



ISTANBUL MEDENİYET UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

**The Relation Between Vocabulary Learning Strategies
and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Among Turkish
EFL Learners**

Master's Thesis

Aysu Begüm Karagöl Özkul

July 2023



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Supervisor

Asst. Prof. Ferdane Denkci Akkaş

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THESIS JURY APPROVAL

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Style and Reference Manual Statement

Having reviewed this thesis written under my supervision, I confirm that it has been written in accordance with the APA (7th Edition) Manual of Style and used its [footnote/in text] reference format consistently throughout the entire text.

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Declaration of Originality

I hereby declare that all information in this dissertation has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conducts, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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Aysu Begüm Karagöl Özkul

GENİŞ ÖZET

Türkiye’de İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenenlerin Kelime Öğrenme Stratejileri ile Yabancı Dilde Okuma Kaygıları Arasındaki İlişki

Karagöl Özkul, Aysu Begüm

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

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Temmuz 2023

Kelime bilgisi, yabancı dil öğreniminin ana unsurlarından biri olarak kabul edilmektedir ve dilde performans gösterebilmek için vazgeçilmez olduğundan, araştırmacılar arasında ilgi uyandırmıştır. Bu araştırmacılar, bir sözcüğü bilmenin karmaşık bir süreç olduğunu ve öğrenenin sözcüğü kullanmak için biçim, anlam, kesit, sıklık, anlamsal yapı ve bağlamı tanımasını gerektirdiğini ileri sürmektedir. Eğer bir öğrenen bir kelimeyi öğrenmenin gerekliliklerini yerine getiremezse, kelime öğrenmenin konuşma ve okumada çok önemli olduğu düşünüldüğünde, anlama ve öğrendiğini uygulama ters yönde etkilenebilir. Öğrenme sorunlarını hafifletmek için öğrenme stratejileri, öğrenenlerin öğrenmelerini geliştirmeleri için bir aracı olarak ortaya çıkar. Dil öğrenme stratejileri, öğrenenlerin bilgi edinmek, bilgiyi almak, anlaşılır bir hale dönüştürmek ve dil öğreniminin sonraki aşamalarında uygun bir bağlamda kullanmak üzere depolamak için yaptıkları kasıtlı eylemleri ifade eder. Bu stratejiler öğrencilere kendi öğrenmelerini kontrol etme ve çalışmalarını için daha büyük bir sorumluluk duygusu yaratma gibi kazanımlar sağlar.

Bu bağlamda, kelime öğrenme stratejileri özellikle 1970'lerden bu yana yabancı dil stratejileri arasında dikkat çekmektedir. Bu stratejilerin öğrenme sürecine başarılı bir şekilde dahil edilmesiyle etkili ve yeterli kelime bilgisi edinilebilir. Literatürde bu stratejilere ilişkin çeşitli sınıflandırmalar bulunmakla birlikte, Schmitt' in (1997) sınıflandırması yaygın olarak kabul görmektedir. Bu taksonomide stratejiler "yeni öğrenme" ve "öğrenilenleri pekiştirme" olmak üzere iki ana boyut ve "belirleme,

sosyal keşif, sosyal pekiştirme, bellek, bilişsel ve üstbilişsel stratejiler" olmak üzere altı alt kategori altında toplanmıştır. Belirleme stratejileri, bir kelimenin anlamı bilinmediğinde ve bir tahminde bulunmanın faydalı olduğu durumlarda kullanılabilir. Sosyal keşif stratejileri, bir öğrenen yeni bir kelimenin anlamı için başka bir kişiyle etkileşime girdiğinde aktif hale gelir. Bunu takiben, sosyal pekiştirme stratejileri işbirlikçi aktivitelerle kelime dağarcığını sağlamlaştırmak için kullanılır. Bellek stratejileri hem alıcı hem de üretici becerilerin çalışmasını, çağrışımlar kurmayı, anlamsal ve dilsel özellikleri tanımayı gerektiren teknikleri ifade eder. Bilişsel stratejiler arasında tekrarlar, kelimeyi gözden geçirmek için görsel, yazılı ve işitsel materyaller, günlükler veya nesne etiketleri gibi otantik etkinliklerde bulunarak kelimeye yeterince maruz kalmak yer alır. Son olarak üstbilişsel stratejiler, öğrencilerin kelimeyi sınıf dışında pratik etmelerini, kendilerini test etmelerini ve bir kelimeyi ne zaman geçmeleri ya da daha fazla pratik yapmaları gerektiğinin farkında olmalarını sağlar. Alan yazında kelime öğrenme stratejileri ile ilgili çalışmalar çeşitlidir ve Schmitt' in sınıflandırması (1997) veri toplamak için yaygın olarak benimsenmiştir. Bu çalışmalar, İngilizce öğrenenlerin en sık ve en az kullandıkları stratejileri ve demografik değişkenlerin strateji kullanımı üzerindeki etkisini belirlemeye yöneliktir.

Okuma yaygın olarak bir metni anlamlı birimlere ayırma ve anlamı oluşturma olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Bilişsel olarak zorlu bir süreç olarak kabul edilir çünkü bir okuyucunun yazılı bilgiyi çözümlemesi için farklı süreçlerden geçmesi gerekir. Okuyucu ve metin arasındaki etkileşimler tepeden aşağı işleme, tabandan yukarı işleme ve etkileşimli işleme olmak üzere üç kategoride tanımlanabilir. İlk olarak tepeden aşağı işleme, bir okuyucunun anlamı fonemik düzeyden başlayarak inşa etmesini ve nihayetinde cümle düzeyinde temsillere dönüştürmesini gerektirir. İkinci olarak tabandan yukarı işleme okuyucunun anlamı daha küçük birimlere ayırırken ön bilgilerini kullanarak cümle düzeyindeki anlamı onaylaması veya reddetmesi gerektiğinden tam tersi bir yaklaşım benimser. Bununla birlikte, okuma bu iki kategoriye de girmeyebilir; bu nedenle etkileşimli işleme modeli anlamın hem dilsel hem de ön bilgilerle oluşturulabileceğini öne sürer. Bu şekilde, bir metin ortografik, dilbilimsel, dilbilgisel, bağlamsal ve kültürlerarası açılardan incelenir. Okumanın karmaşık doğasıyla ilgili olarak, dil

öğrenenler okuduğunu anlamalarını etkileyebilecek zorlu bir okuma süreciyle karşılaşabilirler. Bu zorluklar, hedef dildeki yetersiz alt yapı bilgisinden veya dil bilgisi eksikliğinden kaynaklanabilir. Aynı şekilde, bir yabancı dil okuyucusunun okuduğunu anlama düzeyini etkileyen yukarıda bahsedilenlerin dışında farklı faktörler de olabilir. Okuduğunu anlama temel olarak metin ve okuyucuya bağlı iki faktörden etkilenir. Metinle ilgili faktörler tür, içerik, organizasyon ve okunabilirliği içerirken, okuyucuyla ilgili faktörler kelime bilgisi, konu, duyuşsal faktörler ve benimsenen stratejileri ifade eder. İçeriği soyut, türü yaygın olmayan ve okunabilirliği karmaşık olan bir metin, okuyucunun ulaştığı anlama düzeyini düşürebilir. Benzer şekilde, hedef dile ilişkin bilgisi sınırlı olan ve duyuşsal durumu performansını sınırlayan bir okuyucu da okuduğunu anlamada güçlük yaşayabilir. Buna ek olarak, yabancı dilde okuduğunu anlama, hedef dildeki yazılı metne maruz kalma miktarına göre farklılık gösterir. Yabancı dilde maruz kalma sınırlı olduğu için, bu öğrenciler yeterlilik düzeyleri, arka plan bilgileri ve duyuşsal durumlarıyla ilişkili olarak okumada zorlu bir dönem geçirebilirler.

Kaygı, huzursuzluk hali olarak tanımlanır ve yabancı dil öğrenimini etkilediği bilinen bir faktördür. Günümüzde yabancı dil öğreniminin duyuşsal yönleri üzerine yapılan araştırmalarda sıklıkla incelenmektedir. Birçok çalışma kaygının dolaylı olarak dil öğrenimini ve temel becerilerden biri olan okumayı olumsuz etkilediğini ortaya koymaktadır. Duyuşsal durumun, öğrenenlerin hedef dile yönelik ilgi, motivasyon, tutum ve kaygılarını ifade ettiği düşünüldüğünde, herhangi bir yetersiz bilgi veya ilgi çekmeyen bağlam, okuduğunu anlama düzeyini düşürebilir ve bu da öğrenenlerin kaygı düzeylerini artırabilir. Horwitz ve diğerleri (1986) tarafından geliştirilen bir teori olan yabancı dilde okuma kaygısı, dil öğrenmenin kendine özgü sürecinden ve bireyin farklı zihniyet, inanç ve öğrenme yaklaşımlarından kaynaklanabilir. Kaygılı bir okuyucunun uygun stratejileri benimsemede başarısız olabileceği, okuma işlemini yerine getiremeyeceği ve yetersiz anlama ile sonuçlanabileceği için güçlü bir faktör olarak ele alınmaktadır. Kaygılı okuyucu dikkatini kontrol etmekte zorlanabilir, okuma hızını yavaşlatabilir ve okuma stratejilerini yanlış kullanabilir. Yabancı dilde okuma kaygısı ile ilgili çalışmalar alan yazında incelenmiş ve cinsiyet, sınıf, kültürel bilgi, konu ve çok dilliliğin öğrenciler tarafından deneyimlenen kaygı miktarını belirlemede bir faktör

olabileceği bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, Saito ve diğerleri tarafından hazırlanan (1999) yabancı dilde okuma kaygısı ölçeğini kullanan mevcut çalışmalar, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin genellikle orta düzeyde okuma kaygısına sahip olduğunu, okuma kaygısının en yaygın kaynağının bilinmeyen kelime miktarı ve okuyucu endişeleri olduğunu ve öğrencilerin okuma performansının düşük toleransla negatif ilişkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Okuduğunu anlama aynı zamanda öğrencilerin kelime tanıma becerilerine, fonolojik, fonemik temsil ve sözcük bilgisine sahip olmalarını gerektirdiğinden kelime öğrenimi okumada önemli bir faktör olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır. Yabancı dil öğrenen kişinin daha fazla okuması halinde kelime dağarcığının gelişeceğini ya da kelime dağarcığı üzerinde çalışması halinde okumasının gelişeceğini öne süren çalışmalar mevcuttur. Okumanın bir parçası olarak anlam odaklı bilgiye istinaden, kapsamlı okuma ve kelime öğrenimi gibi etkinlikler okuyucuların anlama ve okuma akıcılığına katkıda bulunabilir. Bir metni anlamak için ne kadar kelime bilinmesi gerektiği üzerine yapılan çalışmalar, 95% ve üzeri kelime tanımanın başarılı okuduğunu anlamaya işaret ettiğini göstermiştir. Bu noktada, kelime öğrenme stratejileri, İngilizce öğrenenlerin kelime bilgisi ve okuduğunu anlama kalitesini artırabilir. Aynı şekilde, uygun öğrenme stratejilerini kullanmada başarısız olan bir öğrenci, okuduğunu anlamada zayıflıkla sonuçlanabilecek tatsız bir okuma süreci deneyimleyebilir. Bu çalışma, yukarıda belirtilen olgular ve alan yazın ışığında, yabancı dil öğrencilerinin kelime öğrenme stratejilerini ve okuma kaygılarını incelemeyi ve varsa iki kavram arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koymayı hedeflemektedir.

Bu çalışmada başta açıklanan iki olgu herhangi bir müdahale olmaksızın incelendiği için, çalışma, ilişkisel tarama modelinin kullanıldığı betimsel bir araştırma olarak tasarlanmıştır. Veri toplamak için, üç bölümden oluşan bir anket uygulanmıştır. Katılımcıların demografik bilgilerine ilişkin veriler bir arka plan anketi üzerinden toplanırken yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenenlerin kelime öğrenme stratejileri ve yabancı dilde okuma kaygıları ise Kelime Öğrenme Stratejileri Anketi ve Yabancı Dilde Okuma Kaygısı Ölçeği aracılığıyla belirlenmiştir. Schmitt'in (1997) sınıflandırılmasına göre düzenlenen ve Derici (2019) tarafından Türkçe 'ye uyarlanan Kelime Öğrenme Stratejileri Anketi, yabancı dil öğrencilerinin kelime öğrenme stratejisi kullanımlarını ve bu stratejilerin ne ölçüde kullanıldığını tespit

etmek için uygulanmıştır. Yabancı Dilde Okuma Kaygısı Ölçeği ise Saito, Garza ve Horwitz (1999) tarafından geliştirilmiş, Kuru-Gönen (2005) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanmıştır. Veri toplama araçları, daha fazla hedef kitleye ulaşılması açısından Google Formlar aracılığıyla İstanbul ili içerisinde İngilizce Hazırlık Programında öğrenim gören üniversite öğrencileriyle paylaşılmış ve sonuç olarak 202 katılımcı çalışmada yer almıştır. Veri toplama araçlarıyla toplanan nicel veriler, analiz için istatistiksel testler uygulamak amacıyla SPSS yazılımına aktarılmıştır. Verilerin normal dağıldığı tespit edildikten sonra analizlerde sıklık, yüzdelik, ortalama, minimum ve maksimum değerler hesaplaması, Cronbach Alpha güvenilirlik testi, korelasyon analizi, tek değişkenli varyans analizi (ANOVA) ve bağımsız örneklem t testi gibi parametrik analiz tekniklerinden faydalanılmıştır.

Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre, İngilizce hazırlık okulu öğrencilerinin kelime öğrenme stratejileri kullanımı ve okuma kaygıları orta düzeydedir. En çok ve en az kullanılan stratejiler sırasıyla belirleme ve sosyal pekiştirme stratejileri olarak belirlenmiştir. İkinci olarak, yabancı dilde okuma kaygısının sadece sosyal keşif stratejileri ve bilişsel stratejileri ile anlamlı düzeyde pozitif ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu, bahsedilen stratejileri kullanan öğrencilerin daha kaygılı hissettikleri ve bu ilişkinin anlamlı olduğu anlamına gelmektedir. Ayrıca, katılımcıların deneyimlediği okuma kaygısı miktarının bilinen dil sayısı, iletişimde olunan yabancı arkadaşlar, fakülte ve yeterlilik seviyeleri gibi değişkenlere göre anlamlı farklılıklar gösterdiği gözlenmiştir. Buna ek olarak, yaşanan kaygı miktarının test performanslarını olumsuz yönde etkilediği ortaya konmuştur. Son olarak, kelime öğrenme stratejileri kullanımının bir yılda okudukları kitap sayısı (belirleme, bellek ve sosyal konsolidasyon stratejileri için), günlük ortalama çalışma süresi (belirleme, bilişsel, üstbilişsel ve bellek stratejileri), üniversite türü ve fakülte (sosyal keşif stratejileri), cinsiyet ve yeterlilik düzeyleri (bilişsel stratejiler), iletişimde oldukları yabancı arkadaşlar (bellek ve sosyal konsolidasyon stratejileri) ve hazırlık okulu durumu (sosyal pekiştirme stratejileri) gibi değişkenlerden anlamlı düzeyde etkilendiği belirlenmiştir. Test performansı ise sadece bellek stratejileriyle pozitif korelasyon göstermiştir; bu da bellek stratejilerinin kullanımının öğrencilerin test performansını artırdığı anlamına gelmektedir.

Mevcut bulgular eřlięinde alan yazın incelendięinde, sonular arasında benzerlikler ve farklılıklar tespit edilmiřtir. rneęin, bu alıřma ve incelenen alıřmalar kelime ęrenme stratejilerinin kullanım sıklıęının ve ęrenme kaygısının orta seviyede olduęu kanısında benzerdirler. Mevcut alıřma, belirleme stratejilerinin en sık kullanılan strateji, sosyal pekiřtirme stratejilerinin ise en az kullanılan strateji olduęu sonucuna ulařmıřtır. Alan yazındaki alıřmalar incelendięinde, benzerliklerin yanı sıra farklılıklar olduęu tespit edilmiřtir. rneęin, bazı alıřmalar, biliřsel veya bellek stratejilerinin en sık; bazı alıřmalar ise biliřsel veya st biliřsel stratejilerinin en az kullanılan kelime ęrenme stratejileri olduęu sonucuna ulařmıřtır. Kelime ęrenme stratejilerinin demografik deęiřkenlerle iliřkisi incelendięinde, alan yazındaki dięer alıřmalarla benzerlikler (cinsiyet, mezun olunan okul, okuduęu kitap sayısı) ve farklılıklar (cinsiyet, faklte, dil yeterlilik seviyesi) ortaya konmuřtur. Benzer řekilde, ęrencilerin okuma kaygısı dzeylerinin demografik deęiřkenlerle anlamlı bir řekilde farklılařtıęı ve bulguların dięer alıřmalarda da benzerlik (cinsiyet, bilinen dil sayısı, dil yeterlilik seviyeleri) ve farklılıkları (cinsiyet) olduęu belirlenmiřtir. Ayrıca, bu alıřma, alan yazında daha nce iki kavramla iliřkilendirilmemiř demografik deęiřkenleri incelemiřtir. Buna ek olarak, alan yazında kelime ęrenme stratejileri ve yabancı dilde okuma kaygısı arasındaki olası bir iliřkiyi incelemeye ynelik bir alıřmaya rastlanmamıřtır. Bu sebeplerden tr, bu alıřmanın alan yazındaki bir aıklıęa iřaret ettięi ve alan yazına katkı saęladıęı dřnlmektedir. Bu alıřmanın sonularına dayanarak, ęretmenlere, karar vericilere ve arařtırmacılara bazı nerilerde bulunulmuřtur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kelime ęrenme stratejileri, Yabancı dilde okuma kaygısı, Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce ęrenenler

ABSTRACT

The Relation Between Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety among Turkish EFL Learners

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Master's Thesis, Department of Foreign Language Education

Asst. Prof. Ferdane Denkci Akkaş

July 2023

The present study aims to investigate vocabulary learning strategies and foreign language reading anxiety of Turkish EFL preparatory university students registered at different public and private universities in Istanbul besides revealing any possible relations between the two concepts. This is a descriptive study with a correlational survey design. The data were collected from 202 Turkish EFL university students who were studying English in a preparatory program in Istanbul via a background questionnaire, Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire, and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale. The findings indicated that Turkish EFL students utilized vocabulary learning strategies at a moderate level and had a medium level of foreign language reading anxiety. Besides, a positive correlation was found between social discovery, cognitive strategies, and foreign language reading anxiety. This implied that the more frequent use of these strategies led to higher levels of anxiety for reading. In addition, Turkish EFL learners' reading anxiety level was influenced by the number of languages known, foreign friends in contact, faculty, and proficiency levels. Furthermore, it was determined that the test performance of the participants was affected negatively by the amount of reading anxiety experienced. Finally, the extent of vocabulary learning strategy use differed significantly according to the number of books the participants read, average study time

per day, university type, faculty, gender, proficiency levels, foreign friends in contact, prep school state, while variables differed significantly for different strategies. Meanwhile, test performance was positively correlated with only memory strategies, and the use of these strategies indicated an increase in Turkish EFL learners' test performance.

Keywords: Vocabulary Learning Strategies, Foreign Language Reading Anxiety, EFL Learners



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Aysu Begüm KARAGÖL ÖZKUL

DEDICATION



Dedicated to my mother, my idol, and my angel.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FL: Foreign Language

FLA: Foreign Language Anxiety

FLRA: Foreign Language Reading Anxiety

FLRAS: Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale

VLS: Vocabulary Learning Strategies

VLSQ: Vocabulary Learning Strategy Questionnaire

ELT: English Language Teaching

GLT: German Language Teaching

TAV: Test of Arabic Vocabulary

LA: Learner Autonomy

GEPT: General English Proficiency Test

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

SLTAS: Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale

EFLRAI: English as a Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Inventory

1. INTRODUCTION

The present study aims to determine the frequency of VLS use and amount of FLRA among EFL learners and reveal any possible relation between two variables. In addition, it is aimed to reveal whether EFL learners' VLS and FLRA vary significantly by certain demographic variables. Regarding these purposes, this section presents an overview of the study. First, vocabulary learning strategies and foreign language reading anxiety are addressed in relation to the previous literature. Next, the problem is stated, and the purpose and research questions are given. Finally, the limitations of the study are explained.

1.1 Background of the Study

Vocabulary knowledge is recognized as one of the main elements of foreign language learning (Bai, 2018; Hunt & Beglar, 2002). Since it is indispensable to perform in the language, it has aroused attention among researchers (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004; Ling, 2005; Nation, 1990; Richards, 1976). These researchers put forward that knowing a word is a complex process and it requires a learner to recognize form, meaning, register, frequency, semantic structure, and context to use the word. If a learner fails to fulfill the requirements of learning a word, comprehension and production can be influenced reversely considering vocabulary learning is crucial in speaking and reading (Ling, 2005).

To ease the learning problems, learning strategies appear as a mediator for learners to enhance their learning. Language learning strategies, in these terms, refer to deliberate actions taken by learners to obtain knowledge, retrieve input, decode it, and store it to use in an appropriate context for later stages of language learning (Cohen, 1998; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1987; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). These strategies provide students with gains such as controlling their own learning and creating a greater sense of responsibility for their studies (Saengpakdeejit, 2014).

In this context, vocabulary learning strategies have attracted attention among foreign language strategies, especially since the 1970s. Effective and sufficient vocabulary knowledge can be acquired by successfully incorporating these strategies into the learning process. Although there are various classifications of these

strategies in the literature (Gu & Johnson, 1996; Oxford, 1990; Lawson & Hogben, 1996; Schmitt, 1997; Nation, 2001), Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy is widely accepted. In this taxonomy, strategies are grouped under two main dimensions as "new learning" and "reinforcing what has been learned" and under six sub-categories as "determination, social discovery, social consolidation, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies". Determination strategies are explicitly used when the meaning of a word is unknown and making a guess is useful (Schmitt, 1997). Social Discovery Strategies are activated when the learner interacts with another person for the meaning of a new word (Schmitt, 1997). Following that, Social Consolidation Strategies are utilized to retrieve the vocabulary by collaborative activities (Ghazal, 2007). Memory strategies refer to the techniques that require both receptive or productive skills to work, building associations, and recognizing the semantic and linguistic features (Schmitt, 1997). Cognitive strategies include repetitions, visual, written, and audial materials to revise the word, having enough exposure to the word by having it in authentic activities such as diaries or object labels (Ghazal, 2007; Schmitt, 1997). Metacognitive strategies, finally, enable learners to practice the word out of the classroom, test themselves, and be aware when to pass a word or further practice it (Ghazal, 2007).

There are numerous studies that focused on VLS in various contexts (Bakti, 2018; Kafipour, 2010; Rabadi, 2016) as well as Türkiye (Aslan-Tunç, 2020; Aparı, 2016; Bilir, 2022; Demir, 2022; Derici, 2019; Kheder, 2022; Yıldız, 2019; Zabardast-Alamdari, 2010). Studies into the examination of EFL learners' VLS were frequently performed by instrumenting Schmitt's (1997) Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies Scale (Al-Khresheh & Al- Ruwaili, 2020; Amirian & Heshmatifar, 2013; Baskın, 2017; Bakti 2018; Bilir, 2022; Demir, 2022; Derici, 2019; Kheder, 2022; Rabadi, 2016; Park, 2001; Rojananak & Vitayapirak, 2015; Wu, 2005). Additionally, most existing studies into VLS aimed to explore the most and least frequent strategies EFL learners adopt. When the findings were analyzed, certain strategies were found to be preferred more and less often than others. For instance, in the study in the Korean context by Park (2001), determination and cognitive strategies were found to be used more often compared to other strategies, while the study by Al-Khresheh and Al- Ruwaili (2020) in the Saudi context

concluded that memory strategies were utilized the most frequently. In the same sense, while cognitive strategies were found to be the least type utilized in Rojananak and Vitayapirak (2015)'s study, memory strategies were preferred the least often by bilingual learners in the study by Sazvar and Varmaziyar (2016). Considering the individual strategies employed, studies presented that Turkish EFL learners tended to use bilingual dictionaries (Aslan-Tunç, 2020; Aparı, 2016; Zabardast-Alamdari, 2010), practice the meaning of a word through group work and utilize English media (Yıldız, 2019) to consolidate meaning more frequently than the rest of aforementioned strategies. Finally, gender (Büyükahıskı & Kozallık, 2018; Demir, 2022; Park 2001), school type (Derici, 2019), grade level (Baskın et al., 2017; Derici, 2019; Wu, 2005), and the reading habit of learners (Çevik et al., 2018) were found to cause significant differences in VLS use.

Reading is commonly defined as decoding a text into meaningful units and build up the meaning (Kaplan, 2010; Kong, 2019). It is considered a cognitively demanding task (Sellers, 2000) since a reader must go through different processes to retrieve the written input (Kong, 2019). The interactions between the reader and the text can be described in three processes, namely bottom-up, top-down, and interactive processing. First, bottom-up processing, proposed by Gough (1972) requires a reader to construct the meaning starting from the phonemic level and ultimately transforming it to sentence-level representations (Kong, 2019). Second, top-down processing, proposed by Goodman (1972), adopts a reverse approach since a reader needs to confirm or reject the sentence-level meaning by utilizing their prior knowledge as they segment the meaning into smaller units (Barnett, 1989). Nevertheless, reading may not fall into either of these categories; that's why, interactive processing was proposed (Rumelhart, 1977). This model suggests that the meaning can be built up by both linguistic and prior knowledge (Kamal & Soraya, 2021). In this way, a text is examined in terms of orthographic, linguistic, grammatical, contextual, and intercultural aspects (Kamal & Soraya, 2021). Regarding the complex nature of reading, L2 learners may encounter a challenging reading process, which may affect their reading comprehension. These challenges can be due to insufficient schemata in the target language or the lack of linguistic knowledge (Singhal, 1998). In the same sense, there can be different factors affecting

the level of reading comprehension of an L2 reader besides the ones mentioned above. Reading comprehension is mainly affected by two factors, the text, and the reader. The text-related factors include genre, content, organization, and readability (Sadekhi, 2007), while reader-related factors refer to vocabulary knowledge, topic, affective factors, and strategies adopted (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Ölmez, 2016). A text whose content is abstract, genre is uncommon, and readability is complex may decrease the level of comprehension achieved by the reader (Kong, 2019). Similarly, a reader whose knowledge of that target language is limited, and affective status limits the performance may suffer from poor reading comprehension (Sadeghi, 2007; Kong, 2019). Similarly, reading comprehension in foreign language differs considering the amount of exposure they have in reading. As the exposure is limited in FL (Barnett, 1989), these learners may have a challenging period in reading in relation to their proficiency levels, background knowledge, and affective status (Lee, 1999; Sellers, 2000).

