

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN  
LEARNING STYLES AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES  
OF PRE-INTERMEDIATE EAP STUDENTS**

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OF PRE-INTERMEDIATE EAP STUDENTS

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Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

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**ABSTRACT**

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN**

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**OF PRE-INTERMEDIATE EAP STUDENTS**

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**M. A., Program in English Language Teaching**

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This thesis aims to identify the learning styles and strategies of students, to check whether there are significant differences in the learning style and strategy preferences between male and female learners, and investigate whether there is a relationship between students' learning style and strategy preferences. A total of 60 students were asked to complete two questionnaires. One was used to identify students' perceptual learning style preferences and the other was used to identify students' learning strategies. In addition, think aloud protocols were held to determine the cognitive and metacognitive strategies students used while reading.

The data analysis of the first questionnaire revealed that students' major learning style preferences were auditory learning and individual learning. Furthermore, significant difference was found in the preference of tactile learning between males and females. The analysis of the second questionnaire revealed that cognitive strategies were favoured the most. No significant difference was found in the preferences of learning strategies between males and females. The analysis with respect to the relationship between learning styles and strategies revealed that

- visual styles had a significant relation with affective strategies;
- auditory styles had significant relationships with memory, cognitive, affective, and social strategies;
- there was a significant relationship between the individual learning style and compensation strategies.
- none of the learning styles had a significant relationship with metacognitive strategies.

The think aloud protocols revealed that students used various cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

Key words: language learning strategies, learning styles, auditory learner, visual learner, tactile learner, kinaesthetic learner, group learning, individual learning.

## **ÖZ**

# **ORTA DÜZEY ÖNCESİ AKADEMİK AMAÇLARLA İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENEN ÖĞRENCİLERİN ÖĞRENME STİLLERİ TERCİHLERİ VE DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ**

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Bu çalışmanın amacı öğrencilerin algısal öğrenme stillerini ve dil öğrenme stratejilerini saptamak, algısal öğrenme stilleri ve dil öğrenme stratejileri tercihleri bakımından kızlar ve erkekler arasında önemli farklar olup olmadığını saptamak ve algısal öğrenme stilleri ve dil öğrenme stratejileri arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla 60 öğrenciden iki tane anketi cevaplandırmaları istenmiştir. Bu anketlerden birincisi öğrencilerin öğrenme stillerini diğeri ise öğrenme stratejilerini saptamak amacıyla kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin okurken hangi bilişsel ve biliş ötesi stratejileri kullandıklarını görmek amacıyla sesli düşünme oturumları düzenlendi.

Birinci anketin verileri incelendiğinde, öğrencilerin asıl öğrenme stillerinin işitsel öğrenme ve bireysel öğrenme olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca dokunsal öğrenmenin tercihi bakımından kızlar ve erkekler arasında fark bulunmuştur. İkinci anketin sonuçları incelendiğinde en çok tercih edilen strateji kategorisinin zihinsel stratejiler olduğu belirlenmiştir. Sonuçlar ayrıca kızlar ve erkekler arasında strateji tercihleri bakımından fark olmadığını göstermiştir. Öğrenme stillerinin ve dil öğrenme stratejilerinin arasındaki ilişki incelendiğinde aşağıdaki bulgular elde edilmiştir:

- Görsel öğrenme stilleri ve duyuşsal öğrenme stratejileri arasında önemli bir ilişki olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır.
- İşitsel öğrenme stilleri ve zihin, bilişsel, duyuşsal ve sosyal stratejiler arasında bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür.
- Bireysel öğrenme stillerinin ve kompanse etme stratejilerinin arasında önemli bir ilişki olduğu görülmüştür.
- hiçbir öğrenme stilinin biliş ötesi stratejileri ile arasında ilişki yoktur.

Sesli düşünme oturumları sonuçları öğrencilerin pek çok değişik bilişsel ve biliş ötesi stratejiler kullandıklarını göstermiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: dil öğrenme stratejileri, öğrenme stilleri, işitsel öğrenci, görsel öğrenci, dokunsal öğrenci, devinsel öğrenci, grupla öğrenen öğrenci ve bireysel öğrenen öğrenci.

To my family and to my prospective husband . . .



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# **CHAPTER I**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Presentation**

This chapter presents the background to the study followed by the purpose and the significance of the study. Next, the research questions are stated and the limitations to the study are presented along with the definitions of terms.

### **1.2 Background to the Study**

During the last couple of decades the world has been concerned with cultural, social, political and technological changes. In order to keep up with those changes, people have had to meet the needs created by all these changes. Language learning is one of the most important needs and it has become an essential component in people's lives. Because of numerous reasons such as studying at an English medium university or living in a foreign country, people all over the world are trying to learn a second, even a third language.

From the early 1970s on some researchers in the field have been trying to find out teaching methods, classroom techniques, and instructional materials that will promote better language instruction. However, in spite of all these efforts there has been a growing concern that learners have not progressed as much as it was



anticipated. Because there are considerable individual differences in language learning such as gender, age, social status, motivation, attitude, aptitude, culture, etc.; what works for one learner might not work for another. Therefore, none of the methods and techniques has proved that they can work all the time, in all classes, with all students. As a result, it might be appropriate to comply with Grenfell and Harris' (1999) statement that "Methodology alone can never be a solution to language learning. Rather it is an aid and suggestion" (p. 10).

Having reached this conclusion some other people in the field changed the focus from the language teaching methodology to the language learner and the variables that affect language learning. This shift of the focal point has led to an increase in the number of studies carried out regarding learner characteristics and foreign or second language learning. Language Learning Strategies (LLS) have been one of the most popular aspects researchers have focused on. However, they have not been investigated on their own. Some other variables that affect them such as gender, achievement, motivation, career orientation, national origin, aptitude, learning styles, etc. have also been taken into consideration while doing research in order to reveal whether there is any relationship between the LLS choice and variables.

Oxford (1989) offers a synthesis of the studies carried out regarding the LLS and the variables that affect strategy choice. She presents the results of studies carried out with respects to LLS choice and language being learned, duration, degree of awareness, age, and sex, affective variables such as attitudes, motivational level, personality characteristics, and general personality type. Learning styles is another variable but Oxford asserts that "little research has been dedicated to the relationship between learning strategy use and learning style" (p. 241). Furthermore, among the numerous recommendations resulting from the survey Willing (1988) conducted with

respect to the learning styles in adult migrant education, a similar recommendation was proposed.

It is hoped that classroom practice will become geared to the developing of good and appropriate learning strategies (to a much greater degree than at present). This means:

- a) Exploration of strategies which learners are already making use of, which derive from their previous education and their own cognitive individuality; this exploration can be done through questionnaire and discussion.
- b) Exploration of the relation between individual learning style and the person's existing strategies.

(Willing, 1988, p. 172)

Therefore, this study aims at investigating the individual learning style preferences of learners, the language learning strategies they prefer to use, and to investigate whether a relationship between language learning strategies and learning styles exists.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to investigate both the individual learning style preferences of learners and the language learning strategies they prefer to use, and to reveal whether there is a relationship between language learning strategies and learning styles of students studying English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at the School of Foreign Languages and Informatics at the University of Bahçeşehir. In addition to these, this study aims at finding out whether there are significant differences in the perceptual learning style and language learning strategy preferences between male and female students.

## **1.4 Research Questions**

In this study the research questions are stated as follows:

1. What are the major, minor, and negligible perceptual modality preferences of the students – audio, visual, kinaesthetic, tactile, group learning, and individual learning of the participants?
2. Is there a difference in the perceptual modality preferences of the students based on their gender?
3. What are the language learning strategies used by students
  - a) as reported in the *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning*?
  - b) as suggested in the Think Aloud Protocols?
4. Is there a difference in the language learning strategy preferences of the students based on their gender?
5. Is there a relationship between students' learning style and the language learning strategy preferences?

## **1.5 Significance of the Study**

This study hopes to contribute to a comprehension of the relationship between learning styles and language learning strategies. Though limited in number, the studies conducted with respect to the topic under discussion in the current study show that there is a strong relationship between an individual's learning styles and language learning strategies.

This study might prove useful to both language teachers and learners because it might raise teachers' awareness concerning their own learning and teaching styles. It is known that most teachers tend to teach in the way they were taught or in the way

they preferred to learn. Sometimes conflicts might arise because of a mismatch between the teacher's teaching style and learner's learning styles, which might have negative consequences both on the part of the learner and teacher. For this reason, as Stebbins (1995) asserts teachers should know the general learning style profiles of the whole class, which will enable them to organise and employ instructional materials accordingly.

Raising students' awareness regarding their learning styles and strategies might make them not only more prepared for learning but also more analytic about their learning styles and the strategies they make use of. Reid (1995) states that developing an understanding of learning environments and styles "will enable students to take control of their learning and to maximise their potential for learning" (p. xiv).

This study might also prove useful to the curriculum developers and material producers. Because teachers need to have enough time in the curriculum dedicated to both the identification of learners' learning styles and strategies and learner training activities, curriculum developers will be able to allocate sufficient time for the training sessions. Similarly, knowing students' general preference tendencies might enable material developers to produce materials that both match students' learning styles and help them manipulate beneficial strategies. In other words, teachers may have enough time not only to identify their students' styles and strategies, they might become capable of integrating appropriate materials and activities that match the learners' learning styles and they can have better opportunities to assess and guide the learners with respect to learning strategies manipulated in various situations thanks to the curriculum and material developers. The conclusion which Kinsella (1995) reaches in her article is also valid for this study. She suggests that teachers

should go far beyond the instructional modifications in their efforts “to create democratic learning environments”; they should also pursue and cooperate with other colleagues to provide practices that will aid learners find out the obstacles which limit their potentials in school and society, and they should equip all of the unique students in their classes with the knowledge and strategies to take the appropriate actions against the things which restrict them.

### **1.6 Limitations of the Study**

The first limitation of this study was that it was restricted to the pre-intermediate level students learning English for Academic Purposes. However, the results might be applicable to the other pre intermediate level students at other EAP environments.

Another limitation of the study was that individual characteristics of students, except gender were not taken into account while identifying and analysing their learning styles and strategies.

### **1.7 Definitions of Terms**

#### Language Learning Strategies

“Learning Strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

### Learning Styles

Dunn and Dunn (1979 as cited in Reid 1987) define learning styles as “a term that describes the variations among learners in using one or more senses to understand, organize, and retain experience” (p. 89).

### Auditory Learners

Auditory learners are “students who enjoy the oral-aural learning channel. Thus they want to engage in discussions, conversations, and group work. These students typically require only oral directions” (Oxford, 1995, p. 36).

### Visual Learners

Visual learners are learners who “prefer to learn via the visual channel. Therefore they like to read a lot, which requires concentration and time spent alone. Visual students need the visual stimulation of bulletin boards, videos and movies. They must have written directions if they are to function well in the classroom” (Oxford, 1995, p. 35).

### Tactile Learners

Tactile learning “suggests learning with one’s hands through manipulation or resources, such as writing, drawing, building a model, or conducting a lab experiment” (Kinsella, 1995, p. 172).

### Kinaesthetic Learners

Kinaesthetic learning “implies total physical involvement with a learning environment such as taking a field trip, dramatizing, pantomiming, or interviewing” (Kinsella, 1995, p. 172).

### Group Learners

A group learner is the one who “learns more effectively through working with others” (Reid, 1995, p. x).

### Individual Learners

An individual learner is someone who “learns more effectively through working alone” (Reid, 1995, p. x).

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 Presentation**

This chapter consists of two parts. The first part starts with the definition of learning styles and it deals with the various dimensions of learning styles. Then, literature pertinent to learning styles is presented.

The second part starts with the definition of language learning strategies and draws a distinction between learning strategies and styles. Then, relevant aspects of literature on learning strategies, classification of learning strategies proposed by different scholars, and various methods for data collection with respect to LLS are presented.

#### **2.2 Definition of Learning Style**

As it was the case with language learning strategies, the definition of learning styles is also a major concern among the scholars in the field. Dunn and Dunn (1979, as cited in Reid, 1987) define learning styles as “a term that describes the variations among learners in using one or more senses to understand, organize, and retain experience” (p. 89). Claxton and Ralston (1978) define the term as referring to a learner’s “consistent way of responding and using stimuli in the context of learning”



(p. 7). Similarly, for Keefe (1979) learning styles are “cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment” (p.4). Dun et al (1989 as cited in Clenton, 2002) assert that learning styles include variables such as “individual responses to sound, light, temperature, design, perception, intake, chronobiological highs and lows, mobility needs, and persistence, ...motivation, responsibility (conformity) and need for structure...” (p. 56).

As it can be seen the definitions provided above vary in terms of scope and depth. The definition provided by Keefe (1979) besides taking into account the difference between learning styles and cognitive styles, it also includes the three dimensions of behaviour: cognitive, affective, and physiological. The last definition, particularly, is the broadest and deepest since it seems to be composed of environmental (light, sound, temperature), emotional (motivation, responsibility, persistence) and sociological (pairs, groups) stimuli. The involvement of such wide repertoire of dimensions while defining learning styles leads to confusion because it is difficult to control and focus on all of them at the same time. Therefore, in this study, the definition provided by Dunn and Dunn (1979, as cited in Reid, 1987) will be taken as a basis.

### **2.3 Fundamentals of Learning Styles**

Reid (1995) asserts that learning styles have some fundamental characteristics, on which they are based. These are:

- every person, student and teacher alike, has a learning style and learning strengths and weaknesses;
- learning styles exist on wide continuums; although they are described as opposites;

- learning styles are value-neutral; that is, no one style is better than others (although clearly some students with some learning styles function better in a US school system that values some learning styles over others);
- students must be encouraged to “stretch” their learning styles so that they will be more empowered in a variety of learning situations;
- often, students’ strategies are linked to their learning styles;
- teachers should allow their students to become aware of their learning strengths and weaknesses.

(Reid, 1995, p. xiii)

## 2.4 Learning Style Dimensions

As it was mentioned earlier nearly twenty different dimensions of learning styles have been identified so far. Table 1 provides a summary of the various dimensions identified so far together with their brief definitions. When the table is analysed carefully, it can be seen that though some of the dimensions are given separately, they actually overlap. An example of such an overlap is the field independent – field dependent versus analytic and global learning styles.

**Table 1:** Overview of Some Learning Styles (Reid, 1998, p. x).

	<b><u>The Seven Multiple Intelligences</u></b>
Verbal/Linguistic	Ability with and sensitivity to oral and written words
Musical	Sensitivity to rhythm, pitch, and melody
Logical/Mathematical	Ability to use numbers effectively and to reason well
Spatial/Visual	Sensitivity to form, space, colour, line, and shape
Bodily/Kinaesthetic	Ability to use the body to express ideas and feelings
Interpersonal	Ability to understand another person’s moods and intentions
Intrapersonal	Ability to understand oneself: one’s own strengths and weaknesses
	<b><u>Perceptual Learning Styles</u></b>
Visual	Learns more effectively through the eyes (seeing)

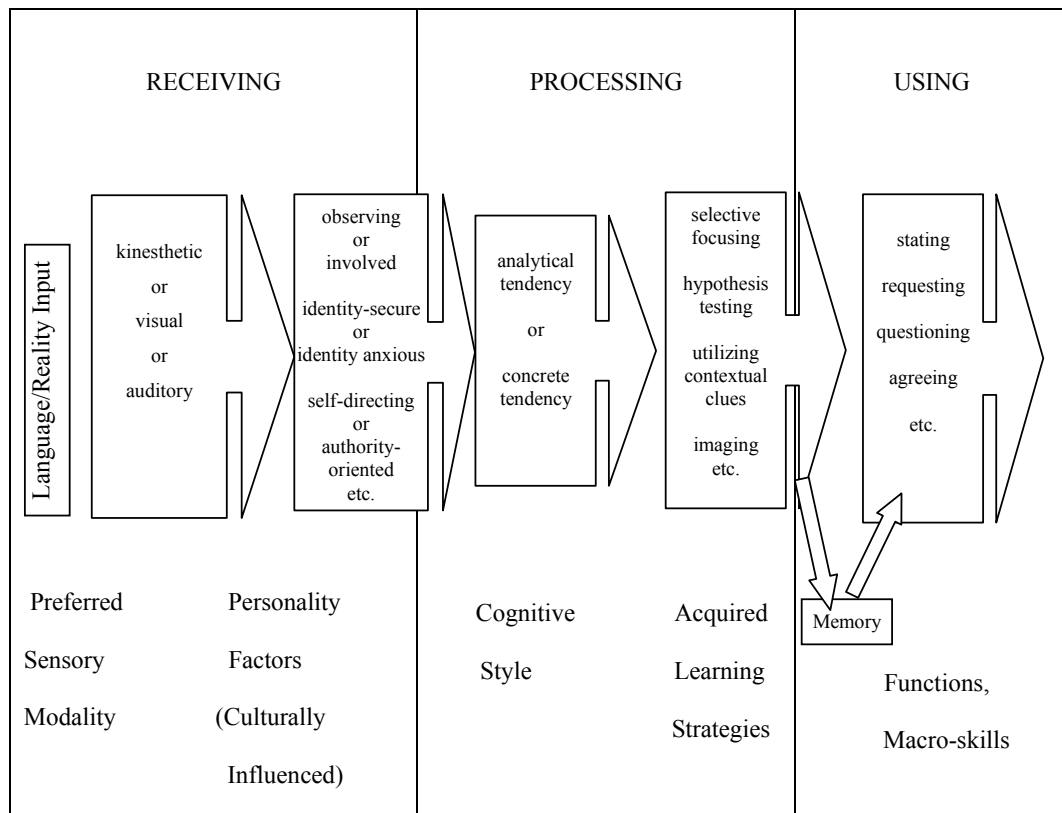
Auditory	Learns more effectively through the ear (hearing)
Tactile	Learns more effectively through touch (hands-on)
Kinaesthetic	Learns more effectively through complete body experience
Group	Learns more effectively through working with others
Individual	Learns more effectively through working alone
Field Independent Field Dependent	<p><b><u>Field Independent and Field Dependent (Sensitive) Learning Styles</u></b></p> <p>Learns more effectively sequentially, analysing facts</p> <p>Learns more effectively in context (holistically) and is sensitive to human relationships</p>
Analytic Global	<p><b><u>Analytic and Global Learning Styles</u></b></p> <p>Learns more effectively individually, sequentially, linearly</p> <p>Learns more effectively through concrete experience and through interaction with other people</p>
Reflective Impulsive	<p><b><u>Reflective and Impulsive Learning Styles</u></b></p> <p>Learns more effectively when given time to consider options</p> <p>Learns more effectively when able to respond immediately</p>
Converger Diverger Assimilator Accommodator	<p><b><u>Kolb Experiential Learning Model</u></b></p> <p>Learns more effectively when able to perceive abstractly and to process actively</p> <p>Learns more effectively when able to perceive concretely and to process reflectively</p> <p>Learns more effectively when able to perceive abstractly and to process reflectively</p> <p>Learns more effectively when able to perceive concretely and to process actively</p>
Extraverted Introverted	<p><b><u>Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)</u></b></p> <p>Learns more effectively through concrete experience, contacts with and relationships with others</p> <p>Learns more effectively in individual, independent learning situations</p>

Sensing	Learns more effectively from reports of observable facts
Intuition	Learns more effectively from meaningful experiences
Thinking	Learns more effectively from impersonal and logical circumstances
Feeling	Learns more effectively from personalised circumstances
Judging	Learns more effectively by reflection, deduction, analysis, and process that involve closure
Perceiving	Learns more effectively through negotiation, feeling, and inductive processes that postpone closure
	<b><u>Right – and Left brained Learning Styles</u></b>
Right-Brained	Learns more effectively through visual analytic, reflective, self-reliant learning
Left-Brained	Learns more effectively through auditory, global, impulsive, interactive learning

The scope and depth of learning styles vary because it seems impossible to limit a person's learning style only with a certain dimension, that is, it cannot be said that a person is only visual, audio or kinaesthetic. Ehrman and Oxford (1995) assert "Naturally, not everyone fits neatly into one or another of these categories to the exclusion of the other, parallel categories (e.g. visual, auditory, kinaesthetic)" (p. 69). This view is also supported by Willing (1988) who asserts that "At any period in the history of methodological fashions, there is usually the covert assumption of one particular learning style as basic. [However,] what makes the current interest in learning styles new is that several different ways of learning are now held to be equally valid" (p. 6). Kroonenberg (1995) adds another point why there is so much interest in learning styles currently by stating that all students ought to be given extensive opportunities to learn through their preferred style, but "they also need to

open the idea of ‘style flex’ – that is students should be encouraged to diversify their style preferences” (p. 80).

Willing (1988) provides a diagram of the basic structure of the suppositions that underlie the representation of learning styles (see Figure I). As it can be seen, the diagram consists of the three phases of the learning context: perceiving, processing, and using. The very first stage is the “receiving” phase, when the language input is received through all the senses, that is, through kinaesthetic, visual, auditory or tactile sensory preferences. What the diagram emphasizes is that the reception of information will be accomplished through the sensory modality that is more relied on in a person’s general learning behaviour.



**Figure I:** Psychological Model of Language Learning Style Differences (Willing, 1988, p. 59)

Personality variables such as involved-observing, identity secure and identity insecure, and self directing and authority-oriented, are presented in the area where receiving and processing overlap. This implies that personality does not only determine the way information is processed but also it determines how information is searched for and collected in the first place. The personality factors are said to be “formed by the individual’s cultural background” (Willing, 1988, p. 61).

The second phase is the “processing phase”, which is “the area of what happens inside the head” (Willing, 1988, p. 61). This phase includes the cognitive styles and ‘analytical’ and ‘concrete’ tendencies are differentiated. The following arrow demonstrates the ‘acquired learning strategies’, which are described by Willing as “the means by which a person assimilates or digests information and experience in general” (p. 62).

