STUDENT ENGAGEMENT IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION: A MULTI-METHOD INVESTIGATION OF PERSONAL AND SOCIAL FACILITATORS IN A HIGHER EDUCATION CONTEXT

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Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

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

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ABSTRACT

STUDENT ENGAGEMENT IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION:
A MULTI-METHOD INVESTIGATION OF
PERSONAL AND SOCIAL FACILITATORS
IN A HIGHER EDUCATION CONTEXT

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Inspired by the theoretical predictions of Skinner and Pitzer (2012), this study aimed to investigate personal and social facilitators of student engagement in foreign language education by adopting a multi-method concurrent research design. Under the title of personal facilitators, how well students' sense of belongingness, self-efficacy, language learning strategy use, and language learning autonomy would predict their English language performance was questioned. In this part, the correlational method was utilized and the responses were analysed through the hierarchical regression method. With regard to the social facilitators, students were asked to express their opinions concerning teacher practices and school practices that were likely to promote their engagement. This part of the investigation was conducted in the form of a descriptive survey, so the descriptive analysis method was utilized. 165 students studying in the prep school of a private university contributed to this quantitative research. The results pointed at a significant relationship of students' sense of belongingness with their success in the structure and written expression part, their self-efficacy with their scores in the listening and reading comprehension parts, and their language learning strategy use with their success in the reading comprehension part of the TOEFL ITP exam; nevertheless, language learner autonomy did not contribute to

student success in any parts of the TOEFL ITP exam. Moreover, the results indicated that need-supportive teacher practices and school activities such as organizing language learning resource centers and extra-curricular activities were essential for student engagement in foreign language education environments.

Keywords: Student engagement, higher education, student engagement in foreign language education, facilitators of student engagement

ÖZ

YABANCI DİL EĞİTİMİNDE ÖĞRENCİ KATILIMI:
BİR YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURUMUNDA KOLAYLAŞTIRICI KİŞİSEL VE SOSYAL ETMENLER ÜZERİNE ÇOKLU YÖNTEM ARAŞTIRMASI

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Skinner ve Pitzer (2012)'in kuramsal öngörülerinden esinlenerek düzenlenmiş olan bu çalışma yabancı dil eğitiminde öğrenci katılımını kolaylaştırıcı kişisel ve sosyal etmenleri incelemeyi hedeflemiş ve araştırmada çoklu eşzamanlı araştırma yöntemi benimsenmiştir. Kolaylaştırıcı kişisel etmenler başlığı altında, öğrencilerin aidiyet duygusunun, öz yeterlik duygusunun, dil öğrenimi strateji kullanımının ve dil öğrenme özerkliğinin İngilizce dil performanslarını ne derece yordadığı araştırılmıştır. Bu bölümde ilişkisel yöntem kullanılmıştır ve yanıtlar hiyerarşik regresyon metodu ile analiz edilmiştir. Kolaylaştırıcı sosyal etmenler hususunda ise öğrencilerden katılımlarını artırması muhtemel öğretmen ve okul uygulamaları ile ilgili fikirlerini belirtmeleri istenmiştir. Araştırmanın bu bölümü betimsel tarama şeklinde yürütülmüş ve betimsel veri çözümleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Bu nicel araştırmaya özel bir üniversitenin hazırlık okulunda okuyan 165 öğrenci katılmıştır. Sonuçlar öğrencilerin aidiyet duyguları ile TOEFL ITP sınavındaki yapı ve yazılı anlatım bölümündeki başarıları, öz yeterlik duyguları ile dinleme-anlama ve okuma-anlama puanları ve dil öğrenme stratejileri kullanımı ile okuma-anlama bölümüne ait başarıları arasında anlamlı bir ilişkiye işaret etmiştir. Ancak dil öğrenme özerkliği TOEFL ITP sınavının hiçbir bölümünde öğrenci başarısına katkıda bulunmamıştır. Ayrıca sonuçlar yabancı dil eğitimindeki öğrenci katılımı için destekleyici öğretmen uygulamalarının ve dil

öğrenme kaynakları merkezi oluşturmak ya da müfredat dışı etkinlikler düzenlemek gibi okul uygulamalarının gerekli olduğunu göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öğrenci katılımı, yükseköğretim, yabancı dil eğitiminde öğrenci katılımı, öğrenci katılımını kolaylaştırıcı etmenler

To

My Husband, Ali Kemal OCAKLI,
who has always been there
whenever I needed love, support, faith, encouragement, and inspiration.

&

My Son, Ali Kaan OCAKLI,
the best gift I have ever received.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

TOEFL ITP	Test of English as a Foreign Language Institutional Testing Program
ETS	Educational Testing Service
LC	Listening Comprehension
SWE	Structure and Written Expression
RC	Reading Comprehension
SDT	Self Determination Theory
SLA	Second Language Acquisition

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The first chapter introduces the background to the research topic, outlines the purpose and the research questions, presents the significance and provides definitions of the key terms of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

The concept of student engagement has attracted considerable interest among educational research communities in recent years. Despite the disagreement about its definition and the number of its sub-dimensions, there is a general consensus that engagement is a term referring to students' involvement in school-related tasks and activities (Appleton, Christenson, Kim, & Reschly, 2006) and an umbrella term covering behavioural, affective, and cognitive engagement (Archambault, Janosz, Fallu, & Pagani, 2009; Fredericks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; Sharkey, Sukkyung, & Schnoebelen, 2008; Zaff et al., 2011). Behavioural engagement is defined as learners' active participation and involvement in social groups via interaction and collaboration (Archambault et al., 2009; Powell, Burchinal, File, & Kontos, 2008), while the affective dimension is described as learners' positive feelings and attitudes towards teachers, peers, learning and school (Eccles, Wigfield, Harold & Blumenfeld, 1993; Watt, 2004). Cognitive engagement, integrated into most models, is referred as a superordinate construct used to define students' personal investment in learning activities, including self-regulation, the commitment to mastery learning and the use of studying strategies (Greene, 2015; Sedaghat, Adedin, Hejazi, & Hassanabadi, 2011).

There is considerable amount of literature published describing the role of student engagement in learning (e.g. Appleton et al., 2006; Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Finn, 1989; National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2004; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Researchers have put forward several theoretical models indicating the relationship between engagement and learners' success at school (Fredricks et al., 2011). Each model has adopted a different view about the number of its sub-dimensions. However, in the latest studies, engagement has mostly been referred as a multi-dimensional construct with behavioural, affective and cognitive dimensions (e.g. Fredericks et al., 2004; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Svalberg, 2009).

The introduction of engagement into educational areas dates back to the 1980s. The earliest model (participation-identification model) was suggested by Finn (1989) as a remedy to marginal students' tendency to withdrawal or dropout. According to the principles of the approach, engagement was signalled by the interaction of behaviour and affect and this interaction was claimed to predict students' academic achievement. The second model belonged to Connell and his colleague (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). They proposed a self-system process model, in which engagement was believed to be highly influenced and shaped by the context. The researchers established their model on the assumption that people are normally born with basic needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness. If these individuals are presented with a context in which these feelings are facilitated, they feel engaged, which in turn, leads in an increase in the quality of their learning experiences. On the other hand, when they are exposed to contexts where these needs are ignored, they feel disengaged, and as a solution, they withdraw or drop out of school. Therefore, according to the model, in order to increase engagement and success, the satisfaction and promotion of these needs are of great importance.

Until the 2000s, engagement was the issue addressed by the researchers as a way to strengthen the connection between marginal students and school life. However, with the study of National Research Council & Institute of Medicine in the USA (2004), school engagement became a significant requirement for all learners. In other words,

it was no longer a term for a specific group or a construct with behaviour and affect emphasis; rather, it was now an important predictor of all learners' success with three major components: behavioural, emotional and cognitive engagement.

The integration of cognitive dimension expanded the scope of the construct and altered the tendencies of researchers accordingly. Such a departure from previous assumptions attracted the attention of Appleton and his colleagues (Appleton et al., 2006) as well. Different from the previous approaches, they regarded engagement as a multi-dimensional construct with four subtypes (academic, behavioural, cognitive, and psychological), and in order to assess the engagement degree of students, they developed a scale called "Student Engagement Instrument", which later became a highly recognized scale among researchers.

Within the same decade, the impact of student engagement on learning inevitably attracted the attention of researchers in other interest groups. Previously, the construct was mostly approached with an educational perspective; nevertheless, the motivational model proposed by Martin (2007) brought the issue to the psychological arenas. He adopted a four-component model (adaptive cognitive dimensions, impeding/maladaptive cognitive dimensions, adaptive behavioural dimensions and maladaptive behavioural dimensions) and constructed a Motivation-Engagement Scale to assess engagement.

Similarly, Skinner and her colleagues (Skinner, Furrer, Marchand, & Kindermann, 2008) studied engagement within the motivational framework with a particular emphasis on the indicators and facilitators of engagement in their research and categorized students as engaged or disengaged. Inspired by the self-system processes model of Connell and Wellborn (1991), the researchers proposed a model with four major components: context, self, action, and outcomes. Their aim was to understand how contextual dynamics (teacher practices in terms of warmth, structure and autonomy support) make impact on student self-perceptions (relatedness,

competence, autonomy), promote student engagement (action), and therefore result in learning and achievement (outcomes).

Nevertheless, despite its strengths, the model by Skinner and her colleagues (2008) failed to take into account the cognitive dimension. Being aware of this drawback, Skinner and Pitzer (2012) proposed a revised model by adding the cognitive engagement component. Moreover, they included the parent and peer dimension into the group of contextual facilitators and made some modifications in the indicators of behavioural engagement. Most importantly, they widened the scope of engagement by suggesting that engagement should take place in four levels (pro-social institutions, school, classroom, learning activities) and in each layer, it is shaped by contexts and self-systems. Therefore, the new model emphasized the fact that in order to promote student engagement and achieve learning as well as success, each layer has to be organized with great attention.

As can be seen, since its first introduction to learning, student engagement has been conceptualized differently, the number of its sub-dimensions has differed and researchers have attempted to explain its principles through different theoretical approaches. However, despite all these differences, a great majority of researchers arrived at a consensus that engagement and educational outcomes are strongly connected (e.g. Appleton et al., 2006; Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Finn, 1989; Martin, 2007; Skinner et al., 2008; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Wang & Degol, 2014). Therefore, increasing student success and supporting learning have been among the major concerns of all educational stakeholders (Liem & Chong, 2017) and student engagement has been addressed as a solution to students' low achievement, alienation or dropouts by not only researchers and educators but policymakers as well (National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2004).

Its proven significance in different domains has accelerated the rate of research on student engagement in applied linguistics as well. Since the 1980s, language

education researchers (e.g. Dörnyei, 2019; Ellis, 2010; Norton, 2008; Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Svalberg, 2009) have generated considerable interest in language learner engagement and contributed to the literature in various aspects. Nevertheless, unfortunately, the major focus of these studies was second language acquisition. Issues such as how identity affects the foreign language learner or how foreign language learning environments help construct a new identity have received less attention in many countries (Block, 2009; Taylor, Busse, Gagova, Marsden, & Roosken, 2013) including the Turkish context (Tarhan, 2015). Moreover, the multidimensionality of engagement has been scarcely addressed; previous research has mainly focused on a single dimension (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). What's more, most of these studies were mainly concerned with the indicators of engagement in language classrooms. Following the tradition of qualitative research, they generally tended to make conclusions about students' engagement and learning by referring to their observed behaviours (e.g. Han & Hyland, 2015; Qiu & Yi Lo, 2017; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010). However, as stated by Skinner and Pitzer (2012) and supported by the research findings of some studies (e.g. Han & Hyland, 2015; Sachs & Polio, 2007), combining indicators with outcomes may not yield accurate results. To clarify, a student's more on-task behaviour may not mean that s/he will get higher scores, or as the results of the study by Sachs and Polio (2007) indicate, verbalization may not guarantee that students are engaged. Besides, whether research findings related to the indicators of engagement have helped inform the foreign language educators about its facilitators remains unclear. The meaning attributed to the facilitators, indicators or outcomes of engagement in language education literature varies from one study to the other and the presence of such an ambiguity makes it difficult to interpret research findings accurately. Therefore, it seems essential to conduct studies which make clear discrimination between the facilitators and indicators of language learner engagement in foreign language education.

Considering all these factors, it was concluded that despite previous attempts to offer insights into applied linguistics literature, there was still a need for a more comprehensive study on learner engagement in foreign language education and this

study emerged as an attempt to address some part of this theoretical and practical gap. Being aware of this need and so as to contribute to the current knowledge of engagement in foreign language education, this research was designed in line with the principles of the engagement model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012), which was widely referred in the literature of various domains including language studies (e.g. Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Zhang & Hyland, 2018).

The scope of the current research was limited to the facilitators of engagement (social and personal) that were likely to affect university preparatory school students' language performance. Under the title of social facilitators, the expectations of students regarding language teacher practices (provision of structure and pedagogical caring) and school practices (organizing extra-curricular activities at school, creating peripheral learning opportunities, having language resource centres) were investigated. With regard to the personal facilitators, how well students' sense of belongingness, self-efficacy, language learning strategy use and language learning autonomy would predict their English language performance was questioned. In line with the existing literature, throughout the study, learners' sense of belongingness was considered as the facilitator of their affective engagement, whereas self-efficacy, language learning strategy use and language learning autonomy were regarded as the facilitators of their cognitive engagement. Their language proficiency exam results (TOEFL ITP scores) represented the indicator of their learning and achievement as well as the outcome of their engagement.

Rather than focusing on the indicators of engagement, this study purposefully sought to address the facilitators of engagement in foreign language education settings. For one thing, in the educational settings that do not put adequate emphasis on engagement, it is more likely to observe an increase in dropouts, withdrawals or life-long resistance to learning (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012) and these risks are valid for language learners as well. Engagement is "the direct (and only) pathway to cumulative learning, long-term achievement, and eventual academic success" (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012, p. 24) and language education is an inseparable part of this

academic life. In order to avoid such consequences, it is highly significant that the concept of engagement be considered as one of the central concerns of language education and what kind of facilitators (both personal and social) could help mitigate potential negative outcomes of disengagement must be adequately investigated. For another, understanding the facilitators of language learner engagement is essential to be able to construct a healthy environment for a successful language learner identity transformation. As stated by Weedon (1987; p.21):

> Language is the place where actual and possible forms of social organization and their likely social and political consequences are defined and contested. Yet it is also the place where our sense of ourselves, our subjectivity, is constructed.

That is, using a language is more than exchanging information; it is a process that constantly leads language learners into identity development in a new social context. Therefore, organizing the language learning settings by being aware of how student engagement could be both personally and socially facilitated is highly significant for a successful identity development and enculturation process.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

This study was motivated by a desire to afford new insights into foreign language education about the facilitators of student engagement. In order to investigate the relevance of student engagement to language learning and achievement, the student engagement model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) was adopted and inspired by their theoretical assumptions, this study attempted to address the following research questions:

1) How well do personal facilitators of student engagement predict English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam, controlling for the student status

(new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment?

a) How well does sense of belongingness (the personal facilitator of affective engagement) predict English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam (listening comprehension, structure and written expression, reading comprehension), controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment?

b) How well do self-efficacy, language learning strategy use, and language learning autonomy (the personal facilitators of cognitive engagement) predict English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam (listening comprehension, structure and written expression, reading comprehension), controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment?

2) What are the expectations of English language learners concerning social facilitators of engagement?

a) What are the expectations of English language learners concerning language teacher practices that are likely to promote their engagement?

b) What are the expectations of English language learners concerning language school practices that are likely to promote their engagement?

1.3 Significance of the Study

As stated by Greene (2015), each discipline has its own nature and it is essential to understand how domain-general knowledge and domain-specific knowledge are involved in learning. Components of learning may vary depending on the knowledge

of the learner and the demands of the class or discipline. Therefore, the initial significance of the current study lies in this growing need for the investigation of domain-specific features of student engagement. With this aim, instead of focusing on “student engagement” as a general concept, a specific subject area (English as a foreign language) was selected as the study focus.

Additionally, the tendency of approaching student engagement as a discipline-free construct in the research areas has led to an increase in the construction and validation of several student engagement scales in various countries (e.g. Appleton et al., 2006; Martin, 2007); however, it has concurrently created a gap related to research on domain-specific engagement. With the purpose of minimizing this gap, English teaching was selected as the discipline to be analysed and the facilitators of language learner engagement were assessed through domain-specific scales. Thus, theoretical literature related to language learning was enriched.