Anxiety is defined as a state of uneasiness (Bandura, 1997), and is a factor that is known to affect foreign language learning (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999). It is nowadays frequently studied in research on the affective aspects of foreign language teaching. Many studies reveal that anxiety indirectly negatively affects language learning and reading, which is one of the basic skills (Saito et al., 1999). Thinking that affective status refers to a learners' interests, motivation, attitude, and anxiety into the target language, any insufficient knowledge or unpleasant context may decrease the level of reading comprehension, which may, in turn, increase the anxiety levels of learners (Kong, 2019).

Reading anxiety in a foreign language (FLRA), a theory proposed by Horwitz et al. (1986), can be caused by the unique process of language learning and the individual's different mindset, beliefs, and approaches to learning (Horwitz et al., 1986). It is addressed as a powerful factor in that an anxious reader may fail to adopt the appropriate strategies, fulfill the reading processing and end up with unsatisfactory reading comprehension (Kong, 2019). A reader may struggle to control their attention, slow the reading speed, and misuse the reading strategies (Sellers, 2000). The sources of FLRA have been studied in the related literature (Bensalem, 2020; Heidari & Nosratinia, 2022; Joo & Damron, 2015; Lien, 2011;

Zhao et al., 2013), and it has been found that gender, course level, cultural knowledge, topic, and multilingualism can be a factor in determining the amount of FLRA experienced by the learners. Furthermore, the existing studies, instrumenting Saito et al. (1999) FLRAS revealed that EFL learners generally had a medium level of FLRA (Altay, 2021; Miao & Vibulphol, 2021; Zhou, 2017), the most common source of FLRA is the unknown vocabulary and the reader concerns (Muhlis, 2017; Zhao, 2009), and reading performance of learners is negatively correlated to low tolerant readers (Tsai & Li, 2012; Zhao, 2009).

Vocabulary learning appears as a significant factor in reading as reading comprehension also requires learners to have word recognition skills, phonological, phonemic representation, and lexical knowledge (Wang, 2000). It is suggested by Mikulecky (2009) that the vocabulary of a foreign language learner gets improved if the learner reads more, or reading is improved if the learner works on vocabulary. Regarding the meaning-focused input as a part of reading, activities like extensive reading and vocabulary learning may add to the L2 readers' comprehension and reading fluency (Nation, 2001). Studies on how much vocabulary should be known to comprehend a text have indicated that 95% and above vocabulary recognition points to a successful reading comprehension (Laufer & Sim, 1985; Hue & Nation, 2000). At this point, vocabulary learning strategies can increase the quality of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension of EFL learners. In the same sense, a learner who fails to employ appropriate learning strategies might experience an unpleasant reading process, resulting in poor reading comprehension.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Reading, one of the receptive skills, is a demanding task for EFL learners because comprehension requires one learner to have sufficient knowledge of language, the text, and the target culture simultaneously. Insufficient knowledge may lead to an unpleasant reading experience and poor reading comprehension (Zhang & Annual, 2008). Anxiety, which is regarded as a component of affective factors (Krashen, 1982) may feed this cycle as being the source or result of the state. Foreign Language Reading Anxiety (FLRA), a theory proposed by Horwitz et al. (1986), suggests that a reader who is anxious may not perform critical thinking, apply appropriate strategies to decode a text, process the written input, or control their

attention (Heidari & Nosratinia, 2022; Sellers, 2000). While different sources like gender or multilingualism (Bensalem, 2020; Genç, 2016) have been determined, it is obvious to some extent that FLRA feeds itself cyclically; that is, a reader may feel anxious as a result of an unpleasant reading experience or being anxious may cause this type of a case. Regarding the issues mentioned above, it can be concluded that managing reading is of great importance to EFL learners since achieving a complex process would surely contribute to one's mastery of the language, and control of cognitive demands of learning a language. That is why, it is important to reduce anxiety to develop and use reading skills effectively in a foreign language.

Vocabulary knowledge is referred as knowing a word in terms of not only form and meaning (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004), but also other features such as word association and semantic structure (Ling, 2005). It has been emphasized that the case of insufficient vocabulary can affect learners' comprehension and performance adversely (Ling, 2005). To ease the problems of vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary learning strategies offer room for EFL learners to learn a word, retrieve the meaning, and consolidate it for further use. Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS) Taxonomy, developed by Schmitt (1997) puts forward that a learner can apply strategies in six different dimensions, two of which are for the first encounter of a word, and the rest for consolidating the learning. Considering that a learner's comprehension and performance in the language can be affected by the vocabulary knowledge they have (Ling, 2005), the failure to adopt appropriate vocabulary learning strategies may result in anxiety and poor achievement in learning (Chen & Chang, 2004; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989).

Reading comprehension skills can be affected by foreign language learners' vocabulary knowledge; therefore, the correct and conscious use of strategies in vocabulary learning can reduce reading anxiety in a foreign language. Anxiety, which may negatively affect language skills (Saito et al., 1999), can be controlled with effective strategy use, and useful solutions can be offered to this problem. It has been determined that there are various studies in the literature on vocabulary learning strategies (Bakti, 2018; Kafipour, 2010; Park, 2001; Wu, 2005) and reading anxiety in a foreign language (Damron, 2015; Miao & Vibulphol, 2021; Tsai & Li, 2012), yet the constructs are examined separately. Similarly, studies conducted in the

Turkish context have focused only on students' vocabulary learning strategies or reading anxiety (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2011; Bilir, 2022; Çevik, et al., 2018; Derici, 2019; Genç, 2016; Kuru-Gönen, 2005; Yılmaz, 2020). In addition, no study in the reviewed literature focuses on the relationship between vocabulary learning strategies and reading anxiety among university preparatory students in Turkey. With respect to that, the investigation of the relation between these constructs becomes more of an issue on behalf of EFL learners and rewarding strategy use.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

In accordance with the problem expressed above, the present study aims to determine the frequency of VLS use and amount of FLRA among EFL learners as well as reveal any possible relationship between the two variables. In addition, it is aimed to reveal whether EFL learners' VLS and FLRA vary significantly by certain demographic variables.

1.4 Research Questions

Keeping the focus of the study in mind, the present research has been developed to shed light on the following questions:

1. How often do the EFL learners utilize vocabulary learning strategies, namely determination, social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies?
2. To what extent do the EFL learners feel anxious about reading in the target language?
3. Is there a statistically significant relation between the use of vocabulary learning strategies and the amount of foreign language reading anxiety EFL learners experience?
4. Does the amount of foreign language reading anxiety EFL learners experience vary regarding their *gender, high school background, college type, faculty, prep school program, familiarity with other foreign languages, exam results, the average time they study English per week, the number of books they read in a year, their having any experience abroad or having any foreign friends*?
5. Do the vocabulary learning strategies EFL learners utilize vary regarding their *gender, high school background, college type, faculty, prep school program, familiarity with other foreign languages, exam results, the average time*

they study English per week, the number of books they read in a year, their having any experience abroad or having any foreign friends?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The current study is significant in several ways. First of all, FLRA is a relatively new concept in the literature, and it has been recently studied. Because of that, a limited number of studies into FLRA have been conducted in foreign contexts (Al-Shboul et al., 2013; Bensalem, 2020; Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2010; Joo & Damron, 2015; Miao & Vibulphol, 2021; Muhlis, 2017; Tsai & Li, 2012; Zhao, 2009; Zhou, 2017). Likewise, studies performed in the Turkish context are limited as well (Altay, 2021; Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2011; Genç, 2016; Köroğlu, 2010). Along with the studies into the amount and sources of FLA, the present study addresses the levels of FLRA that might differ according to certain variables. Second, VLS has been widely studied in and out of Turkish context (Aslan-Tunç, 2020; Aparı, 2016; Bakti, 2018; Bilir, 2022; Demir, 2022; Derici, 2019; Kafipour, 2010; Kheder, 2022; Rabadi, 2016; Yıldız, 2019; Zabardast-Alamdari, 2010), and this study is believed to contribute to the existing literature. Most importantly and finally, the previous literature does not present any research into the relation between VLS and FLRA. That is, although each concept has been studied individually and in relation to other constructs, they have never been correlated. Thus, this study will point to a gap in the literature.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

The present study has several limitations. First, it is limited to the data collected from 202 EFL preparatory school students studying at public or private universities and compulsory or optional programs in Istanbul. Second, the research is limited to the data gathered with the implementation of the Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire (VLSQ) and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS). Next, the results describe the EFL learners' VLS and FLRA levels based on their perceptions rather than directly observing the phenomena. Finally, this study has a correlational survey design; the findings represent the responses of the participants for the scales and the background questionnaire.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section presents a brief theoretical framework for vocabulary learning strategies and foreign language reading anxiety. First, definitions regarding L1 and L2 reading, foreign language reading, and foreign language anxiety are given. Second, the reading models, and reading anxiety theories are explained. Next, learning and vocabulary learning strategies are presented in line with their importance. Finally, vocabulary learning strategies are explained within their taxonomies and its relation to foreign language reading anxiety.

2.1. Foreign Language Reading

Reading, in its simple definition, is the ability to comprehend a message through a written text (Kaplan, 2010), yet, it is, at the same time, a complex process considering the cognitive aspects (Sellers, 2000). Before examining reading in ESL or EFL, the difference between L1 and L2 reading is worth raising. It was discussed that reading, either in L1 or L2, involves reader and the text to be in an active interaction (Rumelhart, 1977). Both contexts require contextual, formal, and linguistic knowledge as well as mental activities to operate the process (Singhal, 1998). Likewise, reading can emerge as a similar experience when transfer is available between L1 and L2. On the other hand, they differ from each other as an L2 learner may lack sufficient background in the target language and the culture. To be more precise, while the L1 learner goes through a top-down process to retrieve the meaning, an L2 learner may have to experience a bottom-up process as they do not have enough linguistic, contextual, or semantic information of the target language. In a similar vein, the L2 reader may struggle to guess the words or decode the grammatical features of the language, while L1 learners have already created a schema before they start the reading process (Singhal, 1998). Likewise, L1 readers have the advantage of recognizing their own cultural patterns that may be embedded in their reading texts, while L2 learners may be disadvantageous at this point. Briefly, it is suggested that the differences and similarities between two reading contexts may stem from the linguistic, grammatical, semantic, or cultural features of the language.

Reading in a second language and foreign language differs regarding the context, motivation, and exposure to input, although the cognitive processes are available in both. In other words, foreign language reading is distinctive in that FL learners study in their native environment have different concerns to progress in reading, and their exposure to any kind of target language text is limited (Barnett, 1989). However, the process gets more complicated in either second language or foreign language reading due to learners' language proficiency, background, and motivation (Lee, 1999; Sellers, 2000). As reading is understanding a written text, reading comprehension is the transformation of this text into *thought* or *meaning* which involves simultaneous interaction between building up or extracting the meaning and the written text. Such complicated interactions can be described by bottom-up, top-down, and interactive processing models (Kong, 2019).

2.1.1 L2 Reading Models

To begin with, *bottom-up processing*, proposed by Gough (1972), refers to constructing the meaning in a pattern triggered by printed stimuli and gradually transforming it into phonemic, phonological, word, and sentence-level representations of the complex information (Kong, 2019). It is *data-driven* and based on the written input as well as a sequential process (Gough, 1972; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). The order of processing is hierarchical; it starts from the bottom, with the smallest unit, and it finishes once the meaning has been built through the accumulation of the preceding processes. In other words, each chunk is processed and linked to the following bits until they turn into a meaningful representation. According to this model, reading comprehension increases as readers get skilled at decoding information (Ahmadi et al., 2013). However, it falls short of explaining the decrease in reading comprehension due to readers' lack of contextual information (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Therefore, bottom-up processing underestimates readers' active role in the process (Ahmadi et al., 2013).

Second, proposed by Goodman (1972), top-down processing adopts an approach in which readers' background knowledge, named *schemata* (Alderson, 2000), and experiences are taken into account to build up the meaning of the text. In this sense, it is not text-bound since readers pay attention to other components of the text and rely on their prior knowledge. Readers start with the complete text and

utilize their background knowledge while segmenting the text into its components. They either confirm or reject the hypothesis formed for what comes next (Barnett, 1989). For that reason, the top-down processing is reader-driven (Kong, 2019). Also, named as text sampling (Cohen, 1998), top-down processing does not require readers to read all since certain key words and phrases can be enough to accelerate comprehension. Accordingly, this model puts the emphasis on prior knowledge while bottom-up processing underestimates it.

However, neither of these models, namely bottom-up or top-down, alone could explain the nature of the reading process. In other words, reading could not fall into either of the categories as explained above. Then, Rumelhart (1977) proposed interactive processing, which confronted the abovementioned issue (Ahmadi et al., 2013). Interactive processing, explained in Kamal and Soraya (2021), is the model in which readers build up the meaning out of a text with not only schematic knowledge (top-down) but also linguistic knowledge (bottom-up). Like top-down processing, interactive processing is also reader-driven (Barnett, 1989). Since both the previous knowledge and the text are utilized simultaneously (Kamal & Soraya, 2021), reading comprehension requires decoding the written input that includes orthographic, linguistic, grammatical, contextual, and intercultural features.

2.1.2. Key Factors Contributing to L2 Reading Comprehension

The ultimate purpose of reading is to transform written input into meaningful representation, and this process is affected by various factors attributed to the reader or the text. Notably, the texts' genre, content, organization, and readability (Kong, 2019; Sadekhi, 2007); and the readers' knowledge of vocabulary and the topic, affective factors such as motivation, interest, and anxiety, strategies preferred (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Kong, 2019; Ölmez, 2016; Sadeghi, 2007) might have an influence on both the amount and quality of comprehension acquired.

Content, genre, organization, and readability can be counted among the test-related factors that directly impact reading comprehension. First, comprehension is likely to weaken when the content of the written text is abstract, uncommon, and overloading in terms of information. Second, the genre of a text may determine the quality of comprehension. This means that the more literary a text is, the more

difficult it gets to understand; therefore, common, and familiar genres can be said to ease the reading process. Third, the organization of a text, namely cohesion, is considered important in comprehension since it helps readers with insufficient background knowledge to make up for the missing topical knowledge (Kong, 2019). Finally, text readability as the last component in text-based factors refers to the complexity of the text. That is, length of sentences, complexity of phrases and grammatical structures as well as vocabulary load have an impact on reading comprehension (Kong, 2019; Sadekhi, 2007).

Regarding the reader, linguistic and schematic knowledge as well as affective states regarding their motivation, interests, and anxiety play a significant role in reading comprehension (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Kong, 2019; Sadeghi, 2007). To begin with, language knowledge affects understanding the written input as decoding or word recognition speed may result from language proficiency, vocabulary knowledge, and familiarity with the different sentence structures (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). In addition, vocabulary knowledge is claimed to have a reciprocal impact on reading comprehension (Nation, 2011; Schmitt, 2010) and a medium for better understanding because it helps readers fasten their performance and have a clear representation of the written input (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). Moreover, it is put forward that the suitable amount of vocabulary is regarded as an indicator of the quality of reading comprehension, which is the greater vocabulary size a reader has, the better comprehension the one gets (Koda, 2005, Zhang, 2012).

Second, reader's background knowledge may affect the quality and speed of comprehension (Sadeghi, 2007). At that point, *schema theory*, introduced to reading by Rumelhart (1977, p.101), suggests that readers with better schema may perform more effectively in reading on the grounds that existing schemata provides room for the new information retrieved to be associated with the available sources (Garner, 1987; McClelland & Rumelhart, 1981.) To examine individually, three types of schemata defined by Singhal (1998), *content schema* (prior knowledge), *formal schema* (text organization), and *linguistic schema* (knowledge of linguistic components), may address the needs of a reader in the reading process and bring about differences in terms of comprehension quality (Singhal, 1998). Content schemata refers to acquaintance with the topic and the target culture. If a learner fails

to activate this schema, the reader may not fulfill decoding the text as background knowledge constitutes as an important component of the reading comprehension (Al-Issa, 2006; Alderson, 2000). Next, Formal schema refers to background knowledge on the organization of the text, specifically recognition of the genres and required linguistic components of the target language (Singhal, 1998). When the formal schema is activated, reading comprehension can be affected in a positive direction. Lastly, linguistic schema refers to knowledge of decoding features and how words form a sentence (Huang; 2009; Singhal, 1998). Understanding the function of the words in the sentence and how to process them properly increases the quality of reading comprehension.

Affective status, including interests, motivation, attitude, and anxiety, is the final reader-related factor that is influential on reading comprehension. Readers' motivation to read the text may influence comprehension speed and quality and the attitude towards the language or the topic can affect comprehending the text in the same way. That is, if readers consider the topic not interesting, it can affect their comprehension in a negative way. In short, insufficient language knowledge, lack of motivation and unfamiliarity with the topic may result in an unpleasant reading experience, which, afterwards, can be followed by anxiety (Kong, 2019). Likewise, anxiety is a powerful factor in determining the strength of reading comprehension. Anxious readers may miss benefiting from appropriate strategies and come up with poor reading performance accordingly. Anxiety is claimed to affect reading comprehension negatively by diverting the attention, slowing down the reading processing, and decreasing and/or misusing the reading strategies (Sellers, 2000). As a result, failing to prevent or block anxiety may result in poor comprehension.

Vocabulary knowledge has been implied as a significant factor in reading comprehension (Mebarki, 2011; Nation, 2011; Schmitt, 2010; Zhang & Anual, 2008; Zhang, 2011). Because it is strongly affected by the words that the text includes, and mainly the low or high frequent vocabulary determines the reading process (Carter & McCarthy, 2014; Nation & Coady, 1988). Considering that a learner needs to recognize the printed input and retrieve the meaning out of lexical memory, then transform them into meaningful bits, it is not surprising that the lack of recognition, that is vocabulary, affects reading comprehension in a negative way. In the same

sense, vocabulary size, the number of words known by the reader, is also a significant predictor of one's reading comprehension (Zhang & Anual, 2008). It is claimed that there exists a threshold for readers to comprehend a text. A study by Laufer (1989) concluded that a reader gets sufficient comprehension if one understands 95% of the whole text. To achieve this rate, vocabulary knowledge is emphasized in reading comprehension (Mebarki, 2011).

2.2. Foreign Language Reading Anxiety

As mentioned in the previous section, affective status may stand as a significant factor for reading comprehension. However, affective status influences reading and may affect the whole learning process. Developed by Krashen (1982), Affective Filter Hypothesis claimed that language learning is affected by several affective factors: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. These variables create a filter between the input and the receiver, and this prevents learners from learning. In other words, learners with high affective filter may suffer from a poor learning period, resulting in insufficient or unsatisfactory knowledge.

As one of the components of the affective filter, anxiety is generally defined as a state of uneasiness and apprehension that can arise in various situations (Bandura, 1997). Anxiety is divided into three categories: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation anxiety (Spielberger, 1972). Briefly, trait anxiety is the personality trait, which is permanent, and there is a tendency to get triggered at any time (Scovel, 1978). State anxiety, on the other hand, is regarded as temporary state of uneasiness that can change over time (Oteir & Otaibi, 2019). Finally, situation anxiety refers to the reaction towards a particular situation. That is why, foreign language anxiety is best analyzed under situation specific anxiety as learners experience various aspects which creates anxiety in learning process (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

Foreign language anxiety (FLA), in this sense, is asserted to be associated with learning a foreign language. Several researchers have put forward different definitions of FLA, yet they unify the concept as a psychological construct resulting in emotional tensions due to L2 learning processes (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Young, 1992; Zhang, 2001). Horwitz et al. (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex construct of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors

related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning process” (p. 128). Classified as a situation-specific anxiety, FLA is examined under two terms: debilitating and facilitating anxiety. Debilitating anxiety refers to the harmful effect of anxiety on language learning, and facilitating anxiety focuses on the helpful effects of anxiety on the learning process (Alpert & Haber, 1960).

Developed by Horwitz et al. (1986), foreign language anxiety theory suggests that FLA is a “distinct complex” because it differs from academic anxieties in that no anxiety type deals with self-concept as language studies do. Similarly, they concluded that FLA is situation-specific and stated that there is a reverse relation between FLA and performance as learners having less anxiety performed better while more anxious learners performed poorly (Chen & Chang, 2004; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989).

Reading, which is a complex and cognitively demanding process (Sellers, 2000), is one of the skills affected by anxiety. It has been claimed that reading anxiety is one of the neglected concepts while the focus has been primarily on other skills (Heidari & Nosratinia, 2022). Named as reading anxiety by Horwitz et al. (1986), foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA) is defined as the state of uneasiness that an individual goes through while reading a text (Çapan & Pektaş, 2013). However, a clear distinction was made between FLA and FLRA in that while the former includes the whole process and is noticeable in learners’ performance (Horwitz et al., 1986), the latter is specific to reading skill and may not be easily noticed in their performance (Zhao et al., 2013). Additionally, reading anxiety is considered as an inner process unlike other skills. However, Lee (1999) put forward that it is indeed a social one because when readers regard it as a private process, they may internalize the frustration and uneasiness experienced, although other readers may go through the same process.

FLRA stems from various factors. These factors might be gender, course level, target culture exposure, familiarity with the topic, and multilingualism (Bensalem, 2020; Heidari & Nosratinia, 2022; Joo & Damron, 2015; Lien, 2011; Zhao et al., 2013). On the other hand, reviewed literature hosts inconsistent findings

for the sources of FLRA while consensus is on the familiarity of the text and the culture. As of another source, multilingualism is claimed to affect FLRA in that the number of languages is negatively correlated with FLRA (Bensalem, 2020). Reading strategies applied in one language can be transferred to other language, it can, in return, decrease learners' reading anxiety.

FLRA has serious effects on L2 readers. First, learners who suffer from reading anxiety tend to obscure their critical thinking. Also, FLRA hinders strategies applied in the decoding process, and blocks input processing which is crucial in reading comprehension (Heidari & Nosratinia, 2022). Similarly, L2 readers struggle with distraction in the process (Sellers, 2000). Ultimately, they regard foreign language reading as an uneasy and challenging process (Tsui, 1996). To alleviate the challenges of FLRA, reading strategies are adopted by learners. These strategies include reading aloud, paraphrasing, guessing, re-reading the text, visualizing information, translating, and using a dictionary. While anxious readers may miss the useful strategies, less anxious readers tend to employ the appropriate ones (Lien, 2011).

All in all, reading anxiety may result from various factors related to the reader and text, yet regardless of the source of anxiety, anxious readers can end up with poor comprehension in that FLRA limits their cognitive thinking skills and prevents them from employing the appropriate reading strategies (Kuru-Gönen, 2005; Lien, 2011).

2.3. Significance of Vocabulary Knowledge in L2 Reading

Vocabulary is considered as a key factor in language learning (Bai, 2018; Hunt & Beglar, 2002) as it is inevitable in forming sentences, communication, comprehension, and performance (Büyükhıska & Kozallık, 2018). It is also a determiner of language competence (Krashen, 1989), and a contributor to language proficiency (Staehr, 2008).

Ranging from basic to complex, there are several definitions of *knowing a word* by researchers. To begin with, knowing a word means knowing not only form and meaning but also being able to make a connection between the two (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004), using it to manage comprehension in reading and speaking (Ling,

2005), and knowing “word frequency, collocation, register, case relations, underlying forms, word association, and semantic structure” (Richards, 1976, p. 77). Following that, context is posited in definitions of vocabulary knowledge as Nation (1990) claimed that knowing a word is not only knowing the meaning or form but also knowing the context to use it. If a learner fails to fulfill the requirements of learning a word, comprehension, and production can be influenced reversely (Ling, 2005). To ease the learning problems, learning strategies appear as a mediator for learners to enhance the process. Language learning strategies, in these terms, refer to deliberate actions taken by learners to obtain knowledge, retrieve input, decode it, and store it to use it in an appropriate context for later stages of language learning (Cohen, 1998; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1987; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

Vocabulary learning is also significant in reading, requiring learners to have word recognition skills, phonological, phonemic representation, and lexical knowledge (Wang, 2000). Vocabulary of a foreign language learner improves if the learner reads more. Also, reading is improved if the learner works on vocabulary (Mikulecky, 2009; Saengpakdeejit, 2014). Regarding the meaning-focused input as a part of reading, activities like extensive reading and vocabulary learning may add to the L2 readers’ comprehension and reading fluency (Nation, 2001). Nation (2001) defines the threshold for comprehension as the boundary below which the reader may not comprehend the input adequately and above which the comprehension is satisfactory. However, what is meant by “threshold” has various correspondences in studies because the concept of comprehension and the impact of other factors on L2 reading are challenging to define (Nation, 2001). Studies on how much vocabulary should be known to comprehend a text have different results. For some, 95% of word knowledge is required for successful comprehension (Hu & Nation, 2000; Laufer & Sim, 1985), whereas others determine 95% for minimum coverage and 98% satisfactory coverage for reading comprehension (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010).