These strategies are not only the tools that prepare experience so that it is stored in the memory, but they also enable the retrieval of information from memory when it is required. As the diagram indicates these strategies are active both in the second and in the third phase of the learning experience.

The last phase is the “using” phase. At this stage, particular information stored in the memory is retrieved and put into action whenever the situation is appropriate. Among the most common examples of language functions are requesting, questioning, and agreeing.

When this diagram is taken into consideration this study focuses only on the perceiving phase – the preferred sensory modalities of learners. However, the personality factors are not taken into consideration because the participants in this study are from the same culture.

## 2.5 Studies Pertaining to Learning Styles

Because learning styles have a wide range of dimensions and since a lot of variables affect them, there are several problems proposed by Tyacke (1998) encountered while identifying learning styles. The first one is that learning styles are complex in nature and it might be difficult to analyse the overall learning profile of a learner. Another problem is that learners might tend to use different learning styles in various learning contexts. The third problem proposed is that the methodology used in the transfer of information can be biased. That is, it might be in favour of one kind of learner (analytic) over another (global). Yet, the researchers have worked on and identified the learning styles of learners in relation to some variables such as age, sex, length of time in the target culture, field of study, level of education, and culture.

Reid (1987) conducted a research with respect to the learning style preferences of ESL learners. The overall results of the research indicated that ESL learners strongly preferred kinaesthetic and tactile learning styles when compared to audio and visual. In addition, most groups showed a negative preference for group learning.

The general findings offered by Reid (1987) are as the following:

1. The perceptual learning style preferences of ESL learners differed significantly in several ways from native speakers of English. For instance, native speakers of English were less tactile in their learning style preferences than all non-native speakers and were significantly less kinaesthetic than Arabic, Chinese, Korean and Spanish speakers.

2. The learning style preferences of ESL learners from different language, different educational and cultural backgrounds sometimes differed significantly from each other. For instance, the Korean students were found to be the most visual in

their learning style preferences. They were significantly more visual than the US and Japanese learners. Japanese learners, on the other hand, appeared to be the least auditory of all learners and were significantly less auditory than Arabic and Chinese learners.

3. When some other factors such as sex, length of time spent in the United States, major field, and level of education were analysed, the results indicated that there were significant differences in their relationships to various learning style preferences. In the analysis of results with respect to level of education and gender, it was found that graduate students showed a significantly greater preference for visual and tactile learning than the undergraduates. The undergraduates were significantly more auditorily oriented than graduates. Both groups strongly preferred kinaesthetic and tactile learning. Males preferred visual and tactile learning significantly more often than females.

4. The data obtained from the study also indicated that as ESL learners adapt to the US academic environment, some changes and extensions of learning styles might take place. To illustrate, the longer the students had lived in the United States, the more auditory their preference became. Learners who had been in the US more than three years were significantly more auditory in their learning style preference than those who had been in the US for shorter periods of time. This finding indicates that learners adapt their learning style preferences to the learning environment they are involved.

Stebbins (1995) replicated Reid's (1987) study in order to obtain more information about the similarities and differences in learning styles between ESL learners and Native English Speakers (NESs). Stebbins lists the areas in which the results paralleled with Reid's results.



- Kinaesthetic and tactile learning styles were strongly preferred by ESL students when compared to NESs.
- Group learning was again chosen as the least preferred mode by most NESs and ESL students; the only sample group in the current study to indicate a preference for the group learning mode were those ESL students with low (300-349) TOEFL scores.
- Spanish speakers repeated their strong preference for kinaesthetic mode.
- Arabic and Korean students showed stability in their choice of multiple learning styles.
- Japanese students again did not strongly identify any style preferences.

(Stebbins, 1995, p. 110)

Ellis (1989) conducted a research with respect to the studial and experiential learning styles of two learners of German. Data with respect to these two learning styles were collected through a questionnaire, a cognitive style test, language aptitude test, attendance, participation, word order acquisition, speech rate, proficiency tests, and diary studies.

The data obtained from all these sources revealed that both learners were highly motivated learners of German and both of them had positive attitudes to the language. However, they significantly differed in their abilities and cognitive styles to the learning task. One of the learners was field dependent, she showed higher levels of aptitude in sound discrimination and she also rated her oral abilities to the other foreign languages she knew. This indicated that she was equipped to learn experimentally through the spoken medium. Her diary, on the other hand, revealed that she tried to learn studially, concentrating on linguistic accuracy and avoiding free expression. This further uncovers the fact that there might have been a conflict between the learning style she is pleased with and that she actually adopts. That is, she abandoned her own preferred learning style so as to cope with the type of instruction provided. As a result it can be stated that there was a mismatch between her preferred learning style and the instruction.

The other learner, on the other hand, was field independent and he was good at analysing grammar and memorizing vocabulary. He had the skills necessary to carry on a studious approach to learning and his diary yielded enough evidence to support this claim. He was also a flexible learner, who enjoyed participating in class and engaging in real communication in the target language, i.e., German.

Cheng and Banya (1998) conducted a research in which 140 male freshman learners at the Chinese Military academy completed seven questionnaires including PLSP (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was also completed by Taiwanese teachers teaching at Taiwanese universities. The results obtained from the self-reported surveys revealed that the Taiwanese military students did not have significantly different preferences for any single learning style. The teachers, on the other hand, reported being significantly less visual and more auditory than the learners.

Based on the data obtained from the perceptual learning style self-reports it was uncovered that both the teachers and the learners preferred the perceptual learning styles of auditory, tactile, and individual learning. A significant finding of this study was the difference between teachers' and learners' auditory preferences. The teachers were markedly more auditory than the learners. The learners, on the other hand, showed significantly greater visual preference by reporting that they learned more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.

Cheng and Banya also provide further information revealed as a result of the statistical analysis of the perceptual learning style questionnaire. Their findings include the following:

- Students who preferred kinaesthetic learning have more confidence as well as more positive attitudes and beliefs about foreign language learning than students with other perceptual learning style preferences.

- Students with the Individual preference style use more language learning strategies, and they are less tolerant of ambiguity.
- Students who identified themselves as Tactile learners seemed to be more anxious about learning English.
- Students with an Auditory preference like to make friends with and speak with foreign language speakers (in this case, English speakers).

(Cheng and Banya, 1998, p. 82)

Willing (1988) conducted a research with respect to the learning styles in adult migrant education. To serve the purposes of the survey a new questionnaire was developed because the already existing ones had some deficiencies such as having a too narrow focus or being complex in their format and wording. The questionnaire consisted of thirty items on the first page, the second page included fifteen learning strategies, and the third page included items regarding individual biographical results. 517 learners, from over thirty ethnic groups participated the study, but only five of the ethnic groups (Vietnamese, Chinese, Arabic speakers, South Americans, and Polish/Czech speakers) were large enough for statistical analysis.

Regarding the analysis of the results Willing (1988) stated that it was impossible to make “statistically valid cross-comparisons relating a question to more than one biographical variable at a time” (p. 122). For this reason, the individual characteristics of the participants were considered separately. The results indicated that there are cultural differences with respect to the learning style preferences of the learners. Though the mean of the item “I like to study grammar” was lower than expected, all learners from the distinct cultures reflected that they liked studying grammar. However, the Arabic learners were the ones who preferred grammar the most because 65 % of them ranked this item as the “best”.

The item related to the use of cassettes at home revealed that the Vietnamese were the only learners who preferred this method. Chinese, in contrast, seemed to “have little confidence in it” (Willing, 1988, p. 130). When the same question was considered with respect to the length of residence in Australia it was revealed that the variation was not big enough to be statistically meaningful. The results with regard to sex indicated that males tend to write everything in their notebooks more than females. In addition, though moderately both visual and kinaesthetic modalities were female preferences.

## **2.6 Definition of Language Learning Strategies**

Within the field of foreign/second language teaching, the term language learning strategies has been defined by key researchers in the field. Tarone (1983) defined a learning strategy as “an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language – to incorporate these into one’s interlanguage competence” (p. 67). Later Rubin (1987) stated that learning strategies “are strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly” (p. 22). O’Malley and Chamot (1990) define learning strategies as “the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information” (p. 1). Oxford (1990) expands the definition of learning strategies and defines them as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (p. 8).

## 2.7 Differences Between Language Learning Strategies and Styles

Providing a wide range of definitions of LLS proposed by experts in the field does not solve the problem of understanding what LLS are because LLS have usually been confused with learning styles. Reid (1998) draws a distinction between learning styles and learning strategies by focusing in what way they are distinct from each other. She refers to learning styles as “*internally* based characteristics, often not perceived or consciously used by learners, for the intake and comprehension of new information” (p. ix), whereas learning strategies are defined as “*external* skills often used consciously by students to improve their learning” (p. ix).

What we can infer from these two definitions is that since learning styles are ‘internally based characteristics,’ they explain a learner’s preference to a learning situation. In addition, it can be said that they are relatively stable and not likely to change over time. This view is also supported by Oxford (1990) who states that some learner characteristics such as “learning styles and personality traits are difficult to change” (p. 12). Yet, as it will be discussed later, some studies such as Ellis’ (1989) revealed that learners abandoned their own learning styles and they adjusted themselves according to the teaching style they were exposed to.

The learning strategies, on the other hand, are said to be ‘external skills’, which indicates they are more problem oriented and conscious. This also implies that they are more liable to change over time and depending on the task and materials used in the learning environment. Oxford (1990) claims that “learning strategies are easier to teach and modify” (p. 12) through strategy training.

## **2.8 The Characteristics of Language Learning Strategies**

When analysing the learning strategies it can be seen that different writers use different terminology to refer to the strategies. For example, Wenden and Rubin (1987) use the term “learner strategies”, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) use the term “learning strategies”, and Oxford (1990) uses the term “language learning strategies.”

Even though the terminology used for language learning strategies is not uniform among the scholars in the field, there are a number of basic characteristics accepted by them. Oxford (1990) summarizes her view of LLS by listing twelve key features below as they:

- Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
- Allow learners to become more self-directed.
- Expand the role of teachers.
- Are problem oriented.
- Are specific actions taken by the learner.
- Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
- Support learning both directly and indirectly.
- Are not always observable.
- Are often conscious.
- Can be taught.
- Are flexible.
- Are influenced by a variety of factors.

(Oxford, 1990, p. 9)

## **2.9 Taxonomies of Language Learning Strategies**

Many scholars in the field such as Rubin (1987), O’Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), etc. have classified language-learning strategies. However, most of these attempts to classify LLS reflect more or less the same categorization without any drastic changes. Below Rubin’s (1987), O’Malley and Chamot’s (1990), Oxford’s (1990) taxonomies of LLS will be handled.

### **2.9.1 Rubin's Taxonomy**

Rubin (1987), who is the pioneer in the field of LLS, draws a distinction between strategies directly contributing to learning and those contributing indirectly. According to Rubin (1987), there are three types of strategies used by learners that contribute directly or indirectly to language learning.

The first category, *Learning Strategies*, consists of two main types Cognitive and Metacognitive Learning Strategies. They are thought to be strategies directly contributing to the language system constructed by the learner.

Cognitive Learning Strategies (CLS) refer to the steps or processes used in learning or problem-solving tasks that require direct analysis, transformation, or synthesis of learning materials. Rubin (1987) identified six main CLS directly contributing to language learning: Clarification/Verification, Guessing/Inductive Inferencing, Deductive Reasoning, Practice, Memorization, and Monitoring.

Metacognitive Learning Strategies (MLS) are used to supervise, control or self-direct language learning. They involve a variety of processes as planning, prioritising, setting goals, and self-management.

The second category consists of *Communication Strategies*, which are less directly related to language learning because they focus on the process of participating in a conversation and getting meaning across or clarifying what the speaker intended. These strategies are used by speakers when they are confronted with misunderstanding by a co-speaker.

*Social Strategies* comprise the last category, which are manipulated when the learners are engaged in tasks that afford them opportunities to be exposed to and practice their knowledge. Even though these strategies provide exposure to the target

language, they contribute indirectly to the obtaining, storing, retrieving, and using of language (Rubin and Wenden, 1987, pp. 23-27).

### **2.9.2 O'Malley's Classification of Language Learning Strategies**

O'Malley *et al* (1985, pp. 582-584) divide language-learning strategies into three main subcategories: Metacognitive Strategies, Cognitive Strategies, and Socioaffective Strategies.

It can be stated that *Metacognitive Strategy* is a term which refers to the executive skills, strategies which require planning for learning, thinking about the learning processes that is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed. Strategies such as self-monitoring, self-evaluation, advance organizers, self-management, and selective attention can be placed among the main metacognitive strategies.

When compared to Metacognitive Strategies, it can be stated that *Cognitive Strategies* are not only more limited to specific learning tasks but they also involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. Among the most important cognitive strategies are repetition, elaboration, contextualization, auditory representation, transfer, etc.

Regarding the *Socioaffective Strategies*, it can be stated that they involve interaction with another person. They are generally considered to be applicable to various tasks. Questioning for clarification, cooperation with others to solve a problem, rephrasing, and self-talk are some examples of socioaffective strategies.



### 2.9.3 Oxford's Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Among all the existing learning strategy taxonomies Oxford (1990) provides the most extensive classification of LLS developed so far. However, when analysed, her classification is not something completely different from the previously discussed ones. On the contrary, Oxford's taxonomy overlaps with O'Malley's (1985) taxonomy to a great extent. For instance, the Cognitive Strategies category in O'Malley's classification seems to cover both the Cognitive and Memory Strategies in Oxford's taxonomy. Moreover, while O'Malley puts socioaffective strategies in one category, Oxford deals with them as two separate categories. Yet, a significant difference in Oxford's classification is the addition of the compensation strategies, which have not been treated in any of the major classification systems earlier.

Generally speaking, Oxford's taxonomy consists of two major LLS categories, the Direct and Indirect Strategies (see Figure II). Direct strategies are those behaviours that directly involve the use of the target language, which directly facilitates language learning. Oxford (1990) resembles the direct strategies to the performers in a stage play, whereas she takes after the indirect strategies to the director of the same play. While the performers work with the language itself, they also work with the director who is responsible for the organization, guidance, checking, corrections, and encouragement of the performers. These two groups work hand in hand with each other and they are inseparable.

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

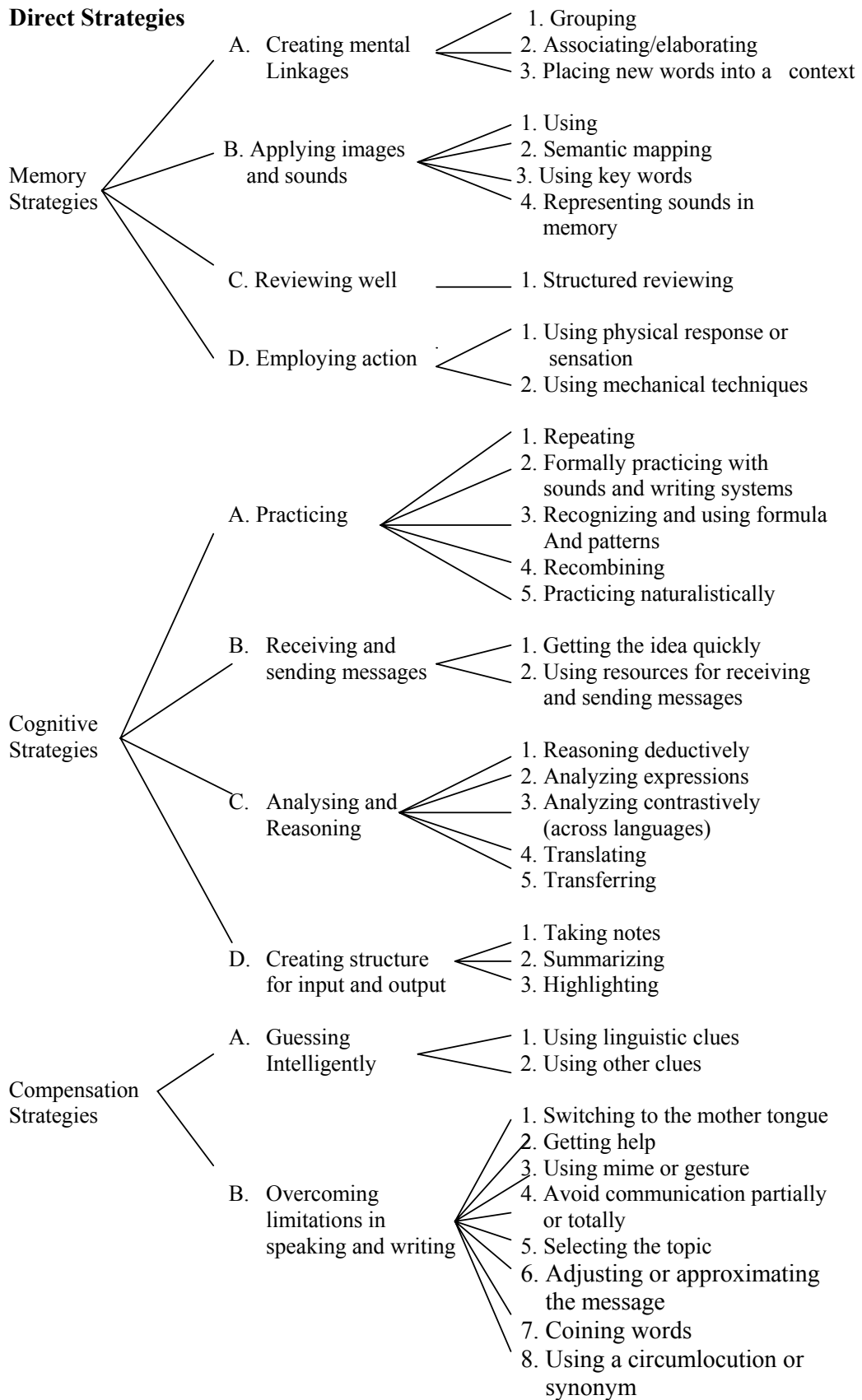
*Memory Strategies:* Oxford and Crookall (1989) define them as "techniques specifically tailored to help the learner store new information in memory and retrieve

it later” (p. 404). They are particularly said to be useful in vocabulary learning which is “the most seizable and unmanageable component in the learning of any language” (Oxford, 1990, p. 39). Memory strategies are usually used to link the verbal with the visual, which is useful for four reasons:

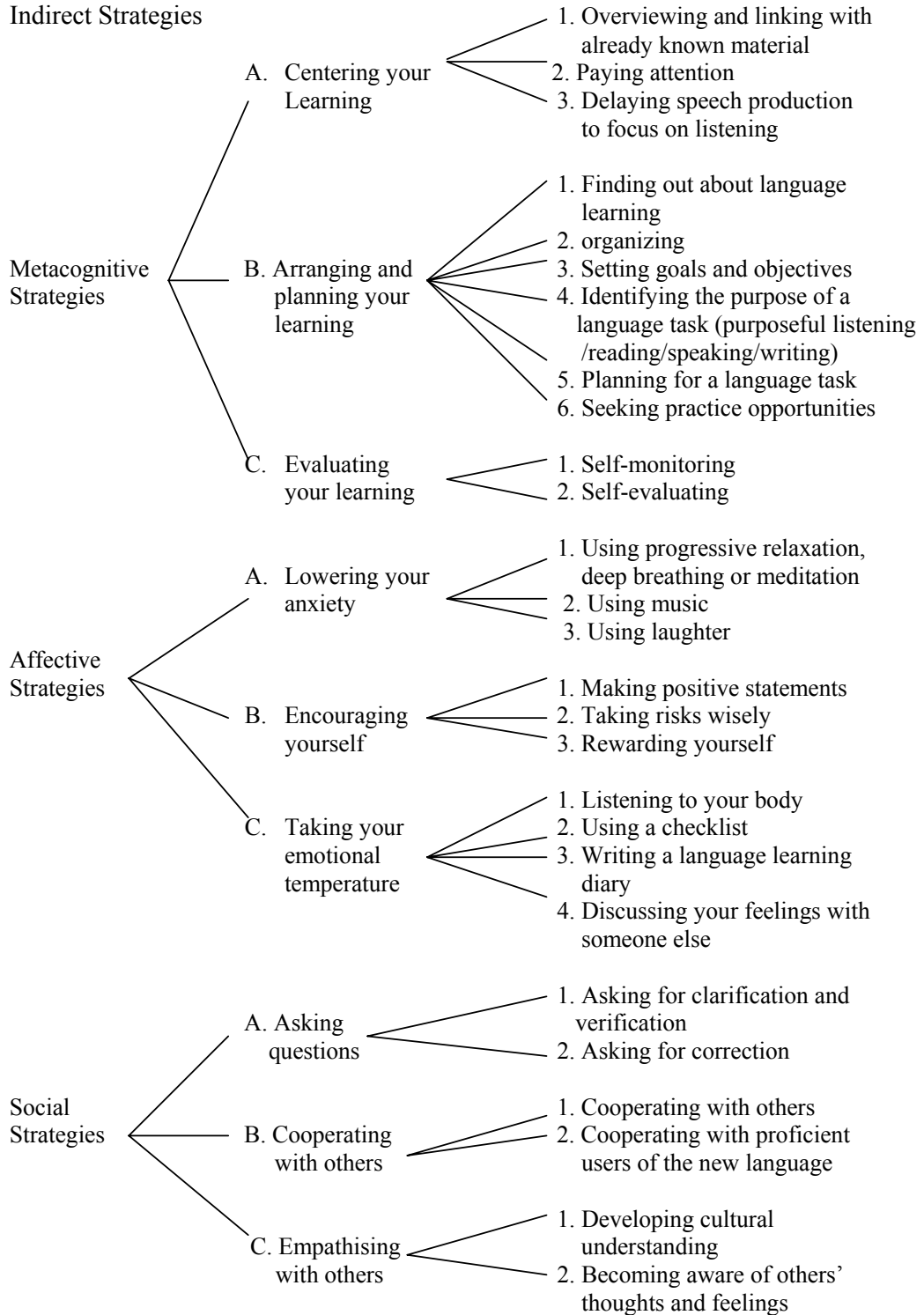
1. The mind’s capacity for storage of visual information exceeds its capacity for verbal material.
2. The most efficiently packaged chunks of information are transferred to long-term memory through visual images.
3. Visual images might be the most effective mean to aid recall of verbal material.
4. Visual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

(Oxford, 1990, p. 40)

*Cognitive Strategies:* The second group of direct strategies are the cognitive strategies, which are defined as “skills that involve manipulation and transformation of the language in some direct way, e.g. through reasoning, analysis, note taking, functional practices in naturalistic settings, formal practice with structures and sounds, etc.” (Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 404). Cognitive strategies are not only used for mentally processing the language to receive and send messages, they are also used for analysing and reasoning. What is more, they are used for structuring input and output. However, if learners overuse the cognitive strategies, this might cause them to make mistakes when they generalise the rules they have learned without questioning them, (that is, when they overgeneralise them) or when they transfer expressions from one language to another, generally from the mother tongue to the target language (that is, when negative transfer occurs). (Oxford, 1990)



**Figure II (Continued)**



**Figure II:** Diagram of Oxford's Strategy Classification System (Oxford, 1990, pp. 18-21)

*Compensation Strategies:* Compensation strategies help learners to use the target language for either comprehension or production in spite of the limitations in knowledge. They aim to make up for a limited repertoire of grammar and, particularly vocabulary. When learners are confronted with unknown expressions, they make use of guessing strategies, which are also known as inferencing. When learners do not know all the words, they make use of a variety of clues either linguistic or non-linguistic so as to guess the meaning. Compensation strategies are not only manipulated in the comprehension of the target language, but they are used in producing it. They enable learners to produce spoken or written expressions in the target language without complete knowledge of it.