As stated earlier, student engagement is increasingly recognized as an important issue to be addressed and this study made theoretical contributions to the field by studying it within a specific discipline. However, the reflection of theoretical knowledge to the practical areas is highly significant as well. Being aware of this fact, informing language teachers, (language) curriculum designers and, most importantly, (language) teacher education programs about the facilitators of engagement was determined as another major contribution.

It is a well-known fact that language learner characteristics and behaviours are the key to success; however, when the aim is to promote engagement and achievement, how teachers construct the instructional process and communicate with learners is as significant. As stated by Medley (1979), effective teachers are those who possess a good command of a number of competencies, one of which is the ability of creating a classroom full of engagement (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). This study had a purpose of determining the role of language teachers in the promotion of engagement and

learners' success and the findings were believed to contribute to language teachers' awareness regarding language learner engagement.

In addition to teaching and learning platforms, it was also believed that engagement should also find its place in curriculum design. As stated by Skinner and Pitzer (2012), "engagement is the active verb between the curriculum and actual learning" (p. 23). A curriculum with an emphasis on engagement paves the way for a better performance and more long-lasting learning. Therefore, it was estimated that this study would provide significant insights and necessary guidelines to language curriculum designers and curriculum designers in general.

Beside all these contributions, an investigation into what language schools at universities should do to promote learner engagement was also essential. Transition from high school to university brings new academic and social challenges to students' lives (Cleary, Walter, & Jackson, 2011) and language preparatory schools in Turkey play a significant role in this transition. The year spent in these schools coincides with this significant transitional stage, so these contexts have responsibilities as important as providing learners with foreign language education. As stated in the model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012), students bring their psychological needs into educational contexts and the context is supposed to meet these needs to ensure engagement, learning, and achievement. Moreover, as language learning is a socio-cultural practice, student identity is continuously reshaped by the school practices (Norton, 2013). Therefore, what is required to construct an environment full of opportunities to develop positive self-perceptions and identity in this transitional process was worthy of investigation.

To sum up, this research made significant contributions to the existing literature both theoretically and practically. It was one of the few studies that undertook an analysis of student engagement facilitators in a single domain. Therefore, its findings not only provided empirical evidence for the theoretical predictions but also brought new

perspectives to all individuals who are involved in learning and teaching.

1.4 Definition of Terms

Although there existed a great variety in their definitions in the literature, throughout this study, the terms significant for the research were operationalized as follows:

Student engagement is a term referring to students' involvement in school related tasks and activities cognitively, affectively, and socially (Appleton et al., 2006; Fredericks et al., 2004). Specifically, in the domain of language education, it is defined as "a cognitive, and/or affective, and/or social state and a process in which the learner is the agent and language is object (and sometimes vehicle)" (Svalberg, 2009, p.247).

Affective engagement is one of the sub-dimensions of student engagement and it refers to learners' positive feelings and attitudes towards teachers, peers, learning and school (Eccles et al., 1993; Finn & Zimmer, 2012; Watt, 2004; Svalberg, 2009).

Cognitive engagement is also one of the sub-dimensions of student engagement and defined as students' personal investment in learning activities, including self-regulation, the commitment to mastery learning and the use of studying strategies (Greene, 2015; Sedaghat et al., 2011).

Indicators are "markers or descriptive parts, inside a target construct" (Skinner & Pitzer, p.25).

Outcomes are "the results that engagement itself can produce" (Skinner & Pitzer, p.25).

Facilitators are “explanatory causal factors, outside the target construct” (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012, p.25).

Teacher practices refer to the actions of teachers who have the qualities of pedagogical caring (which contributes to relatedness), provision of structure (which promotes competence) and autonomy support (which facilitates autonomy) (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

Pedagogical caring refers to the interactions between teachers and students that involve caring and concern (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

Provision of structure refers to “the amount and clarity of information about what the environment expects the person to do to achieve desired outcomes” (Reeve, 2008, p.159).

School practices refer to out-of-class learning which were examined under three categories: organizing extracurricular activities (clubs & seminars), creating peripheral learning opportunities, and having language resource centres.

The student status represents both new and repeat group students.

Sense of belonging is a feeling that signals the commitment of the members to their community (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). It was approached as the facilitator of affective engagement in the current study and represented the feelings that language learners developed towards the language school.

Self-efficacy refers to learners’ “judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 2002, p.94). Throughout the study, it was regarded as the facilitator of

cognitive engagement and was narrowed down to students' self-efficacy beliefs about their language learning capabilities.

Language learning autonomy is "the ability to take charge of one's learning" (Holec, 1981, p.3). In this study, it was considered as the facilitator of cognitive engagement by representing students' involvement in their own language learning process.

Language learning strategies are "specific behaviours or thought processes that students use to enhance their own L2 learning" (Oxford, 2003, p.8). In this research, they were also considered as the facilitators of cognitive engagement.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter, the history of student engagement is discussed as an initial step and it is followed with the explanation of the concept of engagement in language teaching. Later, the student engagement model of Skinner and Pitzer as well as the components of the model addressed in the current study are presented. Social and personal facilitators of student engagement, learning, and achievement are explored in detail. This chapter is finalized with the related research studies and the summary of the literature review.

2.1 Roots of Student Engagement

Student engagement is mostly referred as a meta and multidimensional construct with its affective, behavioural and cognitive components in recent studies (e.g. Fredericks et al., 2004; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Svalberg, 2009). Nevertheless, it should be noted that this definition is not valid for the 1990s, when the first serious discussions related to engagement emerged.

In those years, the USA education was dealing with the problem of school dropout and trying to create effective intervention programs. As an attempt to recommend some solutions to this problem, Finn (1989) proposed a model called “the participation-identification model”, which mainly focused on the interaction of behaviour and affect and the effects of this interaction on students’ academic achievement (see Figure 2.1). In the model, engagement was defined on a single continuum as low and high rather than two different continua such as engagement and disengagement.

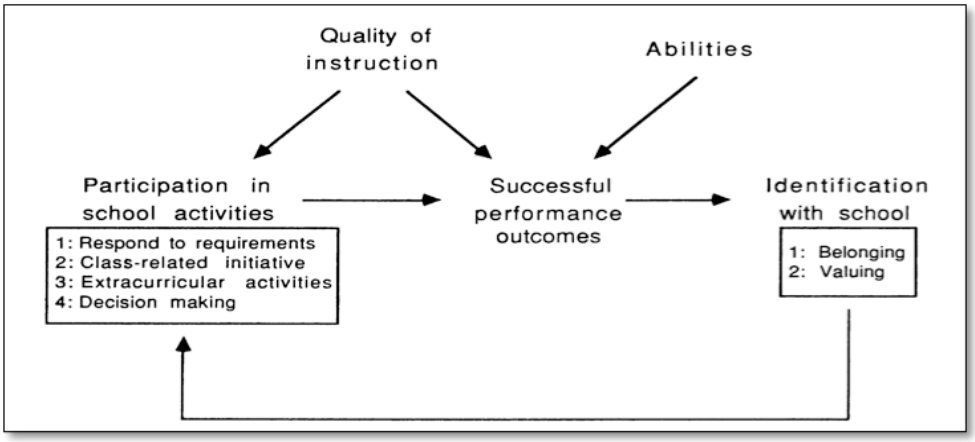

Figure 2.1. Participation-identification Model. Reprinted from "Withdrawing from School," by J.D. Finn, 1989, *Review of Educational Research, 59,* p. 130. Copyright 1989 by the American Educational Research Association.

According to the model, students' engagement was initiated with their school participation, reinforced with their school success and deepened with their school identification (Finn & Zimmer, 2012). The behavioural engagement of the learners, termed participation, was signalled by their involvement in four different classroom and school activities: (a) basic learning behaviours: paying attention to the teacher, responding to teacher's questions, completing assignments, (b) initiative-taking behaviours: engaging in help-seeking activities, doing more than the minimally required work, suggesting new ways to look at material being taught, (c) participation in academic extracurricular activities, and (d) participation in social tasks of school: attending classes and school, following classroom rules, interacting positively and appropriately with teachers and peers, and not disrupting the class (Finn, 1989). The affect dimension was named as identification and recognized by looking at the existence of the belonging (attachment) and valuing feelings of the learners. If learners felt themselves as an important member of the school community and attached enough to their institution, they would be believed to create* the feeling of "belonging," which is also referred as "school membership," "bonding," "school connectedness," and "attachment" by other researchers. In addition, if they accepted their school as a place full of opportunities to improve themselves, the "valuing" emotion would develop (Voelkl, 1997).

In 1991, to address the same issue, Connell and Wellborn proposed a "self-system process model" (see Figure 2.2). The researchers suggested that all humans are born with three basic needs: competence, autonomy, and relatedness. They develop through these self-system processes and these processes are highly affected by contexts and interactions. They may create positive or negative self-systems, resulting in engagement or disaffection (Connell & Wellborn, 1991). Therefore, the researchers conclude that if the aim is to increase engagement and, in turn, achievement, schools should meet learners' need to feel competent, autonomous and related. In other words, students' self-perceptions determine whether they are engaged at school or disaffected (Connell & Wellborn, 1991).

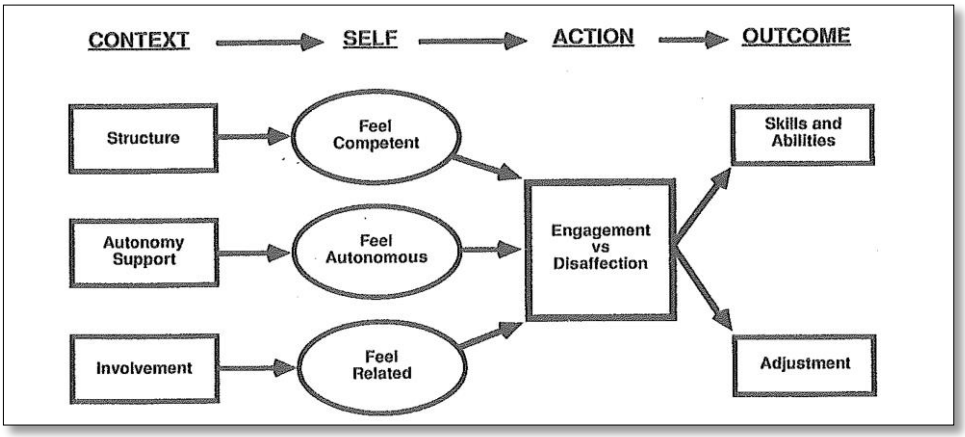

Figure 2.2. A Model of Self-System Processes. Reprinted from "Competence, autonomy and relatedness: A motivational analysis of self-system processes," by J.P. Connell and J.G. Wellborn, 1991, *Minnesota symposium on child psychology, 23,* p. 51. Copyright 1991 by Clarivate Analytics Web of Science.

In 1995, based on the model of Finn (1989), an intervention program called "Check & Connect" was developed in the University of Minnesota, USA. Nevertheless, rather than appealing to all learners, the research targeted the marginalized students and aimed to increase their school engagement and success by the help of trained mentors (Reschly & Christenson, 2012).

Until 2004, like in the Check & Connect program, school engagement was mainly considered significant for dropout and intervention programs and the major concern was to promote the engagement of students at risk. However, with the attempt of National Research Council & Institute of Medicine (2004), the issue expanded to all learners (Reschly & Christenson, 2012) and became one of the high school reform program titles (Appleton et al., 2006). Student engagement was now regarded as a meta-construct composed of three subtypes (behavioural, cognitive and emotional) (Fredericks et al., 2004).

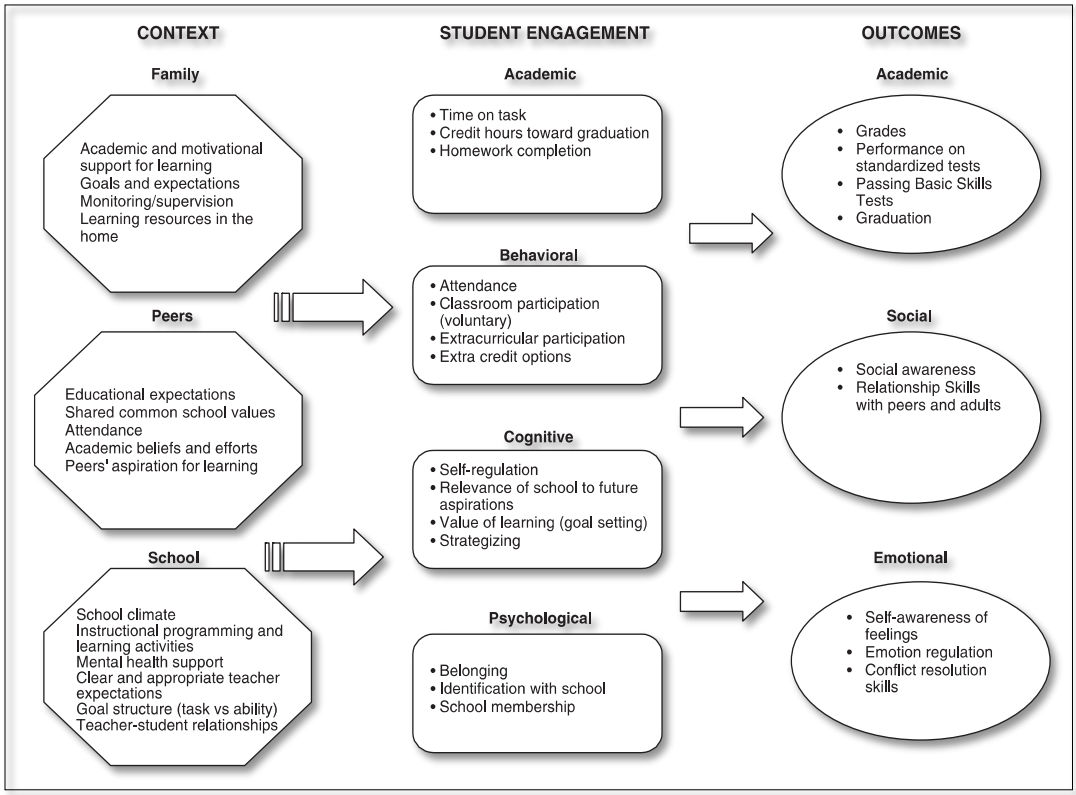

Figure 2.3. Student Engagement Model. Reprinted from "Measuring cognitive and psychological engagement: Validation of the student engagement instrument," by J.J. Appleton, S.L. Christenson, D. Kim and A.L. Reschly, 2006, *Journal of School Psychology*, *44*, p. 430. Copyright 2006 by the Study of School Psychology.

In 2006, Appleton and his colleagues made a great contribution to the student engagement literature by developing and validating an instrument called "Student Engagement Instrument". In their study, student engagement was referred as "a

multi-dimensional construct comprised of four subtypes: academic, behavioural, cognitive, and psychological" (p. 429). Similar to Finn's (1989), this model also considered engagement as low and high (see Figure 2.3). Appleton and his colleagues claimed that behavioural engagement of learners is best represented by their attendance, suspensions, voluntary classroom participation, and extra-curricular participation and psychological (affective) engagement by their belongingness, identification with school and school membership. In addition, academic engagement is a significant construct signalled by the time on task, credit accrual, and homework completion and cognitive engagement by learners' self-regulation, relevance of school to their future aspirations, value of learning (goal setting) and strategizing (Appleton et al., 2006).

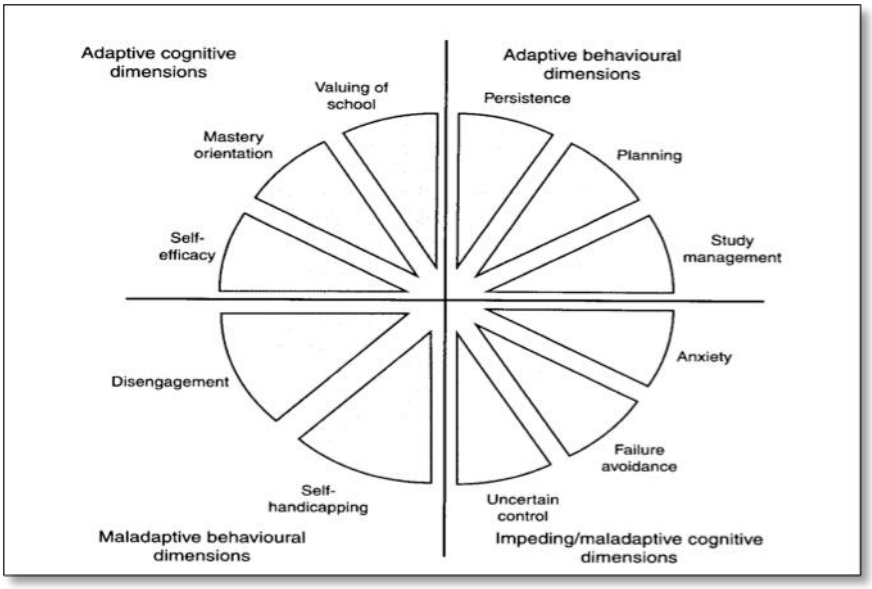

Figure 2.4. Motivation and engagement wheel. Reprinted from "Examining a multi-dimensional model of student motivation and engagement using a construct validation approach," by A.J. Martin, 2007, *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 77,* p. 414. Copyright 2007 by the British Psychological Society.

