which is lower than the critical value (p=.05). Nevertheless, it is not possible to state where the difference lies through the results of ANOVA. Post-Hoc Tukey HSD was run to find out the nature of the difference. Table 4.60 shows the related Tukey HSD results.

Table 4.59 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Memory Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	302.74	2	151.37	5.86	**.00**
Within Groups	8539.98	331	25.80		
Total	8842.73	333			

As seen from Table 4. 60, there are two significant differences. One is between D and B Grades; the other is between D and C Grades. The mean differences are 1.92 and 1.97 respectively.

Table 4.60 *The Results of Tukey HSD for Differences Between Students' Proficiency Level and Total Memory Strategies*

		Mean Diff.	Std.	Sig.	95% conf. interval	
(I) grade	(J) grade	(I-J)	Err.		Lower	Upper
B Grade	C Grade	.050	.71	.99	-1.62	1.72
	D Grade	**-1.92***	.66	**.01**	-3.49	-.35
C Grade	B Grade	-.050	.71	.99	-1.72	1.62
	D Grade	**-1.97***	.67	**.01**	-3.56	-.38
D Grade	B Grade	**1.92***	.66	.01	.35	3.49
	C Grade	**1.97***	.67	**.01**	.38	3.56

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

b. Cognitive Strategies

According to the means and standard deviations in Table 4.61, it can be said that students from D Grade classes use cognitive strategies more than students from other C and B Grade classes. ANOVA was applied to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of cognitive strategies.

Table 4.61 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Cognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
B Grade	104	32.77	8.13	.79	15.00	52.00
C Grade	99	33.05	7.25	.72	16.00	47.00
D Grade	131	35.04	8.78	.76	15.00	55.00
Total	334	33.74	8.19	.44	15.00	55.00

Table 4.62 shows the related ANOVA results. It exhibits that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of cognitive strategies since the observed value is .06, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.62 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Cognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	366.48	2	183.24	2.754	.06
Within Groups	22020.38	331	66.52		
Total	22386.87	333			

c. Compensation Strategies

As the means and standard deviations in Table 4.63 exhibit, it is possible to say that students from B Grade classes use compensation strategies slightly more than students from other C and D Grade classes. ANOVA was conducted to find out whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of compensation strategies.

Table 4.63 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Compensation Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
B Grade	104	18.70	3.48	.34	8.00	29.00
C Grade	99	18.60	3.61	.36	10.00	30.00
D Grade	131	18.12	3.31	.28	10.00	25.00
Total	334	18.44	3.45	.18	8.00	30.00

The related ANOVA results are shown in Table 4.64. It exhibits that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of compensation strategies since the observed value is .39. It is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.64 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Compensation Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	22.44	2	11.22	.93	.39
Within Groups	3956.19	331	11.95		
Total	3978.63	333			

d. Metacognitive Strategies

Once the means and standard deviations in Table 4.65 are analyzed, it is logical to state that students from D Grade classes use metacognitive strategies more than students from C and B Grade classes. To determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of metacognitive strategies, ANOVA was applied.

Table 4.65 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Metacognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
B Grade	104	26.14	7.61	.74	9.00	42.00
C Grade	99	27.02	7.31	.73	11.00	43.00
D Grade	131	29.22	6.65	.58	13.00	44.00
Total	334	27.61	7.26	.39	9.00	44.00

Table 4.66 shows the related ANOVA results. It exhibits that there is a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of metacognitive strategies since the observed value is .00. It is lower than the critical value (p=.05). However, it is not possible to state where the difference lies through the results of ANOVA. To find out the nature of the difference, Post-Hoc Tukey HSD was conducted. Table 4.67 shows the related Tukey HSD results.

Table 4.66 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Metacognitive Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	598.02	2	299.01	5.83	**.00**
Within Groups	16977.37	331	51.29		
Total	17575.40	333			

As Table 4. 67 indicates, the difference is between D and B Grade classes. The mean difference is 3.07.