The second group of strategies, that is, indirect strategies, consist of three subcategories as well: Metacognitive, Affective, and Social Strategies.

*Metacognitive Strategies:* Metacognitive strategies are defined as “behaviours used for centring, arranging, planning, and evaluating one’s learning. These ‘beyond the cognitive’ strategies are used to provide ‘executive control over the learning process’ ” (Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 404). Metacognitive strategies go beyond the cognitive devices and provide a way for learners to coordinate with their own learning process. They provide guidance for the learners who are usually “overwhelmed by too much ‘newness’ – unfamiliar vocabulary, confusing rules, different writing systems, seemingly inexplicable social customs, and (in enlightened language classes) non-traditional instructional approaches” (Oxford, 1990, p. 136). Having encountered so much novelty, many learners lose their focus, which can be regained through the conscious use of metacognitive strategies.

*Affective Strategies:* Oxford and Crookall (1989) define affective strategies as “techniques like self-reinforcement and positive self-talk which help learners gain

better control over their emotions, attitudes, and motivations related to the language learning (p. 404). Knowing how to control one's emotions and attitudes about learning may influence the language learning process positively since it will make the learning more effective and enjoyable. It is also known that negative feelings can hinder progress. The control over such factors is gained through the manipulation of affective strategies.

*Social Strategies*: Since language is a form of social behaviour, it involves communication between and among people. They enable language learners to learn with others by making use of strategies such as asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathising with others. Yet, their appropriate use is extremely important since they determine the nature of communication in a learning context.

Based on the classification system described above, Oxford (1990) developed an inventory called the *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning* (SILL) (see Appendix G) to collect data regarding language-learning strategies. Further information about the inventory is provided in chapter 3.

## **2.10 Research on Language Learning Strategies**

In the 1970s a shift of focus from teaching methods, classroom techniques, and instructional materials to the language learner and his/her characteristics took place as a result of the disappointing research results which revealed that any single method, instruction or material could not guarantee effectiveness on its own in foreign language learning. Scholars in the field noticed that there were learners who were successful no matter what teaching method or classroom instruction was used. Therefore, the primary concern of most research in the field has been on “identifying what good language learners report they do to learn a second or foreign language, or

in some cases, are observed doing while learning a second or foreign language” (Wenden and Rubin, 1987, p. 19).

Rubin (1975) started doing research focusing on strategies of successful learners and stated that, once identified, such strategies could be made available to less successful learners so that they could increase their success rate. Based on her findings, she suggested that “the good language learner” is a willing and accurate guesser; has a strong persevering drive to communicate; is often uninhibited and willing to make mistakes in order to learn or communicate; focuses on form by looking at patterns; takes advantage of all practice opportunities; monitors his or her own speech as well as that of others; and pays attention to meaning.

After the findings of Rubin, many studies have been conducted regarding the strategies employed by good language learners. Oxford (1989) states that she based her classification of the LLS on the synthesis of the results obtained from all these studies. Yet, not all language learners use the same LLS even if they study the same material, in the same classroom, under the same conditions. That is, some other variables influence the choice of strategies.

*Motivation* is among the variables that have been reported to influence the choice of LLS. In their research, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that of all the variables measured in their study, the level of motivation had the most powerful influence on reported use of LLS. The level of motivation considerably influenced the tendency of language students to use or not to use strategies in four out of five factors: formal–rule related practice strategies, functional practice strategies, general study strategies, and conversational input elicitation strategies. The results indicate that the more motivated learners used these types of strategies significantly more often than did the less motivated learners.

*Gender*, a variable which is also taken into account while identifying the LLSs of the participants in this study, is another factor that has taken the constant attention of research in the field. A vast number of studies have been conducted with respect to gender-related differences in LLS use. In a study of adult language learners, Ehrman and Oxford (1989) found that when compared with males, females reported significantly greater use of language learning strategies in four categories: general study strategies, functional practice strategies, strategies for searching for and communicating meaning, and self-management strategies. In another study, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that females, when contrasted with males, used language-learning strategies significantly more often in three of five strategy factors: formal rule-based practice strategies, general study strategies, and conversational input elicitation strategies. Ehrman and Nyikos (1989) state that the results obtained from their study fully support the findings of other studies concerning the effect of sex on second language learning. They assert that some other variables such as female superiority in verbal aptitude and social orientation, and possible sex differences in integrative motivation, in addition to psychological type play a role in these sex differences.

Kaylani (1996) also reports significant differences in strategy use between males and females. For the main sample of 255 students, there were significant differences at the  $p < .001$  level for MANOVA results with a main effect of sex on the SILL. Among the strategy categories used in the SILL, female students used significantly more memory, cognitive, compensation, and affective strategies than male students. There was no significant difference in the use of metacognitive and social strategies between the two genders.



The findings of Green and Oxford (1995) also indicated higher levels of strategy use by females than by males. Fourteen strategies, some of which are the use of flashcards to remember words, reviewing English lessons often, connecting words and locations, skimming and reading carefully, seeking L1 words similar to L2 words, making summaries of information, etc., were used significantly more often by females in that study, although only one (watching TV programs and video movies in English) was used significantly more often by males.

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) also reported that in their study, besides the conversational input elicitation strategies reflecting social interaction, two more types of strategies – general study strategies and formal rule-related practice strategies- were used significantly more often by females rather than by males. The researchers relate this result to factors such as the females' desire for good grades, a need for social approval, their verbal superiority to males, and females' greater willingness to conform to conventional norms.

Not all studies that examined learning strategy use between the two sexes found significant differences. Grace (2000) investigated the gender differences in vocabulary retention and access to translations for beginning language learners in Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). The analyses of the results revealed that when students were given bilingual multiple-choice tests, there were no significant differences between males and females on their short-term and long-term retention scores. Moreover, there were no significant differences in the amount of time males and females spent looking up translations. It was also reported that the findings of the survey suggested that males and females could equally benefit from a CALL environment. Ehrman and Oxford (1990) also reported that the number and kind of strategies used by females were similar to those used by males.

Another variable that has been investigated in the field is *the proficiency level* of the learners. Taking this into account Oxford and Crookall (1989) assert that students at higher course level tend to use strategies somewhat differently from students at lower course levels. This claim, however, is not only limited to various course levels but it can be generalised to more proficient and less proficient students within a given level. Oxford and Crookall point out that many different strategies could be used by good learners: techniques for organizing, for handling emotions and attitudes, for cooperating with others in the learning process, for linking new information with existing schemata, and for directly engaging in learning use.

Here, the main focus is not on the number of strategies employed but on the appropriacy of the strategies with respect to the nature of the task, to the learning material, goals, etc. That is, the learner's 'orchestration of the strategies' is far more important than the number of strategies used. This view can be supported with Vann and Abraham's (1990) findings. In their study, the learners were asked to complete four tasks: an interview, a verb exercise, a close passage, and a composition. After the completion of the tasks, they compared the strategies used by their unsuccessful learners with the ones used by the successful learners. They found that their unsuccessful learners were very similar to their successful learners in their range of strategies. Furthermore, when the unsuccessful learners were compared to the successful learners with respect to the task demand model used in the study, the unsuccessful learners were found to be active strategy users, yet they often failed to utilize the strategies appropriate to the task they were required to fulfil. It appears that, they are deficient in certain essential higher-order processes, which are called metacognitive strategies.

Anderson (1991) reports results that support Vann and Abraham's (1990) claims. In the study Anderson conducted, he examined the individual differences in strategy use by adult second language learners while engaged in two reading tasks: taking a standardised reading comprehension test and reading academic texts. Anderson points out that the most important of the results indicated that there was not any single set of processing strategies that contributed to a large extent to the success of the two reading measures mentioned above. Readers who scored high and those who scored low seemed to be using the same kind of strategies while reading and answering the comprehension questions in the tests. Anderson concludes that "strategic reading is not only a matter of knowing what strategy to use, but also the reader must know how to use a strategy successfully and orchestrate its use with other strategies" (pp. 468-469).

A fourth variable investigated in relation to LLS is *age*. Ehrman and Oxford (1989) maintain that in their study age did not seem to be the key point to understanding language learning performance though this view contradicted with the view of many experts in the field that language-learning ability declines with age. Rather the motivational orientation of the adult learners, who were learning the language for immediate career purposes, might have had a greater factor than age.

Generally, the studies conducted in the field with respect to learning strategies have focused on either the strategies manipulated by adults or by children. Such studies focus on the strategies employed by the effective and less effective students. Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) conducted research with respect to children's learning strategies in immersion classrooms. Their findings are similar in temperament with the results reported by Vann and Abraham's (1990). That is, the effective young learners were more flexible with their repertoire of strategies and

more effective at monitoring and adapting their strategies than their less effective counterparts. The less effective learners, on the other hand, were more likely to cling to ineffective strategies either because of unawareness of their ineffectiveness or incapability to adapt strategies to the demands of the task. The good young learners in the study reported a variety of strategies they tried for a particular task, indicating that they recognised the need for flexibility in their use of strategies to achieve the language learning tasks. Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) assert that across age levels, effective language learners appear to be capable of examining and adjusting strategies.

Another variable that has been investigated is *career orientation*. Ehrman and Oxford (1989), in their exploratory study examined the relationships between learner characteristics and language learning performance. Foreign Service Officers (FSO), military officers, FSO language instructors and professional language trainers with graduate degrees in linguistics participated in their study. The results of their study indicate that the professional linguists used a wider variety of LLS than the adult language learners and the language teachers. The professional language trainers reported more frequent use of four learning strategies: authentic language use, searching for communicative meaning, model building, and affective strategies. Language teachers reported greater use of only one strategy (authentic language use) than students. When compared with professional language trainers or teachers, students reported less use of all strategy types. Oxford and Ehrman (1989) concluded that career orientation has a strong influence on strategy use.

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) also conducted a similar survey, in which career orientation was one of the variables investigated. The participants in this study were undergraduate students majoring in technical fields (engineering, computer, or

physical sciences), social sciences (education or humanities), and business or other subjects. They found out that university major had a strong effect in the choice of LLS. Students with different career orientations appeared to use different LLS. In the study, the students majoring in social sciences used two of the strategies – functional practice and resourceful independent strategies significantly more often than did students with other majors.

A final factor, though scarcely investigated, is *learning styles*. As it was stated earlier, Oxford (1989) claims “it is likely that a strong relationship exists between the individual’s use of learning strategies and the individual’s learning style... Sadly little research has been dedicated to the relationship between learning strategy use and learning style.” (p. 241). Ehrman and Oxford (1990) claim that so far nearly twenty different dimensions of learning styles have been identified. Among these dimensions are the Seven Multiple Intelligences, the Perceptual Learning Styles, Field-Dependent and Field-Independent, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, and Left and Right Brained Learning Style.

One of the studies conducted with respect to perceptual learning styles was conducted by Rossi-Le (1989 as cited in Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995), who “found a significant relationship ( $p < .0005$ ) between sensory preference (visual, auditory, tactile, and kinaesthetic) and overall strategy use on the ESL/EFL SILL through a MANOVA, and she also found significant predictive relationships through multiple regression” (p. 11). The results Rossi Le obtained from the MANOVA indicated that the visual learners tended to use visualization strategies and that auditory learners used memory strategies more frequently than did the other learners. When compared to their counterparts, tactile learners showed significant use of strategies for searching for communicating and meaning and self-management/metacognitive

strategies. Kinaesthetic learners did not make use of general study strategies or self-management/metacognitive strategies as frequently as the others did.

Rossi-Le (1995) conducted another study in which she focused on the perceptual learning styles of adult immigrant learners and she investigated the relationship between preferred learning styles and strategy preference in an ESL context. Her findings showed that the major learning style preferences of the majority of the participants were the tactile and kinaesthetic learning styles, which require a practical and experiential approach to learning. Moreover, all the language groups in her study seemed to prefer group learning, while individual learning showed to be a minor learning style. She also found that the perceptual learning style preferences were based on the learners' native language backgrounds. For instance, in her study, the major learning style preference of the Spanish learners was auditory learning. On the other hand, Chinese and Vietnamese students showed a major learning style preference for visual learning.

The findings with respect to the learning strategies indicated that the learning style preference of an individual affected the strategies a learner might use. In her study social strategies were the most favoured ones. The results also revealed important relationships between learning styles and strategies. Interactive strategies were used by learners who favoured group learning. The students who preferred the kinaesthetic and tactile group preferred authentic language use. The learners who preferred the visual styles chose visualisations a strategy. Though limited in number, the individual learners preferred model building. Finally the least selected strategy groups were searching for and communicating meaning and independent strategies.

Another study which is similar to the one mentioned above was conducted by Oxford et al. (1991 as cited in Oxford, 1995). Its results also indicated strong

relationship between LLS use and the sensory preferences of the learners, which are regarded as a dimension of learning styles. Their findings indicate that visual learners had the tendency to use strategies involving reading alone, in a quiet place or paying attention to blackboards, movies, computer screens, and other forms of visual stimulation. The auditory learners were found to be at ease without visual input and often manipulated strategies that encouraged conversation in a noisy, social environment with numerous sources of aural stimulation. The kinaesthetic students were found to be in need of movement strategies and the tactile ones needed strategies that required the manipulation of real objects in the learning environment. Yet, both kinaesthetic and tactile learners were found to need to use the strategy of taking frequent breaks.

Ehrman and Oxford (1989) conducted a study regarding overall personality type as measured by Myers-Briggs Type indicator (MBTI), which deals with Extraversion – Introversion, Sensing – Perception, Thinking – Feeling, and Judging – Perceiving. In the study, the extroverts were found to use significantly greater affective strategies and visualization strategies than did introverts. However, introverts reported more frequent manipulation of strategies requiring searching for and communicating meaning. When compared to sensing learners, intuitive learners used more strategies in four categories: affective, formal model – building, functional practice and searching for and communicating meaning. Feeling-type learners, when compared with their counterparts the thinkers, displayed greater use of general study strategies. Perceivers made use of more strategies for searching for and communicating meaning than did judgers. However, judgers demonstrated more frequent use of general study strategies than did perceivers.

Shih and Gamon (2003) also conducted a research to reveal the relationship among student learning styles, motivation, learning strategies, and achievement in Web-based courses. The participants of the study were the 99 students taking two Web-based courses. They were asked to respond to the on-line questionnaire prepared by the researchers. Besides the items with respect to motivation, learning styles, and learning strategies, there were some demographic variables such as gender, Web-based courses they were taking, types of students as off-campus, on-campus, or adult students were also taken into account in the analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaire.

The results showed that the learning styles of the students and their demographic characteristics did not influence their achievement in the Web-based courses. Furthermore, the field-independent students were similar to the field-dependent students with respect to their motivation, learning strategies, and achievement in Web-based courses. At the end of the research the researchers draw two important conclusions. The first one is that the achievement of student with different learning styles and backgrounds in Web-based courses was equally well. The other conclusion was that learning styles did not have an impact on student motivation and use of learning strategies.

### **2.11 Data Collection Techniques for Language Learning Strategies**

In the body of research on language learning strategies, various researchers have made use of numerous methods for the identification of the patterns of strategy use among language learners ranging from questionnaires to computer tracking. The main reason for utilizing such a wide span of data collection techniques is that not all assessment techniques are appropriate for the identification of every type of strategy.



Therefore, researchers must consider this point carefully while designing the data collection methodology of their research studies.

### **2.11.1 Observation**

Observation is one way of gathering data regarding learning strategies. However, it shouldn't be forgotten that most of the learning strategies take place mentally and they are difficult to observe. For this reason, while designing an observational study some important key features need to be considered carefully. Cohen and Scott (1996) point out some factors need to be taken into consideration while planning an observational study such as the number of observers and observed, the frequency and duration of observations, and how the observational data are collected, tabulated and analysed. In addition to these suggestions, Oxford (1990) stresses the importance of the level of detail a researcher is planning to observe and the focus of the observations. The researcher may aim to observe the learning strategies used by the whole group, by a small group, or by one student. She also suggests the video recording of observation sessions since this will provide a permanent record of the sessions.

### **2.11.2 Diary Writing**

Another way of collecting data concerning learning strategies is diary writing. It is a way of reporting the thoughts, feelings, achievements, and problems the learners report as well as their notions of teachers, friends or native speakers. Diaries are self-reports that are usually subjective. Oxford (1990) asserts that sometimes diary writing may require some training on the part of the learners since they may not know what to report, how to report it, and to what extent to report it. If a researcher is

planning to read students' diaries s/he should inform learners in advance since they are mostly considered private. Some teachers have used diaries as a stimulus to class discussions of strategy use.

### **2.11.3 Interviews**

A third way of collecting data regarding learning strategies is interviews. Their types range from unstructured to structured interviews. Since there is no particular questioning technique in unstructured interviews the data obtained from such an interview is difficult to interpret and categorise. Whereas the data gathered from a structured interview are “uniformly organised for all respondents and lend themselves to statistical analysis” (Cohen and Scott, 1996). O’Malley, Chamot and their colleagues (1985), have developed a Student Interview Guide, which asks learners to think about what they generally do when faced with a similar language task. Students are not required to do the task during the interview but they are asked to think about how they typically handle or do the task (O’Malley *et al*, 1985). Oxford (1990) also adds that “such interviews work well in small groups or with individuals” (p. 197).

### **2. 11.4 Think Aloud Protocols**

Think aloud protocols are obtained by having participants report verbally what their thoughts are while performing a task. However, they are not expected to analyse their behaviour as in introspection (Cohen, 1987). Pressley and Afflerbach (1995, as cited in Cohen, 1996) refer to the think aloud protocols as “a maturing methodology with much interesting work already accomplished and considerable

work to be done” (p. 1), which implies that they have been used in many recent studies and they will be used in studies that will be carried out in the future.

As the other data collection methods, the think aloud protocols have their potential strengths and weaknesses as well. Olson, Duffy, and Mack (1984, p. 256 as cited in Katalin 2002) regard ‘think-out-aloud’ as a tool for collecting “systematic observation about the thinking that occurs during reading”, in other words, for obtaining data about the otherwise unseen, unobservable processes, such as inferencing or the use of prior knowledge. Another strength of the method is that it is the closest way to get to the cognitive processes of learners. Nevertheless, only the conscious processes are available for verbalisation, the rest of the unconscious thoughts flowing in the mind might remain hidden. Another weakness of the method is that the “respondents may differ with respect to their verbal skills” (Cohen and Scott, 1996, p. 97). Some might be more competent than the others at contributing the appropriate amount of data at the appropriate level of explicitness.

When all the points regarding think aloud protocols are taken into consideration, it can be stated that they require careful setting up and preparation on the part of the researcher. Katalin (2002) emphasizes that the purpose of the research should be in harmony with what can be retrieved with the think aloud protocol. Another point is the instructions that will be given to the participants. They need to be neatly worded and focused to the research aims. The selection and training of participants for the experiment also need to be carefully considered by the researcher. An important issue that needs to be taken into account is training participants with respect to the purpose of the study. Rankin (1988, p. 127 as cited in Katalin 2002) states that participants should be, first of all, familiarised with the purpose of the study and they should be shown what they are expected to do. A second practice

session can be arranged just before the experiment to remind students the nature of the task.

Another issue, which is extensively discussed with respect to think aloud protocols, is the language of verbalisation. During the preparation stage the researcher should decide what language the participants will use when doing the think aloud. If the participants are asked to read in the target language and report in the native language some problems may arise. Katalin (2002) cites an argument raised by Rankin (1988, pp. 122-123) that “Requiring the subjects to switch back and forth between languages while reading and verbalising would seem to encourage translation...”. On the other hand, if participants are asked to use the target language while performing the task, the participants might worry more about speaking and concentrate less on the task itself. Furthermore, their target language oral production skills might be limited as well. In order to avoid these complications, Katalin (2002) suggests that “subjects should be instructed to verbalise in their mother tongue”. Another alternative is to “let the participants decide which language they would feel comfortable with when doing verbalisation” (Katalin, 2002, p. 4).