In 2007, school engagement also began to be discussed in the motivational literature by Martin (2007). He proposed a motivational model possessing four major and 11 minor components and referred to engagement as engagement and disengagement (see Figure 2.4). The model consisted of adaptive cognitive dimensions (valuing of

school, mastery orientation, self-efficacy), impeding/maladaptive cognitive dimensions (anxiety, failure avoidance, uncertain control), adaptive behavioural dimensions (persistence, planning, study management) and maladaptive behavioural dimensions (disengagement, self-handicapping). To test it, he developed an instrument called Motivation-Engagement Scale, in which he used these two terms interchangeably (Reschly & Christenson, 2012).

Like Martin (2007), Skinner and her colleagues (2008) approached student engagement from a motivational perspective as well. In their study, they attempted to figure out how different components of engagement make an impact on one another and how contextual factors (teacher support) and student self-perceptions (competence, autonomy, relatedness) promote engagement. In other words, indicator-facilitator discrimination was aimed.

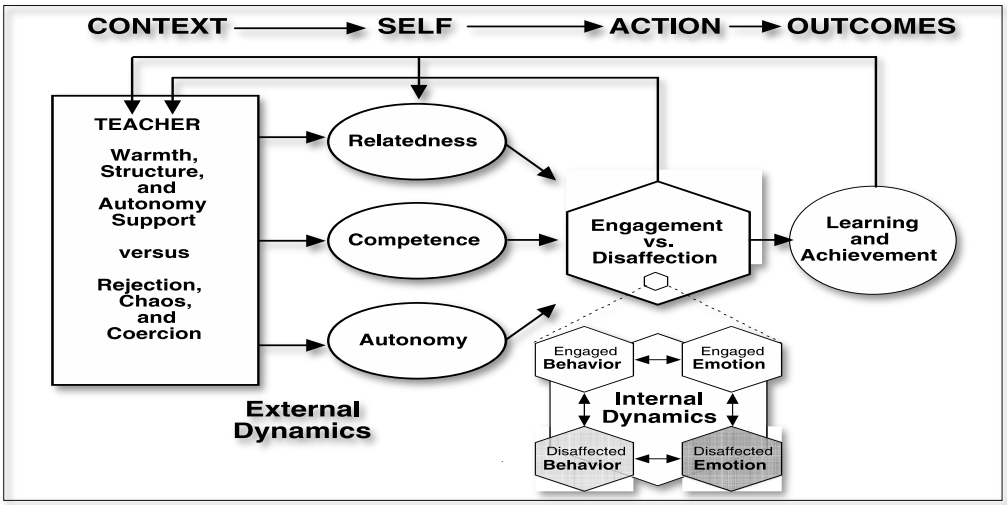

Figure 2.5. The self-system model of motivational development. Reprinted from "Engagement and Disaffection in the Classroom: Part of a Larger Motivational Dynamic?," by E. Skinner, C. Furrer, G. Marchand, and T. Kindermann, 2008, *Journal of Educational Psychology, 100*, p. 768. Copyright 2008 by the American Psychological Association.

In their model, there were four indicators of engagement. Engagement dimension consisted of both behavioural (action initiation, effort, exertion, attempts,

persistence, intensity, attention, concentration, absorption, involvement) and emotional (enthusiasm, interest, enjoyment, satisfaction, pride, vitality and zest) sub-dimensions. The disaffection part was divided into behavioural (passivity, giving up, withdrawal, inattentive, distracted, mentally disengaged, unprepared) and emotional disaffection (boredom, disinterest, frustration/anger, sadness, worry/anxiety, shame, self-blame). As for the facilitators, the researchers focused on teacher support, competence, autonomy, and relatedness (see Figure 2.5).

Nevertheless, a few years later, the researchers realized the fact that their model failed to address learners' cognitive engagement and in order to fill this gap, Skinner and Pitzer (2012) revised the 2008 model (see Figure 2.6) and published a new one with the cognitive component.

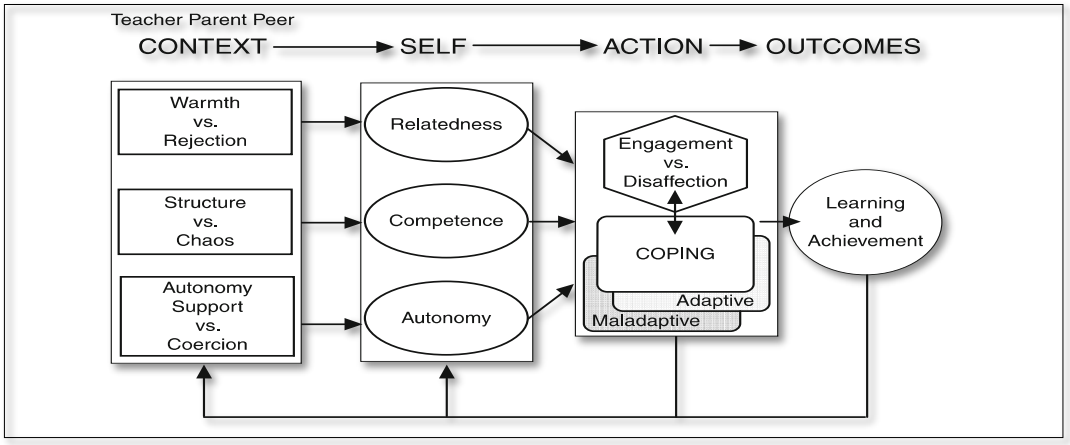

Figure 2.6. A dynamic model of motivational development organized around student engagement and disaffection. Reprinted from "Developmental Dynamics of Student Engagement, Coping and Everyday Resilience," by E.A. Skinner, and J.R. Pitzer, 2012, *Handbook of Research on Student Engagement,* p.29. Copyright 2012 by Springer.

Similar to the previous approach, they conceptualized this new dimension as engagement and disaffection. However, they broadened the indicators of behavioural engagement by adding 'working hard' and 'focus' to the engagement and 'procrastination', 'restlessness', 'half-hearted', 'unfocused', 'burned out',

‘exhausted’ and ‘absent’ to the disaffection dimension. Besides, they began to point at the significance of cognitive orientation, which encompassed a purposeful approach, strategy use, willingness to participate, preference for challenge, attention, and concentration; in short, as stated by the researchers, “heads-on participation, and a willingness to go beyond what is required” (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012, p. 24). As for the disengaged learner, he was referred as disaffected when he seemed aimless, helpless, resigned, unwilling, hopeless as well as pressured and displayed the signals of opposition, avoidance, and apathy.

To sum up, as can be seen, there has always been little consensus between the theoretical and research literature about how to define and measure student engagement (Appleton, Christenson, & Furlong, 2008). Whereas Finn (1989) defined it as students’ participation and identification with school, Connell and Wellborn (1991) approached engagement in terms of its connection with individuals’ psychological needs (i.e., autonomy, belonging, competence). Moreover, in their report, National Research Council/Institute of Medicine (2004) expressed that engagement includes behaviours and emotions with an emphasis on competence, values and connectedness, while researchers such as Appleton et al. (2006), Fredericks et al. (2004), Martin (2007) or Skinner and Pitzer (2012) were in the opinion that cognitive engagement should be incorporated into the student engagement framework as well.

2.2 Student Engagement in Language Learning

Engagement is a term that is mostly used to describe students’ active participation and involvement. Despite its proven significance for language learning, “there is little principled understanding of this overused term” (Philp & Duchesne, 2016, p. 1) in applied linguistics research. One strand of research has focused on engagement that develops as a result of social interactions in language learning environments, whereas a different group of researchers have been mostly concerned about its

multidimensionality. Although they all agreed that engagement is optimal for language learning, different perspectives have led to different interpretations of learner engagement in language education settings.

The initial studies emerged in the early 1980s and this first trend of research involved a number of SLA (Second Language Acquisition) researchers who contributed to the student engagement literature by focusing on the relationship between language learner identity and language learning. Inspired by the ideas of the philosophers such as Vygotsky (1978), Bakhtin (1986), Weedon (1987), and Lave and Wenger (1991), they began to investigate the impact of social interactions in language learning, language learner identity, and identity transformation. Particularly, the work of Lave and Wenger (1991) entitled *Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation* popularized the terms such as self, language learner identity, community of practice, situated learning, legitimate peripheral participation, cognitive apprenticeship method, and enculturation. What these researchers suggested was that education is an enculturation process and the aim is to help learners acquire and use conceptual knowledge (a set of tools) in new communities of practice. At the beginning of this process (legitimate peripheral participation), newcomers (learners) are exposed to the use of a domain's conceptual tools through authentic practices by the help of cognitive apprenticeship method. Teachers are supposed to make students' tacit knowledge explicit, scaffold and coach, whereas learners work collaboratively, discuss their ideas, beliefs as well as their misconceptions and start learning autonomously. Therefore, through interaction and collaboration, learners start modifying their ideas and in the end they become not only autonomous but also social and interactive learners. The activities introduce a new community of practice for the newcomers where they meet oldtimers (experts). As soon as they enter the community, they begin to observe and get the details of its culture. When they totally understand the community or culture in which the tool is used, they start to adopt its belief system and the transformation begins. As a result of a well-developed and effective interaction with the oldtimers, they transform their identities and worldviews, acquire new cultural tools, and lastly enculturate (Brown, Collins &

Duguid, 1989; Lave & Wenger, 1991). According to Lave and Wenger (1991), this identity development was called legitimate peripheral participation, which was proposed as "a descriptor of engagement in social practice that entails learning as an integral constituent" (p. 35).

Bonny Norton, one of the representatives of post-structuralism in education, defined identity as "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (Norton, 2013, p. 45). Drawing mostly on the work of Lave and Wenger (1991), she claimed that identity is not a personality variable; rather, it is socially and historically constructed through community practices (Norton, 2008). As far as language learning is concerned, it is a sociocultural practice and requires learner investment. Investment is a complementary sociological construct to motivation and it refers to the connection between students' desire to learn a language and their changing identity. In other words, it plays the role of a bridge between students' engagement and learner identity, so if a learner invests in the target language, this signals an investment in that person's identity.

The value of the contributions of the studies on language learner identity to the framework of language learner engagement is undeniable. However, although the significance of engagement was emphasized, its multi-dimensionality was not adequately addressed in language education till the attempts of Svalberg in 2009. As stated by Swain (2013), preliminary studies on engagement were generally carried out to investigate only the effects of one dimension (cognitive engagement while learning grammar) on language learning. However, Svalberg (2009) changed this tendency by introducing the term 'engagement with language' together with its cognitive, affective, and social components. Inspired by both the work of Dörnyei on L2 motivation and Norton's concept of investment, Svalberg (2009) defined the concept as "a cognitive, and/or affective, and/or social state and a process in which the learner is the agent and language is object (and sometimes vehicle)" (p.247). According to her perspective, cognitive engagement is signalled by alertness,

focused attention and the construction of own knowledge. Affective engagement is connected with positive, purposeful and autonomous dispositions towards the language and social engagement requires interactive and initiating behaviours.

Similarly, Ellis (2010) attempted to clarify what engagement means for language education. According to the researcher, engagement is a term composed of cognitive, affective and behavioural perspectives and is associated with "how learners respond to the feedback they receive" (p.342). If learners "attend to the corrective feedback they receive" (p.342), they are believed to be cognitively engaged. Their acceptance of oral corrections and revisions signals their behavioural engagement, whereas their attitudes to the corrective feedback indicate their affective engagement. He also adds that engagement is sensitive to individual and contextual differences as well as the type of the corrective feedback.

Ellis (2010) related engagement to the responses of students to feedback and in 2016, Philp and Duchesne published a paper in which they examined task engagement in language classrooms. He used the term engagement as "a state of heightened attention and involvement, in which participation is reflected not only in the cognitive dimension, but in social, behavioral, and affective dimensions as well" (p. 3). He advocated the idea that the meaning of engagement differs from one context to the other; therefore, it should be defined by considering the contextual factors such as tasks or participants and its multidimensionality must be explored in relation to the characteristics of that particular context.

Similar to Philp and Duchesne (2016), Dörnyei (2019) also attracted attention to the rise in the significance of the concept of language learner engagement in language education. By referring to his work with Mercer (in press) entitled *Engaging Students in Contemporary Classrooms,* Dörnyei (2019) explained that it is essential to redefine L2 Learning Experience with the integration of engagement into the concept. What he highlighted was that the L2 Learning Experience should be

characterized as “the perceived quality of the learners’ engagement with various aspects of the language learning process” such as “school context, syllabus and the teaching materials, learning tasks, peers, and the teacher” (Dörnyei, 2019, p.25). He claimed that L2 Learning Experience is a broad term and the application of the verb “to engage” help break these facets of learning into measurable terms.

To sum up, research on engagement in language education has come a long way since the 1980s. Studies on language learner identity have paved the way for further research in language learner engagement. Nevertheless, despite the wide range of research in second language acquisition, our knowledge of student engagement in foreign language environments is limited (Block, 2009; Taylor et al., 2013). Thus, there is still a need for more studies that aim to provide new insights into the multidimensionality, facilitators, indicators, as well as outcomes of foreign language engagement.

2.3 The Student Engagement Model of Skinner and Pitzer

Among all student engagement approaches, this study favoured the engagement model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012), in which the construct is defined as “energized, directed, and sustained action, or the observable qualities of students’ actual interactions with academic tasks” (p.24).

Their engagement model successfully reflects the principles of self-determination theory (SDT) of Deci and Ryan (1985). Self-determination is a theory asserting that all learners are born with three basic needs (autonomy, relatedness and competence), and they are also born with inner motivational sources for their psychological growth and engagement. As stated by Niemiec and Ryan (2009), “people are innately curious, interested creatures who possess a natural love of learning and who desire to internalize the knowledge, customs and values that surround them” (p. 133). These resources are neither acquired nor lost in time. Nevertheless, personal, social or

cultural conditions may facilitate or hinder these innate tendencies (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2017).

In addition to its reference to learning and engagement as general concepts, the researchers favouring this theory have specifically investigated its application into educational contexts. Based on the assumption that a decrease in the engagement level of a learner signals ineffective educational contexts, the theory emphasizes the significant impact of the instructional process and social interactions on learners' engagement. It claims that if students' inherent capacities are not promoted, they may lose their motivation, resulting in their disaffection or dropout (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

	Engagement	**Disaffection**
Behavior Initiation Ongoing participation Re-engagement	Action initiation Effort, Exertion Working hard Attempts Persistence Intensity Focus, Attention Concentration Absorption Involvement	Passivity, Procrastination Giving up Restlessness Half-hearted Unfocused, Inattentive Distracted Mentally withdrawn Burned out, Exhausted Unprepared Absent
Emotion Initiation Ongoing participation Re-engagement	Enthusiasm Interest Enjoyment Satisfaction Pride Vitality Zest	Boredom Disinterest Frustration/anger Sadness Worry/anxiety Shame Self-blame
Cognitive Orientation Initiation Ongoing participation Re-engagement	Purposeful Approach Goal strivings Strategy search Willing participation Preference for challenge Mastery Follow-through, care Thoroughness	Aimless Helpless Resigned Unwilling Opposition Avoidance Apathy Hopeless Pressured

Figure 2.7. A motivational conceptualization of engagement and disaffection in the classroom. Reprinted from "Developmental Dynamics of Student Engagement, Coping and Everyday Resilience," by E.A. Skinner, and J.R. Pitzer, 2012, *Handbook of Research on Student Engagement,* p.25. Copyright 2012 by Springer.