Table 4.67 *The Results of Tukey HSD for Differences Between Students' Proficiency Level and Total Metacognitive Strategies*

(I) grade	(J) grade	Mean Diff. (I-J)	Std. Err.	Sig.	95% conf. interval Lower	Upper
B Grade	C Grade	-.87	1.00	.65	-3.24	1.49
	D Grade	**-3.07***	.94	**.00**	-5.29	-.82
C Grade	B Grade	.87	1.00	.65	-1.49	3.24
	D Grade	-2.20	.95	.05	-4.44	.04
D Grade	B Grade	**3.07***	.94	**.00**	.82	5.29
	C Grade	2.20	.95	.05	-.04	4.44

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

e. Affective Strategies

When the means and standard deviations in Table 4.68 are examined, it can be commented that students from D Grade classes use affective strategies more than students from C and B Grade classes. ANOVA was applied to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of affective strategies.

Table 4.68 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Affective Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
B Grade	104	14.54	4.51	.44	6.00	25.00
C Grade	99	15.41	4.17	.42	6.00	24.00
D Grade	131	15.53	3.75	.32	6.00	26.00
Total	334	15.19	4.14	.22	6.00	26.00

The related ANOVA results are in Table 4.69. It exhibits that there is not a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of affective strategies since the observed value is .15, which is higher than the critical value (p=.05).

Table 4.69 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Affective Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	63.36	2	31.68	1.85	.15
Within Groups	5650.37	331	17.07		
Total	5713.73	333			

f. Social Strategies

According to the means and standard deviations in Table 4.70, it is possible to comment that students from D Grade classes use social strategies more than students from C and B Grade classes. To find out whether there is a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of social strategies, ANOVA was conducted.

Table 4.70 *Means and Standard Deviations of Total Social Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err.	Minimum	Maximum
B Grade	104	15.99	4.73	.46	6.00	26.00
C Grade	99	16.83	4.32	.43	7.00	26.00
D Grade	131	17.52	4.13	.36	8.00	30.00
Total	334	16.84	4.42	.24	6.00	30.00

Table 4.71 shows the related ANOVA results. It indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between students' proficiency level and their use of social strategies since the observed value is .03, which is lower than the critical value (p=.05). Nonetheless, it is not possible to state where the difference lies through the results of ANOVA. Post-Hoc Tukey HSD was conducted to decide on the nature of the difference. Table 4.72 shows the related Tukey HSD results.

Table 4.71 *The Results of One-Way ANOVA Applied to Total Social Strategies in Relation to Students' Proficiency Level*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	136.84	2	68.44	3.55	**.03**
Within Groups	6375.06	331	19.26		
Total	6511.90	333			

As seen from Table 4. 72, the difference is between D and B Grade classes. The mean difference is 1.53.

Table 4.72 *The Results of Tukey HSD for Differences Between Students' Proficiency Level and Total Social Strategies*

(I) grade	(J) grade	Mean Diff. (I-J)	Std. Err.	Sig.	95% conf. interval Lower	Upper
B Grade	C Grade	-.84	.61	.35	-2.29	.60
	D Grade	**-1.53***	57	**.02**	-2.89	-.17
C Grade	B Grade	.84	.61	.35	-.60	2.29
	D Grade	.68	.58	.46	-2.06	.68
D Grade	B Grade	**1.53***	.57	**.02**	.17	2.89
	C Grade	.68	.58	.46	-.68	2.06

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

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

5.1 Overview of the Study

Language learning strategies of the students at Preparatory School of Gazi University were investigated in this study. Additionally, the related literature on language learning strategies was reviewed and answers to six research questions were provided. Six research questions were as follows:

1- What language learning strategies do students of English at Preparatory School of Gazi University utilize, and how often do they use them?
2- Is there a difference in students' use of language learning strategies according to their gender?
3- Is there a difference in students' use of language learning strategies according to their faculty choices?
4- Is there a difference in students' use of language learning strategies according their type of high school background?
5- Is there a difference in students' use of language learning strategies according to their previous English learning experience (whether they had a prep-class / an intensive English course experience before)?
6- Is there a difference in students' use of language learning strategies according to their proficiency levels (B Grade-high proficiency group, C Grade-mid proficiency group, and D Grade- low proficiency group)?