### **2.11.5 Questionnaires**

Making use of questionnaires in a research study is one of the most commonly used techniques to collect data since they “can be objectively scored and analysed” (Oxford, 1990, p. 199). Similar to interviews, they vary from more structured, in which the items can range from “yes or no” answers or indications of frequency, to less structured questions asking respondents to depict or explain the language learning strategy in a detailed way. The data obtained from highly structured questionnaires are uniformly organised because of the standardised

categories provided for all respondents and they lend themselves to statistical analysis (Cohen and Scott, 1996).

A major benefit of large-scale questionnaires pointed out by Cohen and Scott (1996) is that they have the potential to generate and test hypotheses because of the large number of respondents. Oxford (1990), on the other hand, asserts that the more structured questionnaires “might miss the richness and spontaneity of less structured formats” (p. 199).

A good example of a structured learning strategy questionnaire is the SILL developed by Oxford and has been used in many parts of the world with the learners of many different languages such as Chinese, French, German, Spanish, Japanese, and Turkish. The SILL has 50 items grouped under 6 sections. Its 5-point scale ranges from “never or almost never” to “always or almost always.” Oxford (1990) points out that the overall average shows how often the learner are inclined to use learning strategies in general, while the means for each section of the SILL stand for which strategy groups the learner is liable to use most frequently.

#### **2.11.6 Computer Tracking**

Though the computer tracking technology has been applied in only limited way to research strategies, researchers are now trying to find out its potential with regard to assessing language learning strategies. Computer tracking “programs can be used to collect information either with or without the learner’s awareness”(Cohen and Scott, 1996, p. 103). Such tracking might be used to identify the language learning strategies associated with the use of resource functions such as a dictionary, a thesaurus, tutorials on how to complete given language tasks, etc., belonging to word processing programs, the sequence of processing of elements in reading text for

comprehension or in producing written text, and the choice of speed for reading and writing tasks. Cohen and Scott (1996) assert that there might be some problems with the results of other assessment methods such as interviews, diaries, etc. for various reasons. However, by recording a learner's use of a resource function, the computer eliminates the problem of distortion because of human inaccuracy or unawareness.

The computer tracking method has certain disadvantages as well. A major limitation of the method pointed out by Cohen and Scott (1996) is its inability to describe language learning use strategies or use strategies which do not result in the use of a resource function on the computer. For instance, if a learner uses inferencing to understand the meaning of a word, the computer would not be able to report this. Another limitation is that the use of computer tracking may not be practical since some participants may not feel comfortable working with a computer.

### **2.11.7 Multiple Approaches to Data Collection**

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) point out that making use of different types of data collection methods may lead to different results since every assessment method has its own advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, some researchers have made use of multiple approaches to data collection.

Cohen and Scott (1996) suggest some major issues that should be taken into account while choosing the best data collection method(s). According to them in order to determine the most appropriate data collection method, a researcher should bear in mind issues such as “the purpose of the study, the number of learners and researchers, the resources available, the strategies to be studied, the types of the language tasks for which the strategies are used, and the context in which the language learning takes place” (p. 104).

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Presentation**

This chapter first focuses on the overall design of the study. Then it presents the research questions and some information about the participants. After that the data collection instruments along with the data collection procedures are explained. Finally, information with respect to the analysis of data is provided.

#### **3.2 Design of the Study**

This is a descriptive study based on a survey research conducted for the purpose of making descriptive assertions about some population. This study aims at finding out the major, minor, and negligible perceptual modalities, the learning strategies, and to investigate the relationship between the learning style and language learning strategies of pre-intermediate students studying English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at the School of Foreign Languages and Informatics at the University of Bahçeşehir.

In this study both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. The former were collected through questionnaires, one of which aimed to identify students' learning style preferences and the other aimed to find out what strategies students seemed to prefer. The qualitative data was collected through the think aloud

protocols, which aimed to find what strategies students actually made use of while reading texts. The protocols were tape recorded and verbatimly transcribed and they were analysed by two instructors other than the researcher.

The participants of this study were the pre – intermediate students studying English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at the School of Foreign Languages and Informatics at the University of Bahçeşehir.

### **3.3 Research Questions**

This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the major, minor, and negligible perceptual modality preferences of the students – audio, visual, kinaesthetic, tactile, group learning, and individual learning of the participants?
2. Is there a difference in the perceptual modality preferences of the students based on their gender?
3. What are the language learning strategies used by students
  - a) as reported in the *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning*?
  - b) as suggested in the Think Aloud Protocols?
4. Is there a difference in the language learning strategy preferences of the students based on their gender?
5. Is there a relationship between students' learning style and the language learning strategy preferences?

### **3.4 Participants**

The data sources in this study were the pre–intermediate students studying English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at the School of Foreign Languages and



Informatics at the University of Bahçeşehir. There were a total of 160 pre-intermediate level students in eight classes. Their ages ranged between 17 and 21. The proportion of male and female students in the classes was almost equal. Students had different educational backgrounds. Some of them were private school graduates, others were public school graduates. In this study, however, how demographic variables influence learning styles and strategies will not be taken into account.

Not all of the pre-intermediate level students took part in the study. A simple random sampling technique was used to choose 60 participants for this study. However, since six of the students, four males and two females, were absent during the administration of the second questionnaire, their responses to the first questionnaire were left out.

Since gender was one of the variables that were taken into consideration, it is worth mentioning the number of male and female participants. Of all the 54 participants, 32 of them were male and 22 were female. The students have been studying English for the last seven months. Some of them were zero beginners, others were false beginners at the beginning of the academic year.

For the think aloud protocols, purposive sampling was used to select the 6 students based on the results obtained from the two questionnaires. Three of them were males and the other three were females.

### **3.5 Data Collection Instruments**

In this study, two instruments were used with the purpose of collecting quantitative data. The Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire was used to identify the major, minor, and the negligible learning style preferences of the students. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, on the other hand, was used

to identify the language learning strategy preferences of the participants. Qualitative data was obtained through the think aloud protocols, which were designed to find out what strategies students actually made use of while reading.

### **3.5.1 Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire**

The first instrument that was used in the current study is the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ) developed by Reid (1987) (see Appendix A). It is a self-reporting questionnaire developed on the basis of existing learning style instruments with some changes suggested by non-native speaker informants and US consultants in the field of linguistics. The questionnaire, which was designed and validated for non-native speakers, consists of five statements on each of the six learning style preferences to be measured: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, tactile, group learning, and individual learning. The first four categories constitute the perceptual learning style categories and the remaining two make up the social category. The participants responded on the basis of a five point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

While answering the statements in the questionnaire the students were asked to decide whether they *strongly agree*, *agree*, are *undecided*, *disagree*, and *strongly disagree* and mark the item that best applies to their study of English. The participants were also asked to respond to each statement quickly, without thinking about the statements too much and they were asked not to change their responses after they mark them.

Reid (1987) stated that the validation of the questionnaire was done by the split half method. Correlation analysis of an original set of 60 statements (10 per learning style) determined which 5 statements should remain within each subset.

In this study the Turkish translation of the questionnaire was used (see Appendix D). The translation was done by the researcher and it was proofread by colleagues and it was piloted with some other 30 students before it was administered to the participants of this study. During the piloting of the test the concerns, such as students' claims that they have difficulty in differentiating two items from one another and even spelling mistakes, raised by the students were taken into consideration and the statements in the questionnaire were improved accordingly. The piloting of the questionnaire also helped to determine the time that would be given to students during the actual administration of the questionnaire. The students were able complete the questionnaire in 15 minutes time and the calculation of the results took around 10 minutes. Depending on the timing during the piloting, it was decided that half an hour was ideal for students to respond to the questions, transfer them on the scoring sheet, and found the totals for each category. Based on the students' responses to the questionnaire, the reliability coefficient, Cronbach alpha of the questionnaire was found to be .82.

### **3.5.2 Strategy Inventory for Language Learning**

The second instrument used in this study is the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning developed by Oxford (1990). It is a self-report, paper and pencil survey (see Appendix G). The SILL was originally designed to assess the frequency of use of language learning strategies by students at the Defence Language Institute in California. Two versions of the SILL are available in Oxford's (1990) language learning strategy book for language teachers. The first one is used with foreign language learners whose native language is English and it is consists of 80 items. The

second one is used with learners of English as a second or foreign language. It contains 50 items. The latter version was used in this study.

Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) assert that the results of the studies regarding the reliability of the ESL/EFL SILL have shown that it is a highly reliable instrument. “With ESL/EFL SILL, Cronbah alphas have been .94 using the Chinese translation with a sample of 590 Taiwanese University EFL learners” (p. 6). They also add that when the instrument is administered in its English version, though slightly lower, the reliabilities were still acceptable. Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) report the results of various studies with respect to this; for example, Oxford *et al* (1989) reported a reliability of .86 with 156 students. The reliability coefficient, Cronbach alpha of the Turkish translation of the instrument used in this study was found .90, which can also be accepted as highly reliable.

Concerning the content validity of the inventory Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) state that the content validity of the instrument was determined by professional judgement and it was found to be very high. “Two strategy experts matched the SILL items with agreement at .99 against entries in a comprehensive language learning strategy taxonomy, which itself was built from a detailed blueprint of a range of over 200 possible strategy types” (p. 7).

The SILL (Version 7.0) consists of six subsections and each section represents one of the six categories of LLS, which the learners do not know at the time of taking the inventory. The 50 statements in the inventory follow the general format ‘I do such and such’ and students respond on 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 ‘Never or almost never true of me’ to 5 ‘Always or almost always true of me’. The participants are required to write the answers on a separate answer sheet. After all the answers are completed, the values assigned to each item in each section

are added and then divided into the number of items in each section. The same procedures are repeated for each section and values ranging between 1 and 5 are obtained. These values show the profile of a learner, in other words, the strategy groups employed by the learner and their frequency.

The SILL has been translated into many languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Spanish (Oxford 1995).

A Turkish translation of the instrument (see Appendix I) was used with pre-intermediate level students in order to obtain more reliable results. The SILL was translated by the researcher. Before it was used with the participants of the study, the questionnaire was not only proofread by some other language instructors, but it was also piloted with 30 other students in order to find out any potential problems with the inventory that may arise during the data collection. It took students around 25 minutes to respond to the question and students could transfer the results and calculate them nearly in 10 minutes. Based on this result, the time for the actual administration of the questionnaire was decided to be no more than 40 minutes as some students were not as quick as their peers. A reliability analysis was conducted to determine the reliability of the translated version of the questionnaire. The reliability coefficient Cronbach alpha was found to be .90, which showed that it was highly reliable.

### **3.5.3 Think Aloud Protocols**

The think aloud protocols were used to gather qualitative data with respect to the actual strategies student used while reading. For the think aloud protocols some six volunteer students were chosen. They were asked to complete certain reading tasks, which were similar to the ones dealt with in class, prepared by the researcher.

The length of the texts ranged between a page and a page and a half (see Appendix K). While performing the tasks they were asked to report the strategies they were using while reading and understanding the passage.

Some training sessions were held with students to train them with regard to how to provide effective verbal report. When it was decided that they were capable of reporting effectively, the actual protocols were conducted. During both the training sessions and the actual protocols all of the students were given the same reading texts. The participants were allowed to produce the think aloud protocols in Turkish. Their responses were audio recorded for analysis and they were verbatimly transcribed. After that, the protocols were coded using an adapted version of the coding index developed by Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) (see Appendix M).

After the protocols were transcribed and coded the reliability of the assignment of strategies to the various categories was investigated by asking two raters other than the researcher to identify the reported strategies based on the coding index. Then, their codes were compared to the ones identified by the researcher and the percent of interrater reliability was calculated to be 83 %.

### **3.6 Data Collection Procedures**

Both of the questionnaires were completed during class time. First, the students were asked to fill in the Turkish version of the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire. The students were required to respond to the questions in 30 minutes. The time that was assigned for students was determined according to the results obtained from the pilot study. To increase the credibility of the responses the language instructors were informed to remind students that they should be sincere in their answers and they shouldn't spend too much time on any of the items. The

students were also asked to give an immediate response and that they shouldn't hesitate and change their answers. The questionnaires were collected and the responses were entered into the computer for data analyses.

The second questionnaire was completed after an interval of ten days. The Turkish version of the SILL was delivered to the students. The students were required to fill in the questionnaire in 40 minutes. The time that was allocated for the completion of the questionnaire was also determined according to the pilot study results. The responses students gave to each question in the SILL were entered to the computer for data analyses.

Some six students were chosen for the think aloud protocols based on their learning styles, genders and their ability to express themselves orally. Before conducting the real protocols, some piloting sessions were conducted with two other students in order to detect some potential problems that that might occur during the real protocols. Although minor, some problems were identified. One of these problems was the timing of the sessions. During the first piloting session, when the protocol was going on, the students in the morning shift were having their break and there was such a loud noise in the corridor that it was very difficult for the participant to concentrate and express the ideas going on in his mind. Having experienced this, it was decided to schedule the other sessions parallel to the schedule in the school. Another problem was that while one of the students was ready for the last protocol just after the first session, the other student expressed his readiness after the fourth session. This indicated that there were some individual differences between the students in terms of the level of self-confidence. On average the protocols took nearly half 40 minutes, around 10 minutes talking about general issues to lessen the student's tension and nearly 30 minutes reporting their ideas.

Concerning the actual think aloud protocols, the first session was held together with the six participants and some general information and guidelines were offered to the students. They were explained what they were supposed to do and how to do it. They were also informed that there were no right and wrong of what they said and that the important thing was effectively reporting what was going on in their minds. What is more, the participants were told that the protocols would be tape-recorded. Students were also told that the topics of the class discussion held in class every week would be based on the texts that they would read in the think aloud session. In addition to this, the researcher, with the help of another colleague, conducted a sample think aloud protocol so that the students see what was meant by a think aloud protocol. Time for asking questions was allocated so that the students could ask their questions. Their questions ranged from whether it was possible for them to see the text beforehand, whether they would be given further feedback after the transcripts were analysed, to how the researcher would decide what strategy they were making use of. All the students seemed very excited and involved in the process. At the end of the session a tentative schedule was prepared. The following day the schedule was distributed to the students so that they do not forget the date of their appointments.

The training and the actual protocol sessions were held separately with each participant. During both the training sessions and the actual protocols, all of the students were given the same reading material to see what strategies each of them would make use in order to comprehend the text. Before the reading tasks, students had the opportunity to chat with the researcher for about 10 minutes. In this way they relaxed and got rid of their tension. When necessary, the students were also asked to point out what issues they need to focus on so that they could conduct the actual



protocols. Contrary to the expectation that the tape recorder would increase their tension, the students were quite comfortable with it. The students were not allowed to use any resources such as dictionaries while carrying out the protocols.

Two of the students, one male and one female, were ready to conduct the actual protocols right after the first training session. They were very self confident and aware of what they were required to do and how to do it. A third student, who was male, was ready to conduct the actual protocol after the second session. The remaining three students, one male and two females, however, completed their actual sessions after the fourth training session. After each training session the students were allowed to listen to their own voice on the tape, which made them feel more self-confident and decreased their tension, and they were given the chance to comment on their own performance. They were encouraged to point out the aspects that they need to focus on and develop and to find solutions in order to overcome them. Before conducting a protocol, during the warm up the students were asked whether they remember the points they had earlier identified. The data obtained from the actual think aloud protocols were verbatimly transcribed and analysed by two instructors other than the researcher.

### **3.7 Data Analyses**

This study aims at identifying students' learning styles and language learning strategies in order to determine whether there is a relationship between them. Another aim of this study is to find out whether students are really making use of the language learning strategies they seem to prefer in the SILL. A third aim of the study is to identify whether there are gender differences in the preferences of learning styles and language learning strategies.

Data with respect to students' learning styles were collected through the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire. Another questionnaire, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning was administered with the purpose of identifying students' language learning strategies. The statistical analyses were conducted by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS)

Regarding the analysis of the results obtained from the PLSPQ, descriptive statistics was used to group the students according to their major, minor, and negligible learning style preference categories. A t-test was conducted to identify whether there was significant difference in the learning style preference between males and females.

Similar statistical procedures were used to analyse the data obtained from the SILL. Descriptive statistics were used to rank order the strategy categories from the most preferred to the least preferred category. A t-test was also conducted to find whether there was difference in the preference of learning strategies between males and females.

In order to reveal whether there was a significant relationship between the learning styles and the language learning strategies the Pearson correlation was used.

The data obtained from the think aloud protocols were analysed by making use of a content analysis. The strategies the students actually made use of while involved in a reading task were identified by using a coding scheme.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

#### 4.1 Presentation

In this chapter, statistical information based on the analyses of students' responses to the *Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire* and the *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning* will be explained. Furthermore, the results obtained from the SILL and the ones obtained from the think aloud protocols will be compared in terms of the similarities and differences in strategy preferences and strategy usage. Finally, the relationship between learning styles and language learning strategies will be examined and reported.

#### 4.2 The Analysis of the Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire Results

The *Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire* was used to assess the students' learning style preferences. The questionnaire consisted of 30 questions designed to diagnose the major, minor and negligible learning style preferences of students.

When the responses that the participants gave to the questionnaire mentioned above were analysed, based on the cut off points stated in the scoring sheet of the questionnaire (see Appendix B) it seemed that only the mean scores of two learning style preference categories, auditory and individual learning, being 47.43 and 38.48

respectively, fall into the major learning style preferences category (see Table 2).

Since the mean scores of the remaining four categories were below 25, the cut off

**Table 2:** Descriptive Statistics Concerning Learning Style Preferences (N = 54)

Learning Style Preferences	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Visual	12.00	25.00	18.26	2.58
Auditory	28.00	50.00	<b>38.48</b>	4.30
Kinaesthetic	8.00	51.00	20.13	6.16
Tactile	9.00	24.00	18.13	3.51
Group Learning	13.00	31.00	22.15	5.02
Individual Learning	5.00	83.00	<b>47.43</b>	24.09

point for minor learning style preferences category, they fitted the negligible learning style preferences category.

**Table 3:** Independent Samples T-test for Gender Differences

Learning Style Preferences	Gender	N	df	Mean	Std. Error Mean	t	p
Visual	male	32	52	18.13	0.47	-.458	.649
	female	22		18.45	0.53		
Auditory	male	32	52	37.72	0.85	-1.593	.0117
	female	22		39.59	0.70		
Kinaesthetic	male	32	52	21.09	1.23	1.400	.167
	female	22		18.73	0.96		
Tactile	male	32	52	18.97	0.58	2.192	<b>.033</b>
	female	22		16.91	0.76		
Group Learning	male	32	52	22.63	0.92	.839	.405
	female	22		21.45	1.01		
Individual Learning	male	32	52	43.75	4.54	-1.363	.179
	female	22		52.77	4.47		

Concerning the gender differences in the learning styles preferences of the participants, an independent samples t-test was conducted and at  $p < .05$  the significance value for the tactile styles was found .033. This means that there is

statistically significant difference in the preference of the tactile learning styles between females and males, males preferring tactile learning more than females. As it can be seen in Table 3, there were not any statistically significant differences between the learning style preferences of male and female students.

#### 4.3 The Analysis of the Strategy Inventory for Learning Strategies

The purpose of using the *Strategy Inventory for Learning Strategies* was to identify the language learning strategy preferences of the students who participated in this study. The questionnaire consisted of 50 items, which identified the strategy preferences of the respondents. The strategies were grouped under the main six categories: cognitive, memory, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

**Table 4:** Descriptive Statistics Concerning Language Learning Strategies Preferences (N = 54)

Language Learning Strategies	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cognitive Strategies	24.00	65.00	41.80	8.85
Metacognitive Strategies	21.00	44.00	33.09	6.42
Memory Strategies	14.00	45.00	27.11	5.74
Social Strategies	11.00	30.00	21.17	4.14
Compensation Strategies	8.00	30.00	20.70	4.62
Affective Strategies	6.00	30.00	17.31	4.88

The results of the descriptive statistics conducted to identify the general tendency of strategy preferences of the participants in this study, indicated that the most preferred strategy category of all, with a mean score of 41.80 was the one related to cognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies ranked the second with an average of 33.09. The third place in the ranking order was taken by the memory

strategies with a mean score 27.11. Although the mean scores of the compensation and the social strategies are very close to each other, 20.70 and 21.17 respectively, the latter category ranked the fourth and the former the fifth. Finally, the least preferred strategies were the affective ones as their score was 17.31.

An independent samples t-test was conducted in order to find whether there was a significant difference in the language learning style preferences of the male and female participants. The results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the strategy preferences of the two genders because all of the significance values were far above the significance value  $p < .05$  (see Table 5).