2.4. Vocabulary Learning Strategies

There are various definitions of language learning strategies (VLS) as being deliberate actions (Cohen, 1998; Richards & Platt, 1992), routines to enhance learning (Rubin, 1987; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992), and efforts put into obtaining

specific competence in L2 (Faerch & Casper, 1983). A language learner conducts an intellectual experiment to check which operations are needed in the learning process and tries to adopt the best one among the available options (Hişmanoğlu, 2000). The definitions of vocabulary learning strategies, likewise, differ; however, they refer to the specific actions taken to learn a word, recall it later, and use it appropriately when it is needed (Asgari & Mustapha, 2011; Catalan, 2003; Takač, 2008).

There are various benefits of utilizing learning strategies for L2 learners. First, the ones who face challenging input in language learning may successfully retrieve the information and perform appropriately in the target language, thanks to learning strategies. Besides, these strategies provide insights into the way learners process the language on the grounds that strategies adopted reflect their learning patterns. If L2 learners monitor their own learning and assess themselves, benefit existing schemes to learn new input, and interact with others, their independence develops, resulting in autonomy (Hismanoglu, 2000). Forming a consciousness into language learning is achieved by learners who are titled as “good learners” and knowing how good language learners behave might be profitable for learning accomplishment (Hardan, 2013). In an attempt to list common strategies adopted by good L2 learners, several studies were performed. Among them, Rubin (1975) concluded that smart guessing, being willing to interact with others and perform the language, overcoming limitations, and monitoring the language and themselves in the process were strategies adopted by such learners. The study by Naiman et al. (1978) put forward that good language learners are the ones who are capable of selecting the best learning style, being aware of the learning requirement, and controlling their attention. The use of VLS, in the same sense, offers L2 learners a room to develop learner autonomy and independence since they can manipulate their learning by gaining confidence in which strategies they need to adopt while learning vocabulary (Ahmed, 2017; Agustín Llach & Canga Alanso, 2020; Nation, 2001; Oxford, 1990; Zhang, 2011). Additionally, VLS is of great importance considering its role in reading and writing skills (Ahmed, 2017; Goundar, 2019) since both require word recognition at phonemics and sentence-level representations. To illustrate, while a reader needs to decode the written input to comprehend the meaning, a writer needs to activate the word in their schemata to form a meaningful

representation. In relation to this study's scope, VLS is seen as a mediator by Goundar (2019) suggesting that employing VLS can enhance learners' reading because insufficient vocabulary knowledge is a major problem experienced by L2 learners. That is, any unknown, uncommon, or complex word can block comprehension, and the use of VLS may alleviate the burden of unknown words on L2 reader since the reader would be familiar with employing strategies and able to cope with the challenges.

Since language learning strategies are varied, researchers have attempted to form a classification of them. For instance, Rubin (1987) classified these strategies as learning, communication, and social strategies and they were referred as having direct or indirect influence on learning. While cognitive and metacognitive strategies were categorized into direct strategies, communication, and social learning strategies were regarded as less influential in descending order (Rubin, 1987). Another taxonomy was depicted by Oxford (1990), who emphasized the direct and indirect contribution of learning strategies by memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies as having the direct influence; metacognitive, affective, and social strategies as having the indirect influence on language learning. O' Malley et al. (1985) categorized strategies into metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies. On the other hand, Stern's (1992) classification had a different perspective on language strategies. These strategies were named as management and planning, cognitive, communicative, interpersonal, and affective strategies. As the names suggest, they reflect the cyclical nature of language learning. Likewise, various classifications for vocabulary learning strategies are explained below.

2.4.1. Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

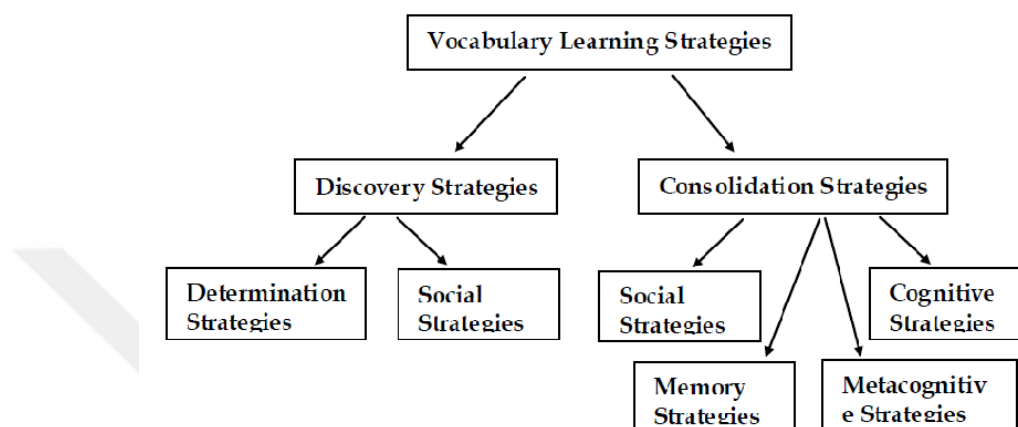
There are various taxonomies that categorize VLS under different titles. These categorizations also provide insights into the acquisition of lexical knowledge. For instance, Gu and Johnson (1996) identified two main dimensions of VLS: metacognitive regulation and cognitive strategies. Metacognitive regulations mean controlling attention and strategies, while cognitive strategies refer to the use of background knowledge, learning a word, memorization and encoding. Oxford (1990) addressed strategies under direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies include memory, cognitive, and compensation, while indirect ones refer to

metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Lawson and Hogben (1996) placed strategies into four main categories from simple to complex ones, which are repetition strategies, word feature analysis, simple elaboration, and complex elaboration. Nation (2001), on the other hand, involves strategy order as *planning*, *source*, and *processes*. The planning phase refers to directing attention to vocabulary learning. Source phase refers to know the word. The final phase refers to strengthening the word in memory by applying different techniques such as generating sentences.

Although there are several researchers often cited for strategy taxonomies (Gu & Johnson, 1996; Oxford, 1990; Lawson & Hogben, 1996; Schmitt, 1997; Nation, 2001), vocabulary learning taxonomy developed by Schmitt (1997), is commonly accepted and favored in foreign language studies. This taxonomy mainly focuses on two dimensions of strategies: discovery (learning a new word) and consolidation (consolidating learning). The first category consists of determination and social strategies, while the latter consists of social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies. Social strategies fall into both categories because they can be used for both purposes (Huh, 2009). Adopting a hierarchical order, Figure 1 represents the taxonomy of VLS by Schmitt (1997).

Figure 1

Schmitt's Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies (1997, pp. 205-210)



As can be seen in Figure 1, Schmitt's VLS Taxonomy unifies strategies under two main dimensions, and these dimensions address the strategies when a learner faces a word for the first time and stores it in the memory. A learner may utilize determination or social strategies when they encounter a word for the first time. These strategies include making smart guess and consulting people around them. After having the first encounter, a learner may establish the meaning of a word by employing strategies like collaborating with others, practicing it to memorize it, having the word in complex activities, and deciding on how to utilize the word (Schmitt, 1997). Following the taxonomy and categorized strategies, further explanations are provided below.

2.4.1.1. Discovery Strategies

The first dimension of Schmitt's VLS Taxonomy focuses on the encounter of a new word. As learners first encounter a word, determination and social strategies are activated. *Determination strategies* refer to the first encounter with a new word under no supervision. *Social strategies* of discovery refer to learning a word by getting help from someone who has mastered at the word. *Determination strategies* are explicitly used when the meaning of a word is unknown and making a guess is

useful (Schmitt, 1997). These procedures are completed without supervision, and learners make the prediction by themselves. These strategies require learners to deal with the linguistic features of a word, getting help from visual input and L1 correspondence or L2 explanation (Ghazal 2007; Schmitt, 1997). Similarly, guessing from the context, using dictionaries, and the use of word lists can alleviate the burden of unknown words (Letchumanan et al., 2016). *Social Strategies* are activated when the learner interacts with another person for the meaning of a new word (Schmitt, 1997). These interactions can be an example from the teacher or help from classmates. In that sense, strategies used may refer to utilizing L1 translation, sentence-level usage for clear understanding, and exploring the meaning within groups (Ghazal, 2007; Schmitt, 1997).

2.4.1.2. Consolidation Strategies

The second dimension of Schmitt's Taxonomy requires learners to stabilize the newly learned word by employing social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies. These strategies are utilized when they try to retrieve the meaning of newly learned vocabulary and encode them into long-term memory. In other words, consolidation strategies are activated when the learners try to remember the meaning of a word. *Social strategies* refer to practicing learned vocabulary employing various techniques such as communicating within the classroom or interacting with people who have mastered the language (Schmitt, 1997). In other words, retaining a word is achieved through collaborative learning activities (Ghazal, 2007). *Memory strategies* are activated when the word is retrieved by utilizing previous knowledge. The strategies in this category such as building associations and recognizing the semantic and linguistic features are applied when both receptive and productive skills are needed to work (Schmitt, 1997). *Cognitive strategies* require exclusive mental processing. Strategies including repetitions, visual, written, and audial materials to revise the word, having enough exposure to the word by having it in authentic activities such as diaries or object labels fall under this category (Ghazal, 2007; Schmitt, 1997). *Metacognitive strategies*, lastly, contribute to controlling the learning process for L2 vocabulary and evaluating it (Schmitt, 1997). These strategies enable learners to practice the word out of the classroom, test themselves, and be aware when to pass a word or further practice it (Ghazal, 2007).

2.5. Literature Review

This section presents a review of the related literature on vocabulary learning strategies and foreign language reading anxiety. First, the studies regarding FLRA levels of EFL learners, anxiety sources, and its relation to other variables are summarized briefly. Then, the studies on VLS employed by EFL learners in relation to different variables are reviewed.

2.5.1. Related Studies Regarding FLRA

Foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA) is a relatively new concept that has been increasingly attracting researchers. When the limited literature on FLRA is considered, it is seen that most studies benefitted from the questionnaire by Saito et al. (1999) for data collection. Additionally, there are studies conducted in various contexts such as Turkish, Indonesian, Iranian, Jordanian, and Chinese. Although the studies often adopted a quantitative research design, few case studies, qualitative, and correlational research examples are also available.

First, studies on FLRA mostly aimed at determining the amount of reading anxiety experienced by EFL learners as well as the sources of such anxiety. When the overall findings are considered, it is understood that learners suffered from a medium level of reading anxiety, and it stemmed from text-related and personal factors. Furthermore, anxiety about foreign language reading mostly arouse when learners encountered unknown linguistic features of the target language and had concerns about sounding like a native speaker and forming a good image. To illustrate, a qualitative study into the FLRA of Jordanian EFL students was performed by Al-Shboul et al. (2013). The study aimed at identifying the sources of FLRA of six university students from different departments with different proficiency levels. The data were collected through observation, interviews, and diaries of the learners. The findings suggested that anxiety mostly resulted from personal factors and text features. In a similar pattern obtained from the existing studies, personal factors included the anxiety of making errors and concerns about reading moments while text-related anxiety arouse in the case of unknown words, unfamiliar topics, and culture. Another study from the Indonesian context was performed by Muhlis (2017) to reveal the levels and sources of reading anxiety among EFL learners. By employing FLRAS developed by Saito et al. (1999), and

another questionnaire developed by Ahmad et al. (2013), the study revealed that 32 second-grade high school EFL students experienced mostly medium-level anxiety, and they experienced anxiety mainly due to text-related and personal factors. Of the sources that triggered anxiety among participants, the lack of vocabulary knowledge, acquaintance with the topic, and culture were identified in relation to text-related factors, while personal factors included fear of errors and reading effects such as comprehension as a result of the reading process. A quantitative study by Bensalem (2020) elaborated on foreign language reading anxiety in the Saudi EFL context with 225 students studying English courses. The data were collected via Saito et al. (1999)'s FLRA scale along with a background questionnaire. Learners' self-perception like their concerns about reading and their language proficiencies in addition to their gender, knowing another language, and experience abroad were determined as an indicator of FLRA. According to the results, female students felt more anxious than males in foreign language reading. Furthermore, it was concluded that FLRA resulted from worry about understanding the text, unfamiliarity with the language, and the learners' self-perceived language levels. Likewise, it was revealed that the learners knowing more than one language and having been to abroad felt less anxious than the learners who did not. Another study was carried out by Joo and Damron (2015) in Korean as a foreign language on FLRA with the participation of 90 college students studying Korean in the USA. The analysis of the data collected through the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et al. (1986), Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS) by Saito et al. (1999) along with a background questionnaire and reading performance score revealed that 1st-year students experienced anxiety more than 2nd and 3rd-year learners while gender was not a predictor of foreign language reading anxiety in this study. However, the learners familiar with Korean culture were found to have less reading anxiety than those not. Finally, the study determined sources of reading anxiety as unfamiliarity with the words, grammar, culture, and reading topics. In a similar vein, a study in the Chinese context was carried out by Miao and Vibulphol (2021) on the level and sources of reading anxiety among Chinese university students. They collected the data via Zoghi's (2012) version of reading anxiety questionnaire (EFLRAI) from 459 EFL participants. The study revealed that Chinese EFL learners

had a medium level of reading anxiety and felt anxious mainly because of personal factors and text-related factors. Among those factors, reading ability and vocabulary knowledge were identified as the main sources. In other words, participants experienced higher levels of anxiety when they could not understand the main idea or details of the text as well as in the encounter of unknown words. In addition, a study was performed by Zhou (2017) with 76 learners of Chinese in the USA that were divided into three groups in terms of proficiency. Data were collected through FLRAS developed by Saito et al. (1999) and interviews with the participants. The findings indicated that participants experienced a medium level of reading anxiety, and different levels experienced more or less anxiety than the rest of the group, but these differences were not significant. The background questionnaire responses revealed that the heritage learners experienced and the ones having familiarity with the target culture experienced less reading anxiety compared to the ones who were in the reverse categories.

In the same vein, the following studies from the Turkish context address the investigation of FLRA levels in terms of variables such as gender, course level, abroad experience, and text-related factors. For instance, a Turkish context-based study was conducted by Kuru-Gönen (2005) on FLRA with 50 1st year students from an ELT department. Two scales, FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) and FLRAS (Saito et al., 1999), were used in data collection besides interviews and diaries from the participants. The study revealed that Turkish EFL students experienced reading anxiety mainly because of personal factors, text-related concerns and the reading course. Like the findings mentioned above, self-perception into reading ability, familiarity with vocabulary, topic, and culture, and concerns about teacher and classroom context were determined as the specific anxiety sources for EFL readers. Likewise, a mixed method study was performed by Köroğlu (2010) on the extent of FLRA experienced by 113 Turkish ELT and preparatory school students and the significant difference resulting from certain variables, specifically grade, abroad experience, the time spent on English and purpose of reading in English as well as reading strategies adopted. First-year students, aged between 18 and 21 were given the FLRAS by Saito et al. (1999) and FLCAS by Horwitz et al. (1986) along with a background questionnaire. As for the qualitative part of the research, interviews were

held to identify the possible sources of FLRA. The quantitative findings revealed that ELT students experienced moderate level of reading anxiety, and learners suffered from self-efficacy concerns, such as reading effects and self-image, and text-related issues like unknown words. On the other hand, most learners asserted that reading was as challenging as other skills and reading aloud did not cause anxiety for them. Both quantitative and qualitative analysis suggested that participants experienced reading anxiety due to text-related features like words, topics, and post-reading tasks. The data revealed that preparatory school students experienced more FLRA, the learners having abroad experience, sparing more time on English, and considered reading for both academic and personal purposes had lower levels of FLRA. Lastly, the learners attempted to compensate FLRA by adopting mostly vocabulary strategies like guessing from the context, collaborating with others, and using the Internet. However, they also expressed that the lack of vocabulary was a challenge to them. The researcher emphasized that vocabulary knowledge is of great importance for reading anxiety. Finally, to explore the FLRA levels of university students in Turkish context, Altay (2021) conducted a mixed-method study. The data were collected from 98 EFL preparatory school students with advanced proficiency levels and 10 instructors by adopting EFL Reading Anxiety Inventory (EFLRAI) developed by Zoghi (2012) and semi-structured interviews. The quantitative analysis indicated that learners experienced a medium level of FLRA and felt anxious when encountering a new word or structure the most; yet they experienced FLRA the least when receiving feedback on their performance. The qualitative findings showed that learners suffered from cases where they encountered an unknown word and used inappropriate reading strategies, while instructors asserted that the content, the physical features of the text, and the interaction between teacher and student might have an impact on students' FLRA.

Second, related literature includes various studies investigating the relation between FLRA and tolerance of ambiguity among EFL learners. Studies aiming to explore whether high or low tolerance levels did cause significant differences concluded that a negative correlation existed. To be more explicit, the high tolerance levels led to lower anxiety, while low tolerance levels increased reading anxiety for EFL learners. For instance, a case study from the Turkish context was performed by

Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2011) with a 27-year-old Turkish Ph.D. candidate who had majored in English before. The purpose was to identify the difficulties of reading in Turkish and English. The data were collected via various instruments such as reading aloud and silent reading, interviews, think-aloud, and text analysis. Upon the analysis lasting over 11 weeks, the study revealed that the participant had difficulty in focusing and keeping an effective level of academic reading in the foreign language. Also, the reader had low tolerance for ambiguity and unfamiliar vocabulary and topics. While he enjoyed the reading process in Turkish, he experienced anxiety about reading in English due to text-related and self-related factors. Another study in the Turkish context was carried out by Genç (2016). This study aimed to explore whether there existed a relation between the tolerance level of ambiguity and reading anxiety of EFL learners. The data were collected from 295 Turkish EFL learners studying in the preparatory year via a second language tolerance ambiguity scale (SLTAS) developed by Ely (1995) and the Turkish version of FLRAS developed by Şahin (2011). The findings indicated that Turkish EFL learners had low tolerance into language-related ambiguities such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. On the other hand, they had a higher level of tolerance for receptive skills. According to FLRAS results, learners experienced anxiety because of mainly text-related factors such as the topic and genre, which was followed by personal factors, which were teacher-related, activity-related, and classroom-related, respectively. Finally, the study shed light on significant differences resulting from gender, academic success, and tolerance levels. It was revealed that males experienced lower levels of reading anxiety. In addition, the learners' achievement caused a significant difference in their reading anxiety. Similarly, the tolerance levels of participants led to a reverse effect on their reading anxiety; in other words, the more tolerance they had, the less anxiety they experienced.

Next, reviewed literature consists of studies that examine the potential correlations between FLRA and proficiency, self-efficacy, reading comprehension, reading performance, foreign language anxiety, and course grades of EFL learners. For instance, a study on the relationship between test anxiety, foreign language anxiety, and English proficiency was carried out by Tsai and Li (2012). By implementing three scales, namely Test Anxiety Scale developed by Cassady and

Johnson (2002), FLRAS (Huang, 2001), and General English Proficiency Test (GEPT) on anxiety, reading anxiety, and reading proficiency, it was aimed to determine 302 EFL Taiwanese freshmen's anxiety levels. The findings indicated that while test anxiety increased in parallel to reading anxiety, reading proficiency decreased as two other variables increased. In another Iranian study, Ghonsooly and Elahi (2010) explored the relation between self-efficacy in reading comprehension and reading anxiety. By instrumenting two questionnaires, one developed by the researchers and the other developed by Saito et al. (1999), to evaluate 150 2nd year EFL university students' self-efficacy and reading anxiety levels, it was concluded that high self-efficacy led to lower reading anxiety while the same variable led to a higher level of reading comprehension. However, not every study reached the same conclusions regarding FLRA. Rajab et al. (2012) conducted a study in the Malaysian context. The study aimed at identifying the reading anxiety levels of 91 4th year university students from two distinct departments, namely, science related and non-science-related departments. The data were collected through FLRAS by Saito et al. (1999) and a background questionnaire. The study concluded that participants experienced a low level of reading anxiety, and no significant difference was found between the two groups. Furthermore, it was found that the level of anxiety and reading course grades were not significantly correlated. A very similar study with the same learner profile was carried out by Zhao (2009) as a dissertation. The study aimed to determine foreign language reading anxiety levels of learners of Chinese as FL in the USA. Applying quantitative research method, 125 university students were asked to answer FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) and FLRAS (Saito et al., 1999). The findings indicated that the learners of Chinese experienced similar levels of anxiety to EFL learners. The main sources of anxiety were identified as acquaintance with the vocabulary and the reading topics and anxiety towards the reading effect. Proficiency levels differed significantly on the grounds that intermediate-level learners experienced more anxiety than elementary group students. Finally, it was found that FLRA affected the reading performance of learners negatively.

In brief, the forementioned studies regarding FLRA were performed in various contexts with different research designs, focused on FLRA in terms of various factors (Al-Shboul et al., 2013; Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2011; Köroğlu, 2010;

Rajab, et al., 2012). Although the data collection procedures differed from one another, the frequent instrument was Saito et al. (1999)'s FLRAS. However, the most frequently studied aspects were the anxiety levels of EFL learners and the sources of FLRA. Investigation into FLRA revealed that most EFL learners had medium levels of reading anxiety (Altay, 2021; Miao & Vibulphol, 2021; Zhou, 2017), and the most common sources of FLRA were the unknown vocabulary and the reader concerns (Muhlis, 2017; Zhao, 2009). Next, FLRA was studied often in relation to tolerance levels of ambiguity, test anxiety, and reading comprehension (Bektaş- Çetinkaya, 2011; Genç, 2016). High-tolerant readers experienced less anxiety, while high level of reading anxiety and test anxiety were negatively correlated with reading performance of learners (Tsai & Li, 2012; Zhao, 2009).

2.5.2. Related Studies Regarding VLS

The related literature elaborates on the use of VLS among EFL students in different contexts and their relation to variables such as gender, age, academic achievement, grade level, school type, and vocabulary size. It is also understood that VLS is a popular topic investigated commonly in Asian and eastern countries. Furthermore, it is seen that the literature presents studies with various research designs and data collection procedures.

To begin with, a reasonable number of studies conducted in various EFL contexts aimed to reveal the most and least frequently used VLS as well as their relation to different variables. Among these strategies, cognitive and determination strategies emerge as the most frequently used strategies, while some studies reach diverse results. Park (2001), to illustrate, investigated the use of VLS of Korean EFL learners in terms of grade level, age, the most and least frequently used strategies, and gender. The data collection was completed via Schmitt's VLS questionnaire (1997) by adapting it to the Korean context. 600 surveys were given to 6th graders, 3rd grade schools students, 11th graders at high schools and 3rd and 4th year university students. Apart from the questionnaire, the EFL learners were also asked to rate the top five helpful and most frequently used strategies. The results indicated that Korean EFL learners tended to utilize determination and social strategies more frequently than other strategies in the discovery of meaning. In parallel, the participants marked these strategies as useful in the same sense. In terms of

consolidation strategies, cognitive strategies were indicated to be frequently used strategies as well as being thought as helpful ones. In terms of gender, no significant difference was found between the two groups except for the fact that females tended to prefer cognitive strategies more while males turned to social strategies. Lastly, it was found that as learners grew older, they picked more cognitively complex strategies in use and in the helpfulness scale.

In a similar vein, to determine VLS utilized by Taiwanese EFL learners, a descriptive study was conducted by Wu (2005) with 303 students from 8th, and 11th graders and 2nd-year university students from Applied Foreign Languages Department. The study aimed to reveal strategies employed, EFL learners' perceptions of the usefulness of these strategies, and the potential effect of age on strategy use. The data were collected through Schmitt's Taxonomy of VLS (1997) and analyzed via statistical computation as well as rating the five most helpful strategies for themselves. According to the results, all groups tended to favor utilizing dictionaries of discovery strategies while studying the sounds was the most frequently used strategy to consolidate the meaning. Similar to the findings of the VLS questionnaire, the EFL learners favored using the dictionary the most, followed by a digital dictionary, utilizing contextual cues, getting help from friends, and analyzing linguistic components of a word respectively as top 5 most useful VLS.

Another study in the Iranian context was conducted to reveal the most and least frequently used VLS of 74 EFL university students at undergraduate and post-graduate levels (Amirian & Heshmatifar, 2013). The data were collected through Schmitt's VLSQ (1997) and interviews. The findings indicated that Iranian university students preferred determination strategies the most, then followed by cognitive, memory, metacognitive and social strategies. Among the most common strategies, utilizing a monolingual dictionary and guessing the meaning from its context were determined, which are also among determination strategies. On the other hand, students preferred consulting someone for meaning or help the least, which belongs to social strategies. Interviews with students indicated that they used monolingual dictionaries the most, asking for help the least often, which is in align with the quantitative findings. In the same vein, a study was carried out to reveal the most and least frequently used VLS of 110 Jordanian undergraduate students

majoring in English Language and Literature from eight universities (Rabadi, 2016). It was also aimed to determine the VLS levels of these students, namely, high, medium, or low strategy users. Based on the analysis of the data collected through Schmitt's Taxonomy of VLSQ (1997), it was found that the participants were medium strategy users, and they utilized memory strategies the most frequently while they turned to metacognitive strategies the least.

A descriptive study to reveal the most and least frequently utilized VLS was carried out in the Indonesian context with 86 English Education Department students (Sihotang & Afriazi, 2017). Adapting Schmitt's VLS questionnaire, the study revealed that university students used strategies at a medium frequency while determination strategies were found to be the most frequently used strategies, while social strategies of consolidation were the least frequent strategies employed. Another study in the Indonesian context was carried out by Bakti (2018) with 50 11th graders who were learning English at the time of the study. The study investigated the most and least frequently used VLS and individual strategies employed. Adopting Schmitt's VLSQ (1997) as the instrument and holding interviews with three participants into their preference of strategies, the study concluded that 11th grade students utilized determination strategies the most, which was followed by social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies in the descending fashion. Additionally, the interviews with the participants indicated that the students favored determination strategies the most, while social and cognitive strategies were also preferred over the rest. It was noted that learners also turned to practical strategies in vocabulary learning.