Taking the principles of SDT into consideration, Skinner and Pitzer (2012) have developed a theoretical model, in which engagement is referred as a multi-dimensional construct (behaviour, emotion and cognitive orientation) and is signalled by a number of indicators (see Figure 2.7). In addition to its multi-dimensionality, the researchers have identified engagement as a multi-level concept (see Figure 2.8).

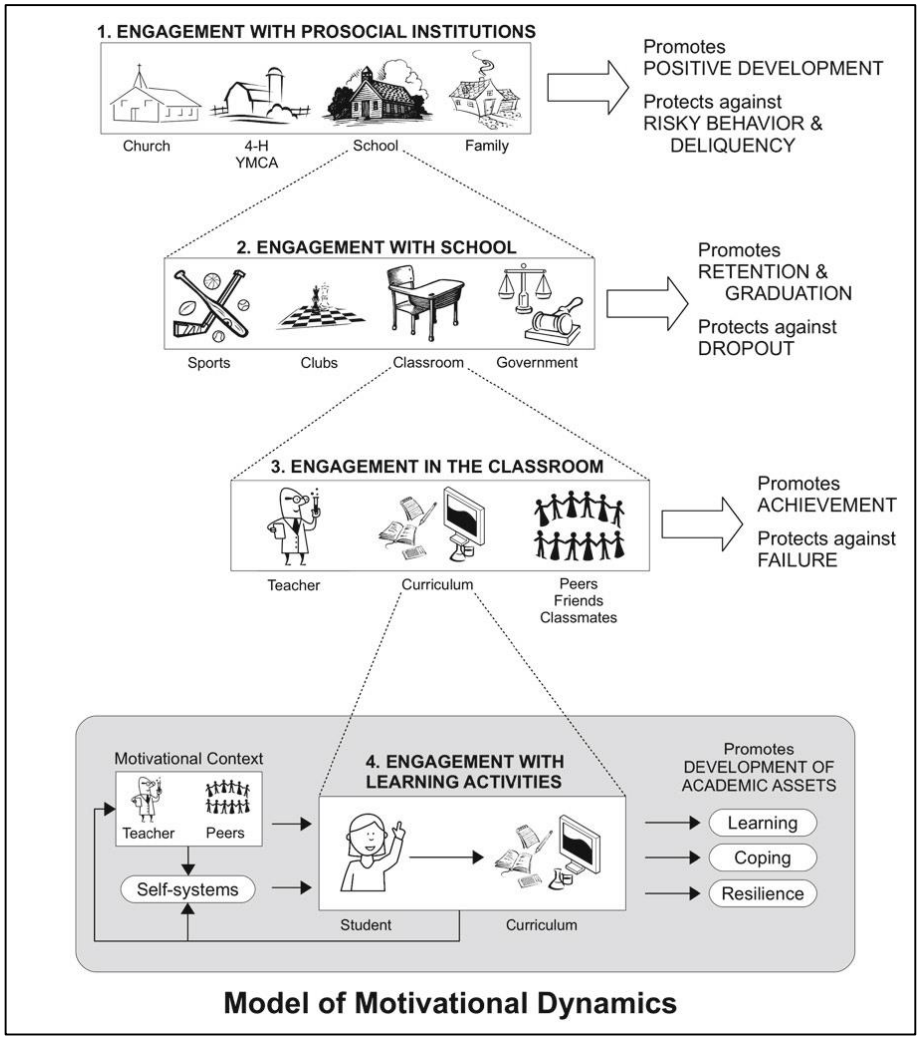

Figure 2.8. A dynamic model of motivational development organized around student engagement and disaffection. Reprinted from "Developmental Dynamics of Student Engagement, Coping and Everyday Resilience," by E.A. Skinner, and J.R. Pitzer, 2012, *Handbook of Research on Student Engagement*, p.23. Copyright 2012 by Springer.

They claim that, at first, learners attend schools, which are regarded among pro-social institutions like churches, youth groups or community organizations. In this level, their engagement protects them against risky behaviours and minor crimes. This engagement is followed by the engagement of learners with school activities such as academics, sports or extra-curricular activities, through which they are believed to be protected from possible dropouts. In the third level, they enter the classroom, meet their teachers and friends and are introduced to the curriculum. The engagement in this level is claimed to serve their academic achievement or failure. In the final level, they are engaged with specific learning activities, during which they are expected to display behaviours such as high motivation, persistence, cooperation and collaboration. Therefore, the development of their academic tendencies is observed in this level (see Figure 2.8).

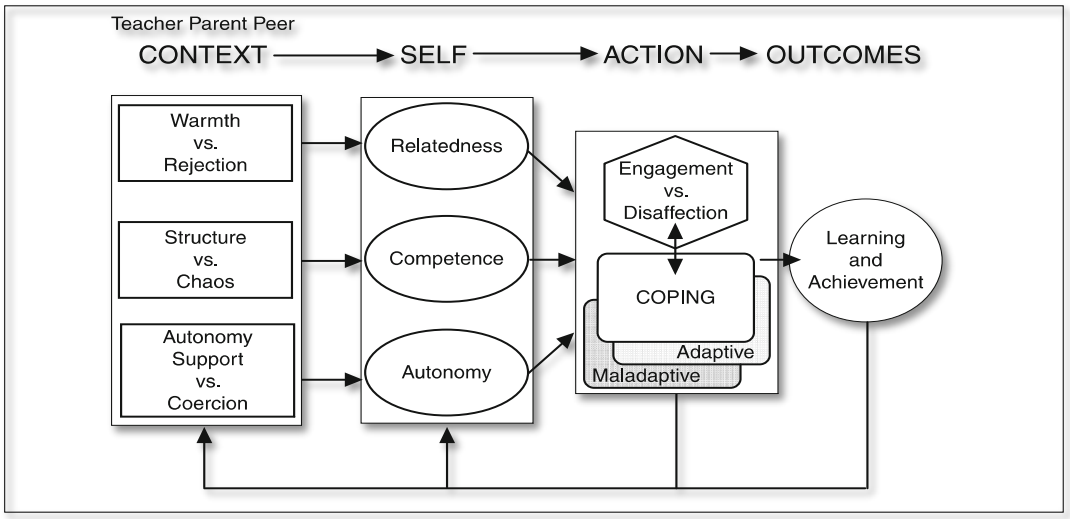

Figure 2.9. A dynamic model of motivational development organized around student engagement and disaffection. Reprinted from "Developmental Dynamics of Student Engagement, Coping and Everyday Resilience," by E.A. Skinner, and J.R. Pitzer, 2012, *Handbook of Research on Student Engagement,* p.29. Copyright 2012 by Springer.

Skinner and Pitzer (2012) also suggest that student engagement possesses a dynamic nature in that it is continuously reshaped with the interaction between the context, self, action and outcomes (Figure 2.9). The degree of engagement tends to change in

line with the facilitation power of both social contact and personal characteristics. Therefore, if the aim is to ensure engagement in an institution, students' learning should be facilitated both socially and personally.

In the model, **context** represents the social dimension and refers to students' interactions with their teachers, peers and parents, whereas students' **self-perceptions** (relatedness, competence and autonomy) are approached as the personal facilitators (see Figure 2.9). The model suggests that students bring their personal facilitators to the educational platform and for engagement, context is supposed to meet these needs. In other words, learners should be supported by their teachers, parents or peers so that their self-perceptions can positively change, their engagement can increase and as a result, they can learn and perform better. When it comes to the **action** component of the model, the researchers suggest that it functions as a discriminator between students' engagement and disaffection, whereas the **outcomes** dimension refers to "the results that engagement itself can produce" (Skinner and Pitzer, 2012, p.25). In order to decide whether students are behaviourally, affectively and cognitively engaged (or disaffected), actions of students should be analysed, and their behaviours (as listed in Figure 2.7) should be considered as the indicators of their engagement/disaffection. As for the outcomes, their performance should be approached as the result that engagement produces.

2.4 Components of Skinner and Pitzer's Student Engagement Model Addressed in the Current Study

In Skinner and Pitzer (2012)'s model, all dimensions of engagement are addressed. Besides, indicators, facilitators and outcomes of engagement are all handled. However, this study concentrated on the facilitators (social and personal) and the outcomes of engagement with the aim of providing guidance to educators who look for ways to foster the engagement level of their learners.

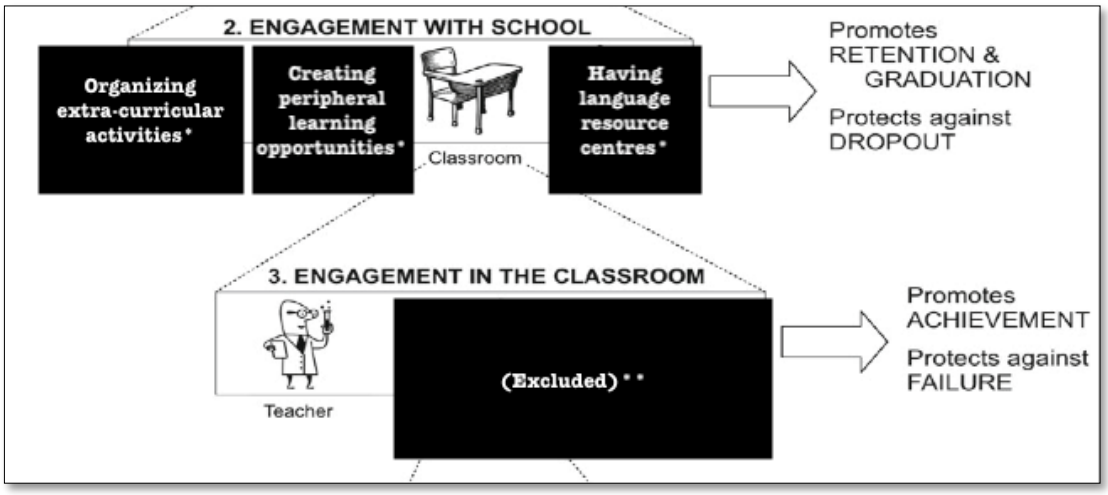

Figure 2.10. Components of Skinner and Pitzer's Student Engagement Model Addressed in the Current Study *Note*. * = New categories added to the model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012); ** = Parts excluded from the model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012).

Since it was not likely to address engagement at all levels in a single study, the analysis of social interactions was limited to two need-supporting teacher practices: pedagogical caring (warmth) and provision of structure (see Figure 2.11), and to school practices as mentioned in the second level of the model (engagement with school) with some modifications in the categories for language schools (see Figure 2.10).

With regard to the personal facilitators, learners' sense of belonging (relatedness), competence (self-efficacy) and autonomy were considered the facilitators of student engagement in language learning. Additionally, the facilitative role of language learner strategy use was also questioned (see Figure 2.11).

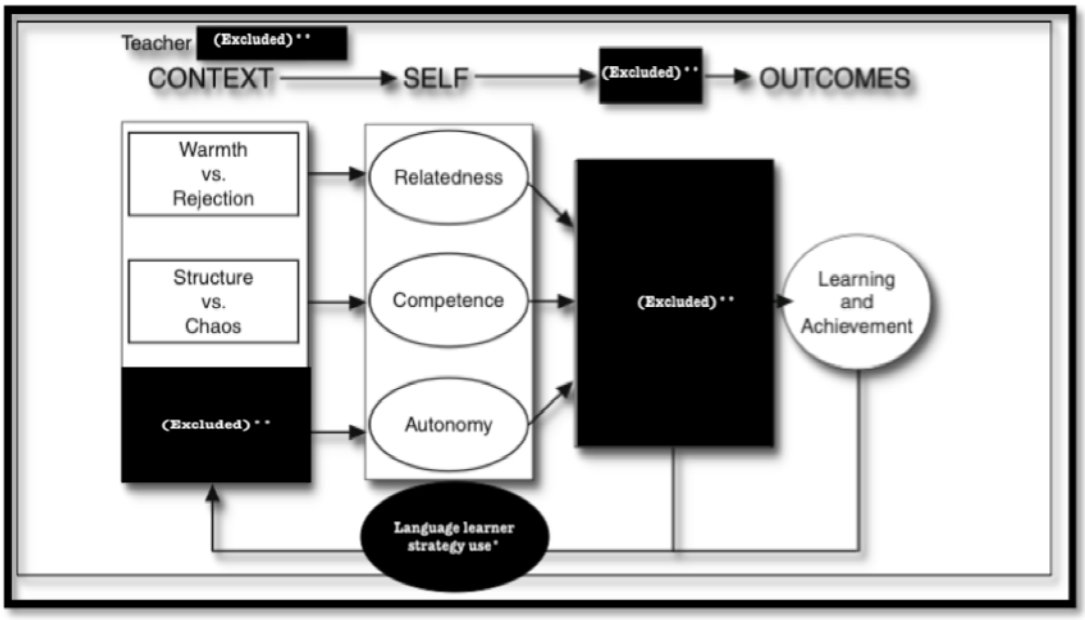

Figure 2.11. Components of Skinner and Pitzer's Student Engagement Model Addressed in the Current Study *Note*. * = New categories added to the model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012); ** = Parts excluded from the model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012).

While learners' sense of belonging was considered as the facilitator of affective engagement, self-efficacy, language learner autonomy, and language learner strategy use were regarded as the facilitators of cognitive engagement. As for the outcomes dimension, the language proficiency exam results (TOEFL ITP scores) of the students were regarded as the outcome of their engagement (see Figure 2.11).

2.4.1 Social Facilitators of Student Engagement, Learning and Achievement

In the model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012), teacher and school practices are regarded as the social facilitators of student engagement. According to the researchers, supportive interactions with teachers and well-designed school practices help learners develop positive self-perceptions, which promote their engagement and result in achievement. Inspired by their model, this study addressed two need-supportive teacher practices (pedagogical caring and optimal structure) and three school practices (organizing extra-curricular activities, creating peripheral learning

activities, having language resource centers), which was discussed in detail in the following sections.

2.4.1.1 Teaching Practices as the Social Facilitator

Pedagogical caring is one of the expected teacher behaviours and is believed to support students' sense of relatedness (Reeve, 2008; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Teachers should create opportunities for dialogues in order to increase mutual understanding and opinion exchange (Noddings, 1992). According to Wentzel (1997; p. 129), a teacher who cares:

> makes a special effort, teaches in a unique way, makes class interesting, listens well, asks questions, pays attention, is equitable, models respect, focuses on students' unique skills, appreciates individuality, checks work carefully and offers constructive praise.

Fredricks (2014) makes a number of suggestions to teachers who would like to promote students' sense of relatedness and help construct healthy self-perceptions. Initially, she thinks teachers should be informed about their students' interests and backgrounds so that they can build rapport with those students and organize the instructional process according to their personal interests and traits. Moreover, she believes that positive emotions should dominate the classrooms since students may model teacher behaviours. Additionally, teachers should listen to their students' needs and concerns. Besides, they should give both implicit and explicit messages about their care. Finally, if there are students, with whom they feel difficulty in building relationship, in their classroom, they should reflect on this problem and get support if needed.

Whereas pedagogical caring promotes students' sense of relatedness, optimal structure facilitates their sense of competence (Reeve, 2008; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Fredricks (2014) defines classroom structure as "the amount of information in the

context about how students can effectively achieve desired outcomes" (p.139). In the classrooms where optimal structure is achieved, students are fully informed by teachers about the expectations and outcomes of their behavior. In other words, they are totally aware of what is needed to be successful and this clarity thanks to the existence of optimal structure promotes their competency feelings. In addition, in a classroom that optimal structure exists, teachers not only tell learners what to do to succeed but also give them feedback about how they are doing and what they should do to get better achievements, which in turn leads to improvement in their sense of competence.

Although it is out of the scope of the current study, it is worth mentioning that creating opportunities conducive to autonomy development is also essential for self-determined motivation. According to the self-determination theory and Skinner and Pitzer (2012), students have inner psychological needs to feel autonomous, and as highlighted by Reeve and Jang (2006), autonomy is a kind of feeling that teachers cannot give their students directly. Students can only feel themselves autonomous when they are provided with classroom experiences through which they can develop a connection between their need and behaviour.

In order to provide guidance to teachers who are interested in creating autonomy-supportive environments, Fredricks (2014) makes some recommendations. By referring to the research findings of Reeve and Jang (2006), she describes autonomy-supportive teachers as those who listen to the students carefully by using both verbal and non-verbal signs, create time for them to study independently, explain the rationale behind the activities, give them time to express themselves, praise their achievements by giving informational feedback, encourage them to make effort, provide support when they feel stuck, pay attention to their questions and comments, and respect students' ideas.