In order to answer these questions, an instrument was administered to 345 students studying at English preparatory classes of Gazi University Research and Application Center for Instruction of Foreign Languages. 334 questionnaires were returned as valid. First of all, descriptive data (means, standard deviations, and frequencies) were portrayed. Then, one-way ANOVA was applied to obtain information on categorical strategy use (six different strategy categories) by learners'

gender, faculty, type of high school background, previous English learning experience, and proficiency level. Finally, a Post-Hoc test was conducted to see where differences lie in the cases of more than two variables.

5.2 Discussion

This part of the study discusses the results which were presented in the previous chapter in detail. This section is composed of six parts; it follows the same sequence as the six research questions.

Research Question # 1

What language learning strategies do students of English at Preparatory School of Gazi University utilize, and how often do they use them?

Students of English at Preparatory School of Gazi University use language learning strategies at medium level. This score is also true for each strategy category except for cognitive strategies (low level), and the sequence of the means of each strategy category are like this: Compensation strategies (3.07) > Metacognitive strategies (3.06) > Social strategies (2.80) > Memory strategies (2.61) > Affective strategies (2.53) > Cognitive strategies (2.40). That is, students mostly use compensation strategies. The means and standard deviations of each individual strategy statement are also available in Appendix 3.

Research Question # 2

Is there a difference in students' use of language learning strategies according to their gender?

The results show that females use language learning strategies more than males. Furthermore, there are statistically significant differences between males and females in their use of language learning strategies in five categories (memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social). However, there is no statistically significant difference related to compensation strategies.

Research Question # 3

Is there a difference between students' use of language learning strategies and their faculty choices?

According to the results, students from faculty of medicine use language learning strategies more than students from other three faculties (faculty of economic and administrative sciences, faculty of engineering and architecture, faculty of technical education). Nevertheless, no statistically significant difference is observed between students' faculty choices and their use of language learning strategies.

Research Question # 4

Is there a difference between students' use of language learning strategies and their type of high school background?

As the results indicate, students from Public Lycées and Private Lycées use memory strategies more than students from other three lycées (Anatolian/Science Lycées, Super Lycées, and Technical/Vocational Lycées). However, students from Private Lycées use cognitive strategies more than students from other four lycées. As for compensation strategies, the superiority of students from Private Lycées is seen over students from other four lycées. Also, a statistically significant difference is noticed between students from Private Lycées and students from Technical Lycées. In the use of metacognitive strategies, students from Private Lycées are again the ones to use them the most. Similarly, affective strategies are utilized the most by students from Private Lycées. Furthermore, there are two significant differences in the use of affective strategies in connection with students' high school background. These differences are between the pairs Private Lycées / Anatolian Lycées and Private Lycées / Technical Lycées. Finally, students from Private Lycées use social strategies the most of all.

Research Question # 5

Is there a difference between students' use of language learning strategies and their previous English learning experience (whether they had a prep-class/an intensive English course experience before)?

The results exhibit that students without previous English learning experience use memory, metacognitive and social strategies more than students with previous English learning experience. On the other hand, students with previous English learning experience use cognitive, compensation and affective strategies more than students without previous English learning experience. Moreover, a statistically significant difference is observed between students' previous English learning experience and their use of compensation strategies.

Research Question # 6

Is there a difference between students' use of language learning strategies and their proficiency levels (B Grade-high proficiency group, C Grade-mid proficiency group, and D Grade- low proficiency group)?

The results underline the fact that students from D Grade classes use memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social strategies more than students from B and C Grade classes. On the contrary, students from B Grade classes use compensation strategies more than students from C and D Grade classes. Three statistically significant differences occurred in the treatment of the data. First one is between the pairs D / B and D / C Grades in memory strategies; second one is between the pairs D / B and D / C Grades in metacognitive strategies; third one is between the pairs D / B and D / C Grades in social strategies.

Table 5.1 gives an overview of the study in accordance with significant differences between independent and dependent variables.