A study on VLS was conducted by Al-Khresheh and Al- Ruwaili (2020) in a Saudi context with 219 university EFL learners. It was aimed to reveal the frequently used VLS and if gender caused any significant difference in terms of strategy use. The data were collected through an adapted version of Schmitt's Taxonomy of VLS (1997), which, then were analyzed through descriptive statistics. According to the statistical data, memory strategies were the most frequently utilized strategies, while cognitive strategies were utilized the least. On the other hand, gender did not create a statistically significant difference in VLS use except for only memory strategies, which were favored by females more than males.

Rojananak and Vitayapirak (2015), in the same sense, studied 356 2nd year university students from 9 different departments in Thailand to reveal whether there were any differences between the two learner profiles in terms of VLS. The data were collected via Schmitt's VLS questionnaire (1997), and the findings, firstly, indicated that 2nd year Thai students preferred determination strategies the most while cognitive strategies were utilized the least. Also, good learners tended to utilize determination strategies more often, while weak learners turned to social strategies. Next, the study revealed that there was a significant difference between the groups in terms of the use of determination, social and memory strategies, while the good learners utilized VLS more often than the other group.

Finally, another comparative study on mono- and bilinguals' use of VLS in Iranian context was carried out by Sazvar and Varmaziyar (2016). Adopting a mixed-method study, 45 monolingual and 25 bilingual pre-university students were asked to answer Schmitt's VLS questionnaire (1997) along with English Proficiency Test and interviews were also conducted. The participants were in the same age, sex, nationality, and proficiency based on Oxford Placement Test (1997). The findings revealed that both groups utilized the strategies at a medium level, and no significant difference was found between the two groups regarding strategy use. On the other hand, the most frequently used strategies differed in the groups. While bilingual learners utilized cognitive, metacognitive, social, and memory strategies respectively, monolinguals utilized determination, social, metacognitive, memory and cognitive strategies. The interviews with both groups indicated that the variety of strategies employed by both groups depended on their interaction with the language outside the classroom, specifically on family interactions.

A second group of studies focusing on VLS revealed that gender stands out as an important variable in vocabulary learning strategies, and several studies conclude that females tend to utilize VLS more often than males. For instance, a study carried out by Büyükahıska and Kozallık (2018) on EFL learners' frequency of vocabulary strategy use revealed that gender was significant in terms of the use of certain strategies. In this study, 363 students studying at English Language Teaching (ELT) and German Language Teaching (GLT) programs were given a questionnaire developed by Kocaman and Kızılkaya- Cumaoğlu (2014), and the results were

classified according to gender, university programs, and years. According to the results, there was a significant difference between female and male ELT students' use of cognitive strategies and females turned to cognitive strategies more often than males. When the other strategies were examined, ELT students utilized memory and compensation strategies more than GLT students. On the other hand, gender did not indicate significance for the GLT program, and no significant difference was found in terms of year in ELT or GLT programs. Correspondingly, a quantitative study by Çevik et al. (2018) examined the VLS of 368 middle school students in terms of different variables such as gender, academic achievement, parenting, and story book reading. Data gathered by applying vocabulary learning strategies questionnaire (VLSQ) developed by Kocaman and Kızılkaya Cumaoğlu (2014) and the grade records provided by school administration pointed out that only cognitive strategies differed in terms of gender, and it was more preferred by females. There was no significant difference in terms of academic achievement and parents' educational background. Furthermore, it was found that cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies were preferred more often than memory (consolidation) strategies. The reading habit of learners, which was examined as a variable in the study, indicated that learners who read more books tended to have a higher frequency in using VLS. In other words, this study indicated that reading increases use of VLS among EFL students. Finally, Baskın et al. (2017) conducted a study to indicate VLS adopted by 22 A1 level Turkish learners from Turkmenistan, Afghanistan, Palestine, Egypt, and Iran. The data were collected through a 25-item questionnaire based on Schmitt's Taxonomy of VLS (1997). First, the findings indicated that males tended to utilize VLS more than females. Then, it was found that students utilized determination strategies the most while they preferred cognitive strategies the least. The most common strategy used among determination strategies was the use of bilingual dictionaries, and the most common cognitive strategy was revealed as repeating the new vocabulary.

Finally, a few more studies on VLS focused on the comparison of good and weak learners investigating the possible relations between VLS and proficiency, vocabulary size, and vocabulary knowledge. For example, in a study by Huh (2009) focusing on vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary proficiency among 141

EFL Korean students from public middle schools, a questionnaire and vocabulary proficiency test were given to the participants. It was revealed that cognitive strategies were used the most often while social strategies were used the least. According to learners' proficiency levels based on the vocabulary test, high proficient group used metacognitive strategies the most while medium and low proficient learners utilized cognitive strategies the most. It was concluded that the strategy used was an indicator of good and poor learners, and the frequency of strategy use was parallel to learners' L2 proficiency. Another study was carried out to reveal the relation between VLS and Arabic- vocabulary size in the Malaysian context with 742 pre- university religious high schools. By applying the Test of Arabic Vocabulary (TAV) and Schmitt's VLS questionnaire (1997), Baharudin and Ismail (2014) found that the learners tended to utilize determination strategies the most frequently and metacognitive strategies the least frequently. TAV results revealed that the participants' vocabulary size was below the average while VLS results showed that religious high school students utilized medium-level strategies. Finally, it was found that there was a significant positive correlation between the use of VLS and the vocabulary size of Arabic L2 learners. Finally, a mixed method design study by Kafipour (2010) examined the relationship between VLS, vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension in the Iranian context. The data were collected from 250 2nd year EFL students by VLS questionnaire, vocabulary size test and TOEFL reading comprehension test. For this, journal writing of learners was collected, and interviews were held. According to the results, all participants had a medium-level strategy use. However, determination strategies like monolingual dictionaries, guessing meaning, and cognitive strategies like forming a link between synonyms and antonyms, and practicing in a new sentence were used the most frequently. Besides, a positive correlation was pointed between vocabulary size, VLS, and reading comprehension. In other words, the more vocabulary the learners had, the more strategies they adopted and better comprehension they obtained. In the same sense, as they had better comprehension, they tended to use more vocabulary strategies.

The literature on VLS in the Turkish context also brings about a similar pattern. The studies conducted in the Turkish EFL context consist of descriptive,

mixed, and correlational research designs applying both quantitative and qualitative data collection procedures, and the majority utilized Schmitt's (1997) VLS questionnaire as a tool (Aslan-Tunç, 2020; Aparı, 2016; Bilir, 2022; Demir, 2022; Derici, 2019; Kheder, 2022; Yıldız, 2019; Zabardast-Alamdari, 2010). A considerable number of the studies included qualitative data (Aslan-Tunç, 2020; Aparı, 2016; Demir, 2022; Yıldız, 2019) through semi-structured interviews and aimed at determining the importance of vocabulary learning for EFL learners and specific strategies employed to discover and consolidate the meaning of a word.

The first group of studies focused on the frequently used VLS among Turkish EFL in relation to various demographic variables. For instance, Aparı (2016) performed a mixed method research on the VLS use of 350 EFL preparatory school students. The study aimed at identifying the type and frequency of strategies employed by students with both quantitative and qualitative data collection procedures. The participants from different departments like Law, Medicine, and Education were given a questionnaire by Schmitt (1997) on VLS, and 10 participants were required to answer interview questions on the importance of vocabulary learning and strategies adopted. The quantitative results revealed that social discovery strategies were the most frequently preferred strategies, and memory strategies were utilized the least. The quantitative results indicated that EFL learners attributed great importance to vocabulary learning and that they preferred bilingual dictionaries for a new word while they consolidated a word by forming a sentence. Likewise, the study by Yıldız (2019) elaborated on the use of VLS among high school EFL students. In this study, 172 9th graders were given a VLS questionnaire developed by Schmitt (1997) and held an interview. By adopting a mixed-method research design, the study examined VLS use of EFL learners in terms of the most and least preferred strategies. The qualitative and quantitative data analysis findings indicated that social discovery and determination strategies were the most frequently utilized strategies. When the individual strategies were examined, collaborating with classmates, getting help from dictionaries, guide from the teacher, and visual materials as well as written and oral repetition of a word were the most favored strategies. Although there was no significant difference in VLS regarding gender, it turned out that females used practicing aloud, using flashcards, and utilizing English

media more frequently than males. Similar to the objectives of the previous studies, a mixed method study was performed by Aslan-Tunç (2020) on VLS in terms of learners' age, proficiency levels, majors, and gender. To collect data, 138 preparatory school students from a private university were given a questionnaire developed by Schmitt (1997), which was followed by interviews. The participants had A1 to B1 level proficiency, and they ranged between 24-29 years old. The results revealed that EFL learners gave great importance to vocabulary learning and utilized metacognitive strategies the most often, followed by determination, social discovery, cognitive, memory, and social consolidation strategies. Item analysis indicated that bilingual dictionary use, getting help from the teacher, contacting native speakers, practicing the sound of a word, having a vocabulary notebook, and using target language media were preferred the most for all categories in an order. As of other variables, namely gender, proficiency, age, and majors did not differ significantly. The qualitative data showed that EFL learners commonly attributed importance to vocabulary learning to retrieve meaning, interact with people, perform better in exams and be world citizens.

Various descriptive studies with survey designs were conducted within the same scope. To illustrate, Derici (2019) carried out a study on the use of vocabulary learning strategies with 556 high school students. The analysis of the data collected through Schmitt's (1997) questionnaire revealed that females used both discovery and consolidation strategies more often than males although both groups used strategies at a medium level. In addition to the findings above, strategies were examined to reveal if they differed according to learners' school type (Anatolian, Private, and Science Schools), grade level (9th-12th), and age. It was concluded that 11th-grade high school students utilized strategies the most often and 9th graders used consolidation more than 10th-graders. In terms of school type, discovery strategies were used more often by students from private schools while science school students utilized consolidation strategies the most. A similar study was conducted by Yılmaz (2020) by adopting the VLS questionnaire which was developed by Gu (2005) and Gu and Johnson (1996) and modified by Kulikova (2015), data were collected from 169 preparatory school university students from 11 and mostly engineering related departments. According to the results, cognitive strategies were preferred the most

often and rehearsal strategies the least. No significant difference was found in VLS use of EFL students regarding the above-mentioned variables, yet it was revealed that females used all strategies more frequently than male students in all categories. Finally, another descriptive study with a quantitative research design was conducted by Kheder (2022) on the VLS of 206 university students in the Turkish context. By employing Schmitt's (1997) VLS questionnaire, EFL learners from English Language Teaching (ELT), Electrical-Electronics Engineering (EEE), and Computer Engineering (CMPE) departments were examined in terms of their VLS frequency. The data analysis revealed that EFL undergraduate learners utilized VLS at a moderate level and that word lists were the most popular strategy among determination strategies while it was getting help from classmates for social strategies, relating the word with its coordinates for memory strategies, having a vocabulary notebook for cognitive strategies and taking control of practicing word in time for metacognitive strategies. It was revealed that determination strategies were the most frequently preferred VLS, which were followed by social, memory, metacognitive, and cognitive strategies in descending order, and that male EFL learners utilized VLS more than females in all categories.

On the other hand, a second group of studies investigated the possible correlations between VLS and such variables as autonomy, success, or attitudes. For instance, a study was carried out by Demir (2022) with secondary school students on the relation between VLS and learner autonomy (LA). 100 EFL learners with various English background were asked to answer the VLS questionnaire by Schmitt (1997) and the LA questionnaire developed by Sakai et al. (2008) and adapted by the researcher. The study concluded that secondary school EFL learners benefited from VLS at a medium level, and analyzing visual aid on the first encounter with a new word was favored the most among determination strategies while it was getting help from a classmate for social strategies, imagining word's definition for memory strategies, taking notes for cognitive strategies, and listening to songs in the target language for metacognitive strategies. Furthermore, this study indicated that metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used while social strategies were the least often. In the same vein, the EFL learners had a medium level of learner autonomy. VLS was positively correlated with LA, in other words, as VLS

increased, LA also increased. Cognitive strategy use differed significantly regarding gender, which was in favor of females. Likewise, gender caused significant difference in students' LA, and females were indicated to have more LA than male students. On the other hand, no significant difference was found in VLS and LA regarding learners' age, and the length of English learning experience. Another correlational research was conducted by Zabardast-Alamdari (2010) on the relation between VLS use and success. Data were collected through Schmitt's VLSQ (2007), and a vocabulary test adopted from Nation (2001). Seventy-two EFL university students participated in the study, and cognitive strategies were found to be the most often used strategies, which were followed by determination, social, metacognitive, and memory strategies in descending order. In terms of individual strategies, discovering new words by group work, identifying the word class, practicing the sounds of words, and using bilingual dictionaries were among the favored strategies. The findings also indicated that there existed a meaningful relationship between cognitive and social strategies and learners' vocabulary success. This meant that learners who adopted strategies requiring interaction and mental processing performed better at vocabulary learning. Finally, Bilir (2022) examined the VLS of 1015 secondary school students whose ages ranged between 10 and 14 in terms of different variables. Data collection was managed by adopting Schmitt's (1997) VLS questionnaire and Gu's (2018) VLSQ besides Takac's (2008) questionnaire. The findings revealed that EFL learners favored dictionary strategies the most and rehearsal strategies the least. While females utilized all strategies more frequently than males, a significant difference was found in VLS regarding gender in all categories except for discovery strategies. Likewise, school type of learners, public or private, and school location in the center, district, neighborhood, or village brought about significant differences in VLS; all categories except for discovery and dictionary strategies differed significantly. In the same vein, note-taking strategies, and language background, being mono or bilingual, resulted in significant differences in VLS. Notably, there was a meaningful difference between EFL learners' VLS and their attitude towards learning the target language in all categories. Positive attitudes increased VLS use, and negative attitudes caused vice

versa. On the other hand, no significant difference was found in terms of grade levels of EFL students in any categories.

All in all, there are numerous studies that focused on VLS in various contexts (Bakti, 2018; Kafipour, 2010; Rabadi, 2016) as well as Türkiye (Aslan-Tunç, 2020; Aparı, 2016; Bilir, 2022; Demir, 2022; Derici, 2019; Kheder, 2022; Yıldız, 2019; Zabardast-Alamdari, 2010). Studies into the examination of EFL learners' VLS were frequently performed by instrumenting Schmitt's (1997) Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies Scale (Al-Khresheh & Al- Ruwaili, 2020; Amirian & Heshmatifar, 2013; Baskın, 2017; Bakti 2018; Bilir, 2022; Demir, 2022; Derici, 2019; Kheder, 2022; Rabadi, 2016; Park, 2001; Rojananak & Vitayapirak, 2015; Wu, 2005). Additionally, most of the existing studies into VLS aimed to explore the most and least frequent strategies adopted by EFL learners. When the findings were analyzed, certain strategies were found to be preferred more and less often than the others. For instance, in the study in Korean context by Park (2001), determination and cognitive strategies were found to be used more often compared to other strategies, while the study by Al-Khresheh and Al- Ruwaili (2020) in the Saudi context concluded that memory strategies were utilized the most frequently. In the same sense, while cognitive strategies were found to be the least type utilized in Rojananak and Vitayapirak (2015)'s study, memory strategies were preferred the least often by bilingual learners in the study by Sazvar and Varmaziyar (2016). Considering the individual strategies employed, studies presented that Turkish EFL learners tended to use bilingual dictionaries (Aslan-Tunç, 2020; Aparı, 2016; Zabardast-Alamdari, 2010), practice the meaning of a word through group work and utilize English media (Yıldız, 2019) to consolidate meaning more frequently than the rest of aforementioned strategies. Finally, gender (Büyükhıskı & Kozallık, 2018; Demir, 2022; Park 2001), school type (Dericı, 2019), grade level (Baskın et al., 2017; Derici, 2019; Wu, 2005), and the reading habit of learners (Çevik et al., 2018) were found to cause significant differences in VLS use.

3. METHOD

This section presents detailed information regarding the research methodology adopted to examine the relation between Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety of EFL learners. First, the research design is explained and elaborated. Second, the participants are described regarding the information collected through the background questionnaire. Next, the data collection tools and procedures are clarified. Finally, the data analysis processes are explained in depth.

3.1 Research Design

The present study intends to determine the vocabulary learning strategy use and foreign language reading anxiety levels of EFL university preparatory school students. Furthermore, it aims to reveal any meaningful relation between these two variables. In light of these purposes, this study was designed to be a descriptive one which employed a correlational survey design. In descriptive research, the subject is examined without any intervention, and the research is conducted by addressing the phenomena depicted at the beginning (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). In line with this, the present study aimed to describe the extent and amount of VLS and FLRA of EFL students. Furthermore, a correlational research design addresses the relation between two or more variables via data gathered before or during the study (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). In a similar vein, this study examined any possible relations between VLS and FLRA of EFL learners. A survey design, on the other hand, involves collecting quantitative data from the participant group so that the findings can be generalized to a larger population (Griffe, 2012). Correspondingly, quantitative data collection procedures in which two scales and a background questionnaire were given to the participants were applied in this study.

3.2 Participants

The participants of this study included 202 EFL learners from preparatory schools at various universities in Istanbul Province. Detailed information regarding their gender, language proficiency levels, knowledge of additional foreign languages, foreign friends, abroad experience in addition to the types of high schools, universities, preparatory programs, and the time they spend studying per day, the

number of books they read in a year, and their latest language test scores is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Background Information about the Participant EFL Students

Groups		<i>n</i>	%	Groups		<i>n</i>	%
Gender	Female	123	60.9	University Type	Public	69	34.2
	Male	79	39.1		Private	133	65.8
Type of High School Graduated	Anatolian	136	67.3	The average study time per day	Less than 1 hour	77	38.1
	Science	24	11.9		1-2 hours	88	43.6
	Vocational and Technical Anatolian	19	9.4		3+ Hours	37	18.3
	Sport	1	0.5	Number of books read in a year	0-5	169	83.7
	Vocational	5	2.5		6-10	25	12.4
	Religious Vocational	5	2.5		11-20	8	4.0
	Social Sciences	5	2.5				
	Other	7	3.5				
State of Prep School	Compulsory	176	87.1	Different languages in progress	Yes	54	26.7
	Optional	26	12.9		No	148	73.3
Faculty	Health Sciences	56	27.7	Proficiency Level in English Language	A1	22	10.9
	Science and Literature	43	21.3		A2	17	8.4
	Economy & Management & Social Sciences	43	21.3		B1-B1+	98	48.5
	Architecture & Engineering	33	16.3		B2	60	29.7
	Other	27	13.4		C1 and above	5	2.5
Abroad Experience	Yes	32	15.8	Foreign friends in contact	Yes	83	41.1
	No	170	84.2		No	119	58.9
Last Test Grade	Mean			Min. -Max.			
	72.8			20-100			

As summarized in Table 1, while 123 (60,9 %) of the participants are female, 79 (39.1 %) of them are male. Among 202 EFL prep school students, 136 (67.3 %) of them graduated from Anatolian High Schools, while 24 (11.9) of them graduated from Science High Schools, and 19 (9.4 %) of them finished a Vocational and Technical High School. In addition, the number of students graduating from Vocational, Religious Vocational, and Social Sciences High Schools was 5 (2.5 %) for each school type, whereas 7 (3.5 %) participants went to various types of high schools and only 1 (0,5 %) finished a Sports High School. As for the university type of 202 EFL prep school participants, 133 (65.8 %) of them were studying at private universities, and 69 (34.2) were studying at public universities in Turkey, meaning private universities make the majority of the participants' profiles in this study. Following that, 176 (87.1 %) EFL learners were studying a compulsory English preparatory program, while 26 (12.9 %) were following the optional program. In addition, the participant students were registered at various faculties. The majority were from the Faculty of Health Sciences (n=56, 27.7 %), while 43 (21.3 %) students were from the Faculty of Science and Letters. There were participants from the Faculties of Economy, Management, and Social Sciences (n=43, 21.3 %), and Architecture and Engineering (n=33, 16.3 %) besides other programs (n=27, 13.4 %) including Civil Aviation, Recreation, Law, Public Relations, Department of Food Technology, Cinema, English Language Teaching, Mathematics Teaching and Science Teaching, and Logistic Management.

The participants' proficiency levels at the time of data collection differ from each other as follows. 22 (10.9 %) of the students were at A1 level, 17 (8.4 %) were at A2 while 98 (48.5 %) of them were at B1-B1+, 60 (29.7 %) were at B2 and 5 (2.5 %) studied at a level of C1 and above. Based on the proficiency levels of the EFL students of the study, it can be inferred that more than half of the participants were at B1 and above level when the data were collected.

When it comes to their study habits, Table 1 shows that 77 (38.1 %) participants studied less than an hour per day for the target language, 88 (43.6 %) participants studied one or two hours per day while 37 (18.3 %) did this over three hours and more daily. On the other hand, the number of books read in a year by the students indicates that 169 out of 202 participants read 0-5 books in a year, which

makes up 83.7 % of the whole group, while 25 (12.4 %) participants read 6-10 books and 8 (4%) of them read 11-20 books in a year.

As for their personal experience and social interaction, 32 (15.8 %) participants expressed that they have been abroad at least once in their life, while 170 (84.2%) stated lacking such an experience. Likewise, 83 (41.1 %) of them had foreign friends they are in contact with online or face to face while 119 (58.9 %) did not have any foreign friends as the question described at the time of the study. Furthermore, a variety in foreign language contact was found among the participants in this study. While 148 (73.3 %) of them do not know or learn any foreign language other than English, only 54 (26.7 %) of them expressed that they know or learn a different one.

2 of the participants who were asked to write the last test score did not respond to this item. This could be due to the fact that they had not taken any tests at their programs at the time of data collection. The mean value of the remaining 200 participants was 72.8 ranging from 20 to 100.

3.3 Data Collection Tools

Since the present study utilized a correlational survey design to gather data, it implemented a survey that contained three sections. Data regarding the participants' demographic information were collected over a background questionnaire. The information about EFL learners' vocabulary learning strategies and foreign language reading anxiety were gathered via Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire (VLS) and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scales (FLRA). The researcher obtained consent for implementing both VLSQ and FLRAS (See Appendix A & B). The data collection tools employed are specified below.

3.3.1 Background Questionnaire

The researcher established a questionnaire in Turkish to collect data on demographic information like gender, university type, type of high school, state of preparatory school, faculties, proficiency levels, and time spent studying English. Then, the researcher improved the questionnaire aftermath of reviewing the related literature and determining the factors affecting VLS and FLRA. The number of books read in different languages in progress, last exam grades, and abroad

experience were added into the questionnaire upon the consensus between the researcher and the thesis advisor. The participants answered 12 questions for this section.

3.3.2 Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire (VLSQ)

The VLSQ was implemented to detect EFL learners' vocabulary learning strategy uses and the extent to which these strategies were utilized. VLSQ was initially formed by Schmitt (1997) based on the taxonomy developed by Schmitt (1997). Then, the questionnaire was adapted to Turkish by Derici (2019) in the form of a survey. The forementioned questionnaire consists of 58 five-point Likert Scale items, and it is mainly composed of two dimensions, namely, and five sub-dimensions. Discovery strategies refer to the tactics applied when a learner faces an unknown word for the first time; determination (9 items) and social strategies (5 items) are placed under this category. Consolidation strategies are the ones which are employed to reinforce the learned vocabulary through social (3 items), memory (27 items), cognitive (9 items), and metacognitive strategies (5 items). The participants are expected to choose the best option that describes their routines for vocabulary learning. On a scale ranging from 1 (*never*), 2 (*rarely*), 3 (*sometimes*), 4 (*often*), 5 (*always*), the items are evaluated. The Cronbach Alpha value for the scale was found to be .93 by Derici (2019). In this study, likewise, Cronbach Alpha coefficient was determined to be .92. The high scores retrieved from the scale address frequent uses of VLS.

3.3.3 Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale

The third data collection tool utilized in this study is FLRAS, consisting of a single dimension and 18 items. FLRAS was originally established by Saito, Garza, and Horwitz (1999), and it was adapted to Turkish by Kuru-Gönen (2005). Designed in the form of a 5-point Likert Scale, the scale required respondents to choose the option that describes their condition into the phenomena. The items are assessed on a scale as follows: 1 (*never*), 2 (*rarely*), 3 (*sometimes*), 4 (*often*), 5 (*always*). Also, 4 items on the scale, which are 12th, 13th, 14th, and 17th, were formulated as reverse items and then recoded accordingly before the data analysis. The Cronbach Alpha scale value was calculated as .85 by Kuru-Gönen (2005), and the Cronbach Alpha

coefficient was measured as .89 in the present study. The high scores obtained from this questionnaire refer to high levels of foreign language reading anxiety.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

The ethics committee approval (See Appendix C) was obtained from Istanbul Medeniyet University Faculty of Educational Sciences Ethical Committee to initiate the data collection process. After getting the required permission, the background questionnaire, VLSQ and FLRAS were first converted to Google Forms so that more target group population could participate in the study. A short introductory paragraph and a check box were added to the survey with the purpose of informing the participants about the study and obtaining the respondents' consent. Meanwhile, it was also guaranteed that the participants' identities and responses would remain confidential. Second, upon forming the final version of the online survey, the link was sent to EFL preparatory students and Foreign Languages Schools of public/private universities in Istanbul Province. These exchanges were completed via e-mails and WhatsApp messages. Finally, the link remained active between 24.05.2022 and 29.06.2022, and the data collection process was completed in approximately one month with 202 EFL participants.