**Table 5:** T-test for Gender Differences in Strategy Preferences

Strategy	Gender	N	df	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	p
Memory	Male	32	52	26.50	5.75	1.02	-.942	.350
	female	22		28.00	5.75	1.23		
Cognitive	Male	32	52	41.91	8.87	1.57	.109	.914
	female	22		41.64	9.03	1.92		
Compensatory	Male	32	52	20.09	5.21	0.92	-1.173	.246
	female	22		21.59	3.53	0.75		
Metacognitive	Male	32	52	33.03	6.90	1.22	-.084	.933
	female	22		33.18	5.80	1.24		
Affective	Male	32	52	17.09	5.17	0.91	-.399	.692
	female	22		17.64	4.51	0.96		
Social	Male	32	52	21.66	4.27	0.75	1.066	.299
	female	22		20.45	3.92	0.84		

#### **4.4 The Analysis of the Relationship between Learning Styles and Learning Strategies**

In order to determine whether there was a statistically meaningful relationship between the learning style preferences and the language learning strategy preferences of the students, the Pearson correlation was computed. The

results revealed that the visual learning styles significantly correlated with affective strategies at  $p < .01$  significance value their correlation coefficient being .45,  $r^2 = 20$  which accounts for 20 % of variance (see Table 6). This implies that visual learners

**Table 6:** Pearson Correlation Matrix

		Memory Strat.	Cognitive Strat.	Comp. Strat.	Metacog. Strat.	Affective Strat.	Social Strat.
Visual Learning Styles	Pearson Correlation r	.23	.24	.20	.08	.45 (**)	.25
	p	.102	.081	.141	.546	<b>.001</b>	.064
	r <sup>2</sup>	5	6	4	0	<b>20</b>	6
Auditory Learning Styles	Pearson Correlation r	.44 (**)	.41(**)	.27	.25	.34 (*)	.31(*)
	p	<b>.001</b>	<b>.002</b>	.050	.066	<b>.013</b>	<b>.024</b>
	r <sup>2</sup>	<b>19</b>	<b>17</b>	7	6	<b>12</b>	<b>10</b>
Kinaesthetic Learning Styles	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	-.09	-.00	.00	.15	-.16	.13
	p	.522	.997	.985	.276	.241	.359
	r <sup>2</sup>	1	0	0	2	3	2
Tactile Learning Styles	Pearson Correlation r	.06	.18	.00	.25	-.03	.14
	p	.666	.204	.966	.070	.854	.304
	r <sup>2</sup>	0	3	0	1	0	2
Group Learning Styles	Pearson Correlation r	-.14	-.16	-.13	-.16	-.14	.02
	p	.302	.256	.341	.245	.327	.888
	r <sup>2</sup>	2	3	2	3	2	0
Individual Learning Styles	Pearson Correlation r	-.04	.18	.28 (*)	-.20	-.05	.05
	p	.776	.198	<b>.044</b>	.141	.711	.687
	r <sup>2</sup>	0	3	<b>8</b>	4	0	0

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

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

are capable of controlling their emotions and attitudes about learning English well. That is, they can control their level of anxiety, cope with ambiguity, and motivate themselves.

The auditory learning styles had significantly correlated with memory and cognitive strategies at  $p < .01$  significance level, their correlation coefficients being .44 ( $r^2 = .19$ ) and .41, ( $r^2 = .17$ ) respectively. The correlation coefficient of the auditory learning styles and memory strategies accounts for 19 % of the variation and the correlation coefficient of auditory learning styles and cognitive strategies can explain 17 % of the variation. These findings indicate that auditory learners prefer using a wide variety of strategies. With respect to vocabulary learning, for example, it can be stated that auditory learners can successfully arrange words in order, make associations and review them in order to facilitate their retrieval. In addition to these, the results also show that auditory learners know how to manipulate and transform the target language well. That is, they are aware of what practicing strategies they need, how much practice they need, and what practicing strategies they need to make use of. Furthermore, these learners know how to analyse input logically and to make meaning out of it.

The auditory learning styles also had significant relations with affective ( $r = .34$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and social strategies ( $r = .31$ ,  $p < .05$ ), their percentages of variance being  $r^2 = .12$  and  $r^2 = .10$  respectively. This indicates that the correlation coefficient of auditory learning styles and affective strategies can explain 12 % of the variation and the correlation coefficient of auditory learning styles and social strategies accounts for 10 % of the variation.

It is clear that, as was the case with visual learners, auditory learners also know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning English. With regard



to the social strategies, it can be stated that these students can also ask questions for verification or clarification without any hesitation. They are also good at cooperating with other students in class and other native speakers. What is more, it can be added that they can empathise with others by developing cultural understanding and awareness of other people's thoughts and feelings.

It was also found that there was a significant relationship between the individual learning style category and the compensation strategies at  $p < .05$  significance level, the correlation coefficient  $r$  was found .28 and it accounts for 8 % of the variance. As it was stated earlier, compensation strategies equip students with the necessary techniques to comprehend and produce the language in spite of their limitations in their knowledge of the language. This means that, individual learners are able to guess intelligently by making use of either linguistic or non-linguistic clues. They can effectively make use of strategies such as using mimes and gestures, using a synonym or a circumlocution, switching to mother tongue, or getting help from others.

The results also indicated that none of the learning styles had a statistically significant relationship with the metacognitive strategies. This means that the students who participated in this study have difficulty in using metacognitive strategies together with the other strategies. Oxford (1990) states that although metacognitive strategies are extremely important, research has shown that they have been arbitrarily used, without being aware of their importance. The results obtained from this study seem to support her claim.

#### **4.5 The Analysis of the Think Aloud Protocols**

The purpose of conducting the think aloud protocols was to gather qualitative data with respect to the strategies students make use of while reading a text. Levine and Reves (1998) state that “Both reading and writing are complex cognitive activities requiring a set of processes and strategies” (p. 2). They state that learner’s cognitive and metacognitive strategies need to be analysed. Therefore, in this study, the think aloud protocols were used to collect data with respect to the cognitive and metacognitive strategies students employed while reading a text.

The protocols were conducted with the students separately and the number of the training sessions differed according to the performance and the level of readiness of the students. During the actual, final protocol all the students were required to read the same text in order to be able to see what strategies students made use of while reading the same piece of reading. After the protocols were finalized, the records were verbatimly transcribed. The data was coded by two instructors other than the research. Each instructor was provided with the coding index (see Appendix M) and a list of the definitions of the strategies (see Appendix N) beforehand so that they familiarise themselves. The definition list was adapted from Chamot and Kupper (1989). Providing the list proved to be very useful because it was possible for the coders to refer to the definitions when necessary. The coders were informed that the dots in the transcriptions indicated the short intervals when students kept silent.

First, each instructor coded the transcripts independently by writing the name of the strategy in the spaces between the lines of the transcriptions and underlying the relevant parts on the sheets. Then, the instructors came together to compare the codes, to calculate the percentage of agreement for reliability, and to resolve the discrepancies in their coding. Two standardisation sessions were held with the

instructors, one before coding the piloting transcripts, and another for the actual transcripts. When coding the protocols of the pilot study, the coders agreed on the specific strategy code 74 % of the time. However, during the coding of the actual protocols their interrater reliability was found to be 83 %, which showed that the more the instructors became familiar with the coding scheme, the more interreliable they became.

The differences in their coding was resolved through discussions, by referring back to the coding scheme and clarifying further the definitions and distinctions of categories by referring to the definitions list when necessary. For instance, it was very difficult for the instructors to draw a distinction between inferencing and prediction during the piloting session. For this reason, the definitions of the strategies were provided with the coding scheme together. After the transcripts of the pilot study were coded, it was realised that the teachers did not make use of the abbreviations. They stated that it was very difficult to remember what each of the abbreviations referred to, a result of this the codes from the index were left out. This also facilitated things, when discussing the conflicts instructors had since they did not have to refer back to the scheme to check what the abbreviations referred to.

Concerning the analysis of the cognitive strategies identified in the transcripts, it was found that one of the most common strategies used by students was that they tried to find words in Turkish that are similar to the unknown words in English. This also indicated some kind of a parallelism between what students claimed to do and what they actually did. For instance, students' responses to item 19, which is "I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English" were parallel to what they actually did in the protocols. A case in point is the 'packet' holidays.

Sibel: . . . ‘packet’ has the same meaning as *paket* in Turkish. It reminds me of that.

(Sibel: . . . ‘packet’ *şeyle aynı anlamda, Türkçe’deki paketle aynı anlamda olabilir, bundan geliyor aklıma.*)

Another good example can be the word ‘complicated’.

Tuncay: . . . ‘complicated’ if I am not mistaken means difficult, it also exists in Turkish, it comes from *komplike*.

(Tuncay: . . . ‘*complicated*’ *yanılmıyorsam zor demektir, Türkçe’de de var zaten, komplike’den geliyor.*)

Another very important characteristic revealed by the analysis of the transcripts was that students made use of L2 knowledge to solve their problems by paying attention to the linguistic features of the words, in this case morphology. They divided the words into their smallest meaningful morphemes so that the words make sense to them. They were quite successful in making use of this. This also paralleled to the responses students gave to item 21, which states “I find the meanings of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand”. For example,

Murat: ‘independent’, ‘depend’ *bağlı*, ‘in’ means ‘not’, ‘independent’ he states that he likes planning independently.

(Murat: ‘*independent*’, ‘*depend*’ *bağlı*, ‘*in*’ ‘*not*’ *demek*, ‘*independent*’ *bağımsız olarak planladığını, yani planlamayı sevdiğini söylüyor.*)

Zehra: . . . ‘inter’ means between, ‘national’ means *ulusal*, ‘international’ means *uluslar arası* . . .

(Zehra: ‘inter’ *arası demek*, ‘national’ *ulusal demek*, ‘international’ *uluslar arası demek.*)

The results also revealed that students did not very frequently attempt to translate the text into their own native language. Rather, they preferred to give the overall meaning of a sentence or group of sentences. This was also parallel to the

points students assigned to item 22, which states “I try not to translate word for word”, because they assigned 4 points for this item which means “usually true of me” rather than 5, which means “always or almost always true of me”. For example,

Murat: . . . But rather than spending their money on clothes and food, these [people] prefer going on holiday abroad. It is not always easy to choose the ideal holiday, but today there are some opportunities for this. . . .

(Murat: . . . *Fakat bunlar giyisilerine ve yiyeceklerine para harcamaktan yurt dışına tatile gitmeyi tercih ediyorlar. İdeal bir tatili seçmek her zaman kolay olmuyor, fakat bugün bunun için olanaklar var . . .*)

However, when they encountered unknown words or structures, in order to facilitate their comprehension of the text, they had the tendency to decode the sentences word by word. For instance,

Tuncay: . . . ‘others’ *diğerleri*, ‘find’ *buluyorlar*. ‘making’ *yapmayı* ‘arrangements’ . . . I don’t know its meaning, let me see. . . ‘arrange’ *ayarlamak* it means arranging something, order . . . oh I see ‘arrangement’ is the noun form

(Tuncay: . . . ‘others’ *diğerleri*, ‘find’ *buluyorlar*. ‘making’ *yapmayı* ‘arrangements’ . . . *bunun anlamını bilmiyorum, bir bakayım . . . ‘arrange’ birşey ayarlamak, düzenlemek demek, ha şimdi . . . ‘arrangement’ isim hali oluyor. . .*)

Another interesting finding that was observed in the transcripts was that two of the students, one male and one female, after reading the text made a brief summary of the text. These two students stated that item 23, which is “I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English” was always or almost always true of them and at the end of their transcriptions they summarised the text indeed. One of the examples is

Tuncay: As a result, here in the text the author compares the packet tours, that is, the tours organised by travel agents with our own free tours. The author says that the packet tours are cheap and that we won't come across with any difficulties, but free tours can be cheaper and sometimes they might be more suitable for us. He states that if we want to endure some trouble willingly, we can better organise such tours on our own. I started to agree with the author towards the end.

(Tuncay: *Yani sonuçta burada, şeyde, parçada yazar paket turlarla, yani travel ajansların düzenlediği turlarla kendi özgür, free turlarımızı karşılaştırmış. Paket turların ucuz olduğunu, ve bizim hiçbir zahmet görmeyeceğimizi, fakat free turların daha ucuz olabileceğini ve bize bazı zamanlarda daha uygun olabileceğini ve eğer bazı ufak zahmet ve sıkıntılara isteyerek katlanabilirsek bu turları biz kendimiz daha iyi bir şekilde düzenleyebileceğimizi söylüyor. Ben de yazara son bölümlere doğru katılmaya başladım.*)

The other example is

Sibel: When I read this text I understood that it was talking about holidays. I understand that this text is an advantage, that is, it is divided into two, a classification essay. I see that holidays are handled as packet tours and tours organised on your own. I can understand from this text that the author is in favour of the independent holidays because although the packet tours are cheaper, people mostly, the other, that is, people prefer the tours they prepare themselves.

(Sibel: *Burada texti okuduğum zaman artık bu textin ben tatillerden bahsettiğini ve bu textin bir avantaj, işte ikiye ayrılmış, sınıflandırma texti, essay'i olduğunu, işte şey tatillerin şey olarak aldığını paket turlar ve insanın kendi yaptığı turlar olarak anlarım. Bu textten yazarın bağımsız yapılan turlardan yana olduğunu anlıyorum çünkü işte paket turlarının, paket tatillerinin çok ucuz olmasına rağmen insanlar daha çok bunlar, diğerlerinin, yani şeyler insanın kendi yaptığı turları tercih ettiklerini anlıyorum. . . .)*

Item 18 "I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully" in the questionnaire was one related to reading directly. Although all of the students claimed that they were skimming a text before reading it in details in the questionnaire, none of them did so during the protocols.

Concerning the metacognitive strategies employed while reading a text, it was found that all the six students employed selective attention categories. They

particularly, without exception showed selective attention to the title of the text, together with class elaboration, and some made predictions based on the title. For instance,

Zehra: When ‘Holidays’ are mentioned, I think the text is going to be about holidays, that is, places, most probably the places where you can stay, it might be divided as local or spiritual, or learning about places, looking for cultural issues, in general it will be about holidays.

*(Zehra: ‘Holidays’ denince işte sanırım bu tatillerden, yerlerden, işte daha çok belki kalacak yerlerden, şeye göre de ayırmış olabilir, ne bileyim yöresel veya işte manevi olarak, veyahut işte bir yerleri öğrenmek, kültür aramak, işte holidaylardan bahsedecek sanırım.)*

Tuncay: The title is ‘Holidays’. It is my portfolio topic, I already know some things about it. Most probably it will be about choosing holidays, prices, hotels, such kinds of things.

*(Tuncay: Başlık ‘Holidays’ demiş, tatiller. Bu benim portfolyo konum zaten, bunun hakkında bazı şeyler biliyorum. Büyük bir ihtimalle tatil seçimleri, ücretler, oteller, bu tarz şeyler içinde bulunacak.)*

The reason why all the students without an exception might be the fact that during their reading classes they are instructed to make predictions based on the titles of the reading materials they read. It shows that this has become a habit which students use whenever they read a text. The student in the second example mentioned that it was his portfolio topic, which he was writing at the time of the protocols.

Another important finding was that some students previewed the organising principle of the reading material combining it with class elaboration again. Some of the students tended to preview the genre of the text. For instance,

Süleyman: . . . I understand that . . . this text is an advantage, divided into two, it is a classification essay.

*(Süleyman: . . . ve bu textin bir avantaj, işte ikiye ayrılmış, sınıflandırma texti, essay’i olduğunu, . . . anlarım.)*

Some others tended to focus on the organising principle of the text together with class elaboration.

Sibel: I think that the last paragraph must be a separate paragraph because in the paragraphs above the advantages of going on holiday on your own were not mentioned, they are directly mentioned here [in the conclusion paragraph]. But here the conclusion paragraph is missing. The last sentence seems to be the concluding sentence. Since this is an opinion essay it needs a conclusion paragraph

*(Sibel: Bana bu son paragraf şey gibi geldi, bu tekrar ayrı bir paragraf olması gerektiği görüşüne vardım çünkü yukarıda hiç şeyden bahsetmemişti, yukarıdaki paragraflarda kendi başına çıkmanın avantajlarından bahsetmemişti, direk burada bahsetmiş. Ama bu durumda conclusion paragrafi eksik. Son cümle daha çok concluding sentece gibi görünüyor. Zaten de opinion essay olduğu için evet gerçekten conclusion lazım.)*

The student, here, makes these comments based on what she has learned in her writing classes. At the time of the protocols the students were being taught how to write academic essays. They were particularly focused on the parts of an essay and they were required to analyse some problematic example essays and they were required to improve them. One of the example essays had a similar problem to the one mentioned by the student. So based on this experience, she focused on the organisation principle combining it with class elaboration.

It was also observed that in general the students were consistent with item 31 in the questionnaire “I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better’, which focuses on monitoring strategies. Four of the students stated that the item was always or almost always true of them, while two of them stated that it was usually true of them. Actually students were found to be making use of a lot of monitoring strategies. A case in point is:



Zehra: . . . All you have to do is pay the tip, no, it isn't, here all you have to do is to pay the bill. . . .)

(Zehra: . . . Sana kalan sadece orada bahşış ödemek, yok hayır, burada bize tek kalan şey faturayı ödemek. . . .)

Here the student confuses the word *tip* with the word *bill*, but as she monitors what she says she immediately self-corrects, without being reminded.

Another important finding was that students did not simply read the text and used their L2 and L1 knowledge to comprehend it. They made use of their own personal elaborations and judgements.

Nurgül: But I don't like packet tours. I regard them as traps which make you waste your money. Er . . . I don't know, that is, we might not be able to go and see, that is, when we go abroad we might not be able to see the places we would like to see, you have to go to the places they [the travel agencies] designated in advance. For instance, I might not go and see the places which I'd like to see. Since we have to stick to them [packet tours] there [abroad] frankly speaking, I don't like them.

(Nurgül: Ama ben bu paket turları sevmiyorum, onları para tuzağı olarak görüyorum açıkçası. Hem ..... ben bilmiyorum, yani çok, belki de hani gidip görmeyi, yani yurt dışına gittiğimizde görmek istediğimiz yerlere gidemeyebiliriz, onların belirlediği yerler var sadece. Mesela ben kendi istediğim yeri göremeyebilirim. Orada sadece onlara bağlı kaldığımız için tercih ben etmiyorum, açıkçası sevmiyorum.)

Murat: In general I prefer going on holiday on my own, but generally the tours are better. You have the chance to meet new people, sometimes the friendships made on a tour are good. Perhaps you can't stay wherever you want, but if you choose a good tour, you can stay at a comfortable place. Also, you spend less money.

(Murat: Ben genelde kendi başıma tatile gitmeyi tercih etmiyorum, fakat genelde turlarla daha güzel oluyor. Hem yeni insanlar tanıyabiliyorsun, bazen tur arkadaşlıkları da güzel oluyor. İstedğin yerde kalamıyorsun belki ama, eğer düzgün bir tur seçtiğin zaman, rahat bir yerde kalabiliyorsun yani, hem daha az para harcıyorsun.)

As it can be seen from the examples presented above students expressed freely their opinions with respect to the text. While some of them disagreed with the author, some others agreed.

A final, but most important finding that was observed in the think aloud protocols was that when students were asked to read the texts, they either whispered or read the text loudly, which parallels to the result obtained from the analysis of the learning styles questionnaire that the major learning style preference of the students is the auditory learning styles category. In relation to this, another very frequently used strategy was the auditory recall. When students had some doubts about the meaning of a given word, they were reading it aloud so that they could retrieve it and they were quite successful in doing this. For instance,

Nurgül: . . . ‘Avoid’ . . . hım . . . kaçınmak herhalde, kaçınmak . . .

As it can be seen from the examples provided above, when reading a text, students employed a lot of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in order to comprehend the reading material. The examples above are not just examples of beliefs about what students do, but they are sound evidences showing what the students actually do while reading a text.

#### **4.6 Summary of the Significant Results**

Based on the results obtained from the statistical analyses it was found that the mean scores of two learning style preference categories, auditory and individual learning, being 47.43 and 38.48 respectively, fall into the major learning style preferences category. The remaining four categories fitted the negligible learning

style preferences category because their averages were below 25, the cut off point for minor learning styles.

To determine whether there is gender difference in the learning styles preferences of the participants, an independent samples t-test was conducted. Significant difference in the preference of the tactile learning styles between females and males, males preferring it more than females.

The results of the descriptive statistics conducted to identify the general tendency of strategy preferences of the participants in this study, indicated that the most preferred strategy category of all, was the cognitive strategies category. The least preferred strategies were the affective ones.

An independent samples t-test was conducted in order to find whether there was a significant difference in the language learning style preferences of the male and female participants. The results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the strategy preferences of the two genders.

The Pearson correlation was used to determine whether there was a statistically meaningful relationship between the learning style preferences and the language learning strategy preferences of the students. While the results indicated that none of the styles had a statistically significant relationship with the metacognitive strategies, it was found that

- the visual learning styles had a significant relation with affective strategies
- the auditory learning styles had significant relationships with memory, cognitive, affective, and social strategies
- It also seemed that there was a significant relationship between the individual learning style category and the compensation strategies

**Table 7:** Summary of the Significant Results

Styles	Strategies	Pearson Correlation (r)	p	r <sup>2</sup>
Visual Learning Styles	Affective Strategies	.45(**)	<b>.001</b>	<b>20</b>
Auditory Learning Styles	Memory Strategies	.44(**)	<b>.001</b>	<b>19</b>
	Cognitive Strategies	.41(**)	<b>.002</b>	<b>17</b>
	Affective Strategies	.34(*)	<b>.013</b>	<b>12</b>
	Social Strategies	.31(*)	<b>.024</b>	<b>10</b>
Individual Learning Styles	Compensation Strategies	.28(*)	<b>.044</b>	<b>8</b>

The data obtained from the think aloud protocols revealed that students employed a wide variety of cognitive and metacognitive strategies while reading the given texts. Another important finding that was observed in the think aloud protocols was that when students were asked to read the texts they either whispered or read the text loudly, which parallels to the result obtained from the analysis of the learning styles questionnaire that the major learning style preference of the students is the auditory category.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **CONCLUSION**

#### **5.1 Presentation**

In this chapter, first a brief summary of the study is presented. Then, the results obtained from the study are reviewed and discussed. Next, the assessment of the study is given. Finally the implications for further research and for teaching are presented.

#### **5.2 Summary of the Study**

This was a descriptive study based on a survey research. The study aimed to identify students' perceptual learning styles, language learning strategies, to find out whether there were any differences between male and female students with respect to their learning style and learning strategy preferences, and most importantly to investigate the relationship between the learning style and language learning strategies of pre-intermediate students studying English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at the School of Foreign Languages and Informatics at the University of Bahçeşehir.

Two kinds of instruments were used for data collection. The quantitative data were collected through two questionnaires, the Perceptual Learning Style Preference

Questionnaire and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. The qualitative data was collected through the think aloud protocols.

The Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire was used for the purpose of identifying students' major, minor, and negligible perceptual modalities and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning was used to find out the language learning strategies students preferred to use. In order to see what strategies students actually use, the researcher designed think aloud protocols, which were conducted with six students.