All in all, according to the theoretical model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012), the interaction of students with teachers has a significant role in determining the degree of their engagement and learning. In line with this assumption, in the current study, the expectations of language learners with regard to engaging teaching practices were investigated.

2.4.1.2 School Practices (Out-of-class Learning) as the Social Facilitator

Successful language learning was traditionally believed to depend on what is achieved in the classroom and "little attention has been paid to learners' views on the opportunities they have for practising / learning a language outside of the classroom" (Nunan, 2005, p.72). Nevertheless, it is a well-known fact that language education has a major aim of preparing learners for the world outside; therefore, limiting it to the in-class practices may not create intended long-term effects (Richards, 2014). Fortunately, contrary to traditional approaches, that learning should not be confined to classrooms is emphasized in contemporary research (e.g. Nunan, 2005; Richards, 2014; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012) and among the advocators of out-of-class learning are Skinner and Pitzer (2012).

Various approaches have been embraced by the researchers so far, but in this study, the perspective of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) regarding out-of-class learning was adopted. In their work, Skinner and Pitzer (2012) claim that engaging learners with school activities such as academics, sports or extra-curricular activities is essential for learning and achievement (Figure 2.8). However, since they approach school activities in a more general fashion and do not specifically focus on any subject area in their model, for the current study, it was found essential to make some modifications in the categories under this dimension of the model by replacing "sports", "clubs" and "government" (Figure 2.8) with organizing extra-curricular activities, creating peripheral learning opportunities and having language resource centres (Figure 2.10).

In the literature, out-of-class learning is defined as “any kind of learning that takes place outside the classroom and involves self-instruction, naturalistic learning or self-directed naturalistic learning” (Benson, 2001, p.62). In this study, it refers to school practices that intend to increase the exposure and therefore engagement in the target language and it was examined under three main categories: organizing extracurricular activities (clubs & seminars), creating peripheral learning opportunities and having language resource centres.

The first sub-dimension of school practices is extra-curricular activities and this term refers to practices that are beyond the classroom curricula, require no obligatory participation and mostly do not offer any external motivators. As stated by Richards (2014), all these activities may vary in terms of its location, modality (e.g. face-to-face, online), aims, control (e.g. teacher-led or student-led), type of interaction (e.g. one way, two-way), language register (e.g. scripted, casual, formal), logistics (e.g. simple, challenging), task demands (e.g. listen, rephrase, summarize), manner (e.g. pair, group), and means (e.g. computer, mobile phone). The benefits of these activities to language learning have been greatly emphasized by the supporters of Communicative Language Learning Approach (Makarova & Reva, 2017). These activities help create linguistic, communicative and pragmatic competence. Besides, interaction and meaning making are promoted and learners are more exposed to English. Thanks to the interaction with the others, they are able to create more communicative and pleasurable experiences. Most importantly, learners are encouraged to act autonomously. They learn how to organize the time, place, type and manner of their own learning, which makes them realize that it is their duty to take the responsibility of the process (Richards, 2014).

Beside extracurricular activities, this study questioned the necessity of peripheral learning opportunities at language schools. Peripheral learning refers to the subliminal perception occurring as a result of continuous exposure to information (Lozanov, 1978) and is a term that is mostly related to implicit learning. In the related literature, learning is commonly categorized as explicit and implicit. Explicit

learning is “a conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structure” (Ellis, 1994, p.1). On the other hand, implicit learning, which the current study was interested in, refers to “acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations” (Ellis, 1994, p.1). It is certain that both kinds of learning are essential for language development and there is no doubt that classroom teaching provides learners with a lot of opportunities to practice the target language. Nevertheless, compared to explicit information, “we perceive much more in our environment than that to which we consciously attend” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p.84) and unfortunately, despite this fact, the peripheral learning has been one of the neglected areas in language education research (Demirag, 2018).

As the third dimension of out-of-class learning, whether having language resource centres would be beneficial for engagement, learning and achievement was questioned. Under this category, students were asked if they would believe that language schools should have a self-access centre, a language laboratory and an online resource centre.

Self-access centres are the places where students can study on their own or with their peers and benefit from various resources organized for language learning. A good self-access centre has classification systems which help students locate the correct material in terms of skill or level and has pathways that inform students where to go and what to do in the next step. What’s more, it provides students with training sessions to make them familiar with the system of the place and try to find ways to keep students’ interest high in using these centres (Harmer, 2007). The language laboratory is another place that both teachers and students may benefit from in the language learning process. As described by Allen (1962), “the laboratory is a tool, an audio aid, a valuable adjunct to classroom instruction in a foreign language” (p.21). It should not be considered as an alternative to teachers, but it is worth noting that it enables learners to acquire knowledge on their own pace and teachers to monitor

students' learning in a more effective way (Michalski, 1962). In addition to self-access centres and language laboratories, an online resource center where students can obtain the course materials may also help develop more engagement, learning and achievement. If properly designed, by the help of this kind of resource sharing, students may have the chance to fill the gaps in their knowledge, find more examples, do more practice and clarify the misconceptions (McCabe & Gonzalez-Flores, 2017).

In brief, according to Skinner and Pitzer (2012), opportunities organized for out-of-class learning play a central role in the development of self-perceptions and learning. Students' involvement in these activities not only leads to an increase in their engagement but also promotes their achievement at school. Being aware of this fact, Skinner and Pitzer (2012) has placed this component in their theoretical model and this issue was separately handled in this study as well.

2.4.2 Personal Facilitators of Student Engagement, Learning and Achievement

In the model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012), relatedness, competence and autonomy are considered as the personal facilitators of student engagement. According to the researchers, when students feel themselves related to their class/school, competent and autonomous, they develop positive self-perceptions, which promote their engagement and result in achievement. Inspired by their model, this study focused on these three psychological needs by adding language strategy use as the fourth component.

2.4.2.1 Sense of Belonging (Relatedness) as the Personal Facilitator of Affective Engagement

Not only in language education literature but also in studies of different fields, affective engagement is described as learners' positive feelings and attitudes towards

teachers, peers, learning and school (Eccles et al., 1993; Finn & Zimmer, 2012; Watt, 2004; Svalberg, 2009) and the feelings of learners about the group they are involved in determines their belongingness perception.

McMillan and Chavis (1986; p. 9) define the sense of community as:

> a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members' needs will be met through their commitment to be together.

It is composed of four major elements: membership (the feeling of belonging), influence (a sense of making a difference to a group), integration and fulfilment of needs (a sense that one's needs are met in the group), shared emotional connection (a sense that group members have similar experiences in terms of time, history etc.).

The concept of 'sense of community' has been redefined as 'relatedness' or 'belongingness' by the researchers having an interest in the self-determination theory. According to the theory and as supported by Skinner and Pitzer (2012), people feel a need to be connected to the community where they exist and this is called 'relatedness'. The theory and the model by Skinner and Pitzer (2012) suggest that the satisfaction of this feeling helps learners internalize the extrinsic motivation in contexts where activities seem boring or unsatisfying. Therefore, it can be claimed that as they feel themselves related to the context, their academic motivation increases (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Similarly, as stated by (Voelkl, 2012), identification with school, in other words, belonging or relatedness, involves emotion, and it leads to a change in students' attitudes. Besides, it is a kind of intrinsic motivation, and it encourages learners to feel a desire to improve their skills and enjoy their success.

To sum up, students create feelings towards schools in different forms. All these attitudes may create a sense of identification with the school or they may lead to

disaffection, resulting in a withdrawal or dropout. For the academic, social and cognitive engagement, appropriate conditions should be prepared (Voelkl, 2012). Since the strong relationship between learners' engagement level and their sense of belonging was detected even in the early engagement models (Finn, 1989), its impact on engagement and achievement shouldn't be disregarded.

2.4.2.2 Perceived Self-efficacy (Competence) as the Personal Facilitator of Cognitive Engagement

As highlighted in the Social Cognitive Theory of Human Functioning (Bandura, 1994), humans are active agents of their own development and the social system in which they exist. Continuously, they are engaged in tasks or activities and considering the results of their behaviour, they create self-beliefs, which returns as a change in their subsequent behaviours. If the outcome is satisfactory, they develop positive views about their next action; however, if they fail to get the outcomes they desire, they are discouraged and avoid involving in similar tasks. Therefore, their next step depends on how they perceive the results of their current actions.

Self-efficacy is a significant component of this self-belief system and has undeniable importance for students' engagement, learning and better achievement (Bandura, 1994; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Bandura (2002) defines the term as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p.94) and identifies four major sources for its development: (a) mastery experiences (one's previous accomplishments), (b) vicarious experiences (observing others on task), (c) social persuasions (verbal judgments of the others), (d) somatic and emotional states (e.g. anxiety, stress, etc.) (Bandura, 1994). It is not related to one's existing abilities but it is about a person's judgments about these skills (Bandura, 2002). It is concerned with questions such as "Can I do this task in this situation?" (Linnenbrink

& Pintrich, 2003, p.120) and is open to change due to "intraindividual or environmental differences" (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003, p.122).

In an academic setting, self-efficacy has a significant role in the cognitive engagement dimension of learning and achievement (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Schunk & Mullen, 2012). Students who believe in their capabilities to perform a task are more cognitively engaged, which is observed in their use of deep processing strategies (cognitive and metacognitive), the quality of their effort and persistence (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). Students with high self-efficacy consider difficult tasks as challenges rather than threats, are motivated by challenging goals, persist when they are surrounded with obstacles or failures, avoid any distractions when they are on task, seek help if they feel stuck, make accurate self-reflection about their failures by attributing them to causes such as inadequate effort or lack of self-regulatory strategies, and quickly recover their self-efficacy whenever they feel incompetent (Bandura, 1994; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Schunk & Mullen, 2012). On the other hand, being cognitively engaged is less likely for students who question their capabilities. They exert less effort in learning, avoid challenging tasks, persist less, and generally tend to use surface-processing strategies (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003).

As can be seen, all these descriptions make it clear that an individual's self-efficacy has impact on his/her task choices, the degree of his effort, persistence as well as academic tendencies. Most importantly, it is situational; in other words, it may increase or decrease by contextual features (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). For that reason, the selection of tasks and classroom materials has a significant role. If teachers select tasks and materials that enable learners to feel competent, their self-efficacy beliefs may positively alter (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Therefore, to ensure its promotion, tasks and activities should be organized in such a way that students can construct objective views about both their own and their peers' capabilities. If tasks are challenging enough and allow learners to go beyond their actual academic abilities, students are more likely to get the sense of achievement

and feel themselves competent. In addition, feedback also contributes to their academic self-efficacy. Teachers should inform learners about their progress in such a way that they will not be discouraged. Their competence should be valued and their attempts should be approached with encouraging manners. Finally, they should be informed about the fact that self-efficacy is a domain-specific belief and can change if necessary effort is given (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

Like various researchers (e.g. Bandura, 1994; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan and Deci, 2000; Schunk & Pajares, 2005), Skinner and Pitzer (2012) also advocate the idea that self-efficacy has a facilitative role on engagement, learning and achievement. The promotion of the competence feeling is as essential as that of autonomy and belongingness. Based on this assumption, the current study was designed with the aim of investigating whether self-efficacy beliefs of language learners would predict their achievement.

2.4.2.3 Language Learner Autonomy as the Personal Facilitator of Cognitive Engagement

According to the self-determination theory (SDT) proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985) and the student engagement model by Skinner and Pitzer (2012), people have three basic psychological needs, one of which is autonomy. It is a domain-free construct, and as defined by Holec (1981), it is “the ability to take charge of one’s learning” (p.3).

The assumption behind both the theory and the model is that people are innately engaged and autonomous. However, the degree of their engagement and autonomy is sensitive to the differences in social contexts. If students are exposed to supportive social conditions, they are naturally engaged; nevertheless, if their feelings are not nurtured, they lose their motivation and become disaffected. Therefore, to ensure

engagement, learning and achievement, along with the sense of belongingness and self-efficacy, this psychological need of students should also be given attention.

When it comes to the promotion of autonomy, it is suggested that teachers should use the target language as the medium of language in the classroom and encourage students to act in a similar manner (Little, 2007). Controlling behaviours should be minimized; rather, learners should be given choices and a sense of freedom, and be allowed to make their own choices about what and how to learn (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Pegrum, Bartle, & Longnecker, 2014). In addition, students should be provided with activities and tasks that are useful, meaningful and consistent with their values and goals. They should be informed about the significance and value of tasks so that they can feel motivated, engaged and act autonomously (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). What's more, students can obtain the sense of autonomy through self-access centres, CALL technologies, distance learning, tandem learning, studying abroad, out-of-class learning activities, and self-study materials (Benson, 2006).

In addition to all these recommendations, the SDT and the model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) suggest that when students are intrinsically motivated, they tend to act more autonomously, which in turn lead to a change in learning and achievement. Therefore, intrinsic motivation should be taken seriously as it is the key player in students' autonomy and engagement. However, they draw our attention to the fact that expecting learners to be always intrinsically motivated is not plausible, so they should be taught how to internalize extrinsic motivation. In other words, school activities may not be satisfying enough for learners or conditions may not be supportive for their development. In such situations, through some facilitators or other incentives such as quality teacher practices, learning tasks and activities, students should be guided about how to construct intrinsic motivation on their own.

In brief, autonomy refers to the involvement of learners in their own decision-making processes. It is claimed that when learners study independently, their autonomy and cognitive engagement are much more likely to increase as a result of their self- initiated information-seeking behaviours (Rotgans & Schmidt, 2011; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012) and this research questioned this assumption as a part of this study.

2.4.2.4 Use of Deep-Processing Language Learning Strategies as the Personal Facilitator of Cognitive Engagement

According to Elaboration Likelihood Theory, when individuals encounter with new information, they go through two different processing systems: deep central processing (deep learning) and shallow peripheral processing (surface learning) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984). Deep processing is an approach to learning that stems from individuals' intrinsic motivation to have a meaningful mastery of concepts with the integration of prior and new knowledge in a highly collaborative, integrative, self-reflective and application-centered atmosphere and is finalized with their successful transfer to real-life situations (Biggs, 1990; Biggs & Tang, 2011; Campbell & Cabrera, 2014; Fink, 2003; Moon, 1999; Ramsden, 2003).

Students who use deep processing strategies are much more likely to be cognitively engaged (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). They tend to build a connection between new and prior knowledge (Greene, 2015; Murphy & Alexander, 2002; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986), aim to understand the material and internalize the information (Brown, Aoshima, Bolen, Chia, & Kohyama, 2007), use self-regulatory skills (Finn & Zimmer, 2012; Khine & Saleh, 2013; Lau, Liem, & Nie, 2008), and use metacognitive strategies to plan, monitor, and evaluate his cognition (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Zimmerman, 1990). Also, they are more likely to relate the concepts with one another by comparing and contrasting them, and attempt to visualize this connectedness (Biggs, 1987; Brown et al., 2007; Senko

& Miles, 2008; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986) and not only think about the material but construct their own opinions about it (Senko & Miles, 2008). In addition to all these traits, they find personal examples and make the task meaningful for their life and the real world (Murphy & Alexander, 2002; Senko & Miles, 2008) and tend to question the given content and approach it critically (Biggs, 1987; Finn & Zimmer, 2012; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). Moreover, they are intrinsically motivated to have an interest in the academic tasks (Biggs, 1987), do not limit their studies to course requirements (Brown et al., 2007; Finn & Zimmer, 2012) and are able to understand which information is important and which one is not (Nolen, 1988). They prefer challenging tasks, are not discouraged by the failures (Connell & Wellborn, 1991), persist even if the task is too difficult (Finn & Zimmer, 2012) and avoid distractions in order to keep their engagement high (Corno, 1993; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). As the final characteristic, they do not hesitate to ask for further clarifications and manage to find out alternative ways to gain further information (Finn & Zimmer, 2012).

On the contrary, students with shallow peripheral processing mostly concentrate on the signs of learning such as words and items rather than their deep meanings (Biggs & Tang, 2007). They try to reproduce the material with no elaboration, use strategies to take the information without questioning (Biggs, 1987; Harlow, Debacker, & Crowson, 2011), tend to study mainly for course requirements and consider tasks as demands (Campbell & Cabrera, 2014). Besides, they are not mainly concerned with learning how to grasp new concepts and transfer to new situations (Bowden & Marton, 1998); rather, they apply rote learning and study by memorizing the terms and facts (Biggs, 1987; Biggs & Moore, 1993; Brown et al., 2007; Greene, 2015; Nolen, 1988; Senko & Miles, 2008). Unfortunately, they are externally motivated (fear of failure, career options etc.) (Biggs & Moore, 1993). Finally, they are unable to make discrimination between principles and examples and approach concepts as discrete and unrelated ideas (Brown et al., 2007).