3.5 Data Analysis

The quantitative data gathered through data collection tools were transferred to SPSS software in order to implement statistical tests for the analysis. First, the data were checked for normal distribution to determine the appropriate data analysis techniques. Accordingly, the values for skewness and kurtosis were calculated, and they were found to be within the range of -1 and +1 indicating that the data showed normal distribution and was available for parametric testing (Uysal & Kılıç, 2022; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Then, descriptive statistics were employed to calculate frequencies, percentages, means, and minimum and maximum values for the variable in the background questionnaire. Next, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was calculated for the scales to check their reliability. After that, the frequency of vocabulary strategies employed by the EFL learners and their reading anxiety levels were analyzed by computing means and standard deviations. Following that, a correlational analysis was performed to determine the possible relations between the VLS and FLRA of the EFL learners. As for the final analysis, One-way ANOVA and

independent samples t-test were performed to determine any significant differences in VLS frequencies and FLRA levels regarding the following factors: gender, high school background, college type, faculty, prep school program, familiarity with other foreign languages, exam results as well as the average time they study English per week, the number of books they read in a year, and their having any experience abroad or having any foreign friends.



4. FINDINGS

This chapter presents the results of quantitative data analysis regarding five research questions addressed in this study. Accordingly, the findings regarding the descriptive statistics for the first two questions are presented. Then, the results of the correlational analysis conducted between foreign language reading anxiety and vocabulary learning strategies are given. Finally, the findings for the variations in the amount of foreign language anxiety and the use of vocabulary learning strategies in accordance with some demographic variables are explained.

4.1 Findings for the First Research Question

The first research question of the current study aims to analyze how often EFL learners utilize vocabulary learning strategies. In accordance with this question, the mean scores and standard deviations for the sub-dimensions in the VLS, namely, *determination, social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies*, were calculated using descriptive statistics. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 2 under the two main dimensions as discovery and consolidation strategies for the vocabulary learning process.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Sub-dimensions of VLS		$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd</i>
Discovery Strategies	Determination Strategies	3.36	.60
	Social Strategies (Discovery)	3.22	.96
Consolidation Strategies	Memory Strategies	3.02	.63
	Cognitive Strategies	3.05	.80
	Metacognitive Strategies	3.08	.77
	Social Strategies (Consolidation)	2.20	.99

As it is seen in Table 2, the means ($\bar{x}$) for sub-dimensions of vocabulary learning strategies are presented under six categories. Determination strategies as of the first strategy on the scale was found to have the mean of 3.36 ($\bar{x}$). In other words, the participant EFL students *sometimes* used determination strategies to discover the meaning of a new word. On the other hand, it is seen that the mean score for the social strategies to discover vocabulary is 3.22 which means that the EFL

participants *sometimes* utilized social strategies to learn a word at new encounter. Contrary to discovery strategies in vocabulary learning, the mean score for the social strategies applied for consolidation is 2.20, which points out that participants *rarely* utilized these strategies to consolidate a learned word. Finally, the mean score for memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies were found to be 3.02, 3.05 and 3.08 respectively, indicating that the participant learners *sometimes* utilized these strategies to consolidate a word. When the findings are considered, it can be inferred that there is no prominent and frequently utilized group of sub-strategies for the vocabulary learning process. However, when the sub-dimensions are examined one by one, it is seen that social strategies to memorize a word was the one that participants used less frequently than the others by having a mean score which equals to *rarely* on the scale. On the other hand, the descriptive statistics for the first research question indicate that there was a tendency to use the strategies *sometimes*, which can be regarded as the average frequency in the vocabulary learning process. Following the data provided, discovery strategies were used more frequently than consolidation strategies.

Considering the descriptive analysis of items under each sub-dimension (See Appendix F&G), it was first seen that checking for L1 cognates of the target vocabulary ($\bar{x}=3.9$), guessing from context ($\bar{x}=3.8$), and analyzing available pictures or gestures ($\bar{x}=3.6$) were the most preferred ones out of nine determination strategies. Second, among five strategies attributed to social discovery strategies, asking classmates ($\bar{x}=3.45$) and teacher for meaning ($\bar{x}=3.42$) were the most preferred ones. Third, it was found that studying and practicing meaning in a group ($\bar{x}=2.3$) was the most frequently preferred strategy among the three social consolidation strategies. Fourth, the analysis of 26 memory strategies of consolidation indicated that saying the words aloud while studying was the most frequently utilized strategy ($\bar{x}=4.03$), followed by imagining word form ($\bar{x}=3.9$), and studying the spelling of the word ($\bar{x}=3.7$). Fifth, among eight cognitive consolidation strategies, verbal repetition ($\bar{x}=3.8$), and keeping a notebook ($\bar{x}=3.5$) were the most frequently utilized strategies. Finally, the mean scores of items under metacognitive consolidation strategies revealed that using English language media ($\bar{x}=3.68$) and studying the word over time ($\bar{x}=3.60$) were the most preferred ones among the five strategies.

4.2 Findings for the Second Research Question

The second research question of this study elaborates on analyzing the extent of foreign language reading anxiety experienced by EFL prep school students. Accordingly, descriptive statistics calculated the mean and standard deviation for FLRAS. The findings of the analysis are shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Mean and Standard Deviation for FLRAS

Scale	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd</i>
FLRAS	2.87	.78

As it is illustrated in Table 3, the EFL students experienced midlevel foreign language reading anxiety ($\bar{x}=2.87$) since the mean score is very close to 3 which corresponds to “sometimes” in the scale. In other words, the participant learners sometimes felt anxious about reading in their foreign language. Accordingly, they did not suffer from severe anxiety, but it is impossible to claim for the total absence of anxiety either.

4.3 Findings for the Third Research Question

The third research question of the current study aims to reveal the potential statistical relation between the vocabulary strategies EFL prep students utilize and the amount of anxiety experienced in foreign language reading. Following that purpose, a correlational analysis was run between the two variables. Table 4 presents the results below.

Table 4

Pearson Correlation Results for VLS and FLRAS

Sub-Dimensions of VLS		Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale		
		<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Discovery Strategies	Determination Strategies	202	-.08	.21
	Social Strategies (Discovery)		.16	.01*
Consolidation Strategies	Cognitive Strategies		.22	.00*
	Metacognitive Strategies		.05	.46

Gender	Female	123	2.94	.79	1.65	173.3	.10
	Male	79	2.75	.74			
University Type	Public	69	2.82	.75	-.641	200	.52
	Private	133	2.89	.82			
Prep School State	Compulsory	176	2.90	.78	1.64	200	.10
	Optional	26	2.63	.74			
Books Read in a Year	0-5	124	2.89	.77	1.16	45.08	.25
	6-20	33	2.72	.78			
Different Languages in Progress	Yes	54	2.62	.87	-2.51	80.72	.01*
	No	148	2.96	.72			
Abroad Experience	Yes	32	2.76	.73	-.87	200	.38
	No	170	2.89	.78			
Foreign Friends in Contact	Yes	83	2.68	.77	-2.85	-200	.00*
	No	119	2.99	.76			

* $p < .05$

As can be seen in Table 5, the participant EFL learners' reading anxiety showed a significant difference regarding the other foreign languages they were learning ($p=.01$) and the foreign friends they were in contact with ($p=.01$). In other words, the students who were learning additional foreign languages ($\bar{x}=2.62$) and who were in contact with foreign friends ($\bar{x}=2.68$) experienced lower levels of reading anxiety than the ones who were not learning a foreign language other than English ($\bar{x}=2.96$) and who did not have any foreign friends to interact with ($\bar{x}=2.99$). On the other hand, Table 5 shows that there is no statistically significant difference in the students' reading anxiety in terms of their gender ($p=.10$), university type ($p=.52$), prep-school state ($p=.10$), abroad experience ($p=.38$), or the number of books they read in a year ($p=.25$).

Additionally, the following conclusions can be made based on the means, although these differences were not statistically significant at the level of $p < .05$. First, it is understood that females ($\bar{x}=2.94$) experienced more foreign language anxiety than males ($\bar{x}=2.75$). Similarly, the participants who studied the compulsory prep school ($\bar{x}=2.90$) and who read up to 5 books in a year ($\bar{x}=2.89$) experienced reading anxiety more often than the ones studying prep school voluntarily ($\bar{x}=2.63$) and who read 6 or more books per year ($\bar{x}=2.72$). Likewise, the participants who

went abroad ($\bar{x}$ = 2.76) experienced less reading anxiety compared to those who did not ($\bar{x}$ = 2.89). Second, One-Way ANOVA was conducted to reveal any significant differences in the participant EFL learners' reading anxiety regarding the high school type they graduated from, the faculty they were registered to, their average study time, and their English proficiency level. The results of the analysis are given in Table 6 below.

Table 6

Results of One- Way ANOVA for FLRAS in terms of type of high school graduated, faculty, the average study time, and English proficiency level.

Variables	Groups	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd.</i>	<i>St. E. Mean</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Type of High School Graduated	Vocational	37	2.8	.86	.142	.23	.79
	Science or Social Sciences	29	2.94	.72	.134		
	Anatolian	136	2.87	.77	.06		
	Total	202	2.87	.78	.05		
Faculty	Science and Letters	43	2.69	.84	.12	2.99	.02*
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	43	3.16	.76	.11		
	Health Sciences	56	2.9	.63	.08		
	Architecture and Engineering	33	2.85	.81	.14		
	Other	27	2.73	.81	.15		
	Total	202	2.87	.78	.05		
Average Study Time Per Day	Less than 1 hour	77	2.81	.76	.08	.46	.63
	1-2 hours	88	2.92	.77	.08		
	3 hours and more	37	2.85	.82	.13		
	Total	202	2.87	.78	.05		
Proficiency Level	A	39	3.16	.79	.12	6.83	.00*
	B1	98	2.9	.74	.07		
	B2 and above	65	2.61	.75	.09		
	Total	202	2.87	.78	.05		

* $p < .05$

Table 6 shows that the amount of reading anxiety experienced by the participant EFL learners varied significantly regarding their proficiency level ($p=.00$) and faculty ($p=.02$). However, no significant differences were found in their reading anxiety in terms of their average study time per day ($p=.63$) or the high school that

they graduated from ($p=.79$). On the other hand, although the following items did not present any significant difference between foreign language reading anxiety and survey variables, they point out a difference in terms of anxiety levels experienced by participants. As Table 6 suggests, participants who graduated from social or science high schools experienced more reading anxiety than the rest of the groups ($\bar{x}=2.94$). Similarly, participants who studied English for 1 or 2 hours a day experienced more anxiety than the rest of the group ($\bar{x}=2.92$). In short, participants from social or science high schools and the ones who spared 1 or 2 hours to study English experienced more anxiety than the others in their groups.

Tukey HDS was conducted as a post-hoc test in order to reveal the groups creating significant differences regarding the proficiency level and faculty. The results of the analysis are given in Tables 7 and 8 below.

Table 7

Results of Tukey HSD for Reading Anxiety Regarding Proficiency Level

Proficiency Level (I)	Proficiency Level (J)	$\bar{x} (I-J)$	Std. Error	p
A	B1	.242	.143	.21
	B2 and above	.549	.153	.00*
B1	A	-.242	.143	.21
	B2 and above	.306	.121	.03*
B2 and above	A	-.549	.153	.00*
	B1	-.306	.121	.03*

* $p<.05$

As can be understood from Table 7, the significant difference in the EFL learners' reading anxiety stems from the difference between the participants who were B2 and above and the ones who were A ($p=.00$) and B1 ($p=.03$). There is no significant difference between A and B1 level learners ($p=.21$). When the means are considered, it is seen that the upper-intermediate level learners ($\bar{x} = 2.61$) felt significantly less anxious while reading in English than the elementary ($\bar{x}=3.16$) and pre-intermediate level students ($\bar{x}=2.90$) did. Accordingly, it is possible to comment that reading anxiety decreased as proficiency levels increased.

Table 8*Results of Tukey HSD for Reading Anxiety Resulting from Faculty*

Faculty (I)	Faculty (J)	$\bar{x}$ (I-J)	Std. Error	P
Science and Letters	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	-.54	.16	.01*
	Health Sciences	-.30	.15	.29
	Architecture and Engineering	-.23	.17	.68
	Other	-.11	.18	.97
Economy / Management / Social Sciences	Science and Letters	.54	.16	.01*
	Health Sciences	.23	.15	.53
	Architecture and Engineering	.31	.17	.40
	Other	.42	.18	.15
Health Sciences	Science and Letters	.30	.15	.29
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	-.23	.15	.53
	Architecture and Engineering	.07	.16	.99
	Other	.18	.17	.82
Architecture and Engineering	Science and Letters	.21	.17	.68
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	-.31	.17	.40
	Health Sciences	-.07	.16	.99
	Other	.11	.19	.97
Other	Science and Letters	.11	.18	.97
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	-.42	.18	.15
	Health Sciences	-.18	.17	.82
	Architecture and Engineering	-.11	.19	.97

*p<.05

As Table 8 suggests, the significant difference in EFL learners' reading anxiety results from the difference between participants who were from Economy, Management, or Social Sciences faculties and the ones registered at Science and Letters faculties ($p=.01$). There is no significant difference between other faculties listed in the table. When the means are examined, it is seen that EFL learners from Science and Letters felt less anxious about reading in their foreign language ($\bar{x}=2.69$) when compared to the ones studying in Economy, Management or Social Science faculties ($\bar{x}=3.16$). Also, it is understood that these two groups were the least and most anxious ones among the others. Finally, the Pearson Correlation test was conducted to determine any relation between the EFL learners' reading anxiety and their last test scores. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 9 below.

Table 9

Results of the Pearson Correlation Test for FLRAS and the last test score

	Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale		
	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Test score	202	-.25	.00*

* $p < .05$

As can be seen in Table 9, there is a statistically significant and negative correlation between the EFL learners' reading anxiety and their test scores ($p = .00$, $r = -.25$). This means that as the students felt more anxious about reading in their foreign language, they got lower grades from their language tests. This negative relation between the test scores and reading anxiety levels can indicate the role of reading anxiety in the students' poor test performances.

4.5 Findings for the Fifth Research Question

The fifth and last research question of the current study aims to analyze if the vocabulary learning strategies utilized by EFL learners vary regarding certain variables. Accordingly, all the six sub-dimensions, *determination*, *social (discovery)*, *cognitive*, *metacognitive*, *memory*, and *social (consolidation) strategies*, were examined individually and respectively.

4.5.1 Findings Regarding Determination Strategies

First, independent samples t-test was conducted to reveal any difference in the students' use of determination strategies for vocabulary learning in terms of their *gender*, *college type*, *prep school program*, *familiarity with other foreign languages*, *having any experience abroad or any foreign friends*, or *the number of books they read in a year*. The findings obtained from the t-tests are presented in the following table.

Table 10*Independent samples T-test results for determination strategies*

Determination Strategies	Groups	n	$\bar{x}$	sd	t-test		
					t	df	p
Gender	Female	123	3.42	.58	1.83	155.1	.06
	Male	79	3.26	.63			
University Type	Public	69	3.34	.57	-.40	200	.68
	Private	133	3.37	.62			
Prep School State	Compulsory	176	3.37	.57	.63	200	.52
	Optional	26	3.29	.82			
Books Read in a Year	0-5	169	3.32	.61	-2.11	47.61	.04*
	6-20	33	3.55	.56			
Different Languages in Progress	Yes	54	3.39	.71	.44	200	.65
	No	148	3.35	.56			
Abroad Experience	Yes	32	3.48	.72	1.26	200	.20
	No	170	3.34	.58			
Foreign Friends in Contact	Yes	83	3.36	.58	.03	184.44	.97
	No	119	3.36	.62			

* $p < .05$

As presented in Table 10, only one variable indicates a statistically significant difference in terms of determination strategy use, which is the number of books read by EFL prep school students in a year ($p=.04$). When the results are examined, it is seen that the ones who read at least six or more books in a year ($\bar{x}=3.55$) utilized determination strategies more often than the ones who read five or fewer books in a year ($\bar{x}=3.32$). On the other hand, gender ($p=.06$), university type ($p=.68$), prep school state ($p=.52$), different language in progress ($p=.65$), abroad experience ($p=.20$) or foreign friends in contact ($p=.97$) did not point out any significant difference in the EFL students' use of determination strategies. Still, considering the mean scores, it is possible to conclude that the female students ($\bar{x}=3.42$) used determination strategies more frequently than males ($\bar{x}=3.26$). Likewise, EFL learners whose preparatory program was compulsory ($\bar{x}=3.37$) utilized determination strategies more frequently than the ones whose program was optional ($\bar{x}=3.29$). EFL learners who had abroad experience ($\bar{x}=3.48$) utilized determination strategies more

frequently than the ones who did not have any abroad experience ($\bar{x}=3.34$). However, the test results indicate that the participants who studied at a private university ($\bar{x}=3.37$) used these strategies slightly more frequently compared to the ones from public universities ($\bar{x}=3.34$). In a similar vein, EFL learners learning another language ($\bar{x}=3.39$) utilized determination strategies slightly more than the ones who were not studying any other languages ($\bar{x}=3.35$). Finally, EFL learners who had foreign friends and did not have foreign friends showed no difference in terms of determination strategy use as both groups had the same mean score ($\bar{x}=3.36$). Next, One-Way ANOVA was conducted to reveal any meaningful difference in EFL learners' use of determination strategies regarding their high school background, faculties, English proficiency levels, and the average time they spent studying. The findings obtained from the analysis are given in Table 11 below.

Table 11

Results of One-Way ANOVA for Determination (Discovery) Strategies

Variables	Groups	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd.</i>	<i>St. E. Mean</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Type of High School Graduated	Vocational	37	3.51	.71	.11	1.40	.24
	Science or Social Sciences	29	3.32	.51	.09		
	Anatolian	136	3.33	.59	.05		
	Total	202	3.36	.60	.04		
Faculty	Science and Letters	43	3.56	.59	.09	2.30	.06
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	43	3.23	.60	.09		
	Health Sciences	56	3.42	.42	.05		
	Architecture and Engineering	33	3.22	.58	.10		
	Other	27	3.30	.87	.16		
	Total	202	3.36	.60	.04		
Average Study Time Per Day	Less than 1 hour	77	3.18	.62	.07	6.61	.00*
	1-2 hours	88	3.43	.53	.05		
	3 hours and more	37	3.58	.65	.10		
	Total	202	3.36	.60	.04		
Proficiency Level	A	39	3.20	.71	.11	2.65	.07
	B1	98	3.45	.57	.05		
	B2 and above	65	3.32	.57	.07		
	Total	202	3.36	.60	.04		

* $p < .05$

Table 11 suggests that the frequency of the EFL learners' use of determination strategies varied significantly regarding the average time they spent studying English every day ($p = .00$). However, no significant differences were found in terms of the other variables: their high school background ($p = .24$), faculties ($p = .06$), English proficiency levels ($p = .07$). However, considering the mean scores, the following interpretations can be made. First, the students from vocational high schools used determination strategies the most frequently ($\bar{x} = 3.51$). In addition, among five different faculties, the students from the faculties of Science and Letters ($\bar{x} = 3.56$) utilized determination strategies the most, while the ones from the faculties of Architecture and Engineering used such strategies the least ($\bar{x} = 3.22$). Finally, B1 level EFL learners ($\bar{x} = 3.45$) utilized determination strategies more frequently than the more and less proficient ones. The results of the post-hoc test conducted to reveal the groups creating the significant difference in terms of average study time are presented in Table 12 below.

Table 12

Results of Tukey HSD for Determination Strategies and Average Study Time Per Day

Average Study Time Per Day (I)	Average Study Time Per Day (J)	$\bar{x} (I-J)$	Std. Error	p
Less than 1 hour	1-2 hours	-.24	.09	.02*
	3 hours and more	-.39	.11	.00*
1-2 hours	Less than 1 hour	.24	.09	.02*
	3 hours and more	-.15	.11	.39
3 hours and more	Less than 1 hour	.39	.11	.00*
	1-2 hours	.15	.11	.39

* $p < .05$

As is presented in Table 12, the significant difference regarding average study time stems from the difference between the students who studied less than 1 hour and the ones who studied for 1-2 hours ($p = .02$) and for 3 hours and above ($p = .00$). When the mean scores are examined, it is seen that EFL learners who spent 3 hours or more ($\bar{x} = 3.58$) to study English per day used determination strategies more often than the other two groups, followed by the learners spending 1-2 hours ($\bar{x} = 3.43$) and then the learners spending less than 1 hour per day ($\bar{x} = 3.18$). This

suggests that the amount of time spent studying English per day increases the use of determination strategies in L2 vocabulary learning. Finally, the Pearson Correlation Test was conducted to reveal any relation between the use of determination strategies and the latest test scores. The results are summarized in Table 13 below.

Table 13

Results of the Pearson Correlation Test for Determination Strategies and the last quiz score

	Determination Strategies		
	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Test scores	202	-.11	.11

* $p < .05$

As is presented in Table 13, the frequency for the use of determination strategies was not significantly correlated with the EFL students' last test scores ($p = .11$). In other words, whether the students used determination strategies or not did not play any role in their test performance.

4.5.2 Findings Regarding Social Strategies (Discovery)

Second, independent samples t-test was conducted to reveal any difference in the students' use of social strategies for vocabulary learning in terms of their *gender, college type, prep school program, familiarity with other foreign languages, having any experience abroad or any foreign friends, or the number of books they read in a year*. The findings obtained from the t-tests are presented in the following table.

Table 14

Independent samples T-test results for Social Strategies (Discovery)

Social Strategies (Discovery)	Groups	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>sd</i>	t-test		
					<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	Female	123	3.29	.96	.28	168.17	.20
	Male	79	3.11	.95			
University Type	Public	69	2.92	.88	.3.32	200	.00*
	Private	133	3.38	.96			
Prep School State	Compulsory	176	3.26	.92	1.46	200	.14
	Optional	26	2.96	1.16			
Books Read in	0-5	169	3.18	.94	-1.27	43.65	.20

a Year	6-20	33	3.43	1.01			
Different Languages in Progress	Yes	54	3.25	.71	.29	200	.77
	No	148	3.21	.56			
Abroad Experience	Yes	32	3.45	.72	1.48	44.74	.14
	No	170	3.34	.92			
Foreign Friends in Contact	Yes	83	3.37	1.05	1.79	200	.07
	No	119	3.12	.88			

* $p < .05$

According to Table 14, only one variable indicates a statistically significant difference in terms of social strategy use, which is university type ($p=.00$). That is, the EFL learners who studied at private universities ($\bar{x}=3.38$) used social strategies for discovery more frequently than the learners studying at public universities ($\bar{x}=2.92$). On the other hand, no significant differences were found in the use of social strategies for discovery regarding the rest of the variables. Despite not being statistically significant, the following results are presented. To begin with, females ($\bar{x}=3.29$) used social strategies more frequently than males ($\bar{x}=3.11$). Second, EFL students of compulsory preparatory programs ($\bar{x}=3.26$) used social strategies more frequently than the ones who were studying English voluntarily ($\bar{x}=2.96$). Likewise, the use of these strategies was more common among the participants learning another language ($\bar{x}=3.25$), who had been abroad before ($\bar{x}=3.45$), and who were in contact with foreign friends ($\bar{x}=3.37$) than the ones who did not know any other languages ($\bar{x}=3.21$), who had not visited another country before ($\bar{x}=3.34$) and who had no contact with foreigners ($\bar{x}=3.12$). Finally, EFL students reading at least six books in a year ($\bar{x}=3.43$) used social strategies more frequently than the ones who read fewer books ($\bar{x}=3.18$). In addition, One-Way ANOVA was conducted to reveal any meaningful difference in EFL learners' use of social strategies for discovery regarding their high school background, faculties, English proficiency levels, and the average time they spent studying. The findings obtained from the analysis are given in Table 15 below.

Table 15*Results of One-Way ANOVA for Social (Discovery) Strategies*

Variables	Groups	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd.</i>	<i>St. E. Mean</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Type of High School Graduated	Vocational	37	3.17	1.06	.17	.40	.67
	Science or Social Sciences	29	3.37	.99	.18		
	Anatolian	136	3.20	.92	.07		
	Total	202	3.22	.96	.06		
Faculty	Science and Letters	43	3.32	.83	.12	2.93	.02*
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	43	3.18	.93	.14		
	Health Sciences	56	3.50	.77	.10		
	Architecture and Engineering	33	2.86	1.02	.17		
	Other	27	3.00	1.27	.24		
	Total	202	3.22	.96	.06		
Average Study Time Per Day	Less than 1 hour	77	3.04	1.00	.11	2.68	.07
	1-2 hours	88	3.28	.90	.09		
	3 hours and more	37	3.46	.97	.15		
	Total	202	3.22	.96	.06		
Proficiency Level	A	39	2.98	.94	.15	3.00	.05
	B1	98	3.38	.93	.09		
	B2 and above	65	3.12	.98	.12		
	Total	202	3.22	.96	.06		

* $p < .05$

Table 15 suggests that the frequency of EFL learners' use of social (discovery) strategies varied significantly regarding their faculties ($p=.02$). Learners who were registered at the Faculty of Health Sciences ($\bar{x}=3.50$) utilized social (discovery) strategies more frequently than Science and Letters ($\bar{x}=3.32$), Economy, Management and Social Sciences ($\bar{x}=3.18$), and Architecture and Engineering ($\bar{x}=2.86$) respectively. Although other variables did not vary significantly, the mean scores reveal the frequency of social strategies used. According to the results, Science and Social High School students ($\bar{x}=3.37$) used social strategies more frequently than the rest of the group. Likewise, students who spent 3 hours and more

($\bar{x}$ =3.46) utilized social strategies the most in the group. Similarly, B1 ($\bar{x}$ =3.38) level students utilized those skills the most, while A-level learners used them the least ($\bar{x}$ =2.98). The results of the post-hoc test conducted to reveal the groups creating the significant difference in terms of faculty are presented in Table 16 below.