Firstly, the students were asked to complete the learning style questionnaire to find out their learning style preferences. After 10 days they were asked to complete the strategy questionnaire. Having collected the quantitative data, based on the results obtained from the questionnaires six students were chosen for the think aloud protocols. The purpose of conducting the protocols was to see what students were really doing when reading a text. It took around a month to complete the protocols.

### **5.3 Results**

This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the major, minor, and negligible perceptual modality preferences of the students – audio, visual, kinaesthetic, tactile, group learning, and individual learning of the participants?
2. Is there a difference in the perceptual modality preferences of the students based on their gender?
3. What are the language learning strategies used by students
  - a. as reported in the *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning*?

b. as suggested in the think aloud protocols?

4. Is there a difference in the language learning strategy preferences of the students based on their gender?

5. Is there a relationship between learning style preferences and the language learning strategy use of the students?

In order to answer the first research question, the data obtained from the learning styles questionnaire mentioned above were analysed. Based on the cut off points stated in the scoring sheet of the questionnaire, it was found that only the mean scores of two learning style preference categories, auditory and individual learning, being 47.43 and 38.48 respectively, fitted into the major learning style preferences category. Since the mean scores of the remaining four categories were below 25, the cut off point for minor learning style preferences category, they fitted the negligible learning style preferences category. The fact that the students were mainly audio learners was surprising because the participants' language instructors stated that they were visual learners and they employed teaching techniques that catered for the needs of the visual learners mostly, which indicated a mismatch between the teaching styles of the instructors and the learning styles of the participants.

When the findings of some other studies in the field with the purpose of identifying learning style preferences are compared with the finding of this study, it can be stated that they seem to be partly relevant. Cheng and Banya (1995) found that the participants in their study preferred the perceptual learning styles of Auditory, Tactile, and Individual learning. The findings of the study seem to be compatible with the ones identified by Cheng and Banya, except for the tactile learning, which was placed into the negligible learning category in this study.

Another parallelism was found with one of Reid's (1987) findings. She stated that most groups in her study showed a negative preference for group learning. Similarly, the participants of this study also showed a congruous result.

Concerning the second research question, a statistically significant gender difference in the preference of the tactile learning styles category was found between females and males, males preferring tactile learning more than females. With respect to the other learning styles, no significant difference was observed. Referring back to the findings of the studies in the literature, it was found that the results of this study are parallel the Reid's (1987) results. She concluded that there was difference in the use of the tactile learning style category between males and females, males being more tactile than females. The findings of this study yielded the same result.

Descriptive statistics was used to identify the general tendency of strategy preferences of the participants in this study. The answer for the third research question was that the most preferred strategy category of all, with a mean score of 41.80, was the one related to cognitive strategies. With an average of 33.09, Metacognitive strategies ranked the second. With a mean score 27.11, the memory strategies ranked the fourth. Although the mean scores of the compensation and the social strategies are very close to each other, 20.70 and 21.17 respectively, the latter category ranked the fourth and the former the fifth. Finally, the least preferred strategies were the affective ones as their score was 17.31.

Regarding the results obtained from the think aloud protocols; it was found that students made use of many cognitive and metacognitive strategies in order to understand the text and to cope with the problems they encountered while reading it. The result of the perceptual learning style questionnaire that the auditory learning was the major learning style preference was confirmed as well since students either



whispered while reading the texts or they read it loudly. Students were also found to be consistent to a great extent with what they claimed to do and what they did during the protocols.

In order to find an answer for the fourth research question an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the strategy preferences of the two genders because all of the significance values were far above the significance value  $p < .05$ . This finding contradicts with the findings of Ehrman and Oxford (1989), Oxford and Nykos (1989), Kaylani (1996), and Green and Oxford (1995), all of whom claim that there are differences in the use of strategies between male and female learners. On the other hand, the result seem to support the findings of Ehrman and Oxford (1990) who reported that the number and kind of strategies used by females were similar to those used by males.

To answer the last research question, the Pearson correlation was used to find whether there was a statistically meaningful relationship between the learning style preferences and the language learning strategy preferences of the students. The results revealed that the visual learning styles had a significant relation with affective strategies at  $p < .01$  significance value, their correlation coefficient being .45,  $r^2 = .20$  which accounts for 20 % of the variance. This shows that visual learners know how to motivate themselves, deal with anxiety, and how to tolerate ambiguity.

The auditory learning styles had significant relationships with memory and cognitive strategies at  $p < .01$  significance level their correlation coefficients being .44 ( $r^2 = .19$ ) and .41, ( $r^2 = .17$ ) respectively. This means that the correlation coefficient of the auditory learning styles and memory strategies accounts for 19 % of the variation and the correlation coefficient of auditory learning styles and

cognitive strategies accounts for 17 % variation. The auditory learning styles also had significant relations with affective ( $r = .34$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and social strategies ( $r = .31$ ,  $p < .05$ ), their percentages of variance being  $r^2 = .12$  and  $r^2 = .10$  respectively. This indicates that the correlation coefficient of auditory learning styles and affective strategies can explain 12 % of the variation and the correlation coefficient of auditory learning styles and social strategies accounts for 10 % of the variation.

It can be stated that auditory learners also know how to control their emotions and attitudes about learning. Concerning social strategies, the results imply that these students can also ask questions a variety of purposes without any hesitation. They are also good at cooperating with others. What is more, it can be added that they can empathise with others.

It was also found that there was a significant relationship between the individual learning style category and the compensation strategies at  $p < .05$  significance level, the correlation coefficient was found .28, which accounts for 8 % of the variance. Compensation strategies are said to equip students with the necessary techniques to understand and produce the language despite the limitations in their knowledge of the language. This means that, individual learners are capable of guessing intelligently by making use of linguistic or other clues. They can effectively make use of strategies such as using mimes and gestures, using a synonym or a circumlocution, switching to mother tongue, or getting help from others.

The results also indicated that none of the learning styles had a statistically significant relationship with the metacognitive strategies. This means that the students are not aware of the importance of the metacognitive strategies and they are not using them along with the other strategies.

With respect to the results of the studies mentioned earlier, the results obtained from this study seem to be partly congruent with the findings of the studies conducted by Oxford (1991 as cited in Oxford, 1995), Rossi-Le (1989 as cited in Oxford, 1995), and Rossi-Le (1995), in which it was revealed that there was a strong relationship between language learning strategies use and the sensory preferences of the learners. However, the findings of this study contradict with the results obtained by Shih and Gamon (2003) who concluded that learning styles did not have an impact on the use of learning strategies.

#### **5.4 Assessment of the Study**

This was a descriptive study based on a survey research, which included 54 pre-intermediate level students. Actually the number of participants at the beginning of the study was 60, but since six of the students were absent during the administration of the second questionnaire, their responses to the first questionnaire were left out. As a result, the responses of 54 students were taken into account when conducting the statistical analyses.

The participants in the study were selected by making use of the simple random sampling technique. However, for the think aloud protocols the purposive sampling technique was used. Although only pre-intermediate level students participated in the study, their responses might have been affected by some demographic variables that were not taken into account such as the earlier educational experience, motivation, and career orientation.

## **5.5 Implications for Teaching**

The findings of this study revealed that a relationship exists between learning styles and language learning strategies. This conclusion has some implications. First of all, besides being a teacher in the classroom, teachers should take over the responsibility of a researcher as well in order to identify not only their students' individual differences, but they should also know how to cater the needs of their learners. What is meant here is not administering some questionnaires haphazardly, but being aware of each step taken and having a rationale for taking it. In other words, teachers should choose the right tools to identify their student' learning styles and strategies and then the findings should not be put aside. On the contrary, teachers should make use of such findings to adopt the most appropriate teaching style. Of course, adopting teaching techniques that will cater the needs of all the students might be difficult but if teachers become sensitive to their students learning style and balance their instruction by making use of a wide variety of tasks in the classroom, they will have treated the students equally. Besides using instruments, teachers should constantly observe students very closely so that s/he can diagnose any changes in the learning profiles of the students.

In addition to all these, teachers should be equipped with a lot of strategies that they will be able to propose to students so that they can deal with difficult academic tasks. If, for instance, one strategy does not work they should be able to suggest another alternative. What is more, teachers should design activities that will require them to make use of a variety of strategies and after the completion of the task they should held a discussion session with students talking about the strategies they make use, whether these strategies proved to be useful or not. In this way, while the teachers will have the opportunity to see to what extent each of the students is

successful in the orchestration of the strategies, the students will be able to hear or see what strategies their peers use. Thus, they will be given the opportunity to make self-evaluations, decide which is better for them, or learn an alternative way of doing a particular task.

Stebbins (1995) offers two recommendations in her article, which are in a way a brief summary of what was stated above:

1. Teacher identification of student learning-style preferences can guide the selection of appropriate instructional methods and materials to maximise student learning. Knowledge of student learning-style profiles can be used to guide instructional organisation for individuals or for groups of students with the same style preferences.
2. Teachers' identification of their own style preferences may facilitate student learning by more closely matching student preferences with teacher practices. Because teachers often unknowingly favour the style(s) that matches their own, students with a different modality preference(s) than the teacher can be at disadvantage both in task orientation and in interaction with the teacher. By being aware of their own preferences, teachers can ensure that they are addressing all relevant student modalities and not favouring their own style inclinations.

(Stebbins, 1995, p. 116)

Concerning the implication related to curriculum developers and material producers it can be stated that they should definitely work in cooperation with both teachers and students. Together with teachers, they should decide what aspect of learning styles they need to identify, what learning style instrument will be used to identify students' language learning strategies. It should be the curriculum developers' responsibility to allocate enough time in the curriculum for teachers to conduct styles and strategies research in their classes.

With respect to material producers, they should produce materials that teachers will use throughout their class research. That is, the staging of the lessons should be well designed starting with a warmer session and ending with an

appropriate follow up task related to the topic dealt with. What is more, the materials they produce should be congruent with students' learning styles and they should be appealing to students' needs and interests.

This process requires continuous evaluation of every single stage or material used. For this reason, curriculum developers and material producers should collect feedback from teachers and students in order to identify the weaknesses and strengths of their products. This will enable them not only to produce better materials but also to develop them. All in all, curriculum developers and material producers should work cooperatively with teachers and students so that they can design a better program, appropriate materials and tasks that will promote a more efficient and a more effective language learning atmosphere.

### **5.6 Implications for Further Research**

The further research on the relationship between learning styles and strategies might focus on the factors such as motivation, career orientation, performance, and the length of exposure to the language which might influence the perceptual learning styles and the language learning strategy use of the language learners. What is more, strategy-training sessions might be designed to assess whether designing such training sessions has an impact on the achievement of the students.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire

Name, Surname \_\_\_\_\_

Date:

Sex: F M

*Directions:* People learn in many different ways. For example, some people learn primarily with their eyes (visual learners) or with their ears (auditory learners); some people prefer to learn by experience and / or by “hands-on” tasks (kinaesthetic or tactile learners); some people learn better when they work alone, while others prefer to learn in groups.

This questionnaire has been designed to help you identify the way(s) you learn best – the way(s) you *prefer* to learn.

Read each statement on the following pages. Please respond to the statements AS THEY APPLY TO YOUR STUDY OF ENGLISH. Decide whether you agree or disagree with each statement. For example, if you strongly agree, mark:

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
X				

Please respond to each statement quickly, without too much thought. Try not to change your responses after you choose them. Please use a pen to mark your choices.

Questionnaire Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. When the teacher tells me the instructions, I understand better.					
2. I prefer to learn by doing something in class.					
3. I get more work done when I work with others.					
4. I learn more when I study with a group.					
5. In class, I learn best when I work with others.					
6. I learn better by reading what the teacher writes on the chalkboard.					
7. When someone tells me how to do something in class, I learn it better.					
8. When I do things in class, I learn better.					
9. I remember things I have learned in class better than things I have read.					
10. When I read instructions, I remember them better.					
11. I learn more when I can make a model of something.					
12. I understand better when I read instructions.					
13. When I study alone, I remember things better.					
14. I learn more when I make something for a class project.					
15. I enjoy learning in class by doing experiments.					
16. I learn better when I make drawings as I study.					
17. I learn better in class when the teacher gives a lecture.					
18. When I work alone, I learn better.					
19. I understand things better in class when I participate in role-playing.					
20. I learn better in class when I listen to someone.					
21. I enjoy working on an assignment with two or					

three classmates.					
22. When I build something, I remember what I learned better.					
23. I prefer to study with others.					
24. I learn better by reading than listening to someone.					
25. I enjoy making something for a class project.					
26. I learn best in class when I participate in related activities.					
27. In class, I work better when I work alone.					
28. I prefer working on projects by myself.					
29. I learn more by reading textbooks than by listening to a lecture.					
30. I prefer to work by myself.					

## APPENDIX B

### Self –Scoring Sheet for Perceptual Learning Style Preference Survey

**Directions:** There are 5 statements for each learning category in this questionnaire. The questions are grouped below according to each learning style. Each question you answer has a numerical value.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5	4	3	2	1

Fill in the blanks below with the numerical value of each answer. For example, if you answered *strongly agree* for statement 6 (a visual question), write the number 5 (SA) on the blank next to question 6.

#### Visual

6 -   5  

When you have completed all the numerical values for *Visual*, add the numbers together. Multiply the answer by 2, and put the total in the appropriate blank.

Follow this process for each of the learning style categories. When you are finished, look at the scale that follows. It will help you determine your:

**major** learning style preference(s):                      score: 38 – 50

**minor** learning style preference(s):                      score: 25 – 37

**negligible** learning styles                                      score: 0 – 24

If you need help, please ask your teacher.

## Scoring Sheet

### Visual

6 - \_\_\_\_\_  
10 - \_\_\_\_\_  
12 - \_\_\_\_\_  
24 - \_\_\_\_\_  
29 - \_\_\_\_\_

Total \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_  
(Score)

### Tactile

11 - \_\_\_\_\_  
14 - \_\_\_\_\_  
16 - \_\_\_\_\_  
22 - \_\_\_\_\_  
25 - \_\_\_\_\_

Total \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_  
(Score)

### Auditory

1 - \_\_\_\_\_  
7 - \_\_\_\_\_  
9 - \_\_\_\_\_  
17 - \_\_\_\_\_  
20 - \_\_\_\_\_

Total \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_  
(Score)

### Group

3 - \_\_\_\_\_  
4 - \_\_\_\_\_  
5 - \_\_\_\_\_  
21 - \_\_\_\_\_  
23 - \_\_\_\_\_

Total \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_  
(Score)

### Kinaesthetic

2 - \_\_\_\_\_  
8 - \_\_\_\_\_  
15 - \_\_\_\_\_  
19 - \_\_\_\_\_  
26 - \_\_\_\_\_

Total \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_  
(Score)

### Individual

13 - \_\_\_\_\_  
18 - \_\_\_\_\_  
27 - \_\_\_\_\_  
28 - \_\_\_\_\_  
30 - \_\_\_\_\_

Total \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_  
(Score)

Major learning style preference(s)

score: 38 - 50

Minor learning style preference(s)

score: 25 - 37

Negligible learning styles

score: 0 - 24



## APPENDIX C

### Explanation of Perceptual Learning Style Preferences

Students learn in many different ways. The results of the Perceptual learning Style Preference Questionnaire show which ways you prefer to learn English. In many cases, students' learning style preferences show how well students learn material in different situations.

The explanations of major learning style preferences below describe the characteristics of those learners. The descriptions will give you some information about ways in which you learn best.

#### Visual Major Learning Style Preference

You learn well from *seeing words* in books, on the chalkboard, and in workbooks. You remember and understand information and instructions better if you *read* them. You do not need as much oral explanation as an auditory learner, and you can often learn alone with a book. You should take notes of lectures and oral directions if you want to remember the information.

#### Auditory Major Learning Style Preference

You learn from *hearing words* spoken and from oral explanation. You may remember information by *reading aloud* or by moving your lips as you read, especially when you are learning new material. You benefit from hearing audiotapes, lectures, and class discussion. You benefit from making tapes to listen to, by teaching other students, and by conversing with your teacher.

### **Kinaesthetic Major Learning Style Preference**

You learn best by experience, by being involved physically in classroom experiences. You remember information well when you actively participate in activities, field trips, and role-playing in the classroom. A combination of stimuli – for example, an audiotape combined with an activity – will help you understand new material.

### **Tactile Major Learning Style Preference**

You learn best when you have the opportunity to do “*hands-on*” experiences with new materials. That is, working on experiments in laboratory, handling and building models, and touching and working with new materials provide you with the most successful learning situations. *Writing notes or instructions* can help you remember information, and *physical involvement* in class-related activities may help you understand new information.

### **Group Major Learning Style Preference**

You learn more easily when you study with at least one other student, and you will be more successful completing work well when you *work with others*. You value group interaction and class work with other students, and you remember information better when you work with two or three classmates. The stimulation you receive from group work helps you learn and understand new information.

### **Individual Major Learning Style Preference**

You learn best when you work *alone*. You think better when you study alone, and you remember information you learn by yourself. You understand material best

when you learn it alone, and you make better progress in learning when you work by yourself.

### **Minor Learning Styles**

In most cases, minor learning styles indicate areas where you can function well as a learner. Usually, a very successful learner can learn in several different ways, and so you might want to experiment with ways to practice and strengthen your minor learning styles.

### **Negligible Learning Styles**

Often, a negligible score indicates that you may have difficulty learning in that way. One solution may be to direct your learning to your stronger styles. Another solution may be to try to work on some of the skills to strengthen your learning style(s) in the negligible area(s).

(Reid, 1995, pp. 162-167)

## APPENDIX D

### Algı ile İlgili Öğrenme Stilleri Tercih Anketi

Adı, Soyadı \_\_\_\_\_

Cinsiyet:     B     E

#### Yönergeler

İnsanlar değişik yöntemlerle öğrenir. Bazı insanlar gözlerini kullanarak (görsel öğrenenler), bazıları kulaklarını kullanarak (işitsel öğrenenler) öğrenirler; bazıları ise deneme yanılma yolunu kullanarak (devinsel veya dokunsal) öğrenmelerine yardımcı olan aktivitelere katılarak öğrenirler. Bazıları tek başlarına çalışarak daha iyi öğrenirken, diğerleri bir grupla bir arada çalışarak daha iyi öğrenirler.

Bu anket en iyi öğrenme yollarınızın tercihleri hakkında bilgi toplamak amacı ile düzenlenmiştir. Bu anket öğrenme ile ilgili 30 ifadeden oluşmaktadır. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve sizin İngilizce öğrenmenize en iyi uyan seçeneği cevaplayınız.

İfadelere katılıp katılmadığınıza karar verin. Örneğin, eğer *kesinlikle katılıyorsanız* aşağıda belirtildiği gibi işaretleyin.

Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
X				

İfadeleri lütfen fazla düşünmeden, hızlı bir şekilde cevaplandırın. Karar verdikten sonra kararınızı değiştirmemeye özen gösterin. Cevaplarınızı işaretlemek için lütfen tükenmez kalem kullanın.

Anket İfadeleri:	Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1. Öğretmen bana ne yapmam gerektiğini anlatarak gösterdiği zaman daha iyi anlarım.					
2. Sınıfta bir bilgiyi yaparak öğrenmeyi tercih ederim.					
3. Başkalarıyla birlikte çalıştığım zaman daha fazla bilgiler üretebiliyorum.					
4. Bir grupla çalıştığım zaman daha fazla bilgi öğrenirim.					
5. Sınıfta en iyi başkalarıyla çalıştığım zaman öğrenirim.					
6. Öğretmen tahtaya yazdığında daha iyi öğrenirim.					
7. Sınıfta bir şeyi nasıl yapmam gerektiğini birisi anlattığı zaman daha iyi öğrenirim.					
8. Sınıfta bir şeyi yaptığım zaman daha iyi öğrenirim.					
9. Sınıfta duyduğum bilgileri okuduğum bilgilerden daha iyi hatırlarım.					
10. Ne yapmam gerektiğini okuduğum zaman daha iyi hatırlarım.					
11. Bir şeyin modelini yapabildiğim zaman daha çok öğrenirim.					
12. Ne yapmam gerektiğini okuduğum zaman daha iyi anlarım.					
13. Tek başıma çalıştığım zaman öğrendiklerimi daha iyi hatırlarım.					
14. Bir sınıf projesi için çalıştığımda daha çok şey öğrenirim.					
15. Sınıfta deneyler yaparak öğrenmekten zevk alırım.					

16. Çizerek çalışırken daha iyi öğrenirim.					
17. Öğretmen sınıfta konuyu anlattığı zaman daha iyi öğrenirim.					
18. Tek başıma çalıştığım zaman daha iyi öğrenirim.					
19. Sınıfta rol içeren aktivitelere katıldığım zaman öğrendiklerimi daha iyi anlarım.					
20. Sınıfta birisini dinlediğim zaman daha iyi öğrenirim.					
21. Bir ödev üzerinde iki veya üç arkadaşım ile çalışmaktan hoşlanırım.					
22. Bir konuyu yaparak öğrendiğim zaman, ne öğrendiğimi daha iyi hatırlarım.					
23. Başkalarıyla çalışmayı tercih ederim.					
24. Birisini dinlemektense okuyarak öğrenmeyi daha çok tercih ederim.					
25. Sınıf projesi için birşeyler yapmaktan hoşlanırım.					
26. Sınıfta ilgili aktivitelere katıldığım zaman çok iyi öğrenirim.					
27. Sınıfta tek başıma daha iyi çalışırım.					
28. Yapmam gerekenleri okuyarak daha iyi anlarım.					
29. Ders kitaplarındaki bilgileri okumaktan çok dinleyerek daha iyi öğrenirim.					
30. Tek başıma çalışmayı tercih ederim.					