Such differences in the academic tendencies are also observed among language learners. Similar to the meaning attributed to learning strategy in the other fields, in language education literature, it refers to "thoughts and actions, consciously selected by learners, to assist them in learning and using language in general, and in the completion of specific language tasks" (Cohen, 2011, p.682). In language classrooms, it is likely to observe that some students are more inclined to benefit from deep processing strategies while learning English, whereas some prefer applying surface processing strategies. However, according to Macaro (2001), "those learners who are pro-active in their pursuit of language learning appear to learn best" (p. 264) and such control on learning is achieved through "deep processing, elaborative strategy use and significant metacognitive reflection" (Dole & Sinatra, 1998, p. 121).

Despite the existence of different approaches, the mostly referred classification of language learning strategies belongs to Rebecca Oxford (Açıkel, 2011; Demirel, 2012). She defines the term as "specific behaviours or thought processes that students use to enhance their own L2 learning" (Oxford, 2003, p.8) and categorizes learning strategies as direct (memory-related strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensatory strategies) and indirect (metacognitive, affective, and social) (Oxford, 1990). *Memory-related strategies* are used for remembering words or concepts by some techniques such as using acronyms, images or pictures, but they may not encourage deep learning. *Cognitive strategies* are the processes that students go through while learning a language (e.g. reasoning, analyzing, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing the knowledge to construct a wider picture) and using the language in real life. *Compensatory strategies* have the function of helping learners when they cannot have the necessary knowledge. Pausing, using gestures or using synonyms are some of its examples. *Metacognitive strategies* are the ones that students employ for planning the learning process, checking the progress and evaluating their learning. The learner organizes the necessary materials and an appropriate place for studying. He monitors his mistakes and finally checks his success in the task. *Affective strategies* are employed by the

learners to reduce anxiety, express feelings, motivate and reward oneself for the performance. *Social strategies* are the ones used while interacting with the other people. It involves cooperation, or asking for help for further explanations (Cohen, 2011; Oxford, 1990, 2003).

As can be seen, similar to other fields, strategy use has a significant role in language education as well. For this reason, different from Skinner and Pitzer (2012), learners' use of deep learning strategies was added to the current study as the facilitator of cognitive engagement and its predictive power on students' achievement was investigated.

2.4.3 Outcome: TOEFL ITP Exam Scores

In the current study, despite the existence of the other in-house measures of language proficiency such as quizzes or midterms at TOBB ETU prep school, only the TOEFL ITP exam scores of the students were secured as the outcome of their engagement due to several reasons.

The first reason was that the TOEFL ITP test (Test of English as a Foreign Language – Institutional testing Program) is a widely accepted test in various parts of the world, which can be seen on various reports published on the official website of ETS (Educational Testing Service) (Educational Testing Service, 2019). This test is peculiar to the foundation called ETS, which develops, administers and scores more than 50 million tests in more than 180 countries a year. It is a language test used to measure the listening comprehension, structure and written expression (grammar and vocabulary), and reading comprehension of non-native English learners in more than 50 countries and 2500 institutions such as colleges, universities, secondary schools, and English-language programs.

Its preparation process was another factor behind its selection for the current research. A team composed of language and assessment specialists are responsible for designing the materials and tests are professionally reviewed by the ETS Standards for Fairness and Quality. Besides, in one of its research reports, based on the data from 2009 TOEFL ITP scores, the reliability score for section 1 (Listening Comprehension) was reported as .93; for section 2 (Structure and Written Expression), it was .90; for section 3 (Reading Comprehension), it was found as .88, which strengthened the belief that the test would be a reliable instrument for the current study (Educational Testing Service, 2019).

In addition, the compatibility of the test scores with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) levels appeared as another indicator of its power to measure the related skills. In 2011, a series of mapping studies were conducted with experts to understand how test scores would correspond to CEFR levels (Tannenbaum & Baron, 2011) and the results are shared on the ETS website as a guide to test administers who has a desire to interpret their students' scores in terms of their correspondence with CEFR levels (Educational Testing Service, 2019).

To sum up, because of all the above-mentioned reasons, rather than using all test scores, it was decided that this research should consider the TOEFL ITP scores as the outcome of students' language learning and achievement.

2.5 Related Research Studies on the Facilitators of Engagement, Learning and Achievement

In this part of the review, related empirical research studies on social (teacher and school practices) and personal (sense of belongingness, self-efficacy, learner autonomy, language learning strategy use) facilitators of engagement, learning and achievement were shared. The previous research findings on the TOEFL ITP exam were presented as well.

2.5.1 Related Research Studies on the Social Facilitators of Student Engagement, Learning and Achievement

The related studies as well as their findings on the social facilitators of student engagement, learning, and achievement were presented under two titles: related research on teaching practices and related research on school practices.

2.5.1.1 Related Research on Teaching Practices as the Social Facilitator

According to Skinner and Pitzer (2012), in order to construct healthy and supportive educational environments for students, teachers should have the qualities of pedagogical caring, provision of structure, and autonomy support.

As underlined in the review of Stroet, Opdenakker and Minnaert (2013), the studies on the effects of need-supporting teacher practices (involvement, autonomy support, provision of structure) on students' engagement varied in terms of their approach to this issue. Whereas a group of researchers focused on students' perceptions, some studies depended on the observations by trained raters, or were conducted as intervention studies. However, of all tendencies, the current study aimed to the provide more insight to the first group of research by gathering student expectations related to teaching practices, and therefore, the related research findings based on student perceptions were shared below.

Among the earlier and significant studies was the one by Skinner and Belmont (1993), who investigated the effects of teacher behaviour (involvement, structure, autonomy support) on students' behavioural and emotional engagement. One hundred forty-four students were asked to respond to two questionnaires, one of which was about their perceptions regarding teacher behaviour. They also contributed to the study by sharing their views on their own engagement. What the researchers discovered was that the interaction between teachers and students had

impact on the degree of engagement. Teachers' involvement shaped the perception of the learners related to the teachers. What's more, the clarity in the expectations and strategic help contributed to students' engagement as well. Besides, when students perceived their teachers as warm and affectionate, they felt more willing to learn. Autonomy support and structure also helped increase motivation.

In another study, Wang and Holcombe (2010) questioned whether students' perceptions with regard to school environment contributed to their school engagement and their academic achievement. Controlling for gender, race, SES and prior academic performance, they conducted a longitudinal study and asked 1,046 students to make contributions to the investigation by responding to a self-report questionnaire. Students' self-reports focused on their perception related to the school environment (school performance goal structure, school mastery goal structure, support of autonomy, promotion of discussion, teacher social support) and their school engagement (their participation in school activities, their school identification and their use of self-regulation strategies). The academic achievement and the other demographic information were collected through school report cards and primary caregivers. As for the results, the researchers witnessed a significant association between students' school experiences and their engagement. Considering their findings, they highlighted a need for teacher praise and positive approach for student engagement and success. Besides, the significance of mastery-oriented structures for students was emphasized and teachers were advised to avoid competitive environments in which students were exposed to performance goal structures.

As mentioned earlier, Stroet, Opdenakker and Minnaert (2013) published a review article on need-supporting teacher practices. Considering all the findings of these studies, the researchers concluded that there existed a significant and positive relationship between need-supporting teacher practices and student engagement. Nevertheless, the researchers also attracted the attention to the scarcity of empirical research on the unique contribution of each dimension (involvement, autonomy

support, provision of structure) to engagement and learning and highlighted a need for more empirical evidence.

Leenknecht, Wijnia, Loyens, and Rikers (2017) also conducted research with 623 students to understand the interrelations between autonomy support, structure and involvement in Dutch higher education. The participants took part in the study by responding to a questionnaire composed of items for need-supporting teaching practices (autonomy support, structure and involvement). Their GPA was also used as the indicator of their performance. The data analysis showed that teachers who were considered as autonomy supportive were also reported as being involved (caring) and skilled at provision of structure. Moreover, the researchers discovered that there was a significant and positive relationship between need-supporting teaching practices and students' performance.

When it comes to the expectations of students regarding language teacher practices, one study was carried out by Arikan, Taser, and Suzer (2008) with the aim of gathering the perceptions of students related to language teacher characteristics. The data were collected from 100 students and two data collection tools were utilized: a questionnaire on the qualities of an effective foreign language teacher and a written response in which they described the effective language teacher. According to the findings, an effective English language teacher should teach both formal and informal English, use games while teaching, give place to pair/group work activities, and use real life situations as an example. Moreover, they are expected to be young, friendly, creative and humorous.

Similarly, Barnes and Lock (2013) focused on language teacher characteristics and conducted a quantitative study which was a follow-up to a previous qualitative research. The sample group consisted of 222 students and the data were collected through a questionnaire. The results showed that building rapport was essential to get rid of the affective filters while learning a language. In addition, students expected

teachers to help them reduce language-learning anxiety, and clearly explain the concepts by referring to the examples. Besides, teachers should not only be friendly, caring and patient, but also be sensitive to individual differences and design the instructional process accordingly. Students also gave importance to teacher planning and use of supplementary materials. Finally, they expressed their need for EFL teachers' English language proficiency.

In a more recent study, Kil (2015) conducted research with 227 students to understand the qualities of effective English language teachers in her master's thesis. She collected data through a questionnaire in which students were asked to rank the qualities of effective English language teachers and later answer the open-ended questions on the same issue. The results of her study led to a conclusion that students expected teachers to motivate them for learning English, help them enjoy the process, and approach them in a friendly way. Besides, teachers were supposed to have a good command of English, be knowledgeable, have the ability to increase learner motivation, and use various methods and materials.

To sum up, many researchers contend that teachers hold a highly influential position in education, which is also highlighted in the model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012). They can either promote or hinder learning, which is also evident in the aforementioned research findings.

2.5.1.2 Related Research on School Practices (Out-Of-Class Learning) as the Social Facilitator

As stated earlier, in this study, the term "out-of-class learning" refers to "school practices" that aim to increase student engagement by exposing them to the target language outside the classroom in three different ways: (a) organizing extracurricular activities at school (clubs & seminars), (b) creating peripheral learning opportunities, and (c) having language resource centres.

The relationship between extra-curricular activities and language proficiency has been investigated in various contexts. To begin with, Fatash (2008) conducted a descriptive research in a Palestinian context to understand students' attitudes towards using extra-curricular activities as a way to increase their motivation in learning English. Sixty-four students were asked to participate in the study by responding to a questionnaire developed by the researcher himself. The survey results indicated that they were willing to take part in these activities if organized, signalling their motivation.

In her master's thesis, Yin (2015) investigated the relationship between learners' outside-of-class language activities and their listening comprehension performance in listening tests. Twenty-two college students, who were studying in the USA, contributed to the research, and as the data collection tools, outside-of-class activity questionnaire, metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire and self-efficacy about listening skill questionnaire were utilized. The results of her study highlighted the significant relationship between outside-of-class language activities and the listening skill.

Similarly, Yildiz (2016) attempted to explore the impact of language-oriented extracurricular activities on academic achievement in language preparation schools in an Iraq context. The researcher discovered that these activities helped learners cope with anxiety and increase motivation.

In a more recent study conducted with 119 university students in Canada and Russia, Makarova and Reva (2017) aimed to figure out the perceived impact of extra-curricular activities on foreign language learning. According to their findings, these activities made huge impact on students' motivation and learning. Besides, they helped them get rid of their shyness and anxiety.

With regard to peripheral learning activities, Gezer, Sen, and Alci (2012) conducted research to understand the effect of peripheral learning on English idioms. One hundred and eleven university students contributed to the study and their achievement test scores represented their idiom knowledge. In this research, posters, on which idioms were written and visually illustrated, were used as the material. Later, students were asked about their opinions regarding the posters on the walls and how they made impact on their learning. In the light of their answers, the researchers concluded that this peripheral learning technique was beneficial for idiom teaching and learning.

Similar to Gezer, Sen, and Alci (2012), Bahmani, Pazhakh, and Sharif (2012) carried out research with the aim of exploring the impact of peripheral learning on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition, retention, and recall. With 80 participants, the researchers tested whether there would be a difference among learners in vocabulary acquisition under peripheral and non-peripheral conditions. After eight sessions of intervention, a series of tests were applied to the students and it was discovered that peripheral conditions significantly affected students' vocabulary acquisition.

In a more detailed examination, Demirag (2018) investigated the effectiveness of peripheral learning that was tested through educational posters. The researcher organized a classroom with posters and kept them on the wall for 12 weeks. By comparing the exam scores of the experimental group to those of the control group, he claimed that students who were exposed to the posters displayed better performance in vocabulary and grammar.

Language resource centres were also investigated in different educational settings. The first sub-dimension, self-access centres, was studied by Morrison (2008), who aimed to discover the role of these settings in tertiary language learning. Favouring grounded theory approach as the method, he carried out research with 16 participants. In the light of responses gathered through interviews and a follow-up

questionnaire, the researcher concluded that these centres help increase linguistic knowledge, proficiency and learning strategies.

Mohammed (2017) focused on the role of language laboratory in language learning settings and aimed to figure out whether these places were useful for Saudi students and how they would help improve student performance. Twenty-seven university students took part in the study and their exam scores were used as the data sources. The findings of the study pointed at the possible positive impact of lab use on students' listening and speaking skill.

In a different study, Danaher & Danaher (1998) aimed to understand whether language laboratories were beneficial for learning Japanese as a foreign language. The results of the questionnaire indicated that these centres contributed to students' learning in that they had the opportunity to hear the voices of native speakers, and do repetitive practice for speaking and listening.

With regard to the impact of online resource sharing, a single study was detected. Kvavik (2005) conducted research with 4,374 students from various universities to explore the types of technologies students mostly preferred and how this use contributed to their learning. In order to collect data, he utilized a survey and the results indicated that although sharing materials online was among the least used interactive features by the faculty, students would like to have materials online.

As can be seen, similar to Skinner and Pitzer (2012), several researchers called into question whether students would develop more positive learning experiences by involving in out-of-school activities and received similar results. Inspired by these findings, in the current study, it was decided to create space for school practices (out-of-class learning) in order to offer new insights into how engagement, learning, and achievement could be facilitated through these activities.

2.5.2 Related Research Studies on Personal Facilitators of Student Engagement, Learning and Achievement

The related studies on the personal facilitators of student engagement, learning, and achievement were presented under four titles: related research on sense of belongingness, related research on on perceived self-efficacy, related research on language learner autonomy, and related research on language learner strategy use.

2.5.2.1 Related Research Studies on Sense of Belongingness as the Personal Facilitator

Although the relationship between sense of belongingness and engagement as well as achievement was widely discussed in the related literature, in the language education studies, no research for the relationship between language learning environments and relatedness was detected in the mostly-used databases such as EBSCO, ProQuest, and Google Scholar. Therefore, research findings were discussed in a more general fashion under this title.

One correlational study was conducted by Furrer and Skinner (2003) with the aim of questioning the predictive power of sense of relatedness on students' academic engagement. Six hundred and forty-one participants were asked to complete self-report questionnaires, in which they would report their relatedness to their social partners (their mother, father, teacher, classmates, and friends), their perceived control, and their engagement/disaffection degree in the classroom. With regard to the engagement/disaffection dimension of the research, their teachers were asked to share their views about the engagement level of the students by responding to two scales: behavioural engagement scale (effort, attention and persistence of the students during the activities) and emotional engagement scale (e.g. enthusiastic, frustrated etc.). A similar scale was given to the students and they also reported their own perceptions. As the indicator of their academic performance, students' grades

were secured. The findings of the study indicated that students' sense of relatedness significantly predicted learners' academic motivation and performance. Besides, it was discovered that students with greater sense of belonging reported more behavioural and emotional engagement. What's more, of all social partners, teachers were found to play the most significant predictor of students' sense of relatedness.

In a different correlational study, Archambault et al. (2009) aimed to discover how students developed behavioural, affective and cognitive engagement at school and how it was connected with the dropouts. The data were collected from 13,330 students living in Quebec, Canada. The student responses to a scale on student engagement and the official records indicating dropout status, gender, age and placement in special class were used as the data sources in the research. Their study yielded valuable results in that students with high engagement and achievement were found as less likely to drop out, whereas those who were at risk displayed insufficient engagement. Most importantly, the researchers found out that there was a relationship between students' tendency to withdraw and the feeling of disconnectedness towards school; in other words, the weaker the feeling of belonging was, the more possible they would withdraw without completing their education.