Table 16

Results of Tukey HSD for Social Strategies (Discovery) Regarding Faculty

Faculty (I)	Faculty (J)	$\bar{x}$ (I-J)	Std. Error	P
Science and Letters	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	.13	.20	.95
	Health Sciences	-.17	.19	.88
	Architecture and Engineering	.45	.21	.22
	Other	.32	.23	.62
Economy / Management / Social Sciences	Science and Letters	-.13	.20	.95
	Health Sciences	-.31	.19	.46
	Architecture and Engineering	.31	.21	.58
	Other	.18	.23	.92
Health Sciences	Science and Letters	.17	.19	.88
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	.31	.19	.46
	Architecture and Engineering	.63	.20	.02*
	Other	.50	.22	.15
Architecture and Engineering	Science and Letters	-.45	.21	.22
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	-.31	.21	.58
	Health Sciences	-.63	.20	.02*
	Other	-.13	.24	.98
Other	Science and Letters	-.32	.23	.62
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	-.18	.23	.92
	Health Sciences	-.50	.22	.15
	Architecture and Engineering	.13	.24	.98

* $p < .05$

As the table above suggests, the significant difference regarding faculty is because of the difference between the participants registered at the faculty of Health Sciences and the ones from the faculties of Architecture and Engineering ($p=.02$). Furthermore, when the means are examined, it is seen that the EFL learners from the faculty of Health Sciences ($\bar{x}$ =3.50) utilized social strategies the most in the group while the students from the faculties of Architecture and Engineering ($\bar{x}$ =2.86)

benefitted from them the least. Finally, the Pearson Correlation Test was conducted to reveal any relation between the use of social strategies for discovery and the latest test scores. The results are summarized in Table 17 below.

Table 17

Results of the Pearson Correlation Test for Social (Discovery) Strategies and the last quiz score

	Social Strategies (Discovery)		
	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Test scores	202	.08	.23

* $p < .05$

As is presented in Table 17, the frequency of the use of social strategies for discovery was not significantly correlated with the EFL students' last test scores ($p = .23$). In other words, whether the students used social strategies or not did not play any role in their test performance.

4.5.3 Findings Regarding Cognitive Strategies

First, independent samples t-test was conducted to reveal any difference in the students' use of cognitive strategies for vocabulary learning in terms of their gender, college type, prep school program, familiarity with other foreign languages, having any experience abroad or any foreign friends, or the number of books they read in a year. The findings obtained from the t-tests are presented in the following table.

Table 18

Independent samples T-test results for Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive Strategies (Consolidation)	Groups	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>sd</i>	t-test		
					<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	Female	123	3.17	.83	2.60	200	.01*
	Male	79	2.87	.71			

University Type	Public	69	2.99	.77	.73	143.31	.46
	Private	133	3.08	.81			
Prep School State	Compulsory	176	3.06	.74	.49	200	.62
	Optional	26	2.98	1.12			
Books Read in a Year	0-5	169	3.00	.80	-2.00	47.80	.05
	6-20	33	3.29	.74			
Different Languages in Progress	Yes	54	3.01	.89	-.47	200	.63
	No	148	3.07	.76			
Abroad Experience	Yes	32	3.19	.78	1.06	44.13	.29
	No	170	3.02	.80			
Foreign Friends in Contact	Yes	83	3.00	.85	-.71	200	.47
	No	119	3.08	.75			

* $p < .05$

Table 18 indicates that the use of cognitive strategies among EFL learners differed significantly regarding their gender ($p=.01$). Accordingly, females ($\bar{x}=3.17$) utilized cognitive strategies more frequently than males ($\bar{x}=2.87$). On the other hand, the use of cognitive strategies did not differ significantly in terms of the students' college type ($p=.46$), prep school program ($p=.62$), familiarity with other foreign languages ($p=.63$), having any experience abroad ($p=.29$) or any foreign friends ($p=.47$), or the number of books they read in a year ($p=.05$). Still, it is seen that EFL learners studying at private universities ($\bar{x}=3.08$) utilized cognitive strategies more often compared to the ones from public universities ($\bar{x}=2.99$). Likewise, EFL learners studying compulsory preparation programs ($\bar{x}=3.06$) used cognitive strategies more often than the ones studying the preparation program voluntarily ($\bar{x}=2.98$). Also, learners having abroad experience ($\bar{x}=3.19$) utilized cognitive strategies more than the learners who had never been abroad before ($\bar{x}=3.02$). Similarly, EFL students who read at least six and more books ($\bar{x}=3.29$) utilized cognitive strategies more than the ones who read five books at most in a year ($\bar{x}=3.00$). Finally, the learners who did not learn any different language ($\bar{x}=3.07$) and did not have any foreign friends ($\bar{x}=3.08$) used such strategies more frequently than the ones who were studying another language ($\bar{x}=3.01$) and who had foreign friends ($\bar{x}=3.00$). Next, One-Way ANOVA was conducted to reveal any meaningful difference in EFL learners' use of cognitive strategies regarding their high school background, faculties, English

proficiency levels, and the average time they spent studying. The findings obtained from the analysis are given in Table 19 below.

Table 19

Results of One-Way ANOVA for Cognitive Strategies

Variables	Groups	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd.</i>	<i>St. E. Mean</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Type of High School Graduated	Vocational	37	3.16	1.05	.17	.61	.54
	Science or Social Sciences	29	2.94	.80	.14		
	Anatolian	136	3.04	.72	.06		
	Total	02	3.05	.80	.05		
Faculty	Science and Letters	43	3.09	.87	.13	1.00	.40
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	43	3.23	.65	.09		
	Health Sciences	56	3.01	.69	.09		
	Architecture and Engineering	33	2.98	.80	.14		
	Other	27	2.86	1.05	.20		
	Total	202	3.05	.80	.05		
Average Study Time Per Day	Less than 1 hour	77	2.84	.81	.09	5.09	.00*
	1-2 hours	88	3.13	.73	.07		
	3 hours and more	37	3.30	.83	.13		
	Total	202	3.05	.80	.05		
Proficiency Level	A	39	2.96	.78	.12	4.21	.01*
	B1	98	3.21	.77	.07		
	B2 and above	65	2.86	.80	.10		
	Total	202	3.05	.80	.05		

* $p < .05$

The results presented in Table 19 suggest that EFL learners' use of cognitive strategies varied significantly regarding their average study time per day ($p=.00$) and proficiency level ($p=.01$). However, no significant differences were found regarding their high school type ($p=.54$), or faculty ($p=.40$). Although they are not statistically significant, the mean scores show that the students graduated from Vocational High Schools ($\bar{x}=3.16$) utilized cognitive strategies more often the ones who graduated from Anatolian ($\bar{x}=3.04$) and Science or Social Science high schools ($\bar{x}=2.94$). In addition, cognitive strategies were utilized most frequently among the EFL learners from the faculties of Economy, Management or Social Sciences and least frequently

among the ones from other faculties like Civil Aviation, Science Teaching, Mathematics Teaching, Recreation, Politics, Public Relations, Logistics Management, and Law used this strategy the least often ($\bar{x}=2.86$). The results of the post-hoc test conducted to reveal the groups creating the significant difference in terms of average study time are presented in Table 20 below.

Table 20

Results of Tukey HSD for Cognitive Strategies Resulting from Average Study Time per Day

Average Study Time Per Day (I)	Average Study Time Per Day (J)	$\bar{x}$ (I-J)	Std. Error	p
Less than 1 hour	1-2 hours	-.29	.12	.04*
	3 hours and more	-.45	.15	.01*
1-2 hours	Less than 1 hour	.29	.12	.04*
	3 hours and more	-.16	.15	.51
3 hours and more	Less than 1 hour	.45	.15	.01*
	1-2 hours	.16	.15	.51

*p<.05

As can be understood from Table 20, the significant difference in average study time per day stems from the difference between the EFL learners who practiced less than one hour and the ones who studied 1-2 hours ($p=.04$), and three hours and more ($p=.01$) on a daily basis. When the mean scores are considered for the learners studying less than 1 hour ($\bar{x}=2.84$), 1-2 hours ($\bar{x}=3.13$), and 3 hours and more ($\bar{x}=3.30$) per day, it is understood that the use of cognitive strategies increased with the daily study time. In a similar vein, the results for the post-hoc test conducted to reveal the groups creating the significant difference in terms of proficiency level are presented in Table 21 below.

Table 21

Results of Tukey HSD for Cognitive Strategies Resulting from Proficiency Level

Proficiency Level (I)	Proficiency Level (J)	$\bar{x}$ (I-J)	Std. Error	p
A	B1	-.24	.14	.22
	B2 and above	.10	.15	.78
B1	A	.24	.14	.22
	B2 and above	.35	.12	.01*

B2 and above	A	-.10	.15	.78
	B1	-.35	.12	.01*

* $p < .05$

The significant difference in the use of cognitive strategies among EFL learners regarding their proficiency levels stems from the variation between B1 students and the ones with a B2 and above level ($p = .01$). Moreover, the mean scores indicate that EFL learners who had B1 level proficiency ($\bar{x} = 3.21$) utilized cognitive strategies more often than the ones at a B2 and above level ($\bar{x} = 2.86$). Finally, the Pearson Correlation Test was conducted to reveal any relation between the use of cognitive strategies and the latest test scores. The results are summarized in Table 22 below.

Table 22

Results of the Pearson Correlation Test for Cognitive Strategies and the last quiz score

	Cognitive Strategies		
	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Test scores	202	-.13	.06

* $p < .05$

Table 22 suggests that the frequency of the use of cognitive strategies among EFL learners did not correlate with their test scores significantly ($p = .06$). In other words, whether the students used cognitive strategies seems not to have any role in their test performance.

4.5.4 Findings Regarding Metacognitive Strategies

First, independent samples t-test was conducted to reveal any difference in the students' use of metacognitive strategies for vocabulary learning in terms of their gender, college type, prep school program, familiarity with other foreign languages, having any experience abroad or any foreign friends, or the number of books they read in a year. The findings obtained from the t-tests are presented in the following table.

Table 23*Independent samples T-test results for Metacognitive Strategies*

Metacognitive Strategies (Consolidation)	Groups	n	$\bar{x}$	sd	t-test		
					t	df	p
Gender	Female	123	3.13	.82	1.39	188.62	.16
	Male	79	2.98	.67			
University Type	Public	69	2.99	.77	.73	143.31	.46
	Private	133	3.08	.81			
Prep School State	Compulsory	176	3.05	.74	-1.45	200	.14
	Optional	26	3.28	.90			
Books Read in a Year	0-5	169	3.04	.78	-1.52	200	.19
	6-20	33	3.26	.66			
Different Languages in Progress	Yes	54	3.07	.78	-.06	92.05	.94
	No	148	3.08	.76			
Abroad Experience	Yes	32	3.28	.64	1.61	200	.10
	No	170	3.04	.78			
Foreign Friends in Contact	Yes	83	3.13	.74	.89	183.64	.37
	No	119	3.04	.79			

* $p < .05$

As can be seen in Table 23, no significant differences were found in EFL learners' use of metacognitive strategies regarding their gender ($p=.16$), college type ($p=.46$), prep school program ($p=.14$), familiarity with other foreign languages ($p=.94$), having any experience abroad ($p=.10$) or any foreign friends ($p=.37$), or the number of books they read in a year ($p=.19$). Although not statistically significant, the following interpretations can be made based on the mean scores presented in the table. First, females ($\bar{x}=3.13$) utilized metacognitive strategies more frequently than males ($\bar{x}=2.98$). In addition, the students from private universities ($\bar{x}=3.08$) and the ones who were studying prep program voluntarily ($\bar{x}=3.28$) used such strategies more frequently compared to the participants from public universities ($\bar{x}=2.99$) and the ones taking the compulsory preparation program ($\bar{x}=3.05$). Furthermore, the use of metacognitive strategies was more common among the students who read six and more books ($\bar{x}=3.26$) in a year than the ones reading five or fewer books per year ($\bar{x}=3.04$). Also, learners not studying a language other than English used

metacognitive strategies slightly more often than those learning an additional language. Finally, metacognitive strategies were utilized more commonly by the participants having been abroad ($\bar{x}=3.28$) and contacting foreign friends ($\bar{x}=3.13$) than the students who did not have such an experience ($\bar{x}=3.04$) or contact ($\bar{x}=3.04$). Next, One-Way ANOVA was conducted to reveal any meaningful difference in EFL learners' use of metacognitive strategies regarding their high school background, faculties, English proficiency levels, and the average time they spent studying. The findings obtained from the analysis are given in Table 24 below.

Table 24

Results of One-Way ANOVA for Metacognitive Strategies

Variables	Groups	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd.</i>	<i>St. E. Mean</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Type of High School Graduated	Vocational	37	3.17	.95	.15	.37	.69
	Science or Social Sciences	29	3.02	.87	.16		
	Anatolian	136	3.06	.69	.05		
	Total	202	3.08	.77	.05		
Faculty	Science and Letters	43	3.12	.80	.12	.69	.59
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	43	3.16	.78	.11		
	Health Sciences	56	3.11	.67	.09		
	Architecture and Engineering	33	3.01	.75	.13		
	Other	27	2.88	.90	.17		
	Total	202	3.08	.77	.05		
Average Study Time Per Day	Less than 1 hour	77	2.88	.72	.08	.97	.02*
	1-2 hours	88	3.20	.73	.07		
	3 hours and more	37	3.18	.87	.14		
	Total	202	3.08	.77	.05		
Proficiency Level	A	39	2.98	.73	.11	.06	.34
	B1	98	.16	.81	.08		
	B2 and above	65	.01	.72	.09		
	Total	202	3.08	.77	.05		

* $p < .05$

As the table presents, the use of metacognitive strategies in vocabulary learning varied significantly regarding the average study time that EFL learners had

per day for English ($p=.02$). Although other variables did not show any significant difference, it is seen that learners from Vocational High Schools ($\bar{x}=3.17$) used metacognitive strategies the most often while learners having graduated from Science or Social Science High Schools ($\bar{x}=3.02$) utilized such strategies the least frequently. Likewise, the learners from Faculties of Economy, Management, and Social Science utilized metacognitive strategies the most frequently ($\bar{x}=3.16$) compared to the participants from the other faculties. Finally, metacognitive strategies were more common among the students with B1 level proficiency ($\bar{x}=3.16$) than the ones with an A level ($\bar{x}=2.98$) and B2 and above level ($\bar{x}=3.01$) proficiency. On the other hand, the results for the post-hoc test conducted to reveal the groups creating the significant difference in terms of average study time are presented in Table 25 below.

Table 25

Results of Tukey HSD for Metacognitive Strategies Resulting from Average Study Time Per Day

Average Study Time Per Day (I)	Average Study Time Per Day (J)	$\bar{x}$ (I-J)	Std. Error	p
Less than 1 hour	1-2 hours	-.31	.11	.02*
	3 hours and more	-.29	.15	.12
1-2 hours	Less than 1 hour	.31	.11	.02*
	3 hours and more	.02	.14	.98
3 hours and more	Less than 1 hour	.29	.15	.12
	1-2 hours	.02	.14	.98

* $p<.05$

As shown in Table 25, the difference in the use of metacognitive strategies among EFL learners regarding their average study time arises from the variation between learners who studied English for less than one hour and the ones who studied English 1-2 hours ($p=.02$) on a daily basis. However, no significant difference was found between the students practicing 3 hours and more and the ones studying less than 1 hour ($p=.12$) or 1-2 hours ($p=.98$). When the mean scores are considered, it is seen that the use of metacognitive strategies was more frequent among the students who studied English 1-2 hours ($\bar{x}=3.20$) than the ones practicing less than 1 hour ($\bar{x}=2.88$) per day. Finally, the Pearson Correlation Test was

conducted to reveal any relation between the use of metacognitive strategies and the latest test scores. The results are summarized in Table 26 below.

Table 26

Results of the Pearson Correlation Test for Metacognitive Strategies and the last quiz score

	Metacognitive Strategies		
	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Test scores	202	.12	.08

* $p < .05$

Table 26 presents that EFL learners' use of metacognitive strategies was not significantly correlated with their last test scores ($p = .08$). In brief, the use of metacognitive strategies seems not to have played a role in the participant EFL learners' test performance.

4.5.5 Findings Regarding Memory Strategies

First, independent samples t-test was conducted to reveal any difference in the students' use of memory strategies for vocabulary learning in terms of their gender, college type, prep school program, familiarity with other foreign languages, having any experience abroad or any foreign friends, or the number of books they read in a year. The findings obtained from the t-tests are presented in the following table.

Table 27

Independent samples T-test results for Memory Strategies

Memory Strategies (Consolidation)	Groups	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd.</i>	t-test		
					<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Gender	Female	123	3.07	.68	1.59	200	.11
	Male	79	2.93	.54			
University Type	Public	69	2.93	.62	1.40	139.73	.16
	Private	133	3.06	.63			
Prep School State	Compulsory	176	3.01	.61	-.41	200	.62
	Optional	26	3.07	.75			
Books Read in a Year	0-5	169	2.98	.60	-2.05	200	.04*
	6-20	33	3.22	.72			

Different Languages in Progress	Yes	54	3.13	.69	1.47	200	.14
	No	148	2.98	.61			
Abroad Experience	Yes	32	3.16	.69	1.39	200	.16
	No	170	2.99	.62			
Foreign Friends in Contact	Yes	83	3.13	.63	2.12	174.92	.03*
	No	119	2.94	.62			

* $p < .05$

As shown in Table 27, EFL learners' use of memory strategies to consolidate vocabulary varied significantly regarding the number of books they read in a year ($p=.04$) and their contact with foreign friends ($p=.03$). That is, the EFL learners who read 6 or more books in a year utilized memory strategies more often ($\bar{x}=3.22$) than the ones who read fewer books ($\bar{x}=2.98$). Likewise, the use of memory strategies was more frequent among EFL learners who had foreign friends ($\bar{x}=3.13$) compared to ones who did not ($\bar{x}=2.94$). On the other hand, no significant differences were found in the use of memory strategies regarding gender ($p=.11$), college type ($p=.16$), prep school program ($p=.62$), familiarity with other foreign languages ($p=.14$) or having any experience abroad ($p=.16$). Although not statistically significant, the following interpretations can be made based on the mean scores presented in the table. First, female participants ($\bar{x}=3.07$) used the memory strategies more often than males ($\bar{x}=2.93$). In addition, the students from private universities ($\bar{x}=3.06$) and the ones who were studying prep programs voluntarily ($\bar{x}=3.07$) used such strategies more frequently compared to the participants from public universities ($\bar{x}=2.93$) and the ones taking the compulsory preparation program ($\bar{x}=3.01$). Finally, learners who learned a different language other than English ($\bar{x}=3.13$) and who had been abroad before ($\bar{x}=3.16$) utilized memory strategies more frequently than the ones who were not studying an additional language ($\bar{x}=2.98$) and who did not have experience for going abroad ($\bar{x}=2.99$). Next, One-Way ANOVA was conducted to reveal any meaningful difference in EFL learners' use of memory strategies to consolidate vocabulary regarding their high school background, faculties, English proficiency levels, and the average time they spent studying. The findings obtained from the analysis are given in Table 28 below.

Table 28*Results of One-Way ANOVA for Memory Strategies*

Variables	Groups	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd.</i>	<i>St. E. Mean</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Type of High School Graduated	Vocational	37	3.05	.87	.14	.08	.92
	Science or Social Sciences	29	3.00	.67	.12		
	Anatolian	136	3.01	.54	.04		
	Total	202	3.02	.63	.04		
Faculty	Science and Letters	43	3.13	.67	.10	1.38	.24
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	43	2.92	.63	.09		
	Health Sciences	56	3.11	.51	.06		
	Architecture and Engineering	33	2.86	.54	.09		
	Other	27	2.99	.84	.16		
	Total	202	3.02	.63	.04		
Average Study Time Per Day	Less than 1 hour	77	2.91	.62	.07	3.34	.03*
	1-2 hours	88	3.02	.57	.06		
	3 hours and more	37	3.23	.74	.12		
	Total	202	3.02	.63	.04		
Proficiency Level	A	39	2.91	.71	.11	1.27	.28
	B1	98	3.09	.63	.06		
	B2 and above	65	2.98	.57	.07		
	Total	202	3.02	.63	.04		

* $p < .05$

As Table 28 presents, the use of memory strategies in vocabulary learning varied significantly regarding the average study time that EFL learners had per day for English ($p=.03$). Although other variables did not show any significant difference, it is seen that learners from Vocational High Schools ($\bar{x}=3.05$) used memory strategies the most often. Likewise, the learners from the faculties of Health Sciences ($\bar{x}=3.11$) and Science and Letters ($\bar{x}=3.13$) utilized these strategies more frequently compared to the participants from the other faculties. Finally, the use of memory strategies was more common among the students with B1 level proficiency ($\bar{x}=3.09$) than the ones with an A level ($\bar{x}=2.91$) and B2 and above level ($\bar{x}=2.98$) proficiency. On the other hand, the results of the post-hoc test conducted to reveal

the groups creating the significant difference in terms of average study time are presented in Table 29 below.

Table 29

Results of Tukey HSD for Memory Strategies Resulting from Average Study Time Per Day

Average Study Time Per Day (I)	Average Study Time Per Day (J)	$\bar{x}$ (I-J)	Std. Error	P
Less than 1 hour	1-2 hours	-.11	.09	.49
	3 hours and more	-.32	.12	.02*
1-2 hours	Less than 1 hour	.11	.09	.49
	3 hours and more	-.21	.12	.19
3 hours and more	Less than 1 hour	.32	.12	.02*
	1-2 hours	.21	.12	.19

* $p < .05$

As shown in Table 29, the difference in the use of memory strategies among EFL learners regarding their average study time stems from the variation between learners who studied English less than 1 hour and the ones who studied English for 3 hours and more ($p = .02$) on a daily basis. However, no significant difference was found between the students practicing 1-2 hours and the ones studying 3 hours and more ($p = .19$) or less than 1 hour ($p = .49$). When the mean scores are considered, it is seen that the use of memory strategies was more frequent among the students who studied English 3 hours and more ($\bar{x} = 3.23$) than the ones practicing less than 1 hour ($\bar{x} = 2.91$) per day. Finally, the Pearson Correlation Test was conducted to reveal any relation between the use of memory strategies and the latest test scores. The results are summarized in Table 30 below.

Table 30

Results of the Pearson Correlation Test for Memory Strategies and the last quiz score

	Memory Strategies		
	n	r	p
Test scores	202	-.14	.03*

* $p < .05$

Table 30 indicates that EFL learners' use of memory strategies was significantly and negatively correlated with their last test score ($p = .03$, $r = -.14$). It can

be said that the more frequently the students used memory strategies, the lower they performed in their language tests. In other words, their test achievements decreased with the use of memory strategies for consolidation.

4.5.6 Findings Regarding Social (Consolidation) Strategies

First, independent samples t-test was conducted to reveal any difference in the students' use of social (consolidation) strategies for vocabulary learning in terms of their gender, college type, prep school program, familiarity with other foreign languages, having any experience abroad or any foreign friends, or the number of books they read in a year. The findings obtained from the t-tests are presented in the following table.

Table 31

Independent samples T-test results for Social (Consolidation) Strategies

Social Strategies (Consolidation)	Groups	n	$\bar{x}$	Sd.	t-test		
					t	df	p
Gender	Female	123	2.24	1.07	.85	200	.39
	Male	79	2.12	.85			
University Type	Public	69	2.07	1.02	1.28	200	.20
	Private	133	2.26	.97			
Prep School State	Compulsory	176	2.12	.93	-2.82	200	.00*
	Optional	26	2.70	1.20			
Books Read in a Year	0-5	169	2.12	.94	-2.66	200	.00*
	6-20	33	2.61	1.14			
Different Languages in Progress	Yes	54	2.38	1.02	1.59	90.13	.11
	No	148	2.13	.97			
Abroad Experience	Yes	32	2.46	1.06	1.67	200	.09
	No	170	2.15	.97			
Foreign Friends in Contact	Yes	83	2.46	1.03	-3.18	200	.00*
	No	119	2.01	.92			

* $p < .05$

As shown in Table 31, EFL learners' use of social strategies to consolidate vocabulary varied significantly regarding their preparatory program condition ($p = .00$) and the number of books they read in a year ($p = .00$). That is, the students who were studying prep program voluntarily ($\bar{x} = 2.70$) used such strategies more

frequently compared to the ones taking the compulsory preparation program ($\bar{x}=2.12$). Likewise, the EFL learners who read six or more books in a year utilized social strategies for consolidation more often ($\bar{x}=2.61$) than the ones who read fewer books ($\bar{x}=2.12$). On the other hand, no significant differences were found in the use of memory strategies regarding gender ($p=.11$), college type ($p=.20$), familiarity with other foreign languages ($p=.11$), having any experience abroad ($p=.09$) or any foreign friends ($p=.00$). Although not statistically significant, the following conclusions can be made based on the mean scores presented in the table. First, female participants ($\bar{x}=2.24$) used social strategies more often than males ($\bar{x}=2.12$). In addition, the students from private universities ($\bar{x}=2.26$) used such strategies more frequently compared to the participants from public universities ($\bar{x}=2.07$). Furthermore, learners who learned a different language other than English ($\bar{x}=2.38$) and who had been abroad before ($\bar{x}=2.46$) utilized memory strategies more frequently than the ones who were not studying an additional language ($\bar{x}=2.13$) and who did not have experience for going abroad ($\bar{x}=2.15$). Finally, the use of social strategies for consolidation was more common among the participants having contact with foreigners ($\bar{x}=2.46$) than the ones who did not ($\bar{x}=2.01$). Next, One-Way ANOVA was conducted to reveal any meaningful difference in EFL learners' use of social strategies for consolidation regarding their high school background, faculties, English proficiency levels, and the average time they spent studying. The findings obtained from the analysis are given in Table 32 below.