Table 5. 1 *Significant Differences between Independent and Dependent Variables*

	Memory	**Cognitive**	**Compensation**	**Metacognitive**	**Affective**	**Social**
Gender	Female > Male	Female > Male	×	Female > Male	Female > Male	Female > Male
Faculty	×	×	×	×	×	×
High School Background	×	×	Private> Technical	×	Private> Anatolian Private > Technical	×
Previous English Experience	×	×	Yes > No	×	×	×
Proficiency Level	D > B D > C	×	×	D > B D > C	×	D > B D > C

> indicates the comparison of strategy use as higher and lower

× indicates there is no statistically significant difference between the variables

5.3 Recommendations and Implications for Teaching

As the results of the study are closely analyzed, it is logical to say that students of English at Preparatory School of Gazi University do not use language learning strategies at a desired level. One reason for this might be the fact that they do not receive any instruction related to learning strategies. Hence, together with foreign language instruction, they should also be provided with language learning strategy instruction.

Teaching learning strategies is based on two questions: **a**- if good language learners use strategies more effectively than others, can teachers help less effective language learners improve with the help of instruction in learning strategies? And **b**- if so, how should strategies instruction be applied? (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, and Robbins, 1996:179-180)

The intent of strategy instruction is expressed as helping all students become more self-directed, autonomous, and effective learners through improvements in the use of language learning strategies. Strategy instruction includes five major steps leading students to be better learners. These can be listed as follows:

1. identifying and improving strategies that are currently used by the individual;
2. identifying strategies that the individual might not be using but that might be helpful for the task at hand, and then teaching those strategies;
3. helping students learn to transfer strategies across language tasks and even across subject fields;
4. aiding students in evaluating the success of their use of particular strategies with specific tasks;
5. assisting subjects in gaining learning style flexibility by teaching them strategies that are instinctively used by students with other learning styles.

Strategy instruction does not aim to help all students use the very same strategies. It includes helping students know more about themselves. In this way, they can try out, test, and become expert in utilizing the strategies which are the most helpful for them in the process of language learning.

Teachers and administrators were unaware of the possibility of strategy instruction for some time. However, they, afterwards, observed that some students had high scores on language aptitude tests but did not manage to develop language proficiency. One reason for that difference was due to the fact that language aptitude tests did not take into account the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of an individual's language learning strategies. Following research has indicated that successful language learners tend to use more strategies and apply them more appropriately than less successful learners. Accordingly, many researchers (Crookall, 1983; Nyikos, 1991; Oxford, 1990b, 1993b; Rodgers, 1978; Wenden & Rubin, 1987; Wenden, 1991) mentioned benefits of strategy instruction such as increased motivation, improved language performance, greater autonomy and self-reliance, and will to continue learning after the language class is over (Oxford & Leaver, 1996: 227-229).

There is evidence that strategy instruction has positive effects on second language learning. For example, instruction in reading strategies has greatly improved the reading comprehension of poor readers, and instruction in problem-solving strategies has considerably influenced students' achievement in mathematics. Likewise, strategy instruction related to writing performance has been proved useful in studies where learning-disabled students were provided with strategies for

planning, composing, and revising their writing (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, and Robbins, 1996:179-180).

Cohen & Apek (1980) trained Hebrew students to remember new vocabulary items with the use of paired associations (known as mnemonics). Firstly, students were provided with instruction on how to make use of associations to help in vocabulary recall. Later on, they chose their own words from a reading-text and created their own associations for them. The students practiced the new words in different cloze-test activities for a few weeks. Finally, the post-test showed that students most often used the initial associations they had made beforehand, and that helped students to perform better (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990: 166).

Researchers have come up with different frameworks for strategy training. The first one was advocated by Pearson & Dole (1987). The system includes the following features:

1. initial modelling of the strategy by the teacher, with direct explanation of the strategy's use and importance,
2. guided practice with strategy,
3. consolidation, where teachers help students identify the strategy and decide when it might be used,
4. independent practice with the strategy,
5. application of the strategy to new tasks (Cohen, 2003: 3).

The second framework was put forward by Oxford et al. (1990). They outlined the characteristics of the system as follows:

1. introduction of strategies that emphasizes explicit strategy awareness,
2. discussion of the benefits of strategy use,
3. functional and contextualized practice with strategies,
4. self-evaluation and monitoring of language performance,
5. suggestions for or demonstrations of the transferability of the strategies to new tasks (Cohen, 2003: 4).