## APPENDIX E

Algı ile İlgili Öğrenme Stilleri Tercih Anketi için  
Puanlama ve Hesaplama Cetveli

### Yönergeler

Bu ankette, her bir öğrenme stili kategorisi için 5 adet ifade yer almaktadır. İfadeler aşağıda her bir öğrenme stiline göre gruplandırılmıştır. Cevapladığınız her bir ifadenin sayasal bir değeri vardır:

Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
5	4	3	2	1

Aşağıdaki boşlukları vermiş olduğunuz cevapların sayısal değerleri ile doldurun. Örneğin, 6. ifade (görsel bir ifade) için verdiğiniz cevap *kesinlikle katılıyorum* ise 6. ifadenin yanındaki boşluğa 5 yazın.

### Görsel

6 - 5

Görsel bölüm için bütün sayısal değerleri tamamladıktan sonra, sayıları toplayın. Toplamı 2 ile çarpın ve elde ettiğiniz toplamı uygun boşluğa yazın. Aynı işlemi her bir öğrenme stili kategorisi için tekrarlayın. Bitirdiğiniz zaman aşağıdaki skalaya bakın. Skala size

Asıl öğrenme stili tercih(ler)inizi: 38 – 50 puan

İkinci derece öğrenme stili tercih(ler)inizi: 25 – 37 puan

Olumsuz öğrenme stillerinizi: 0 - 24 puan

bulmanıza yardımcı olacaktır.

Yardıma ihtiyacınız olursa, lütfen öğretmeninize başvurun.

## Puanlama Cetveli

### Görsel

6 - \_\_\_\_\_  
10 - \_\_\_\_\_  
12 - \_\_\_\_\_  
24 - \_\_\_\_\_  
29 - \_\_\_\_\_

Toplam \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_

(Puan)

### Dokunsal

11 - \_\_\_\_\_  
14 - \_\_\_\_\_  
16 - \_\_\_\_\_  
22 - \_\_\_\_\_  
25 - \_\_\_\_\_

Toplam \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_

(Puan)

### İşitsel

1 - \_\_\_\_\_  
7 - \_\_\_\_\_  
9 - \_\_\_\_\_  
17 - \_\_\_\_\_  
20 - \_\_\_\_\_

Toplam \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_

(Puan)

### Grupla Öğrenme

3 - \_\_\_\_\_  
4 - \_\_\_\_\_  
5 - \_\_\_\_\_  
21 - \_\_\_\_\_  
23 - \_\_\_\_\_

Toplam \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_

(Puan)

### Devinsel

2 - \_\_\_\_\_  
8 - \_\_\_\_\_  
15 - \_\_\_\_\_  
19 - \_\_\_\_\_  
26 - \_\_\_\_\_

Toplam \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_

(Puan)

### Bireysel Öğrenme

13 - \_\_\_\_\_  
18 - \_\_\_\_\_  
27 - \_\_\_\_\_  
28 - \_\_\_\_\_  
30 - \_\_\_\_\_

Toplam \_\_\_\_\_ x 2 = \_\_\_\_\_

(Puan)

Asıl öğrenme stilleri tercih(ler)i

38 – 50 puan

İkinci derecedeki öğrenme stilleri tercih(ler)i

25 – 37 puan

Olumsuz öğrenme stilleri

0 – 24 puan



## APPENDIX F

### Algı ile İlgili Öğrenme Stilleri Tercihlerinin Açıklamaları

Öğrenciler pek çok değişik şekilde öğrenirler. Algı ile İlgili Öğrenme Stilleri Tercihleri anketinin sonuçları sizing İngilizce öğrenirken tercih ettiğiniz yolları gösterir. Pek çok durumda, öğrencilerin öğrenme stili tercihleri öğrencilerin farklı durumlarda, bir materyali ne kadar iyi öğrendiklerini gösterir.

Aşağıdaki asıl öğrenme stili tercih(ler)inin açıklamaları bu şekilde öğrenenlerin özelliklerini anlatmaktadır. Bu açıklamalar size hangi yolla en iyi öğrendiğiniz hakkında bilgi sağlayacaktır.

#### Asıl Öğrenme Stili Tercihi **Görsel** Olanlar

Kelimeleri kitaplarda, tahtada, ve alıştırma kitaplarında görerek iyi öğreniyorsunuz. Bilgileri ve ne yapılması gerektiğini okuduğunuz zaman daha iyi hatırlıyor ve anlıyorsunuz. İşitsel bir öğrenci kadar sözel açıklamalara ihtiyacınız yok ve genellikle tek başına bir kitapla çalışarak öğreniyorsunuz. Ne yapılması gerekenler sözlü olarak anlatıldıklarında ve sunumları hatırlamak istiyorsanız bunlarla ilgili notlar almalısınız.

#### Asıl Öğrenme Stili Tercihi **İşitsel** Olanlar

Kelimeleri ve sözlü açıklamaları duyarak öğreniyorsunuz. Bilgileri, özellikle yeni olanları öğrenirken, sesli bir şekilde okuyarak veya okurken dudaklarınızı kıpırdatarak hatırlayabilirsiniz. Kasetler, sunumlar, ve sınıf tartışmalarını duymaktan faydalanabilirsiniz. Dinlemek için kaset yapmaktan, başkalarına öğretmekten, ve öğretmeninizle konuşmaktan faydalanırsınız.

### Asıl Öğrenme Stili Tercihi **Devinsel** Olanlar

Birşeyleri tecrübe ederek, fiziksel olarak sınıf aktivitelerine katılarak en iyi öğreniyorsunuz. Aktif olarak sınıf aktivitelerine, öğrenme gezilerine, ve sınıf içindeki rol içeren aktivitelere katılarak bilgileri iyi hatırlıyorsunuz. Bir uyarıcılar kombinasyonu, örneğin kasetle birleştirilmiş bir aktivite – yeni öğrendiklerinizi anlamana yardımcı olacaktır.

### Asıl Öğrenme stili **Dokunsal** Olanlar

En iyi yeni öğrendiklerinizi uygulamaya koyup tecrübe etme fırsatınız olduğunda öğreniyorsunuz. Yani laboratuvarlarda deney yaparak, modelleri ele alarak ve kurarak, materyallere dokunarak ve onlarla çalışmak size en iyi öğrenme durumlarını sağlamaktadırlar. Not tutmak veya ne yapmanız gerektiğini yazmanız öğrendiklerinizi hatırlamanıza yardımcı olabilirler. Sınıfta ilgili aktivitelere fiziksel olarak katılmanız yeni bilgileri anlamana yardımcı olabilir.

### Asıl Öğrenme Stili Tercihi **Grupla** Olanlar

En az *bir* başka öğrenci ile çalıştığınız zaman daha kolay öğreniyorsunuz. Veya bir çalışmayı *başkalarıyla* tamamladığınız zaman daha başarılı oluyorsunuz. Grup içerisindeki etkileşime ve başka öğrencilerle yapılan çalışmalara değer veriyorsunuz ve iki veya daha fazla sınıf arkadaşınızla çalıştığınız zaman öğrendiklerinizi daha iyi hatırlıyorsunuz. Grup çalışmasından aldığınız uyarıcı yeni öğrendiklerinizi öğrenmenize ve anlamana yardımcı olur.

### Asıl Öğrenme Stili Tercihi **Bireysel** Olanlar

Tek başına çalıştığınız zaman en iyi öğreniyorsunuz. Tek başına çalıştığınız zaman en iyi düşünebiliyorsunuz ve tek başına öğrendiğiniz bilgileri hatırlıyorsunuz.

Öğrendiklerinizi tek başına öğrendiğiniz zaman en iyi hatırlıyorsunuz ve tek başına çalıştığınız zaman öğrenmede daha çok aşama kaydediyorsunuz.

### **İkinci Derece Öğrenme Stilleri**

Pek çok durumda, ikinci derece öğrenme stilleri, öğrenci olarak hangi alanlarda görevinizi iyi yapabileceğinizi gösterirler. Genellikle başarılı bir öğrenci pek çok değişik şekilde öğrenebilir ve bundan dolayı siz de ikinci derecedeki öğrenme stillerinizle ilgili alıştırmalar yapıp onları geliştirebilirsiniz.

### **Olumsuz Öğrenme Stilleri**

Genellikle, olumsuz bir sonuç, bu yolla öğrenmede zorlanabileceğinizi gösterir. Bunun üstesinden gelebilmek için, öğrenmenizi daha güçlü stillerinize kanalize etmeniz bir çözüm olabilir. Başka bir çözüm de, olumsuz alan(lar)daki öğrenme stil(ler)iniz üzerinde çalışarak onları güçlendirmek olabilir.

## APPENDIX G

### STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

Version for Speakers of Other Languages Learning English

#### Directions

This form of the STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (SILL) is for students of English as a second or foreign language. You will find statements about learning English. Please read each statement. On the separate Worksheet, write the response (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) that tells HOW TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

1. **Never or almost never true of me**
2. **Usually not true of me**
3. **Somewhat true of me**
4. **Usually true of me**
5. **Always or almost always true of me**

NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE OF ME means that the statement is very rarely true of you.

USUALLY NOT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true less than half the time.

SOMEWHAT TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you about half the time.

USUALLY TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true more than half the time.

ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE OF ME means that the statement is true of you almost always.

Answer in terms of how well the statement describes you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Put your answers on the separate Worksheet. Please make no marks on the items. Work as quickly as you can without being careless. This usually takes 20-30 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, let the teacher know immediately.

## **Part A**

1. I think of the relationship between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the new word to help me remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.
7. I physically act out English words.
8. I review English lessons often.
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

## **Part B**

10. I say or write new English words several times.
11. I try to talk like native speakers.
12. I practice the sounds of English.
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.
14. I start conversations in English.
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
16. I read for pleasure in English.
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
20. I try to find patterns in English.
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.

22. I try not to translate word-for-word.
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

### **Part C**

24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
25. When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
27. I read English without looking up every new word.
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
29. If I cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

### **Part D**

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
38. I think about my progress in learning English.

### **Part E**

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.

- 43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
- 44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

### **Part F**

- 45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or to say it again.
- 46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
- 47. I practice English with other students.
- 48. I ask for help from English speakers.
- 49. I ask questions in English.
- 50. I try to learn about the culture of the English speakers.

## APPENDIX H

### Worksheet for Answering and Scoring the SILL

Name, Surname:

Date:

Sex: M F

1. The blanks (\_\_\_\_\_) are numbered for each item on the SILL.
2. Write your response to each item (i.e., write 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) in each of the blanks.
3. Add up each column. Put the result on the line marked SUM.
4. Divide by the number under SUM to get the average for each column. Round this average to the nearest tenth, as in 3.4.
5. Figure out your overall average. To do this, add up all the SUMs for the different parts of the SILL. Then divide by 50.

Part A	Part B	Part C	Part D	Part E	Part F	Whole SILL
1. _____	10. _____	24. _____	30. _____	39. _____	45. _____	SUM Part A _____
2. _____	11. _____	25. _____	31. _____	40. _____	46. _____	SUM Part B _____
3. _____	12. _____	26. _____	32. _____	41. _____	47. _____	SUM Part C _____
4. _____	13. _____	27. _____	33. _____	42. _____	48. _____	SUM Part D _____
5. _____	14. _____	28. _____	34. _____	43. _____	49. _____	SUM Part E _____
6. _____	15. _____	29. _____	35. _____	44. _____	50. _____	SUM Part F _____
7. _____	16. _____		36. _____			
8. _____	17. _____		37. _____			
9. _____	18. _____		38. _____			
	19. _____					
	20. _____					
	21. _____					
	22. _____					
	23. _____					

SUM \_\_\_\_\_ SUM \_\_\_\_\_ SUM \_\_\_\_\_ SUM \_\_\_\_\_ SUM \_\_\_\_\_ SUM \_\_\_\_\_ SUM \_\_\_\_\_  
 $\div 9 =$  \_\_\_\_\_  $\div 14 =$  \_\_\_\_\_  $\div 6 =$  \_\_\_\_\_  $\div 9 =$  \_\_\_\_\_  $\div 6 =$  \_\_\_\_\_  $\div 6 =$  \_\_\_\_\_  $\div 50 =$  \_\_\_\_\_

(Overall Average)



## APPENDIX I

### DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ

#### Yönergeler

Bu liste İngilizce öğrenme şekliniz hakkında bilgi toplamak amacı ile düzenlenmiştir ve dil öğrenme ile ilgili 50 cümleden oluşmaktadır. Lütfen her cümleyi okuyunuz ve **cümlelerin size ne kadar uygun olduğunu gösteren rakamı** (1, 2, 3, 4, veya 5) size verilecek cevap kağıdı üzerine yazınız. Rakamların ne anlama geldiği aşağıda açıklanmaktadır:

1. Hiç yapmam
2. Genellikle yapmam
3. Az çok yaparım
4. Genellikle yaparım
5. Her zaman yaparım

Cevaplarınızı **cümlelerin sizi ne kadar iyi tanımladığını göz önüne alarak veriniz.** Nasıl olmanız gerektiğini veya başkalarının yaptıklarını düşünerek , veya seçenekleri doğru veya yanlış şeklinde değerlendirerek **cevap vermeyiniz.** Cevaplarınızı mümkün olduğunca çabuk veriniz ve lütfen bu sayfalar üzerinde herhangi bir işaretleme yapmayınız. Sorularınız varsa, lütfen öğretmeninize sorunuz.

#### **Bölüm A**

1. Yeni öğrendiklerimle bildiklerim arasında ilişki kurarım.
2. Yeni bir kelimeyi hatırlamak için, onu cümle içinde kullanırım.
3. Yeni bir kelime ile bildiğim bir kelime arasında bir ses ilişkisi kurarım.

4. Yeni bir kelimeyi, zihnimde görüntüsünü canlandırarak veya resmini çizerek hatırlarım.
5. Yeni bir kelimeyi hatırlamak için, içinde bu kelimenin geçtiği kafiyeler oluştururum.
6. Bir tarafına yeni kelimeyi, diğer tarafına o kelimenin tanımını veya benzeri bilgileri yazdığım küçük kartlar kullanırım.
7. Yeni bir kelimeyi hareketlerle ve davranışlarla canlandırırım.
8. İngilizce derslerimi sık sık gözden geçiririm.
9. Yeni bir İngilizce kelimenin veya ifadenin sayfadaki, tahtadaki veya bir sokak işaretindeki yerini hatırlarım.

## **Bölüm B**

10. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce deyim yada ifadeleri, pratik yapmak amacı ile birkaç defa tekrar eder veya yazarım.
11. Anadili İngilizce olanların konuşma şeklini taklit ederim.
12. İngilizcenin sesleri veya alfabesi ile ilgili araştırmalar yaparım.
13. Bildiğim İngilizce kelimeleri değişik kombinasyonlarda kullanırım.
14. Sınıf içinde veya dışında İngilizce konuşmaları ben başlatırım.
15. İngilizce TV programları veya filimler seyredirim.
16. Eğlence amacı ile İngilizce dergi, kitap, vs. okurum.
17. İngilizce kişisel notlar, mesajlar, mektuplar, veya raporlar yazarım.
18. İngilizce bir şeyler okurken, ilk önce ana fikrini anlamak için okuma metnini çabucak gözden geçiririm, daha sonra başa dönüp daha dikkatli bir şekilde okurum.
19. Türkçe’de, yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeye benzer kelime var mi diye dikkat ederim.
20. İngilizce kalıplar bulmaya çalışırım.
21. Bilmediğim İngilizce bir kelimenin anlamını, kelimeyi bildiğim kök ve eklere ayırarak bulurum.
22. İngilizce’de duyduğum veya okuduğum şeyleri kelime kelime aynen Türkçe’ye çevirmeden anlamaya çalışırım.

23. İngilizce’de duyarak veya okuyarak öğrendiğim yeni şeylerin özetlerini çıkarırım.

### **Bölüm C**

24. Okuduğum veya duyduğum bazı şeyleri anlamazsam, bulabildiğim ipuçlarını kullanarak bu kelimenin genel anlamlarını tahmin ederim
25. İngilizce konuşurken söylemek istediğim tam ifadeyi hatırlayamazsam, söylemek istediğim şeyi anlatmak için el kol hareketleri kullanırım.
26. Kullanmam gereken tam kelimeleri bulamıyorsam, aynı anlama gelebilecek yeni kelimeler (örneğin, “torch” yerine “hand-light”) türetirim.
27. Karşılaştığım her yeni kelimeyi anlamak için sözlüğe bakmadan, İngilizce kitap, dergi, vs. okurum.
28. İngilizce konuşurken karşımdaki kişinin ne söyleyeceğini önceden tahmin etmeye çalışırım.
29. Söylemem veya yazmam gereken doğru ifadeyi hatırlayamadığımda, ifadeyi anlatmak için farklı bir yol bulurum; örneğin aynı anlama gelen başka bir ifade kullanırım veya cümlelerle açıklarım.

### **Bölüm D**

30. İngilizce’mi kullanmak için mümkün olduğu kadar fazla fırsatlar yaratmaya çalışırım.
31. İngilizce kullanırken yaptığım hatalardan ders alırım.
32. Birisi İngilizce konuşurken, konuşan kişinin söylediklerine dikkat ederim.
33. Nasıl daha iyi İngilizce öğrenebileceğimi bulmaya çalışırım.
34. Çalışma programımı, İngilizce çalışmak için yeterince zamanım olacak şekilde planlarım.
35. Sürekli olarak İngilizce konuşabileceğim insanlar ararım.
36. Mümkün olduğu kadar fazla İngilizce (kitap veya makale) okuma fırsatları yaratmaya çalışırım.

37. İngilizce öğrenme hedeflerimi (örneğin, İngilizce’de ne kadar yeterli olmak istediğimi veya uzun vadede İngilizce’yi nasıl kullanmak isteyebileceğimi) belirlerim.
38. İngilizce öğrenmede gösterdiğim genel gelişmeyi değerlendiririm.

## **Bölüm E**

39. İngilizce kullanırken kendimi endişeli hissettiğimde rahatlamaya çalışırım.
40. İngilizce konuşurken hata yapmaktan korktuğum zaman kendime cesaret verici şeyler söylerim.
41. İngilizce öğrenirken bir başarı gösterdiğimde, kendime ödül veririm.
42. İngilizce öğrenmemi etkileyebilecek fiziksel stres belirtilerini anlayıp onları gidermeye çalışırım.
43. İngilizce öğrenirken hissettiklerimi yazdığım kişisel bir günlük tutarım.
44. İngilizce öğrenme süreci ile ilgili duygu ve düşüncelerimi güvendiğim birisi ile paylaşıyorum.

## **Bölüm F**

45. İngilizce konuşurken bir şeyi anlamazsam, karşımdaki kimseden söylediği şeyi söylemesini, tekrar etmesini, veya açıklamasını isterim.
46. Çevremdeki kişilerden telaffuzumu düzeltmelerini isterim.
47. İngilizce öğrenirken bir arkadaşım ile beraber çalışırım.
48. Anadili İngilizce olan birileri ile konuşurken yardıma ihtiyaç duyduğumda, onlardan yardım isterim.
49. İngilizce sorular sorarım.
50. İngilizce konuşulan ülkelerin kültürlerini öğrenmeye çalışırım

## APPENDIX J

### DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ

#### Cevap ve Puanlama Cetveli

Adı, Soyadı:

Cinsiyet : K E

Tarih:

1. Boşluklar (\_\_\_\_) anketteki her bir soru için sıralandırılmışlardır.
2. Her bir soru için cevabınızı boşluklara (1,2,3,4, veya 5 şeklinde) yazınız.
3. Her sütunun toplamını bulunuz. Sonucu TOP yazan yere yazınız.
4. Ortalamayı bulmak için toplamı TOP'un altında yazan sayıya bölünüz. Bulduğunuz ortalamayı en yakın onlar basamağına yuvarlayınız.
5. Ortalamanızı bulunuz. Bunun için tüm bölümlerin TOPlamlarını toplayınız ve 50'ye bölünüz.

Bölüm A	Bölüm B	Bölüm C	Bölüm D	Bölüm E	Bölüm F	Tüm Liste
1. ____	10. ____	24. ____	30. ____	39. ____	45. ____	TOP Böl. A ____
2. ____	11. ____	25. ____	31. ____	40. ____	46. ____	TOP Böl. B ____
3. ____	12. ____	26. ____	32. ____	41. ____	47. ____	TOP Böl. C ____
4. ____	13. ____	27. ____	33. ____	42. ____	48. ____	TOP Böl. D ____
5. ____	14. ____	28. ____	34. ____	43. ____	49. ____	TOP Böl. E ____
6. ____	15. ____	29. ____	35. ____	44. ____	50. ____	TOP Böl. F ____
7. ____	16. ____		36. ____			
8. ____	17. ____		37. ____			
9. ____	18. ____		38. ____			
	19. ____					
	20. ____					
	21. ____					
	22. ____					
	23. ____					

TOP \_\_\_\_ TOP \_\_\_\_ TOP \_\_\_\_ TOP \_\_\_\_ TOP \_\_\_\_ TOP \_\_\_\_ TOP \_\_\_\_  
÷ 9= \_\_\_\_ ÷14= \_\_\_\_ ÷ 6= \_\_\_\_ ÷ 9= \_\_\_\_ ÷ 6= \_\_\_\_ ÷6= \_\_\_\_ ÷50= \_\_\_\_

(Genel Ortalama)

## APPENDIX K

### Sample Reading Texts Used in the Think Aloud Protocols

#### FRIENDSHIP

Friends play an important part in our lives, and although we may take the fact of friendship for granted, we often do not clearly understand how to make friends. While we get on well with a number of people, we are usually friends with only a very few - for example, the average among students is about 6 per person.

Moreover, a great many relationships come under the term 'friendship'. In all cases, two people like one another and enjoy being together. However, the degree of closeness between them and the reasons for their mutual interest differ greatly. In other words, there are many reasons for why two people share the same interest with each other.

At the very beginning, much depends on how people meet and first positive impressions. As we get to know people, we take into consideration things like age, physical attractiveness, economic and social status and intelligence. Although these factors may not seem very important, it is difficult to be friends when there is a big age difference or when the backgrounds are different.