Table 32

Results of One-Way ANOVA for Social (Consolidation) Strategies

Variables	Groups	<i>n</i>	$\bar{x}$	<i>Sd.</i>	<i>St. E. Mean</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Type of High School Graduated	Vocational	37	2.46	1.20	.19	1.65	.19
	Science or Social Sciences	29	2.12	1.12	.20		
	Anatolian	136	2.14	.89	.07		
	Total	202	2.20	.99	.06		
Faculty	Science and Letters	43	2.23	1.04	.15	.68	.60
	Economy / Management / Social Sciences	43	2.14	1.05	.16		
	Health Sciences	56	2.20	.91	.12		
	Architecture and Engineering	33	2.03	.85	.14		

	Other	27	2.44	1.13	.21		
	Total	202	2.20	.99	.06		
Average Study Time Per Day	Less than 1 hour	77	2.02	.95	.10	2.07	.12
	1-2 hours	88	2.30	1.00	.10		
	3 hours and more	37	2.33	1.00	.16		
	Total	202	2.20	.99	.06		
Proficiency Level	A	39	2.17	1.10	.17	.79	.45
	B1	98	2.28	.96	.09		
	B2 and above	65	2.08	.96	.11		
	Total	202	2.20	.99	.06		

* $p < .05$

As Table 32 presents, the use of social strategies to consolidate vocabulary learning did not vary significantly regarding their high school background ($p=.19$), faculties ($p=.60$), English proficiency levels ($p=.45$), or the average time they spent studying ($p=.12$). However, when the mean scores are considered, it is possible to make the following inferences. To begin with, learners from Vocational High Schools utilized social strategies more frequently ($\bar{x}=2.46$) than the graduates of Science or Social Sciences High Schools ($\bar{x}=2.12$) and Anatolian High schools ($\bar{x}=2.14$). Second, the most frequent use of social strategies was stated by the participants registered at other faculties ($\bar{x}=2.44$) rather than at the faculties of Science and Letters, Economy, Management, Social Sciences, Health Sciences, Architecture and Engineering. In addition, the participants who studied English less than 1 hour ($\bar{x}=2.02$) benefitted from social strategies less frequently than the ones practicing 3 hours and more ($\bar{x}=2.33$) and 1-2 hours ($\bar{x}=2.30$) per day. Finally, the use of social strategies was more common among the students with B1 level proficiency ($\bar{x}=2.28$) than the ones with an A level ($\bar{x}=2.17$) and B2 and above level ($\bar{x}=2.08$) proficiency. Finally, the Pearson Correlation Test was conducted to reveal any relation between the use of social strategies for consolidation and the latest test scores. The results are summarized in Table 33 below.

Table 33

Results of Pearson Correlation Test for Social (Consolidation) Strategies and the last quiz score

	Social Strategies (Consolidation)		
	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Test scores	202	-.00	.94

* $p < .05$

Table 33 presents that the use of social consolidation strategies was not significantly correlated with the EFL learners' last test scores ($p = .94$). That is, the use of these strategies seems not to have played a role in their test performance.

5. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study aimed to determine the relation between Turkish EFL learners' vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) and their foreign language reading anxiety (FLRA) and to what extent these constructs individually varied according to certain variables. This section is reserved to present a summary of the findings by providing the quantitative results and discussing them within the scope of the available literature.

5.1 Results and Discussion

The results of this study are discussed in five sections in line with the research questions below. First, the results regarding the frequency of VLS utilized by EFL learners are discussed. Next, the findings into the amount of FLRA experienced by Turkish EFL learners are considered. The relationship between VLS and FLRA of the participants is discussed. Finally, results for the extent to which certain demographic, personal and academic variables affect VLS or FLRA among Turkish EFL learners are reviewed.

5.1.1 The frequency of VLS use among EFL learners

This study has significant results regarding the frequency of VLS use among EFL learners. First, they utilized strategies at a *moderate* level, which corresponded to *sometimes* on the frequency scale. Second, the Turkish EFL participants applied discovery strategies more frequently than consolidation strategies. Because they were studying in the preparatory year of university, they might have encountered most words for the first time up to their proficiency levels and tended to rely on discovery strategies more. This is parallel to existing literature which suggested that EFL learners, generally used VLS at a medium level (Baharudin & Ismail, 2014; Deric, 2019; Kafipour, 2010; Rabadi, 2016; Sazvar & Varmiyazar, 2016). However, social consolidation strategies were the only one utilized *rarely* by the participants. In the same sense, the present study is consistent with the findings of several studies that the least frequent strategy was social consolidation strategies (Amirian & Heshmatifar, 2013; Demir, 2022; Huh, 2009; Sihotang & Afriazi, 2017). However, the scope of this consistency is limited because the majority of the existing research

suggests that cognitive or metacognitive strategies were utilized the least often (Al-Khresheh & Al- Ruwaili, 2020; Baharudin & Ismail, 2014; Baskın et al., 2017; Rabadi, 2016; Rojananak & Vitayapirak, 2015). Knowing a word and adopting certain VLS are complex operations; those operations require learners to comprehend the definitions, make associations and perform it (Nation, 1990). In applying strategies, learners' proficiency levels can be a factor; in this study, the prevalence of determination strategies might point to the lower level of proficiency. As Schmitt (1997) defined, they are employed on the first encounter of a word, which might be an indicator of their levels.

Third, when the specific strategies of each category were considered, looking for L1 cognates, guessing from the context, and utilizing visual cues (determination); consulting teacher or classmates for a word's meaning (social strategies of discovery) were more preferred. Similarly, collaborating within groups (social strategies of consolidation); repeating words aloud, visualizing the word and studying the spelling of the word (memory strategies); verbal repetitions and vocabulary notebooks (cognitive strategies); using English media and studying the word over time (metacognitive strategies) were used on a more frequent basis than the remaining strategies. These findings are consistent with various studies in the literature. For instance, Amirian and Heshmatifar (2013), Aslan-Tunç (2020), Demir (2022) Kafipour (2010), Kheder (2022), Yıldız (2019), and Wu (2005) concluded that guessing from the context, utilizing visual cues, asking a classmate, keeping a notebook were among the most utilized individual strategies.

Fourth, among the six categories of VLS, determination strategies were the most frequently utilized group. This finding is consistent with several other studies in the literature in that determination strategies were utilized the most frequently (Amirian & Heshmatifar, 2013; Bahrudin & Ismail, 2014; Bakti, 2018; Baskın et al., 2017; Park, 2001; Rojananak & Vitayapirak, 2015; Sazvar & Varmaziyar, 2016; Sihotang & Afriazi, 2017). However, some studies have concluded that cognitive or memory strategies are the most frequent ones (Çevik et al., 2018; Huh, 2009; Rabadi, 2016; Yılmaz, 2020; Zabardast-Alamdari, 2010). The participants utilized the social discovery strategies, metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, memory strategies, and social strategies of consolidation in descending order. Social

consolidation strategies were utilized the least often in current research. This could have been caused by the fact that preparatory school program consisted of a busy schedule which meant overload of vocabulary teaching. In return, to learn the meaning of a word at the first encounter, the EFL learners might have turned to determination strategies more often than the others. In a similar vein, social strategies of consolidation strategies were utilized the least often. This could be explained by Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis (1982), which put forward that affective variables decrease performance, then, Horwitz et al. (1986) FLA, resulting in inappropriate use of strategies. The participants might have felt less confident than the others and experienced more anxiety. That's why, they might have studied individually, limiting the contact in or out of the classroom. Also, Schmitt (1997) claimed that collaborative activities make retaining a word possible. Nonetheless, L2 learners being in an EFL context might not have found the chance to contact with native/foreign people, and the room for studying in the group might not have been available, which resulted in findings in the current study.

5.1.2 The extent of FLRA experienced by EFL learners

This study concluded that the participant EFL learners experienced FLRA on an approximate frequency of *sometimes*. In other words, they experienced a *medium* level of FLRA, which could be interpreted as not severe, but not totally unimportant to Turkish EFL students either. When the related literature is considered, this finding is consistent with some studies showing that EFL or FL learners suffered from FLRA on a medium level (Ahmad et al., 2013; Altay, 2021; Koroğlu, 2010; Miao & Vibulpholk, 2012). However, another study also concluded that EFL learners were found to experience a low level of reading anxiety (Rajab et al., 2012).

According to findings, the EFL learners mostly got anxious when the topic was unfamiliar, there was unknown grammar, and when they did not understand every word while reading. However, the participants felt most anxious when they were not sure whether they understood what they read (See Appendix H & I). The fact that EFL students felt a medium level of FLRA might have been because of reader related (familiarity with the target culture, background knowledge, linguistic and schematic knowledge: Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Kong, 2019; Sadeghi, 2007) and text-related issues (content, genre, organization, and readability: Bensalem,

2022; Zhao et al., 2013). In this sense, the present study supports the reviewed literature on the sources of FLRA, and the factors mentioned could have resulted in higher mean scores compared to the rest of the items on the scale.

5.1.3 Relations between EFL learners' VLS and FLRA

This study demonstrated a positive correlation between VLS and FLRA of Turkish EFL learners. That is, the FLRA of the participants was meaningfully correlated with the frequency of the *cognitive strategies* and *social strategies* of *discovery strategies* they utilized. In other words, as the learners utilized cognitive strategies, their reading anxiety increased; and as they used social strategies more, they experienced more reading anxiety. On the other hand, the rest of the strategies, namely, determination, memory, metacognitive or social consolidation strategies, were not meaningfully correlated with FLRA of the participants. The present study cannot refer to literature because of the lack of available research on the relation between VLS and FLRA. Nevertheless, the present finding could have emerged because of the demanding nature of those strategies. To exemplify, cognitive strategy use requires EFL learners to pay attention to linguistic components of a word, such as word class, or identify the prefix or roots of a word, while social strategies to consolidate a word require learners to ask for help and communicate with a native to practice learned vocabulary (Schmitt, 1997). However, performing these strategies in the reading process might have been challenging and stressful for the learners. This can be partly explained by that reading is a highly complex process which requires different operations simultaneously (Kong, 2019; Sellers, 2000). Reading and reading comprehension were claimed to be affected by several factors such as linguistic and schematic knowledge, affective motivators (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Sadeghi, 2007), and vocabulary knowledge (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). That is why, as a complex process which is also affected by word knowledge, reading can be affected in reverse in terms of reading anxiety. In the cases where the reader should have employed cognitive strategies to identify a word in a reading text, the complexity of the process may have led to a higher level of reading anxiety for EFL learners.

On the one hand, these rising levels of anxiety in the case of cognitive and social strategy use might have been since knowing a word requires learners to know

the definition(s), linguistic features, and which context to use it (Ling, 2005; Nation, 1990; Richards, 1976). In the case of failure to fulfill these aspects, the input or output might be affected adversely (Ling, 2005). Taking this into account, Turkish EFL learners might have felt the uneasiness of using these strategies to understand a text and expressed more anxiety during the reading process.

5.1.4 Variations in EFL learners' VLS in terms of certain demographic, personal and academic variables

This study concluded that the use of VLS by Turkish EFL students differed significantly according to certain variables. First, the use of cognitive, metacognitive, and memory strategies was found to be significantly different in terms of gender, which favored females over male students. On the other hand, determination and social strategies did not differ significantly regarding gender. This finding is consistent with most of the studies in the literature, which proved that females utilized VLS more frequently than males (Büyükahıska & Kozallık, 2018; Derici, 2019; Kocaman & Kızılkaya Cumanoglu, 2014). However, there are also some studies that concluded that males used VLS more often than females (Baskin et al., 2017) or gender did not cause any significant difference at all (Al-Khresheh & Al- Ruwaili, 2020; Park, 2001).

Second, the use of social strategies of discovery was found to differ significantly according to college type, whether public or private universities. Determination, memory, cognitive, metacognitive, or social strategies of consolidation did not differ significantly regarding the college type. In other words, Turkish EFL learners studying at private universities utilized social strategies of discovery more frequently than the ones studying at public universities. The prep programs at private universities may have encouraged interaction between peers and the teacher more than the ones at public universities due to such factors as the population, materials used, and the opportunity for language practice which might have resulted in a significant difference in favor of the private schools.

Third, participants' VLS use was revealed to differ significantly according to their preparatory school program state, compulsory or optional programs. This only caused a significant difference in terms of social strategies of consolidation, and it

was found that the students studying an optional preparatory program utilized social consolidation strategies more often than the ones studying a compulsory preparatory program. On the contrary, other strategies did not vary significantly in terms of prep school programs. This could be partial because the learners studying at optional preparatory school programs had better awareness in their own learnings and felt more comfortable communicating with others to consolidate the meaning of a word. From this standpoint, it is noteworthy that the learners who are willing to retrieve input, and monitor their own learning become autonomous learners, which, at the end, results in sufficient knowledge (Hismanoglu, 2000). The EFL participants taking the optional language program voluntarily could be categorized as conscious learners, thus, could control human interaction in an out of the classroom as well (Schmitt, 1997).

Fourth, the present research concluded that learning another foreign language did not lead to any significant difference in terms of Turkish EFL learners' VLS. In other words, whether EFL learners knew/learned any different languages at the time of data collection did not make any difference in learners' vocabulary strategy use. Furthermore, there was no significant difference between EFL learners' abroad experience and VLS use. These findings are surprising considering that strategy use is naturally expected to develop as their exposure to the target language increases.

Fifth, it was found that EFL learners' use of memory strategies and social consolidation strategies varied significantly regarding foreign friends in contact. The frequency of using these two strategies was higher for the learners having contact with foreign friends than the ones not having this opportunity. Since the interaction outside the classroom continued, the collaboration through group work might have improved. Also, good L2 learners are described as the ones who can make smart guessing, and are willing to interact with others (Rubin, 1975). EFL learners contacting foreign friends might be considered as "good L2 learners".

Sixth, the determination strategy use by the participants was found to be significantly different regarding the number of books they read in a year. That is, the learners having read a higher number of books utilized determination strategies more often than the ones who read fewer books. Nevertheless, the rest of the strategies did

not differ significantly. This finding is consistent with what Çevik et al. (2018) concluded that EFL learners' VLS use increased as they read a more English books. VLS has been claimed as a mediator between the learner and the input (Cohen, 1998; Oxford, 1990) and an important factor for reading comprehension as a reader should get at least 95% of the whole text for success (Laufer & Sim, 1985). As these two concepts affect each other mutually, the more learners read, the more vocabulary they have, and the more strategies they utilize (Mikulecky, 2009). As a result, participants in the current study might have developed a higher sensitivity to unknown words and developed their smart guessing ability for the meanings for better comprehension.

Seventh, this study revealed that the EFL learners' social discovery strategy use varied significantly according to their faculties, although no significant difference was found for other strategies or in terms of their high school backgrounds. This finding conflicts Derici's (2019) study, having concluded that different high school types led to different strategies employed by the EFL learners. Further, variation between faculties stemmed from the difference between the learners studying Health Sciences and Architecture and Engineering. That is, the EFL learners registered at the faculty of Health Sciences used social discovery strategies more frequently than the ones registered at the faculty of Architecture and Engineering. One explanation might be that students from Health Sciences tend to improve their communication skills as their careers are to evolve in that manner, yet Architecture and Engineering departments mostly form their small communities to collaborate. Because of the nature of their career, these two groups may have differed significantly. On the other hand, Aslan-Tunç (2020) and Yılmaz (2020) found that VLS did not differ significantly in terms of the participants' majors.

Eighth, the present study showed that Turkish EFL learners' VLS use varied significantly according to the time spent studying English. It was found that the frequency of determination strategies, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and memory strategies differed significantly regarding their average study time per day. In other words, Turkish EFL learners who spent more time studying English utilized these strategies more often than those who spent less time on it. Likewise, the Turkish EFL learners' use of cognitive strategies differed meaningfully according

to their proficiency levels, and this difference stemmed from the learners having B1 and B2 and above levels of proficiency. More specifically, the learners who had B1 level proficiency utilized cognitive strategies the most, while B2 and above level learners utilized them the least often. This might have been because less proficient learners deal with a lot of cognitive processing at the same time, while more proficient ones handle more social or metacognitive processing. This is somewhat in line with the study by Huh (2009) who found that less proficient vocabulary learners utilized cognitive strategies the most while more proficient learners used metacognitive strategies the most. However, Aslan-Tunç (2020) concluded that VLS use did not differ significantly according to learners' proficiency levels.

Finally, the test scores of Turkish EFL learners were found to be significantly correlated to the frequency of their memory strategy use. In other words, the frequency of memory strategies employed by EFL learners affected their test performance in a positive way. The learners who managed memory practices to retrieve the vocabulary may have benefitted from such instant knowledge to achieve higher scores in tests.

5.1.5 Variations in EFL learners' FLRA in terms of certain demographic, personal and academic variables

This study concluded that the amount of FLRA experienced by Turkish EFL students differed significantly according to certain variables. First, gender did not cause a significant difference in Turkish EFL learners' FLRA. Although there was a slight difference between males' and females' reading anxiety levels, this difference was not significant. This finding is consistent with Joo and Damron's (2015) study showing that gender was not a significant factor for FLRA; there are also few studies suggesting gender as a significant factor for FLRA (Bensalem, 2020; Genç, 2016).

Second, public or private university type did not make any difference in EFL learners' FLRA in this study. Although it was found that students registered at private universities experienced FLRA slightly more than the ones at public universities, this difference was not meaningful. Since anxiety is usually a common uneasiness that EFL learners feel, the students in both type of institutions might have felt a similar amount of reading anxiety. In a similar vein, no significant difference

was found between Turkish EFL learners' FLRA regarding their preparatory program state. The learners studying a compulsory preparatory program experienced FLRA more often, but this difference was not meaningful. Likewise, no significant difference was found in FLRA according to the reading habits of EFL learners. The higher number of books meant a lower level of FLRA, but the difference was not significant. This finding is sensible thinking of the sources of FLRA. In the reviewed literature, the sources of FLRA were presented as related to text and reader-factors such as the length of the text, or the knowledge of the reader (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Kong, 2019; Sadekhi, 2007). That's why, the number of books they read might not have led to a significant difference, although it somehow lowered the level of FLRA.

Next, Turkish EFL learners' FLRA differed significantly according to additional foreign languages that they knew or learned. The students knowing another language experienced FLRA less than the ones who did not. This is in line with the study by Bensalem (2020) showing that FLRA was negatively correlated with multilingualism. Reading is a complex process (Kong, 2019; Sellers, 2000) and the frequent exposure to target languages, cultures, and vocabulary (Zhang & Annual, 2008) may have led to constant strategy use, thus affecting FLRA positively. Another explanation could be that reading strategies employed in one language might have been transferred to another and decreased reading anxiety among EFL learners (Bensalem, 2020).

Similarly, EFL learners' FLRA differed significantly regarding their having a foreign contact. The students that had foreign friends experienced a lower level of FLRA than the ones that did not have any foreign friends. As put forward before, FLRA may stem from the reader or text-related factors (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016; Kong, 2019; Sadekhi, 2007). The EFL learners who formed familiarity and positive contact with the target language thanks to their foreign friends might have expanded their language knowledge, utilized reading strategies more, and developed a lower level of FLRA. On the other hand, no significant difference was found in Turkish EFL learners' FLRA regarding their abroad experience, although the students who had been abroad felt less anxious compared to those with no such experience at all. Similarly, the participants' high school background and the time spent studying

English per day did not result in any variations in their FLRA levels. Despite not being statistically significant, the students having abroad experience felt less anxious. These learners might have developed a positive attitude towards the target language and gained familiarity with the target culture (Zhang & Annual, 2008), thus, they may have felt less anxious about L2 reading.

In addition, the students registered at the Economy, Management and Social Sciences faculties suffered from the highest level of FLRA while the ones at Science and Literature faculties experienced the least amount of FLRA. This could be since the ones registered at Science and Literature faculties study the target language, and those learners might have had less anxiety accordingly. On the other hand, students registered at Economy, Management and Science faculties mostly work with statistics and numerics, thus, this may have led to increase in FLRA levels. In a similar vein, the amount of FLRA experienced by the EFL learners was found to decrease with an increase in their proficiency. This supports Zhao's (2009) finding that reading anxiety levels differed significantly according to participants' proficiency levels and that intermediate-level learners experienced the highest level of FLRA. It makes sense considering that more proficient learners had more linguistic, semantic, and contextual information to practice language properly, more familiarity with the target language, more input and output, and more developed strategy use considering their levels' needs. All these benefits might have resulted in better control of reading anxiety (Bensalem, 2020), thus experiencing a lower level of FLRA.

Finally, FLRA was found to correlate with EFL learners' test performance negatively. That is, high levels of FLRA experienced by EFL students affected their test performance negatively. It is reasonable to note that high levels of anxiety lead to poor performance in the target language, hinder critical thinking, and decrease attention (Heidari & Nosratinia, 2022; Sellers, 2000). Therefore, inappropriate or insufficient strategies may be adopted (Kuru-Gönen, 2005; Lien, 2011).

5.2 Conclusion

The present study aimed to demonstrate the frequency of VLS and the amount of FLRA among EFL university preparatory students in addition to revealing

the possible relation between two variables. In view of the findings, it is feasible to present a brief conclusion as follows. First of all, the EFL preparatory school students utilized VLS at a moderate level and experienced a medium level of FLRA. As of the most and least frequent strategies used, determination and social consolidation strategies were determined respectively. Second, FLRA was found to correlate with only social discovery strategies and cognitive strategies significantly. This means that learners who employed these strategies felt more anxious. Third, the amount of FLRA experienced by the participants was revealed to be affected by the following variables: the number of languages known, foreign friends in contact, faculty, and proficiency levels. Furthermore, it was found that FLRA affected their test performance negatively. Finally, the extent of VLS use was determined to be affected by the following variables: the number of books they read in a year (for determination, memory, and social consolidation strategies), average study time per day (determination, cognitive, metacognitive and memory strategies), university type and faculty (social discovery strategies), gender and proficiency levels (cognitive strategies), foreign friends in contact, (memory and social consolidation strategies), and prep school state (social consolidation strategies). Meanwhile, test performance was positively correlated with only memory strategies, which meant that using memory strategies increased learners' test performance.

5.3 Practical Recommendations

All in all, it is common across studies in and out of Turkish contexts that EFL learners experience FLRA at a moderate level and are mostly medium-level strategy users. Accordingly, some practical recommendations are made below for teachers, learners, administrators, and further research.

5.3.1 Recommendations for Teachers & Learners

First, some recommendations are provided for teachers. This study revealed that EFL learners' VLS use and FLRA levels were at medium levels and meaningfully correlated. Social strategies adopted to discover the meaning of a word and cognitive strategies to consolidate the meaning had a meaningful correlation to the FLRA levels of the target group participants. At this point, teachers can be recommended to be aware that students may have difficulty in employing the appropriate strategies when they learn a word for the first time and deal with the

cognitive demands of the word to retain the meaning. To ease the difficulties faced, teachers may stand as a mediator between the learner and the input, and practical tasks could be provided to the learner. Teachers can encourage and train their students to employ more VLS and perform these strategies within authentic learning tasks. These can be achieved via vocabulary sessions or reading sessions to enhance opportunities for strategy use and anxiety manipulation. As for reading anxiety, teachers may benefit from such strategies as introducing the text, activating learners' background knowledge, motivating learners to utilize their vocabulary knowledge, and guiding them to use the appropriate reading strategies to help EFL learners with the challenging nature of FLRA. Vocabulary learning strategies, likewise, can be emphasized through constant vocabulary training. The present study did not find significant differences between high schools in terms of both FLRA and VLS. Though not significant, it was seen that students with science or social science high school backgrounds utilized VLS less than other high schools and experienced FLRA the most. At this point, high school teachers in these schools can be recommended to elaborate on VLS use and FLRA, guide learners to deal with the target language more through extensive reading and vocabulary activities. Furthermore, more conscious teaching can be adopted by teachers in pre- university education so that the learners can have more familiarity with the language and decrease the discrepancy between their background and VLS as well as FLRA. Learners, on the other hand, may continue self-study outside the classroom, interact with foreigners, and attempt to practice VLS and read more so that FLRA can decrease. Regardless of their high schools or faculties, as a good L2 learner, they can adopt their own strategies and be aware of their weaknesses and strengths in order to minimize challenges that can be encountered in strategy use and reading anxiety.

5.3.2 Recommendations for Administrators

VLS and FLRA are related to some extent; the lack of adopting appropriate VLS may result in high levels of FLRA since reading comprehension can get affected by vocabulary knowledge. Thus, preparing appropriate programs and implementing them are of great importance, which should be considered. For instance, training on reading anxiety for teachers and EFL learners can be provided since understanding the scope and effect of FLRA on language learning is a must for

both sides. Similarly, workshops into vocabulary learning strategies and teaching can be given to language teachers for effective training on strategies. Language learners can be provided with trainings on the effective use of vocabulary learning strategies. As a result, both teachers and language learners can benefit them in learning process, which may lead to a better learning. The differences emerging as a result of demographic background can be decreased by implementing intensive trainings into language use. To illustrate, learners to be registered at Architecture and Engineering faculties can be provided with intensive training into VLS to balance superiority of Health Sciences, or more familiarity with reading and reading comprehension can be supported for the ones at Economy, Management and Social Sciences to balance predominance of Science and Letters faculties.

5.3.3 Recommendations for Further Research

The present study examined the relation between VLS and FLRA of EFL preparatory students besides the extent of VLS and the amount of FLRA. First of all, considering this is the first study investigating the relation between two variables, further research should be conducted to provide more variety and justify the efficacy of the results of the current study. Second, further studies might be implemented with different participant profiles from primary, middle, or high school learners. Third, experimental studies can be designed to provide a deeper understanding of the effects of various variables on VLS or FLRA. Finally, qualitative studies utilizing direct observation of actual strategy use among EFL learners may provide more realistic results regarding VLS use.

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Appendices**Appendix A****Consent Form for VLSQ****Appendix B****Consent Form for FLRAS**

Appendix C

Background Questionnaire

Türkiye’de İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenenlerin Kelime Öğrenme Stratejileri ile Yabancı Dilde Okuma Kaygıları Arasındaki İlişki

(The Relation between Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety among Turkish EFL Learners)

Değerli katılımcı,

Yüksek lisans tezim için Dr. Ferdane Denkci Akkaş danışmanlığında İstanbul Medeniyet Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi yüksek lisans programında bir çalışma yürütmekteyim.