The third framework was developed by Chamot & O'Malley (1994). It is useful when students have already had enough practice in implementing a variety of strategies in different contexts. The system can be described as a four-stage problem-solving process:

1. planning –students plan ways to approach a learning task,
2. monitoring- students self-monitor their performance by paying attention to their strategy use and checking comprehension,
3. problem-solving- students find solutions to problems they encounter,
4. evaluation- students learn to evaluate the effectiveness of a given strategy strategy after it has been applied to a learning task (Cohen, 2003: 4).

As a final word, strategy instruction could be integrated in the schedule or curriculum for foreign language instruction at Preparatory School of Gazi University. This way, the level of use of language learning strategies can be increased, and it will most probably better the quality of foreign language education in the institution.

5.4 Implications for Further Research

First of all, this study is confined to the students' use of language learning strategies at Preparatory School of Gazi University. Therefore, a further research is needed for preparatory class students of other universities in Turkey.

Secondly, other learner variables, especially, learning styles, motivation, and multiple intelligences (MI) of preparatory class students could be explored. Two cross-studies concerning these variables might be carried out; one would be between language learning strategies and learning styles and the other would be between language learning strategies and multiple intelligences (MI) of preparatory class students.

In sum, these studies may give a clearer portrait of preparatory class students at universities. Accordingly, more appropriate programs and curricula can be prepared in the light of the research.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX 1

ENGLISH VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Students,

This questionnaire has been prepared to determine *Language Learning Strategies used by the students of English at Preparatory School of Gazi University*.

The questionnaire is composed of two sections. The first section includes questions about personal details; the second section includes statements about the learning strategies which you utilize while learning a foreign language. After answering the questions in the first section, please circle the choices (a,b,c,d, or e) in terms of how well the statement describes you in the second section. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements.

Your answers will not be graded and you will not need to write your names on the questionnaires.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Mehmet YALÇIN

I. PERSONAL DETAILS

1- Gender:

a) Female b) Male

2- Your Faculty:

a) Faculty of Education b) Faculty of Economic and Administrative Science

c) Faculty of Engineering and Architecture d) Faculty of Technical Education

e) Faculty of Medicine

3- What type of high school you graduated from:

a) State High School b) Anatolian High School c) Private High School

d) Super High School e) Technical High School

4- Have you ever had an experience of a preparatory English class or an intensive English course before?

a) Yes b) No

5- Your proficiency level of English:

a) Level A b) Level B c) Level C d) Level D

II. STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

PART A

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

a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

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

a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.

a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.

a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.

a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

6. I use flashcards to remember English words.

a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

7. I physically act out new English words.

a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

8. I review English lessons often.

a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

PART B

10. I say or write new English words several times.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

11. I try to talk like native English speakers.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

12. I practice the sounds of English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

13. I use the English words I know in different ways
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

14. I start conversations in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

16. I read for pleasure in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

20. I try to find patterns in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

22. I try to translate word-for-word.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

PART C

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

27. I read English without looking up every new word.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

PART D

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

38. I think about my progress in learning English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

PART E

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

PART F

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down and say it again.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

47. I practice English with other students.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

48. I ask for help from English speakers.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

49. I ask questions in English.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

50. I try to learn about the cultures of English speakers.
a) Never b) Rarely c) Sometimes d) Usually e) Always

APPENDIX 2

TURKISH VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Sevgili öğrenciler,

Bu anket *Gazi Üniversitesi İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu* öğrencilerinin *Dil Öğrenme Stratejilerini* tespit etmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır.

Anket iki bölümden oluşmuştur. Birinci bölümde kişisel bilgilerinize dair sorular; ikinci bölümde ise yabancı bir dil öğrenirken kullandığınız stratejilere dair ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Birinci bölüm sorularını cevapladıktan sonra, ikinci bölümdeki her bir ifadeyi sizi ne kadar iyi tanımladığını dikkate alarak işaretleyiniz. Nasıl olmanız gerektiğini yada diğerlerinin ne yaptığını düşünerek cevaplamayınız. İfadelerin doğru yada yanlış cevapları yoktur.

Vereceğiniz cevaplar notlandırılmayacak ve anket üzerine isminizi yazmanız istenmeyecektir.