As we get closer, we become interested in actual behaviour, facial expression and tone of voice. Friends will stand closer together and will spend more time looking at each other than people who just know each other. Smiles and soft voices also express friendliness. It is because they may send out the wrong signals that shy people often have difficulty in making friends. To illustrate, their nervousness may

be mistaken for unfriendliness. People who do not look at the eyes of those they are speaking to are not trusted. However, those people may simply lack confidence.

Some relationships become stronger with argument and discussion, but usually intimate friends have similar ideas and beliefs and share the same attitudes and interests. Although some people become close friends immediately, it usually takes time to reach this point. The more intimate people become, the more they rely on one another. People want to do friends favours and hate to disappoint them.

There are no friendship ceremonies but the support and understanding that result from shared experiences and feelings seems to create a powerful relationship which can overcome differences in background and age.

(Kandiller and Velioglu, 1996, p. 285)

## HOLIDAYS

More than 300 million people go abroad for their holidays each year, and most of them prefer spending less on food and clothes than on holidays. Choosing the ideal holiday is not always easy, but today there is a wide range of choice, and it is easy to find something to suit your taste and pocket.

Some people like planning their holiday independently. Others find making arrangements on their own difficult, so they prefer to book a package tour. It depends on where you are going, how much money you have and whether you are travelling alone with friends and family.

The obvious advantage of a package holiday is that it is simple to organise. You book the holiday through a travel agent, and transport and accommodation are arranged for you. You don't have to worry about how you will get there or where you will stay. All you have to do is to pay the bill. If you take an independent holiday, on the other hand, you can spend a lot of time and money checking complicated timetables, chasing – looking for – cheap flights and trying to make hotel reservations in a language you can't even speak. In addition, package holidays are usually incredibly cheap. For the price of a good dress, you can have a fifteen-day holiday in a holiday resort abroad, including accommodation, meals and air travel. A similar independent holiday can cost much more.

However, planning your own holiday has several advantages. You are free to choose where and when you want to go, how you want to travel, and how long you want to stay. You can avoid the large holiday resorts which are often crowded with holidaymakers on package tours. You can eat the food of the region at reasonable prices at local restaurants instead of the international dishes that they serve in holiday



resorts. Moreover, although package holidays are usually cheap, they are not always cheaper. If you are willing to take a little trouble, you may be able to save money by organising a foreign holiday yourself.

(Kandiller and Velioglu, 1996, p. 240)

## APPENDIX L

### CODING INDEX

#### 1. METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES

- *PLAN*
  - Preview
    - genre / organising principle
    - main idea / topic
  - Organizational planning
    - Sections
  - Self management
    - Directed attention
    - Read Aloud / whisper for a purpose
    - Self-cue
    - Repeat Pattern
    - Avoid (what I don't know how to say; change topic)
    - Rehearsal (lip / think words before saying)
- *SELECTIVE ATTENTION*
  - Selective attention to known words
  - Selective attention to unknown words
  - Selective attention to important/key words
  - Selective attention to the title
  - Selective attention to linguistic features / word endings / specific parts of speech / grammatical correctness
  - Selective attention to pronunciation
  - Selective attention to punctuation
  - Skip
  - Reread
    - Look back
- *MONITOR*
  - Strategy (Monitor current strategy use)
  - Monitor sense (note whether what is being read/said/written makes sense)
    - Makes sense + (I understand)
    - Makes sense – (Doesn't make sense)

- Auditory monitoring (sounds right/wrong)
- Verify Confirm/change an inference, prediction, cognate meaning (revising an inference by making a new one codes as both verification and inferencing)
- Self-correct errors / perceived errors
- Self questioning / hypothesizing answer and asking interviewer if correct
- Self awareness – comment on own ability

## 2. COGNITIVE STRATEGIES

- *CONNECT WITH BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE TO MAKE MEANING*
  - **Inference:** Pulling together elements not stated in the text. Guessing based on some information, not just wild guessing.
    - I- (if incorrect)
    - Infer title
    - Infer picture
    - Infer numerals
    - Infer known words (Take words that s/he recognizes in the text and try to make sense)
    - Infer text
    - Infer literature/media
    - Infer general world knowledge
  - **Prediction:** Educated guess about information that will follow.
    - Prediction based on title
    - Prediction based on known words
    - Prediction based on context
    - Prediction based on literature/ media
    - Prediction based on general world knowledge
  - **Elaborate** (elaboration – (if irrelevant))
    - personal elaboration (personal experience, judgement, emotional response to text)
    - between parts elaboration (connection between parts of text)
    - class/academic elaboration (talk about specific class activity)
    - world elaboration (observations about world situations)
    - Self evaluative elaboration
- *USE SPECIFIC LANGUAGE KNOWLEDGE TO SOLVE PROBLEMS*
  - L2 Knowledge
    - Deduction

- Decoding (St tries to decode each word)
- Mental decoding
- Decoding Character (recognition/pronunciation)
- Semantic awareness (synonyms, antonyms, connotations)
- L1 – L2 Knowledge
  - Cognates
  - Borrow modify / accent L1 word to fit L2; make up word
  - Mix – go back and forth from L2 to L1 words (reading in English; Speaking in Turkish)
- *MANIPULATE INFORMATION*
  - Retell
  - Summarise
  - Translate ( - if clearly incorrect)
- *RESOURCE* (text, own notes, video/audio, task info)
  - Question for information that is unknown or for general help – spelling, word meaning, translation
- *RECALL STRATEGIES*
  - Sequence (think through memorized sequence)
  - Association – Sound associations
  - Brainstorm L2 Vocabulary (writing/speaking)
  - Visualize word or character
  - Auditory recall – (negative) + (positive) (hear words / say aloud to retrieve meaning)

## APPENDIX M

### LEARNING STRATEGY DEFINITIONS

**Metacognitive strategies** involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned.

1. Planning: previewing the organising concept or principle or an anticipated learning task; proposing strategies for handling an upcoming task; generating a plan for the parts, sequence, main ideas, or language functions to be used in handling a task.
2. Directed Attention: Deciding in advance to attend in general to a learning task and to ignore irrelevant distractors; maintaining attention during task execution.
3. Selective Attention: Deciding in advance to attend to specific aspects of language input or situational details that assist in performance of a task; attending to specific aspects of language input during task execution.
4. Self –management: Understanding the conditions that help one successfully accomplish language tasks and arranging for the presence of those conditions; controlling one’s language performance to maximise use of what is already known.
5. Self –monitoring: Checking, verifying, or correcting one’s comprehension or performance in the course of a language task. This can be coded in the think aloud protocols in the following ways:
  - *Comprehension* monitoring: checking, verifying, or correcting one’s understanding
  - *Production* monitoring: checking, verifying, or correcting one’s language production
  - *Auditory* monitoring: using one’s “ear” for the language (how something sounds) to make decisions
  - *Visual* monitoring: using one’s “eye” for the language (how something looks) to make decisions

- *Strategy* monitoring: tracking how well a plan is working
6. Problem Identification: Explicitly identifying the central point needing resolution in a task, or identifying an aspect of the task that hinders its successful completion.
  7. Self-evaluation: Checking the outcomes of one's own language performance against an internal measure of completeness and accuracy; checking one's language repertoire, strategy use or ability to perform the task at hand. This can be coded in the think aloud protocols in the following ways:
    - *Production* evaluation: checking one's work when the task is finished
    - *Performance* evaluation: judging one's overall execution of the task
    - *Ability* evaluation: judging one's ability to perform the task
    - *Strategy* evaluation: judging one's strategy use when the task is completed
    - *Language Repertoire* evaluation: judging how much one knows of the L2, at the word, phrase, sentence or concept level.

**Cognitive strategies** involve interacting with the material to be learned, manipulating the material mentally or physically, or applying a specific technique to a learning task.

1. Repetition: Repeating a chunk of language (a word or phrase) in the course of performing a language task.
2. Resourcing: Using available reference sources of information about the target language, including dictionaries, textbooks, and prior work.
3. Grouping: Ordering, classifying, or labelling material used in a language task based on common attributes; recalling information based on grouping previously done.
4. Deduction/Induction: Consciously applying learned or self developed rules to produce or understand the target language.
5. Substitution: Selecting alternative approaches, revised plans, or different words or phrases to accomplish a language task.

8. Elaboration: Relating new information to prior knowledge; relating different parts of new information to each other; making meaningful personal associations to information presented. This can be coded in the think aloud protocols in the following ways:
  - *Personal* elaboration: Making judgements about or reacting personally to the material presented
  - *World* elaboration: Using knowledge gained from experience in the world
  - *Academic* elaboration: Using knowledge gained in academic situations
  - *Between Parts* elaboration: Relating parts of the task to each other
  - *Questioning* elaboration: Using a combination of questions and world knowledge to brainstorm logical solutions to a task
  - *Self-evaluative* elaboration: Judging self in relation to materials
9. Summarisation: Making a mental summary of language and information presented in a task
10. Translation: Rendering ideas from one language to another in a relatively verbatim manner.
11. Use of specific language knowledge to solve problems/Transfer: using previously acquired linguistic knowledge to facilitate a task.
12. Inferencing: using available information:
  - To guess the meanings or usage of unfamiliar language items associated with a language task
  - To predict outcomes
  - To fill in missing information.

## APPENDIX N

### SAMPLE TRANSCRIPTION ANALYSES

#### TUNCAY

*Selective attention to title*

*Elaborate – class activity*

Başlık ‘Holidays’ demiş, tatiller. Bu benim portfolyo konum zaten bunun

*Prediction based on title*

hakkında bazı şeyler biliyorum. Büyük bir ihtimalle tatil seçimleri, ücretler, oteller,

*Read Aloud*

bu tarz şeyler içinde bulunacak. More than (Sessiz okumaya başlıyor). Her yıl

*Translation*

insanlar, 300 milyondan fazla insan yurt dışına çıkıyorlarmış tatilleri için ve

*Translation*

bunlardan çoğu, daha az yemek yemek ve daha az kıyafet harcıyorlarmış tatillerde. . .

*Monitor Sense – what is being said selective attention to known words Translation*

olmadı, sey tatillerine, burada ‘food and clothes’ yani kıyafetlerden ve yiyeceklerden

*Translation*

daha fazla para harcıyorlar tatillere harcadıklarından. Onların tatil seçimleri genelde

*Translation*

daha kolay olmuyormuş, çünkü fakat bugün geniş bir, seçimleri çok geniş yerlere

*Translation*

uzanabiliyormuş, çok geniş seçimlere sahiplermiş. Ve bunu seçmek, herhangi birşeyi

*Decoding*

*Self-correction -Translation*

seçmek, uygun olan kendileri için . . . uygun olan şeyi seçmek oldukça kolaymış.

*Selective attention to unknown words*

Burada ‘pocket’ in manasını bilmiyorum ve bana onun anlamını çıkarmamda yardımcı



*Selective attention to specific parts of speech*

olacak işaret olduğunu düşünmüyorum. Sadece bu kelime bir isim.

*Read Aloud*

*Translation*

'Some people like (fısıldayarak okumaya başlıyor) bazı insanlar kendi

*Translation*

tatillerini özgürce planlamaktan hoşlanıyorlarmış. Diğerleri ise sahip oldukları, zor

*Translation*

*Monitor*

*Decoding*

fikirlerine sahip, zor seçimleri var, yok, 'others' diğerleri 'find' buluyorlar, 'making'

*Selective attention to unknown words*

yapmayı, 'arrangements' bunun anlamını bilmiyorum, bir düşüneyim ama . . .

*Decoding*

*Selective attention to parts of speech*

'arrange' birşey ayarlamak, düzenlemek demek, ha şimdi . . . 'arrangement' isim hali

*Self awareness – comment on own ability*

oluyor. . . bundan sonraki cumleyi de bir okuyayım belki daha iyi anlarım. Onlar

*Translation*

şeyde, paket turları tercih ediyorlarmış, paket turları ayırmayı tercih ediyorlarmış. Bu

*Translation*

yüzden, çünkü onlar . . . kendileri zor seçimler yapıyorlarmış. Seçemiyorlar,

*Translation*

zorlanıyorlar, bu yüzden kendileri paket turları tercih ediyorlar. Bu nereye

*Translation*

gittiklerine, ve ne kadara olduğuna balıymış, ne kadar paraya sahip olduklarına

*Translation*

bağlıymış. Onlar yalnız herhangi bir yere, yani seyahat ettiklerinde, ya da

*Translation*

*Decoding*

arkadaşlarıyla ya da ailesiyle herhangi bir yere seyahat ederlermiş. Açık olan avantajı

*Translation*

bu paket turların, paket tatillerin açık olan avantajı da çok basit olarak organize

*Translation*

olması, düzenlenmesiymiş. Tatili bir tatil acentasından ayırtabiliyormuşsunuz.

*Decode*    *Auditory recall*                      *Self questioning*                      *Guessing meaning from context*  
Ulaşım, 'accomodation'ın ve . . . ne olabilir ki bu ? . . . o zaman geriye kalan . . .

*Translation*

kalınacak ve gezilecek yerler, tur programı, uyku, yatış, kalkış, yani bütün tur

*Translation*

programını ayarlıyormuş. Onun için endişelenmene gerek yokmuş senin

*Translation*

nereyegidecepin ve orada nerede kalacağın konusunda endişelenmene gerek yokmuş

*Translation*

çünkü bunların hepsini zaten seyahat acentası senin için ayarlıyormuş. Tabi bunların

*Translation*

hepsi için sen bir hesap, ücret ödemek zorundasın. Eğer özgür bir tatil istiyorsan,

*Translation*

*Auditory Recall*

başka bir ifadeyle, daha çok zamanını harcayabilirsin. . . . 'complicated'

*Cognate in L1*

yanılmıyorsam zor demekti, Türkçe'de de var zaten, komplike'den geliyor.

*Decode*

*Selective attention to unknown words*

*Auditory Recall*

'Complicated' zor zaman şeyleri 'timetable', zor zaman, . . . 'cashing' bu bozuk para

*Monitor Sense – (Doesn't make sense)*

*Self – evaluative*

anlamına geliyor, ama bu durumda texti anlam olarak bütünlemiyor. Bir daha

*elaboration*

*Look back – reread*

*Decode*

*okumam*

gerekıyor, pardon 'chasing' . . . çok zaman harcayabilirsin ve para, . . . bu

*Selective attention to linguistic features*

*L2 knowledge*

zaten burada verilmiş ya . . . bunu punctuationdan anlayabiliyoruz, yani tirelerden,

*Decod*

*Monitor Sense +*

*Translation*

*Infer*

'table' masa , yok bu da olmuyor, daha çok zamanını harcıyormuş. . . . Doğru bu

*Text*

*Translation*

zaman çizelgesi olabilir, tabi bu zaman çizelgesini kontrol ederken daha çok zaman

*Translation*

harcıyormuş ve araştırıyormuş ucuz uçuşları ve otel rezervasyonları yapmayı

*Translation*

*Manipulate Information - Summarise*

deniyormuş dilde . . . burada işte parçanın tümüne baktığımızda zaten uçuşların daha,

*Manipulate Information – Summarise*

*Inference – (negative)*

travel ajansları uçuşları ayarlarlar, işte rezervasyon yaparlar, bunların geneline de

*Translation*

*Read Aloud to Make Sense*

chasing denir zaten. Uçak rezervasyonu, işte şey, ‘cheap flights and trying to make

*Translation*

hotel reservations’ ucuz uçuşlar ve otel rezervasyonu yapmayı denemek ‘in a

*Read Aloud to Make Sense*

*Translation*

language that you can’t even speak’ konuşamadığın bir dilde bile bu şeyleri

*Translation*

*Substitute*

yaptırmak, ucuz uçuşları ve otel rezervasyonlarını yaptırmak. ‘In addition’ bununla

*Translation*

birlikte paket turlar genellikle inanılmaz derecede ucuzdur, bir kıyafete verebileceğin

*Translation*

parayla, sen 15 günlük bir yurt dışında bir otelde kalabilirmişsin. Bunun için de iste

*Translation*

*Decoding*

bu seyahatler, turlar, hahilmiş, yemekler, ve havayolu da dahilmiş. Benzer özgür, yani

*Selective attention to known words*

*Translation*

bireysel, ‘independent’ burada özgür, yani bağımsız anlamında kullanılmış. Benzer

*Translation*

bireysel tatiller daha yüksek bir ücrete mal olabilirmiş. Fakat ben burada yazarın

*Elaborate Personal Judgement*

söylediklerine katılmıyorum çünkü bireysel yapılan tatillerde seçimleri kendimiz

*Elaborate Personal Judgement*

yaptığımız için hem kesemize daha uygun olabilir hem de istediğimiz yerlere

*Elaborate Personal Judgement*

gidebiliriz. Halbuki tur tatillerinde belli bir çizelge vardır, yani accomodation, ondan

*Elaborate Personal Judgement*

sonra chasing, timetables bunlar belirlidir zaten, travel agent tarafından belirlenir, bu

*Elaborate Personal Judgement*

yüzden de tam olarak istediğimiz yerleri göremeyiz. Devam etmek gerekirse, . . . .

*Translation*

fakat bizim sahip olduğumuz tatillerin planlarken çok avantaja sahipmişiz, biz

*Monitor Sense -*

*self- correction*

ozgürmüşüz, burada da yazar bana katılıyor galiba, (gulmeye başlıyor) . . . yani ben

*Read Aloud*

*Translation*

yazara katılıyorum. ‘You are free to choose . . .’ Nereye gideceğimizi kendimiz

*Translation*

seçebilirmişiz, demin de dediğim gibi ne zaman gideceğimizi de seçebilirmişiz, nasıl

*Translation*

seyahat edeceğimizi, orada ne kadar kalmak istediğimizi, biz geniş tatil otellerinden

*Translation*

sakinabilirmişiz çünkü onlar çok kalabalık olurlarmış tatil yapan kişilerle, paket turla

*Translation*

tatil yapan kişilerle, çok kalabalık olurlarmış, paket turlar genelde büyük otellere

*Translation*

götürürler. Büyük oteller de zaten paket tur düzenleyen bu ajanslar, işte, şirketler,

*Translation*

yüzlerce, binlerce kişi götürdüğü için genelde kalabalık olur. Eğer biz kendimiz

*Translation*

bireysel tatilimizi yaparsak daha sakin, daha sessiz yerlere istediğimiz zaman,

*Translation*

*Read Aloud*

istediğimiz şekilde gidebiliriz. ‘You can eat the food of the region . . . at local

*Decode*

restaurant' Biz yemek yiyebilirmişiz , alanlarda 'reasonable price' yani yerel,

*Decode*

bölgesel restoranlarda kabul edilebilir fiyata yemek yiyebilirmişiz, uluslararası mutfak

*Translation*

yerine. Çünkü tatil, tatil otellerinde, bu holiday resortlarda, şeyde, uluslar arası

*Translation*

mutfak servis ediliyor fakat biz eğer, şeyde, biz bunun yerine yerel bölgelerden de

*Translation*

yani uygun fiyatlarla yerel lokantalardan da yemek yiyebilirmişiz. Paket turları

*Translation*

*Infer*

genelde ucuz olmasına rağmen onlar daima daha ucuz değillerdir. Yani ucuzun da

*General World Knowledge*

*World Elaboration*

ucuzu vardır tabiri burada gerçekleşiyor. Yani ne kadar ucuz olsalar da kesinlikle

*World Elaboration*

daha ucuzu vardır, çünkü burada sonuçta bu seyahat acentalarının da kendi karlarını

*Translation*

koyacaklardır üzerine. Eğer biz kendimiz bu şekilde düzenlersek, biz o kari, o parayı

*Translation*

*Decoding*

vermemiş olucaz. Eğer biraz sıkıntı çekmeyi istiyorsak, belki de paramızı, yabancı,

*Auditory Recall*

*Inference -*

bu farklı, yabancı 'foreign' aslında yabancı demek fakat burada farklı tatiller

*Translation*

anlamında kullanılmış galiba, organize edebiliriz diyor, eğer biz, paramızı korursak,

*Translation*

bu farklı tatilleri organize edebiliriz kendi başımıza diyor, eğer biraz sıkıntı çekmek istersek.

*Manipulate Information - Summarise*

Yani sonuçta burada, şeyde, parçada yazar paket turlarla, yani travel ajansların

*Summarise*

düzenlediği turlarla kendi özgür, free turlarımızı karşılaştırmış. Paket turların ucuz

*Summarise*

olduğunu, ve bizim hiçbir zahmet görmeyeceğimizi, fakat free turların daha ucuz

*Summarise*

olabileceğini ve bize bazı zamanlarda daha uygun olabileceğini ve eğer bazı ufak

*Summarise*

zahmet ve sıkıntılara isteyerek katlanabilirsek bu turları biz kendimiz daha iyi bir

*Summarise*

*Elaborate Personal Judgement*

şekilde düzenleyebileceğimizi söylüyor. Ben de yazara son bölümlere doğru

katılmaya başladım.

*Elaborate Personal Judgement+ Experience*

Bence yazar bu parçayı yazarken tatile gideceklere yol göstermek, onlara ufak

*Elaborate Personal Judgement+ Experience*

da olsa bir fikir vermeyi ve kendi deneyimlerinden onları istifade ettirmeye,

*Elaborate Personal Judgement+ Experience*

bilgilerinden istifade ettirmeye çalışmış. Çünkü bildiğim kadarıyla, anladığım

*Elaborate Personal Judgement+ Experience*

kadarıyla, yazması için belli bir araştırma, öngörü ve hatta kendisinin de bu tatillere,

*Elaborate Personal Judgement+ Experience*

bu olayların içinde bulunmuş olması lazım. Yazar kendisi denemiş ve bu deneyimleri

*Elaborate Personal Judgement+ Experience*

bize aktarmış ve hangisinin daha doğru olacağını bizim kendi seçeceğimize, sebepleri

göstereceğimizi açıklamış.