In another study, Wang and Holcombe (2010) questioned whether students' perceptions with regard to school environment contributed to their school engagement and their academic achievement. As previously shared under the teaching practices part of this study, they conducted a longitudinal study and asked 1,046 students to make contributions to the investigation by responding to a self-report questionnaire. The findings of the research indicated that students' perceptions about the school environment led to a change in their school participation and identification positively. To be more precise, of all sub-categories of school environment, school mastery goal structure, support of autonomy, promotion of discussion, and teacher social support contributed to their sense of belonging, which in turn made positive impact on their academic achievement. Nevertheless, a performance goal structure that exposed students to competitive environments

resulted in a decrease in their school participation, school identification and achievement.

Wang and Eccles (2011) also examined school engagement with its three sub-dimensions: school participation, school belonging, and self-regulated learning. They attempted to check the relationship between school engagement and GPA through a correlational study. They asked 1,148 adolescents to contribute to the study by responding to various scales. The results of their investigation indicated that student success required regular participation at school, so belongingness feelings did not make impact unless they participated in class regularly. Students with higher sense of belonging towards their school seemed to be more motivated, but it was not enough for their academic achievement.

In a different study, Kennedy and Tuckman (2013) aimed to explore the relationships between students' academic and social values, procrastination, perceived belongingness and academic performance. They gathered data from 671 students by online questionnaires, and conducted a SEM analysis. Their results indicated that perceived school belongingness had an indirect effect on students' GPA.

To sum up, with regard to all these findings, it can be claimed that the facilitative role of sense of belongingness has been investigated in various contexts, but although previous studies have suggested that it is necessary for engagement and learning, whether its impact is direct or indirect and its role in language education requires more empirical evidence.

2.5.2.2 Related Research Studies on Perceived Self-Efficacy as the Personal Facilitator

The impact of self-efficacy has been investigated in various ways. Some researchers have attempted to explore whether self-efficacy contributes to both student

engagement and achievement (e.g. Greene & Miller, 1996; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Sedaghat et al., 2011). On the other hand, a number of researchers have uniquely concentrated on its role in students' engagement (e.g. Walker, Greene, & Mansell, 2006) or only on its impact on achievement (e.g. Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Nassrelgrgawi, 2016).

One of the preliminary investigations on the relationship of self-efficacy with student engagement and academic achievement was carried out by Pintrich and De Groot (1990). Through a correlational study with 173 students and by using an inventory called Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire, they discovered that self-efficacy did not directly predict performance on seatwork, exams or essays. Cognitive engagement variables were more related with their achievement.

Similarly, Greene and Miller (1996) attempted to find out the relations among college students' self-reported goal orientation, perceived ability, cognitive engagement and course achievement through a correlational study. One hundred and four students of an educational psychology class were asked to participate in the study and as an instrument, they utilized their own questionnaire called "Motivation and Strategy Use Survey", which was composed of items for learning goal orientation, performance goal orientation, perceived ability, meaningful cognitive engagement and shallow cognitive engagement. When the self-reported questionnaires were analysed through path analysis, it became evident that students with goal orientation and high perceived ability were more cognitively engaged; however, these variables had an indirect effect on students' success and meaningful cognitive engagement played the mediator role.

In a different correlational study, Walker, Greene, and Mansell (2006) questioned the predictive value of identification with academics (belonging and valuing), intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy on meaningful engagement. One hundred and ninety-one university students participated in the research by responding to four separate

scales designed for intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, identification with academics and meaningful cognitive engagement. By considering self-reports of the students and their exam results, the researchers concluded that intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy led to an increase in student cognitive engagement.

More recently, Sedaghat et al. (2011) conducted a correlational study with 1,371 students to test the impact of perceived ability, perceived instrumentality, achievement goals on engagement and academic achievement. As a part of the Approaches to Learning Scale, they assessed students' perceived ability and their cognitive engagement was evaluated through the Motivated Strategies Learning Questionnaire. Besides, they used students' academic achievement scores as the outcome variable. Their findings indicated that perceived ability both directly and indirectly predicted academic achievement.

In their meta-analysis, Cerasoli, Nicklin, and Nassrelgrgawi (2016) questioned whether perceived competence was positively related with performance and their literature review demonstrated that when compared with the three personal needs suggested in the self-determination theory, perceived competence was the strongest predictor of performance.

Given the examination of the relationship between self-efficacy and students' language proficiency, various research attempts were also made in language education. One study by Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2007) aimed to explore whether students' self-efficacy beliefs about the grades they would get from the exam and their self-efficacy for self-regulation significantly predicted their final grade in the French course by controlling their French anxiety and perceived value of language and culture. Their detailed research with 303 students revealed that both variables significantly predicted students' language achievement.

As a part of her Master's thesis, Açıkel (2011) used the data gathered from 643 language preparatory school students to examine self-efficacy in two aspects: self-efficacy for the receptive skills and self- efficacy for the productive skills. She utilized the Questionnaire of English Self-efficacy as an instrument. By referring to the research findings, she arrived at the conclusion that self-efficacy was one of the predictors of English proficiency (TOEFL ITP test score). Specifically, for receptive skills, she discovered that students with high self-efficacy appeared to be more successful; nevertheless, the degree of achievement wasn't the same for productive skills.

Similarly, Nasrollahi and Barjasteh (2013) questioned the existence of a relationship between Iranian students' language proficiency and their self-efficacy. The researchers gathered data from 112 university students and utilized two data collection tools: a self-efficacy questionnaire and Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency. Their results indicated that students' self-efficacy and their language proficiency were positively related.

In a more recent study, Bai, Chao, and Wang (2019) conducted research in Hong Kong in order to investigate the predictive power of self-efficacy on students' language proficiency. One thousand and ninety-two students constituted the sample group of the study, and the self-efficacy items of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire were used as the data collection instrument. This study revealed similar results with those of Nasrollahi and Barjasteh (2013) in that self-efficacy was significantly correlated with students' language proficiency.

The relationship between language learners' self-efficacy and their listening comprehension performance was also specifically investigated in a number of studies. For instance, as a part of her Phd dissertation, Chen (2007) carried out a correlational research with 277 university students in Taiwan to understand the impact of students' English listening-self-efficacy on their listening performance. In

order to explore the perceived self-efficacy of the students, the researcher utilized a tool called English Listening Self-Efficacy Questionnaire, which was composed of subcategories such as English listening self-efficacy, English listening anxiety, perceived value of English language and culture, and sources of English self-efficacy information. The findings provided evidence for self-efficacy-listening performance link. In other words, students with higher self-efficacy in listening seemed to be more likely to succeed. Despite the weaknesses in the data collection process due to tools and the small sample size, this relationship was also addressed by Rahimi and Abedini (2009). Their investigation also indicated that when students felt themselves capable of language learning, they displayed better performance in the listening part of their exam. Tabrizi and Saeidi (2015) reached similar conclusions about the potential impact of listening self-efficacy on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension. They obtained data from 90 students, whose Preliminary English Test (PET) results, listening self-efficacy beliefs, listening autonomy beliefs and the TOEFL listening comprehension test scores were secured as the data sources of the research. What was discovered mirrored those of Chen (2007) and Rahimi and Abedini (2009). Likewise, Todaka (2017) focused on the self-efficacy of 200 Japanese college EFL learners for English listening skill. In the light of the findings gathered through two TOEIC test results and a self-efficacy questionnaire, the researcher also discovered that there existed a positive correlation between students' self-efficacy and their listening performance.

Although there was a tendency to explore the relationship of self-efficacy with students' listening comprehension, unfortunately, no studies focusing on the predictive value of students' self-efficacy on their grammar or vocabulary performance were detected in the mostly-used databases such as EBSCO, ProQuest and Google Scholar. Rather, it was discovered that students' grammar or vocabulary performance was mostly investigated with the aim of highlighting the dynamic nature of self-efficacy. The study of Collins and Bissell (2004) appeared as one of the pioneers who were interested in such kind of grammar and self-efficacy relationship. In their investigation, the researchers studied with students in an

introductory writing course and asked these students to fill a survey at the beginning and end of the semester. Students' grammar competency was assessed through these surveys, in which they were presented sentences with grammar mistakes. After correcting each error, students were asked to rate their confidence in their answer and their responses were coded as their grammar self-efficacy. The results of the study indicated that students' self-efficacy did not change at the beginning but it increased at the end of the semester and the researchers attributed this significant link to the impact of practice in grammar. In another study, Wu, Lowyck, Sercu, and Elen (2012) conducted an experimental study with 78 Chinese students learning English as a foreign language. They attempted to understand how tasks at different complexity (simple and complex vocabulary tasks) would affect students' self-efficacy beliefs. The results indicated that task complexity contributed to students' self-efficacy; however, it was also noted that self-efficacy developed when tasks were given in the order of simple-complex, suggesting that exposing students to simple tasks prior to the complex ones helps them perceive complex tasks in a more positive manner.

Another relatively neglected area was the possible self-efficacy-reading comprehension relationship in the field of language education. Only a few studies attempted to investigate this link and the research conducted by Naseri and Zaferanieh (2012) was one of them. With the aim of understanding the nature of the relationship, they carried out research with 80 Iranian EFL learners by utilizing the responses given to Michigan reading comprehension test, a reading strategy use questionnaire and a reading self-efficacy questionnaire. In the light of the results of their research, they concluded that students with higher self-efficacy received better scores in reading. Similarly, Balci (2017) showed interest in the self-efficacy and reading comprehension relationship. Through a quasi-experimental study and with totally 78 participants, the researcher aimed to examine whether learning-style based activities would make impact on students' reading comprehension skills and self-efficacy beliefs. Besides, she also investigated the relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy and their reading comprehension achievement. Her results

were in line with Naseri and Zaferanieh (2012) in that this study also demonstrated that self-efficacy and reading comprehension performance were significantly and positively related.

To sum up, a large number of studies, some of which were exemplified above, attempted to explore the relation of self-efficacy with students' engagement or achievement. Despite this fact, its role in language education, particularly its impact on each language skill, was by and large ignored and therefore requires more attention.

2.5.2.3 Related Research Studies on Language Learner Autonomy as the Personal Facilitator

Several studies have questioned the existence of a connection between language learner autonomy and the quality of learning so far, but not in a similar trend. Some researchers aimed to explore the impact of language learner autonomy supportive environments on students' engagement or achievement (e.g. Dinçer, Yeşilyurt, & Takkaç, 2012), whereas some studies, including the current study, were conducted with the aim of questioning the predictive value of students' learner autonomy on their engagement or achievement (e.g. Dafei, 2007; Ghorbandordinejad & Ahmadabad, 2016; Mohamadpour, 2013; Unlu & Er, 2016).

The relationship between language learners' autonomy and their success was investigated in various contexts such as China, Iran or Turkey and similar results were obtained. For instance, Dafei (2007) conducted research in China with 129 non-English students, who were asked to contribute to the study by responding to a questionnaire and taking part in interviews. The results demonstrated that autonomy and language proficiency were significantly related.

Ghorbandordinejad and Ahmadabad (2016) conducted a correlational study in Iran with the same aim but they added language anxiety as a mediator into their research. Four hundred students participated in the study and three different data sources (the autonomy questionnaire, foreign language classroom anxiety scale, final exam results) were used. The results of their study indicated that both autonomy and anxiety were significantly related to English achievement and anxiety played an important role between autonomy and students' success.

Similarly, Mohamadpour (2013) addressed the same issue in Iran with 30 students. She used questionnaire, interview, and PET (proficiency exam) results as the data sources and provided more evidence to the autonomy-language proficiency relationship. In a Turkish context, Ünlü and Er (2016) conducted an experimental study with 37 university students. Considering the responses given to the autonomous learning perception scale and ALCPT (English language test), the researchers concluded that when students were autonomous, their performance in language learning improved.

There exist studies on the predictive value of autonomy on students' language proficiency; however, unfortunately, there is few published research on the relationship between autonomy and language sub-skills. Whether language learner autonomy contributed to students' reading comprehension skills was called into question by Ozturk (2007) and Koosha, Abdollahi, and Karimi (2016). As a part of her dissertation, Ozturk (2007) aimed to explore whether students' autonomy perception was related to their reading comprehension performance. Five hundred and sixty students took part in the research and autonomy perception scale, classroom behaviours scale and a reading test were utilized as the data sources. Her investigation suggested a positive link between autonomy and reading skill.

In a similar vein, Koosha, Abdollahi and Karimi (2016) carried out research in an Iranian context with 121 university students. In the light of the findings gathered

through an autonomy questionnaire and PET reading comprehension test, the researchers concluded that autonomy significantly predicted students' reading skill performance.

When it comes to the impact of autonomy on students' listening comprehension, two studies, Liu (2014) and Tabrizi and Saeidi (2015), seemed to have considered this association and discovered a positive significant relationship. Liu (2014) carried out her research with 176 students in China, whereas Tabrizi and Saeidi (2015) had 90 participants in Iran. In both contexts, the same findings were identified.

As for the relationship between autonomy and grammatical competence, it was discovered that the research routines altered. For instance, Vickers and Ene (2006) conducted research with 13 advanced English learners. They presented tasks to the students, in which they asked them to compare their own written outputs with the authentic ones. The results indicated that if tasks were designed in order to enable learners to compare their own written outputs with the authentic texts, students would learn how to self-correct and therefore act autonomously by noticing and correcting their own mistakes. With regard to autonomy in vocabulary learning, no empirical studies were detected in the databases EBSCO, ProQuest and Google Scholar.

To sum up, there is no doubt that previous studies have afforded new insights to our understanding with regard to language autonomy-success association. However, it is worth noting that far too little attention has been to its impact on language skills separately, which highlights a need for further studies.

2.5.2.4 Related Research Studies on the Use of Deep-Processing Language Learning Strategies as the Personal Facilitator

There is growing evidence regarding the close relevance of language strategy use and student achievement in language learning; however, its role in the development of each skill and sub-skills has been displayed in few studies, which are shared below.

One of these studies questioning whether strategy use and success in language learning were significantly related was carried out by Green and Oxford (1995). three hundred seventy-four university students contributed to the research by responding to a strategy use inventory (SILL - Strategy Inventory for Language Learning). Their findings indicated that successful learners tended to use more strategies and the number of strategies was greater for girls. Considering these findings, the researchers concluded that the proficiency levels of students create differences in strategy kinds and use. Moreover, they pointed at the complexity of the relationship by speculating on the assumption that use of some strategies may have led to an increase in proficiency, but proficiency may also have affected the strategy choice.

As a part of her Phd dissertation, Griffiths (2003) aimed to assess the degree of the relationship between language learning strategy use and proficiency. She conducted research with 348 participants by using SILL as the research data collection instrument. Her findings accorded with those of Green and Oxford (1995) in that this study also provided evidence to the assumption that successful learners use more strategies.

In the same vein, Magno (2010) used SILL to understand whether 302 Korean students' language learning strategies and years of studying English predicted their English proficiency. The results of his study further supported previous findings, but he also identified that time spent for formal study of English made impact on

learners' strategy use, which in turn resulted in an improvement in students' language proficiency.

With a desire to provide more implications for language strategy use-proficiency association, Açıkel (2011) conducted research by using SILL as a tool. However, her study differed from the previous attempts as she studied the relationship of language learning strategy use as well as self-efficacy beliefs with language proficiency of the language preparatory school students. In the light of the findings, she reached a conclusion that there was a significant relationship between learners' deep strategy use and their English language proficiency scores.

With 702 participants, Demirel (2012) also carried out research with the aim of understanding which language learning strategies were used by university students. Similar to Green and Oxford (1995), she discovered that students' strategy use contributed to their achievement and females tended to use more strategies.

In order to contribute to the reading skill dimension of the literature, Cesur and Fer (2011) carried out research that aimed to investigate whether there was a relationship between Turkish university preparatory students' language learning strategies, learning styles and success in reading comprehension. Three hundred sixty-eight university students were asked to take part in the research and as the data collection tools, SILL, Learning Style Survey, and a reading test developed by the researcher were utilized. With regard to their findings, the researchers reached a conclusion that students' language learning strategies (cognitive, memory, compensation) and learning styles (auditory) predicted success in reading.

More recently, Marzban and Barati (2016) carried out research to explore the relationship between critical thinking ability, language learning strategies, and reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL university students. The responses of 79 university students to California Critical Thinking Skill Test, SILL,

and TOEFL (reading part) were analyzed and it was discovered that students' strategy use was significantly related with their reading comprehension scores.