Katılımınız için çok teşekkür ederim ☺

Mehmet YALÇIN

I. KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

1- Cinsiyetiniz:
a) Bayan b) Bay

2- Fakülteniz:
a) Eğitim Fakültesi b) İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi

c) Mühendislik ve Mimarlık Fakültesi d) Teknik Eğitim Fakültesi

e) Tıp Fakültesi

3- Mezun olduğunuz lise türü:

a) Devlet Lisesi b) Anadolu Lisesi c) Özel Lise d) Süper Lise e) Teknik Lise

4- Bu okuldan önce İngilizce hazırlık okudunuz mu yada yoğun bir İngilizce kursuna devam ettiniz mi?
a) Evet b) Hayır

5- İngilizce seviyeniz nedir?
a) A Kuru b) B Kuru c) C Kuru d) D Kuru

II. DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ

BÖLÜM A

1. İngilizce'de yeni öğrendiklerimle bildiklerim arasında ilişki kurarım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

2. Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlayabilmek için bir cümle içinde kullanırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

3. Kelimeyi hatırlamak için, o kelimenin okunuşu ile hayali yada resmi arasında bağlantı kurarım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

4. Yeni bir İngilizce kelimeyi bu kelimenin olası kullanılabileceği bir durumu zihnimde canlandırarak hatırlarım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

5. Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için kafiyelerden yaralanırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

6. Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için not kartlarından yararlanırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

7. Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri hareket ve mimiklerimle canlandırırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

8. İngilizce derslerimi sıklıkla gözden geçiririm.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

9. Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri veya söz öbeklerini, bunların kitap sayfasındaki, tahtadaki veya sokak işaretlerindeki yerlerini aklımda canlandırarak hatırlarım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

BÖLÜM B

10. Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri defalarca söyler ve yazarım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

11. İngilizce'yi ana dili İngilizce olanlar gibi konuşmaya çalışırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

12. İngilizce'nin ses yapısı üzerinde çalışırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

13. Bildiğim İngilizce kelimeleri farklı şekillerde kullanırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

14. Konuşmalara İngilizce başlarım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

15. İngilizce TV programları izler ve İngilizce filmlere giderim.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

16. Zevk için İngilizce yayınlar okurum.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

17. İngilizce notlar, mesajlar, mektuplar veya raporlar yazarım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

18. İngilizce bir metine önce göz gezdiririm, sonra dönüp dikkatlice okurum.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

19. Ana dilimde İngilizce kelimelere benzer kelimeler ararım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

20. İngilizce'deki kalıplaşmış ifadeleri bulmaya çalışırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

21. İngilizce bir kelimenin anlamını, onu anlayacağım parçalara bölerek bulurum.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

22. Kelime-kelime çeviri yapmamaya çalışırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

23. Dinlediğim yada okuduğum İngilizce herhangi bir şeyin özetini çıkarırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

BÖLÜM C

24. Bilmediğim İngilizce kelimeleri bulmak için tahminler yürütürüm.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

25. İngilizce bir sohbet sırasında bir kelime aklıma gelmediği zaman, bunu hareketlerle anlatırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

26. İngilizce'de doğru kelimeleri bilmiyorsam, yenilerini uydururum.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

27. İngilizce bir metin okurken, karşılaştığım her yeni kelimenin anlamı için sözlüğe bakmamayı tercih ederim.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

28. Karşımdaki kişinin İngilizce ne söyleyeceğini tahmin etmeğe çalışırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

29. İngilizce bir kelimeyi hatırlayamazsam aynı anlamda başka bir kelime yada ifade kullanırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

BÖLÜM D

30. İngilizce'mi kullanabileceğim mümkün olduğu kadar çok fırsatlar bulmaya çalışırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

31. İngilizce'de yaptığım hataları fark edip, daha başarılı olmak için bu hatalardan yararlanırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

32. Biri İngilizce konuşurken dikkat ederim.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

33. Daha iyi bir İngilizce öğrencisi olmanın yollarını ararım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

34. İngilizce çalışmaya yeterli vaktim olması için plan yaparım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

35. İngilizce konuşabileceğim insanlar ararım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

36. Mümkün olduğunca çok okumak için fırsat kollarım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

37. İngilizce becerilerimi geliştirmek için belirli hedeflerim var.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