Bu çalışma kapsamında, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen üniversite hazırlık öğrencilerinin kelime öğrenme stratejileri ile yabancı dilde okuma kaygısı arasındaki ilişkinin çeşitli etmenler açısından incelenmesi planlanmaktadır.

Sizden bu çalışmaya katılmanızı ve aşağıdaki anketi tamamlamanızı rica ediyoruz. Sizden kimliğinizi açığa çıkaran bir bilgi paylaşmanız beklenmemektedir. Anket sorularına vereceğiniz cevaplar anonim kalacak ve sadece bu araştırmanın amaçları ve yayınlanması için kullanılacaktır. Çalışmaya katılımınız gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır ve istediğiniz an çalışmadan ayrılma hakkınız mevcuttur.

Yanıtlayacağınız sorular, bir Arka Plan Anketi, Yabancı Dilde Kelime Öğrenme Stratejileri ve Yabancı Dilde Okuma Kaygısı olarak sıralanmıştır. Her soruyu içtenlikle cevaplamanız çok önemlidir. Anketi tamamlamanın 15-20 dakika süreceği tahmin edilmektedir.

Katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Cevaplarınız bu araştırma için değerlidir. Herhangi bir sorunuz veya endişeniz olması durumunda araştırmacı ile / adresinden iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

☐ Bu araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katıldığımı kabul ediyorum.

1. Bölüm: Arka Plan Anketi

1. Cinsiyetiniz

☐ Kadın

☐ Erkek

2. Mezun olduğunuz lise program türü

☐ Meslek Lisesi

☐ Mesleki ve Teknik Anadolu Lisesi

☐ Fen Lisesi

☐ Sosyal Bilimler Lisesi

☐ Anadolu Lisesi

☐ Güzel Sanatlar Lisesi

☐ Spor Lisesi

☐ İmam Hatip Lisesi

☐ Diğer: _____

3. Öğrenim gördüğünüz üniversite türü

☐ Özel Üniversite

☐ Devlet Üniversitesi

4. Bölümünüz: _____

5. Hazırlık okuma durumunuz:

☐ Zorunlu Hazırlık Programı

☐ İsteğe Bağlı Hazırlık Programı

6. Hazırlık programındaki mevcut kurunuz:

☐ A1

☐ A2

☐ B1-B1+

☐ B2

☐ C1 ve üzeri

7. İngilizce dışında başka bir yabancı dil biliyor/öğreniyor musunuz?

☐ Evet

☐ Hayır

8. Hiç yurtdışına çıktınız mı?

☐ Evet

☐ Hayır

9. Yüz yüze ya da internet üzerinden görüştüğünüz yabancı arkadaşlarınız var mı?

☐ Evet

☐ Hayır

10. Günde ortalama kaç saat İngilizce çalışıyorsunuz?

☐ 1 saatten az

☐ 1-2 Saat

☐ 3-4 Saat

☐ 5 saat ve üstü

11. Son bir yıl içinde okuduğunuz kitap sayısı: _____

12. Son girdiğiniz ara sınavdan aldığınız not: _____

Appendix D

Questionnaires of VLS and FLRA (Turkish)

2. Bölüm: Yabancı Dilde Kelime Öğrenme Stratejileri Ölçeği

Bu ölçek, yabancı dilde kelime öğrenme stratejilerinin kullanımı, sıklığı ve amacını ortaya çıkarmayı hedeflemektedir. Lütfen aşağıdaki soruları her zamanki strateji kullanımınıza göre cevaplayınız. Cevaplar öznel, soruların doğru veya yanlış cevabı bulunmamaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeyle ilgili düşüncenizi en iyi ifade eden seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

Soruları 1 = Bu Stratejiyi “hiç” kullanmam ve 5 = Bu stratejiyi “her zaman” kullanırım olmak üzere 1-5 arası puan vererek cevaplayınız.



Her ifadenin yanında bulunan puanları yanda bulunan açıklamaları doğrultusunda cevaplayınız. Soruların doğru veya yanlış cevabı bulunmamaktadır. Lütfen soruları kullandığınız stratejilere göre cevaplayınız.		Hiç	Nadiren	Bazen.	Genellikle	Her Zaman
Yeni bir kelimenin anlamını öğrenmek için ne yaparsınız?						
1	Kelimenin türüne bakarım (isim, sıfat, vb).	1	2	3	4	5
2	Anlamını çözebilmek için kelimenin öneki, köküne ve aldığı takıya bakarım. (örneğin; unaccepted, -un, - accept, -ed)	1	2	3	4	5
3	Aynı kökene sahip kelimeleri düşünürüm. (örneğin; television – televizyon).	1	2	3	4	5
4	Anlamını çözebilmek için resim veya kullanılan jest ve mimiklere bakarım.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Kelimenin anlamını bulunduğu içerikten tahmin ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
6	İngilizce-Türkçe sözlük kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7	İngilizce-İngilizce sözlük kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Kelime listeleri kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Kelime kartları kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Bir öğretmene kelimenin Türkçe anlamını sorarım.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Bir öğretmenden kelimeyi İngilizce başka sözcüklerle açıklamasını veya kelimenin İngilizcede eş anlamlısını söylemesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5

12	Bir öğretmenden yeni kelimeyi cümle içinde kullanmasını isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Sınıf arkadaşlarıma sorarım.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Anlamı bir grup aktivitesi içinde öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
Yeni öğrendiğiniz kelimeyi pekiştirmek için ne yaparsınız?						
15	Kelimeyi bir grup arkadaş ile çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Bir öğretmenden doğruluğuna bakmak için kelime kartlarımı veya kelime listelerimi kontrol etmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Kelimeyi ana dili İngilizce olan insanlar ile iletişime geçerek çalışırım	1	2	3	4	5
18	Kelimenin anlamını resimsel temsili ile birlikte çalışırım	1	2	3	4	5
19	Kelimenin anlamını aklımda resmederim.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Kelimeyi kişisel tecrübelerimden biriyle bağdaştırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Kelimeyi aynı konudaki başka kelimeler ile bağdaştırırım (örneğin; furniture, table, chair).	1	2	3	4	5
22	Kelimeyi eş ve zıt anlamlarıyla bağdaştırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Kavram haritaları kullanırım. (Birbirleriyle bağlantılı olan kelime ve kavramları gösteren diyagramlar).	1	2	3	4	5
24	Kelime sıfat ise anlamı için derecelendirmeler kullanırım (örneğin; burning-hot-warm-cool...)	1	2	3	4	5
25	Kelimeleri telaffuzu benzeyen sayılar veya harfler ile bağdaştırarak çalışırım. (one-fun, two-do, three-tree...)	1	2	3	4	5
26	Bir yer veya mekânı zihnimde canlandırırım. Kelimeyi ve kelimenin fiziksel temsilini bu yer veya mekândaki nesneler ile hayal ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Kelimelerin hepsini tek bir grupta toplayarak çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Kelimeleri bir sayfa üzerinde ayrı ayrı gruplandırarak çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Kelimeyi cümle içinde kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Kelimeleri bir hikâye içinde bir araya getiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
31	Kelimenin telaffuzunu çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
32	Kelimenin çıkardığı sesi çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
33	Kelimeyi sesli olarak okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
34	Kelimenin yazılı halini aklımda canlandırırım	1	2	3	4	5
35	Kelimenin ilk harfinin altını çizerim.	1	2	3	4	5
36	Kelimenin etrafına çizgiler çizerek dikdörtgen, daire, yuvarlak vb. içine alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
37	İngilizce bir kelimeyi telaffuz açısından Türkçede benzer bir kelime ile birlikte düşünürüm. Daha sonra bu iki kelimenin anlamları ile tek bir zihinsel imge oluştururum. Bu “bağlantılı imge” bana yeni İngilizce kelimenin anlamını hatırlatır (örneğin; black – bilek)	1	2	3	4	5
38	Kelimenin kökü, öneki ve aldığı takıları çalışırım	1	2	3	4	5
39	Kelimenin türünü çalışırım (isim, fiil, vb.)	1	2	3	4	5
40	Kelimenin anlamını farklı kelimeler ile açıklarım.	1	2	3	4	5
41	Farklı dillerdeki aynı kökene sahip olan ve anlam veya kelime yapısı açısından birbirine benzer kelimeleri çalışırım. (örneğin; television – televizyon).	1	2	3	4	5
42	Yeni kelimeleri bir deyim içinde birlikte ve aynı anda öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5

43	Kelimeyi fiziksel olarak ifade ederim (örneğin; „throw“ kelimesini çalışırken top atma hareketi yapmak).	1	2	3	4	5
44	Birbirine benzer kelimeleri anlam ve eşdizimleri (birlikte kullanıldıkları kelimeler; örneğin, take an exam, take a break, take a bus...) açısından farklılıklarını karşılaştıran bir tablo çizerim.	1	2	3	4	5
45	Kelimeyi kendi kendime sözlü olarak tekrar ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
46	Kelimeyi birçok kez yazarak çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
47	Yeni kelimeleri çalışmak için kelime listeleri kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
48	Yeni kelimeleri çalışmak için kelime kartları kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
49	Kelime hakkında notlar alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
50	Ders kitabımın kelime bölümünü kullanırım	1	2	3	4	5
51	Kelime listelerinin ses kayıtlarını dinlerim	1	2	3	4	5
52	Nesnelerin üzerine İngilizce kelimelerini gösteren etiketler yapıştırırım	1	2	3	4	5
53	Kelime defteri tutarım.	1	2	3	4	5
54	İngilizce haber yayınları, film, müzik vb. ile kelimeleri çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
55	Kendimi kelime listeleri ile test ederim	1	2	3	4	5
56	Kelimeyi öğrendikten sonra belli aralıklarla tekrar etmek için bir program ayarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
57	Kelimeyi atlarım ya da es geçerim.	1	2	3	4	5
58	Kelimeyi zaman içinde öğrenmeye devam ederim.	1	2	3	4	5

3. Bölüm: Yabancı Dil Okuma Kaygısı Ölçeği

Bu ölçek İngilizce hazırlık öğrencilerinin yabancı dilde okuma kaygı düzeylerini ölçmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Soruların doğru veya yanlış cevabı bulunmamaktadır, cevaplar bireysel ve öznel olarak verilmelidir. Lütfen kendinize en uygun seçeneği 1 (**hiçbir zaman**) ve 5(**her zaman**) arasında bulunan bir puan olmak üzere seçiniz.

Her soruyu yan kısımda açıklanan puan tablosuna göre cevaplayınız. Soruların doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Lütfen okuma kaygısı sorularını kendi düşüncelerinize göre puanlayınız.		Hiç	Nadiren	Bazen.	Genellikle	Her Zaman
1	İngilizce okuduğum bir parçayı anlayıp anlamadığımı düşünmek beni endişelendiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
2	İngilizce bir şey okurken parçadaki kelimeleri biliyorum ama yine de yazarın ne dediğini anlayamıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3	İngilizce bir şey okurken kafam öyle karışıyor ki ben ne okuyordum diye düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Önümde koca bir sayfa İngilizce yazı görmek beni ürkütüyor.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Bilmediğim bir konuda İngilizce yazı görmek beni endişelendiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
6	İngilizce okurken bilmediğim gramer yapıları ile karşılaşınca endişeleniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

7	İngilizce okurken her bir kelimeyi anlayamadığım zaman hem kafam karışıyor hem de sinirleniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8	İngilizce okurken telaffuz edemediğim kelimelerle karşılaşmak beni endişelendiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
9	İngilizce bir şey okurken bakıyorum kelime <u>kelime</u> Türkçe' ye çevirmeye başlamışım.	1	2	3	4	5
10	İngilizce' deki harfleri ve sembolleri anlamaya çalışırken ne okuduğumu unutuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11	İngilizce okumak için öğrenmek zorunda olduğum bir sürü yeni sembol beni endişelendiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Ben İngilizce okumayı seviyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
13	İngilizce okurken kendime güveniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Bir kere alıştıktan sonra İngilizce okumak o kadar da zor değil.	1	2	3	4	5
15	İngilizce öğrenmenin en zor yanı okumayı öğrenmek.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Kendi kendime okurken sorun yok ama sesli İngilizce okumak zorunda olmak çok rahatsız edici bir durum.	1	2	3	4	5
17	İngilizce okuma seviyemden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
18	İngilizce okuyabilmek için İngiliz/Amerikan tarihi ve kültüründen haberdar olmak gerekiyor.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix E

Ethics Committee Approval

Appendix F

Detailed Mean Score Results for VLS (English)

	Determination Strategies	Mean
1	I check the part-of-speech (noun, verb, etc.).	2.99
2	I check prefixes, suffixes, and word roots to discover meaning (e.g., unaccepted, -un,-accept, -ed).	3.46
3	I think about cognate words (words in different languages which come from the same “parent” word and may have a similar meaning and form. e.g., television – televizyon).	3.95
4	I look at pictures or gestures to understand meaning.	3.65
5	I guess the meaning from the context.	3.90
6	I use an English-Turkish dictionary.	4.00
7	I use an English dictionary.	2.88
8	I use word lists	3.26
9	I use flashcards.	2.20

Social Strategies (Discovery)		Mean
1	I ask a teacher for a Turkish translation.	3.42
2	I ask a teacher for a paraphrase or synonym.	3.30
3	I ask a teacher for a sentence using the new word.	3.08
4	I ask my classmates.	3.45
5	I learn the meaning in group work.	2.89

Social Strategies (Consolidation)		Mean
1	I study the word with a group of students.	2.33
2	I ask a teacher to check my word lists and flash cards for correctness.	2.15
3	I study the word by interacting with native-speakers.	2.12

	Memory Strategies	Mean
1	I study the word with a pictorial representation of its meaning.	2.60
2	I imagine the word's meaning	3.51
3	I connect the word to a personal experience.	3.66
4	I associate the word with its coordinates (e.g., fruit = pears, cherries, peaches...)	3.60
5	I connect the word to its synonyms (e.g., irritated – annoyed) and antonyms (e.g., dead – alive).	3.31
6	I use semantic maps (i.e., diagrams that show the words and phrases which are connected to each other).	2.50
7	I use scales for gradable adjectives (e.g., burning-hot-warm-cool...)	2.79
8	I memorize the words by relating with numbers or letters that have similar pronunciation. (e.g., one-fun, two-do, three-tree...)	2.18
9	I picture a place or location in my mind, and then I attribute the word and its physical representation to the things in this place.	3.11
10	I group the words together to study them.	2.64
11	I group the words together spatially on a page.	2.68
12	I use the new word in a sentence.	3.58

13	I group the words together within a storyline.	2.51
14	I study the spelling of the word.	3.80
15	I study the sound of the word.	3.37
16	I say the new word aloud.	4.03
17	I imagine the word form.	3.95
18	I underline the initial letter of the word.	1.63
19	I draw a line around the word.	2.89
20	I think of a Turkish word that sounds similar to the new English word. Then make a single mental image of the meanings of Turkish and English words. This “linking image” reminds me of the new English word’s meaning. (e.g. black – bilek).	2.47
21	I study the word’s root, prefixes and suffixes.	2.82
22	I study the word’s part-of-speech (noun, verb, etc.).	3.11
23	I paraphrase the meaning of the new word.	3.16
24	I study the cognate words (words in different languages which come from the same “parent” word and may have a similar meaning and form. e.g., television – televizyon).	3.20
25	I learn the new words in an idiom together at the same time.	2.42
26	I use physical action when studying words (do throwing action when studying the word “throw”)	2.78
27	I create a grid to match the meaning or collocation (e.g., take an exam, take a break, take a bus etc.) differences of similar words.	2.70

Cognitive Strategies		Mean
1	I repeat the word to myself.	3.87
2	I write the word many times.	3.18
3	I use word lists to study new words.	3.37
4	I use flash cards to study new words	2.40
5	I take notes about the new words	3.31
6	I use the vocabulary section of my textbook.	3.38
7	I listen to the tape of word lists.	2.37
8	I put English labels on physical objects.	2.04
9	I keep a vocabulary notebook.	3.58

Metacognitive Strategies		Mean
1	I use English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc.) to study the words.	3.68
2	I test myself with word tests	3.10
3	I develop a schedule to review the words at various intervals.	2.61
4	I skip or pass the new word	2.40
5	I continue to study the word over time	3.61

Appendix G

Detailed Mean Score Results for VLS (Turkish)

Belirleme Stratejileri		Mean
1	Kelimenin türüne bakarım (isim, sıfat, vb).	2.99
2	Anlamını çözebilmek için kelimenin önekinde, köküne ve aldığı takıya bakarım (örneğin; unaccepted, -un, -accept, -ed).	3.46
3	Aynı kökene sahip kelimeleri düşünürüm. (örneğin; television – televizyon).	3.95
4	Anlamını çözebilmek için resim veya kullanılan jest ve mimiklere bakarım.	3.65
5	Kelimenin anlamını bulunduğu içerikten tahmin ederim.	3.90
6	İngilizce-Türkçe sözlük kullanırım.	4.00
7	İngilizce-İngilizce sözlük kullanırım.	2.88
8	Kelime listeleri kullanırım.	3.26
9	Kelime kartları kullanırım.	2.20
Sosyal Stratejiler (Keşfetme)		Mean
1	Bir öğretmene kelimenin Türkçe anlamını sorarım.	3.42
2	Bir öğretmenden kelimeyi İngilizce başka sözcüklerle açıklamasını veya kelimenin İngilizcede eş anlamlısını söylemesini isterim.	3.30
3	Bir öğretmenden yeni kelimeyi cümle içinde kullanmasını isterim.	3.08
4	Sınıf arkadaşlarıma sorarım.	3.45
5	Anlamı bir grup aktivitesi içinde öğrenirim.	2.89
Sosyal Stratejiler (Pekiştirme)		Mean
1	Kelimeyi bir grup arkadaş ile çalışırım.	2.33
2	Bir öğretmenden doğruluğuna bakmak için kelime kartlarımı veya kelime listelerimi kontrol etmesini isterim.	2.15
3	Kelimeyi ana dili İngilizce olan insanlar ile iletişime geçerek çalışırım.	2.12

	Bellek Stratejileri	Mean
1	Kelimenin anlamını resimsel temsili <u>ile birlikte</u> çalışırım.	2.60
2	Kelimenin anlamını aklımda resmederim.	3.51
3	Kelimeyi kişisel tecrübelerimden biriyle bağdaştırırım.	3.66
4	Kelimeyi aynı konudaki başka kelimeler ile bağdaştırırım (örneğin; furniture, table, chair).	3.60
5	Kelimeyi eş ve zıt anlamlarıyla bağdaştırırım.	3.31
6	Kavram haritaları kullanırım (Birbirleriyle bağlantılı olan kelime ve kavramları gösteren diyagramlar).	2.50
7	Kelime sıfat ise anlamı için derecelendirmeler kullanırım (örneğin; burning-hot-warm-cool).	2.79
8	Kelimeleri telaffuzu benzeyen sayılar veya harfler ile bağdaştırarak çalışırım (one-fun, two-do, three-tree).	2.18
9	Bir yer veya mekânı zihnimde canlandırırım. Kelimeyi ve kelimenin fiziksel temsilini bu yer veya mekândaki nesneler ile hayal ederim.	3.11
10	Kelimelerin hepsini tek bir grupta toplayarak çalışırım.	2.64
11	Kelimeleri bir sayfa üzerinde ayrı ayrı gruplandırarak çalışırım.	2.68
12	Kelimeyi cümle içinde kullanırım.	3.58
13	Kelimeleri bir hikâye içinde bir araya getiririm.	2.51
14	Kelimenin telaffuzunu çalışırım.	3.80
15	Kelimenin çıkardığı sesi çalışırım.	3.37

16	Kelimeyi sesli olarak okurum.	4.03
17	Kelimenin yazılı halini aklımda canlandırım.	3.95
18	Kelimenin ilk harfinin altını çizerim.	1.63
19	Kelimenin etrafına çizgiler çizerek dikdörtgen, daire, yuvarlak vb. içine alırım.	2.89
20	İngilizce bir kelimeyi telaffuz açısından Türkçede benzer bir kelime ile birlikte düşünürüm. Daha sonra bu iki kelimenin anlamları ile tek bir zihinsel imge oluştururum. Bu “bağlantılı imge” bana yeni İngilizce kelimenin anlamını hatırlatır (örneğin; black – bilek).	2.47
21	Kelimenin köktü, öneki ve aldığı takıları çalışırım.	2.82
22	Kelimenin türünü çalışırım (isim, fiil, vb.).	3.11
23	Kelimenin anlamını farklı kelimeler ile açıklarım.	3.16
24	Farklı dillerdeki aynı kökene sahip olan ve anlam veya kelime yapısı açısından birbirine benzer kelimeleri çalışırım (örneğin; television – televizyon).	3.20
25	Yeni kelimeleri bir deyim içinde birlikte ve aynı anda öğrenirim.	2.42
26	Kelimeyi fiziksel olarak ifade ederim (örneğin; "throw" kelimesini çalışırken top atma hareketi yapmak).	2.78
27	Birbirine benzer kelimeleri anlam ve eş dizimleri (birlikte kullanıldıkları kelimeler; örneğin, take an exam, take a break, take a bus) açısından farklılıklarını karşılaştıran bir tablo çizerim.	2.70

	Bilişsel Stratejiler	Mean
1	Kelimeyi kendi kendime sözlü olarak tekrar ederim.	3.87
2	Kelimeyi birçok kez yazarak çalışırım.	3.18
3	Yeni kelimeleri çalışmak için kelime listeleri kullanırım.	3.37
4	Yeni kelimeleri çalışmak için kelime kartları kullanırım.	2.40
5	Kelime hakkında notlar alırım.	3.31
6	Ders kitabımın kelime bölümünü kullanırım.	3.38
7	Kelime listelerinin ses kayıtlarını dinlerim.	2.37
8	Nesnelerin üzerine İngilizce kelimelerini gösteren etiketler yapıştırırım.	2.04
9	Kelime defteri tutarım.	3.58

	Üst-bilişsel Stratejiler	Mean
1	İngilizce haber yayınları, film, müzik vb. ile kelimeleri çalışırım.	3.68
2	Kendimi kelime listeleri ile test ederim.	3.10
3	Kelimeyi öğrendikten sonra belli aralıklarla tekrar etmek için bir program ayarlarım.	2.61
4	Kelimeyi atlarım ya da es geçerim.	2.40
5	Kelimeyi zaman içinde öğrenmeye devam ederim.	3.61



Appendix H

Detailed Mean Score Results for FLRA (Turkish)

	FLRA	Mean
1	İngilizce okuduğum bir parçayı anlayıp anlamadığımı düşünmek beni endişelendiriyor.	3,540
2	İngilizce bir şey okurken parçadaki kelimeleri biliyorum ama yine de yazarın ne dediğini anlayamıyorum.	2,926
3	İngilizce bir şey okurken kafam öyle karışıyor ki ben ne okuyordum diye düşünüyorum.	2,926
4	Önümde koca bir sayfa İngilizce yazı görmek beni ürkütüyor.	3,040
5	Bilmediğim bir konuda İngilizce yazı görmek beni endişelendiriyor.	3,292
6	İngilizce okurken bilmediğim gramer yapıları ile karşılaşınca endişeleniyorum.	3,114
7	İngilizce okurken her bir kelimeyi anlayamadığım zaman hem kafam karışıyor hem de sinirleniyorum.	3,257
8	İngilizce okurken telaffuz edemediğim kelimelerle karşılaşmak beni endişelendiriyor.	2,881
9	İngilizce bir şey okurken bakıyorum kelime kelime Türkçe'ye çevirmeye başlamışım.	2,985
10	İngilizce'deki harfleri ve sembolleri anlamaya çalışırken ne okuduğumu unutuyorum.	2,510
11	İngilizce okumak için öğrenmek zorunda olduğum bir sürü yeni sembol beni endişelendiriyor.	2,525
12	Ben İngilizce okumayı seviyorum.	2,248
13	İngilizce okurken kendime güveniyorum.	2,649
14	Bir kere alıştıktan sonra İngilizce okumak o kadar da zor değil.	2,213
15	İngilizce öğrenmenin en zor yanı okumayı öğrenmek.	2,475
16	Kendi kendime okurken sorun yok ama sesli İngilizce okumak zorunda olmak çok rahatsız edici bir durum.	2,797
17	İngilizce okuma seviyemden memnunum.	2,802
18	İngilizce okuyabilmek için İngiliz/Amerikan tarihi ve kültüründen haberdar olmak gerekiyor.	3,500

Appendix I

Detailed Mean Score Results for FLRA (English)

	FLRA	Mean
1	I get upset when I am not sure whether I understand what I am reading in English.	3,540
2	When reading English, I often understand the words but still can't quite understand what the author is saying.	2,926
3	When I am reading English, I get so confused I can't remember what I am reading	2,926
4	I feel intimidated whenever I see a whole page of English in front of me.	3,040
5	I am nervous when I am reading a passage in English when I am not familiar with the topic.	3,292
6	I get upset whenever I encounter unknown grammar when reading English	3,114
7	When reading English, I get nervous and confused when I don't understand every word.	3,257
8	It bothers me to encounter words I can't pronounce while reading English	2,881
9	I usually end up translating word by word when I am reading English.	2,985
10	By the time you get past the funny letters and symbols in English, it's hard to remember what you are reading about.	2,510
11	I am worried about all the new symbols you have to learn in order to read English.	2,525
12	I enjoy reading English.	2,248

13	I feel confident when I am reading in English.	2,649
14	Once you get used to it, reading English is not so difficult.	2,213
15	The hardest part of learning English is learning to read.	2,475
16	I don't mind reading to myself, but I feel very uncomfortable when I have to read English aloud	2,797
17	I am satisfied with the level of reading ability in English that I have achieved so far.	2,802
18	You have to know so much about English history and culture in order to read English	3,500



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