38. İngilizce'deki ilerleyişim üzerinde düşünürüm.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

BÖLÜM E

39. Ne zaman İngilizce'yi kullanmaktan korksam, rahatlamaya çalışırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

40. Hata yapmaktan korktuğum zaman bile kendime İngilizce konuşmak için cesaret veririm.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

41. İngilizce'de başarılı olduğum zamanlar kendimi ödüllendiririm.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

42. İngilizce çalışırken veya kullanırken sinirli veya gerginsem bunun farkına varırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

43. Duygularımı İngilizce olarak tuttuğum bir günlüğe yazarım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

44. İngilizce öğrenirken hissettiklerimi bir başkasıyla paylaşırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

BÖLÜM F

45. İngilizce konuşulan bir şeyi anlamazsam, konuşandan daha yavaş konuşmasını veya söylediğini tekrar etmesini rica ederim.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

46. Ana dili İngilizce olanlar ile konuşurken hatalarımı düzeltmelerini isterim.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

47. Diğer öğrencilerle İngilizce pratik yaparım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

48. İngilizce konuşanlardan yardım isterim.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

49. İngilizce sorular sorarım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

50. Ana dili İngilizce olanların kültürlerini tanımaya çalışırım.
a) Asla b) Nadiren c) Ara sıra d) Çoğunlukla e) Her zaman

APPENDIX 3

Means and Standard Deviations of Each Statement in SILL

Statements	**Number**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Memory 1	334	3.35(medium)	1.00
Memory 2	334	2.41(low)	.90
Memory 3	334	2.87(medium)	1.11
Memory 4	334	2.94(medium)	1.00
Memory 5	334	2.20(low)	1.06
Memory 6	334	2.47(low)	1.31
Memory 7	332	1.91(low)	.96
Memory 8	334	2.64(medium)	.98
Memory 9	333	2.74(medium)	1.14
Cognitive 1	334	2.36(low)	1.16
Cognitive 2	333	2.71(medium)	1.20
Cognitive 3	334	2.14(low)	1.00
Cognitive 4	333	2.32(low)	.95
Cognitive 5	333	1.97(low)	.99
Cognitive 6	334	2.61(medium)	1.18
Cognitive 7	334	2.05(low)	.99
Cognitive 8	334	1.94(low)	.96
Cognitive 9	334	2.93(medium)	1.22
Cognitive 10	334	2.64(medium)	1.19
Cognitive 11	333	2.84(medium)	1.10
Cognitive 12	331	2.34(low)	1.13
Cognitive 13	334	3.05(medium)	1.20
Cognitive 14	334	1.83(low)	.95
Compensation 1	332	3.30(medium)	.92
Compensation 2	334	2.93(medium)	1.25
Compensation 3	333	2.48(low)	1.24
Compensation 4	334	3.09(medium)	1.22
Compensation 5	334	3.19(medium)	1.09
Compensation 6	334	3.46(medium)	1.02
Metacognitive 1	334	2.94(medium)	1.12
Metacognitive 2	334	3.13(medium)	1.07
Metacognitive 3	334	3.71(high)	1.00
Metacognitive 4	334	3.27(medium)	1.15
Metacognitive 5	334	2.71(medium)	1.19
Metacognitive 6	334	2.82(medium)	1.19
Metacognitive 7	332	2.60(medium)	1.07
Metacognitive 8	334	3.16(medium)	1.25
Metacognitive 9	333	3.24(medium)	1.10
Affective 1	334	2.88(medium)	1.17
Affective 2	332	2.93(medium)	1.23
Affective 3	333	2.45(low)	1.31
Affective 4	334	3.30(medium)	1.30
Affective 5	334	1.23(low)	.66
Affective 6	333	2.40(low)	1.28
Social 1	334	3.70(high)	1.09
Social 2	334	2.71(medium)	1.39
Social 3	334	2.31(low)	1.08
Social 4	334	3.00(medium)	1.08
Social 5	334	2.71(medium)	1.06
Social 6	334	2.38(low)	1.31

* Low level (1-2.4) * Medium level (2.5-3.4) *High level (3.5-5)

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