So as to understand the strategy use - listening comprehension link, Kok (2018) conducted research with 44 university students by using two data collection tools: The Listening Comprehension Strategy Use Inventory (LCSUI) and the listening comprehension proficiency tests (IELTS). The results of his study indicated that listening strategy use was a good predictor of success. Moreover, more proficient learners used more cognitive and metacognitive strategies, but as far as socio-affective strategies were concerned, no significant relationship was detected.

Unlike Kok (2018), Graham, Santos, and Vanderplank (2008) carried out a qualitative and longitudinal study with two students to provide in-depth analysis for listening comprehension and strategy use. Their detailed investigation revealed that strategy use was an individualized act and no matter what strategies students used, the significant thing was that they had to know how to use them correctly. Therefore, the difference between knowing and doing was emphasized. In addition, regarding the findings, the researchers concluded that rather than categorizing strategies as good or bad strategies, all strategies should be presented to students and let them select the most appropriate and helpful ones for themselves.

Given the predictive value of language strategy use on students' grammatical and vocabulary competence, the existing literature fails to make satisfactory generalizations. Only a few studies have addressed this need and research conducted by Yalcin Tilfarlioglu and Yalcin (2005) appears as one of them. In their study, they called into question whether there was a significant relationship between students' strategy use and language proficiency. Considering students' achievement grades and responses to Grammar Learning Strategies Questionnaire, they concluded that there was a non-significant link between the use of grammar learning strategies and their achievement.

Contrary to Yalcin Tilfarlioglu and Yalcin (2005), the research by Zekrati (2017) with 230 students indicated a significant association between grammar learning strategy use and language achievement of Iranian EFL learners. What's more, the results pointed at a difference in strategy use in terms of students' proficiency level.

When it comes to the analysis of the predictive value of language strategy use for students' vocabulary knowledge, Teng (2015) examined the impact of vocabulary learning strategies on 145 Chinese EFL students' vocabulary knowledge. The results indicated that among direct strategies, they tended to use memory strategies more and cognitive strategy of analysing the least and among indirect strategies, they employed affective strategies the most and cognitive creative strategies the least. However, it was discovered that students' vocabulary knowledge mostly benefited from indirect strategies, yet the participants of the study used them less.

To sum up, language strategy use has been widely investigated in the language education field and the findings are mostly consistent in that strategy use contributes to students' language proficiency. However, the skills and sub-skills dimension still requires more empirical evidence.

2.5.3 Research on the TOEFL ITP Exam as the Language Proficiency Exam

In the related literature, studies using the TOEFL test as the indicator of language proficiency exist. However, since the categories of the TOEFL test totally differ from one another in terms of content or number of questions and this research makes use of the results of the TOEFL ITP test specifically, rather than focusing on all types of the TOEFL test, the research findings for only the TOEFL ITP test are shared below.

One of the studies using the TOEFL ITP scores as the evidence of language proficiency was conducted by Acikel (2011). She investigated the relationship between language learners' strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs and their language

proficiency indicated by their TOEFL ITP scores. Nevertheless, despite her elaborations on ‘language proficiency’, the study failed to provide adequate explanations about the rationale behind her test choice.

Different from Acikel, Dogru (2013) attempted to understand whether the exams administered throughout the year predicts the performance of the learners on the TOEFL ITP test given at the end of the year. In other words, the relationship between the in-house measures and the TOEFL ITP test was examined and the results indicated that among all exams, only the results of the midterms and the TOEFL ITP test were highly correlated.

2.6 Summary of the Literature Review

One of the significant advances in education has been the emergence of student engagement as a concept. Since its introduction to the educational settings, there have been substantial improvements in our understanding as to why students alienate, withdraw or drop out.

In order to clearly present the development of student engagement concept in education, this review of the literature began with the historical account of engagement, dating from its recognition in the 1980s to the current century. In this part, student engagement was described and how its definition and scope altered in time was explained by referring to various theoretical approaches. It was emphasized that the meaning attributed to the term engagement changed to a great extent, its value in the eyes of both educators and policymakers increased, and it finally became one of the significant issues to be handled in education.

The review continued with the aim of attracting the attention to the importance of student engagement in language education platforms. Unfortunately, when the related literature was scrutinized, it became apparent that few researchers addressed

the issue of engagement in foreign language learning environments. Most studies were designed with a focus on second language acquisition, the impact of feedback on engagement or the role of tasks in engagement; therefore, it was discovered that our knowledge about engagement in foreign language learning was largely based on limited data.

Following the information related to student engagement in language learning, the student engagement model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) as well as the components of the model addressed in the current study were described in detail. As explained earlier, various approaches were analyzed, yet among all, the engagement model by Skinner and Pitzer (2012) was opted as a theoretical frame of reference for the current study. The model addresses student engagement as a multi-dimensional concept (behavioural, affective and cognitive) and categorizes students as engaged or disengaged. In addition, the researchers support the idea that engagement takes place in four levels (prosocial institutions, school, classroom, learning activities) and it has a dynamic nature, which is highly sensitive to the contexts, self-systems, actions and outcomes. Most importantly, they believe it is of great importance to make discrimination between indicators, facilitators and outcomes. Indicators of engagement include action (mostly observable), whereas facilitators are believed to exist outside the construct. As for the outcomes, they are described as the results of engagement.

As can be seen, the model approaches engagement in a highly comprehensive manner, but this study uniquely concentrated on the social and personal faciliatators of engagement that were likely to affect university preparatory school students' language performance. The social dimension focused on the expectations of students regarding language teacher practices (provision of structure and pedagogical caring) and school practices (organizing extra-curricular activities at school, creating peripheral learning opportunities, having language resource centres), whereas students' sense of belongingness, self-efficacy, language learning strategy use and language learning autonomy were considered the personal facilitators of their

engagement. Their language proficiency exam results (TOEFL ITP scores) represented the indicator of their learning and achievement as well as the outcome of their engagement.

The literature moved on to the description of the variables of the study and the review was finalized with the presentation of the related research studies. In this part, the aim was both to describe how social and personal facilitators of engagement were investigated in various domains including language education studies and to point at the necessity as well as the significance of such a study. To begin with, the analysis of related studies indicated that the facilitators of student engagement were mostly investigated quantitatively, validating the paradigm choice of the current study. Moreover, it was also discovered that a great majority of studies, including the current one, aimed to explore whether there was a significant relationship between these facilitators and student engagement, learning or achievement, which led to an increase in the tendencies to conduct correlational studies. As far as the participants were concerned, it was observed that despite the existence of studies with students at higher education, researchers mostly conducted their investigation with K-12 students and this highlighted a need for more research in higher education. With respect to the data collection tools, it became evident that similar to the current research, most researchers were inclined to utilize scales or questionnaires to collect data from participants and the data collected mostly depended on student perceptions. When it comes to the tendencies in instrument selection, it was discovered that most researchers preferred to develop and utilize their own instruments, but there were also those who benefited from commonly used inventories such as Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionaire or Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. Moreover, both regression and SEM were found as the commonly used analysis methods and in most studies including the current research, student achievement test scores were integrated into the analysis as the indicator of their engagement and learning. When it comes to other research tendencies, it was observed that the studies varied in terms of their data collection

process, sample size, sampling method and the profile of participants, which helps enrich the literature on engagement and learning.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This chapter attempts to provide information about the method used for this study. It begins with the description of the design of the study and continues with the research variables as well as the research questions. Later, the population and the sample characteristics are presented. Next are the description of the data collection instruments, data collection procedure and data analysis process. Finally, the chapter ends with the presentation of the limitations.

3.1 Design of the Study

Rather than limiting the research into a single method, this dissertation followed a multi-method concurrent research design. Multi-method design refers to the practice of combining two or more research methods in a single study regardless of being quantitative or qualitative (Hunter & Brewer, 2015). Multi-method concurrent research is a subset which requires the collection of two separate data sets concurrently but two separate data analysis plans (Hesse-Biber, Rodriguez, & Frost, 2015).

In this quantitatively-driven inquiry, two quantitative research methods were utilized. Since one aim of this study was to investigate the relationships among various variables without any intervention, the first parts of the research took the form of a correlational study, which is defined by Jackson (2014) as a type of non-experimental method focusing on the relationship between two or more measured variables. In the second part of the research, the purpose was to gather the expectations of the participants concerning language teacher and school practices; therefore, this part of the investigation was conducted in the form of a descriptive survey design, whose aim is “to describe behaviours and to gather people’s

perceptions, opinions, attitudes, and beliefs about a current issue in education" (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2006, p.12).

In brief, this study was conducted considering the quantitative paradigm principles. To provide different perspectives to the research focus, the multi-method concurrent research design was utilized in this study.

3.2 Description of Variables

Adopting two different research methods in a single study resulted in variable descriptions in two steps. For the parts of the research where correlation method was applied, English language learners' (a) listening comprehension performance, (b) structure and written expression performance, and (c) reading comprehension performance in the TOEFL ITP exam were considered as the dependent variables, while the independent variables were dealt under three major themes:

Confounding variables: The number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student) were believed to interfere with the research results. For this reason, in order to prevent any possible damage to the internal validity of the study, these two variables were controlled throughout the research. The reason why the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment was regarded as the confounding variable was that it might create a testing/practice threat, which occurs when participants are more experienced in the test and therefore may get higher scores. The reason behind the selection of the student status (new vs repeat student) as the other confounding variable was to avoid any possible maturation effect, which is related to the changes in a person due to the passing of time and therefore might become an advantage for the students who enrolled earlier (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007).

Variables related to English language learners' affective engagement: In this research, students' sense of belonging was referred as the facilitator of their affective engagement in language learning.

Variables related to English language learners' cognitive engagement: This research considered students' self-efficacy, language learning strategy use, and language learning autonomy as the facilitators of their cognitive engagement in language learning.

In addition to the correlation method, the study also adopted the descriptive survey method, and in this part of the research, the expectations of the language learners concerning both language teacher and school practices were determined as the variables of interest. Teacher practices were studied under two themes: pedagogical caring and provision of structure, whereas school practices were investigated under three different titles: organizing extracurricular activities (clubs & seminars), creating peripheral learning opportunities, and having language resource centres. Since this part of the study was descriptive in nature and there were no predetermined cause/effect relationships among the variables, they were not categorized as dependent or independent; instead, they were approached as the variables describing the expectations of the sample group.

3.3 Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1) How well do personal facilitators of student engagement predict English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam, controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment?

a) How well does sense of belongingness (the personal facilitator of affective engagement) predict English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam (listening comprehension, structure and written expression, reading comprehension), controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment?

b) How well do self-efficacy, language learning strategy use, and language learning autonomy (the personal facilitators of cognitive engagement) predict English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam (listening comprehension, structure and written expression, reading comprehension), controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment?

2) What are the expectations of English language learners concerning social facilitators of engagement?

a) What are the expectations of English language learners concerning language teacher practices that are likely to promote their engagement?

b) What are the expectations of English language learners concerning language school practices that are likely to promote their engagement?

3.4 Context

This study was conducted with students studying at the language preparatory school of a private university called TOBB ETU (TOBB University of Economics and Technology). TOBB ETU is a private university which was established in 2003 as a non-profit institution in Ankara, Turkey. It has six faculties, which could be listed as School of Engineering, School of Medicine, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Faculty of Law, Faculty of Architecture and Design, and

Faculty of Science and Literature. In addition to all these faculties, the university offers students foreign language education in the Department of Foreign Languages.

Although the medium of instruction is Turkish at this university, for all programs, it is required to pass the English proficiency exam, given by the Department of Foreign Languages. Students who get the required score in the exam are allowed to take departmental courses. However, those who fail are supposed to get language education in the language preparatory school, where they are categorized as AF (beginner), A (elementary), B (pre-intermediate), C (intermediate) and D (pre-intermediate for repeat students) according to their test performance. If they are unable to complete it successfully, they repeat a level and unless they meet the requirements of school in terms of absenteeism (maximum 10 %) and GPA (minimum 65/100), they are not allowed to the language proficiency test at the end of the year.

When it comes to the facilities offered by the language school, students are provided with different opportunities ranging from a self-access center to extracurricular activities such as a movie or conversation club. In addition to these facilities, the online programs of various coursebooks are integrated to the language program as a contributor to student language development.

3.5 Population and Sample

The target population of the study comprised of all students at the English language preparatory classes of private universities in Ankara and the accessible population was students studying at TOBB ETU preparatory school, Ankara.

While selecting both the university and the participants, among various types of sampling, convenience sampling was preferred. Despite its limitations, this non-probability technique was purposefully chosen for this study due to several

reasons. The first reason behind its selection was the need for a reliable and valid English language proficiency test for the study. Various universities were investigated but no report indicating the reliability and validity scores of their home-grown language tests were detected. Therefore, the need for an objective, reliable and valid test required the selection of both the university and the participants conveniently. The second reason was that it was essential to locate a research setting where the data collection process would run smoothly and reliably. Therefore, instead of collecting data where she would have less control, the researcher found it more appropriate to conduct the research where she was familiar with and had a reliable and direct contact with the head of the department and the coordinators.

165 students participated in the study and their profile is presented in Table 3.1. As can be seen, 57 % of the subjects (n=94) were female and 43 % of them were male students (n=71). The respondents ranged in age from 18 to 25, with a mean age of 19.15 (*SD*=1.27).

Table 3.1

Demographic Characteristics of the Study Participants

	f	*%*	*M*	*SD*
Gender				
Female	94	57		
Male	71	43		
Age			19.15	1.27
18	61	37		
19	53	32.1		
20	31	18.8		
21	12	7.3		
22	4	2.4		
23	2	1.2		
24	1	.6		
25	1	.6		

As a part of the demographic information, students were asked about their high school education and the results indicated that, of all students involved in the study, 57.6 % of the participants (n=95) graduated from private schools, while 41.8 % of them (n=69) received education in a public high school (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2

Educational Background of the Participants (High School)

	f	%
Category of High School System		
Public	69	41.8
Private	95	57.6
Missing	1	.6
Type of High School		
General High School	55	33.3
Anatolian High School	82	49.7
Science High School	14	8.5
Military High School	1	.6
Social Sciences High School	1	.6
Vocational High School	1	.6
Open High School	8	4.8
Anatolian Teacher High School	3	1.8

In terms of the type of the high school, the students differed, but it was discovered that students having studied at General High School, Anatolian High School and Science High School occupied the largest percentage of the whole sample group. Of all participants, 33.3 % of the students graduated from General High School (n=55), 49.7 % from Anatolian High School (n=82) and 8.5 % from Science High School (n=14) (see Table 3.2).

Data collected also included the information regarding students' university education. As displayed in Table 3.3, the results revealed that 9.7 % of the students (n=16) were from the Faculty of Science and Literature, 10.3 % of them (n=17) were from the Faculty of Law, 24.8 % students (n=41) were from the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, 15.8 % (n=26) from the Faculty of Architecture and Design, 34.5 % (n=57) from the Faculty of Engineering, and 3.6 %

students (n=6) belonged to the Faculty of Medicine. However, 1.2 % the students (n=2) did not respond to the item related to their departments.

Table 3.3

Educational Background of the Participants (University)

	f	%
Faculty		
Faculty of Science and Literature	16	9.7
Faculty of Law	17	10.3
Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences	41	24.8
Faculty of Architecture and Design	26	15.8
Faculty of Engineering	57	34.5
Faculty of Medicine	6	3.6
Missing	2	1.2
Language Level		
BR	12	7.3
C	115	69.7
CR	34	20.6
D	4	2.4
Student status		
Repeat	46	27.9
New	119	72.1
# of TOEFL ITP exam taken		
2	68	41.2
3	76	46.1
4	13	7.9
5	8	4.8

According to the school system of TOBB University, if a student gets a score of 500 or above from the TOEFL ITP test (550 or above for students studying at the English Language and Literature Department), s/he is considered proficient in English and found eligible to take departmental courses. The other students who are unable to get this score are placed into AF, A, B, C, and D levels (students of English Language and Literature Department) according to their exam scores. Within the process, unless a student completes a level successfully, s/he is placed into repeat groups (e.g. BR or CR). As shown in Table 3.3, when the data of the current study were being collected, 69.7 % of the students (n=115) were studying at the C level, 7.3 % of them

(n=12) were at the BR level, 20.6 % (n=34) were at the CR level, and 2.4 % of them (n=4) were in D level classes.

In terms of the student status, the results showed that 27.9 % of the sample group (n=46) were repeating the course, while 72.1 % of them (n=119) were new to the university (see Table 3.3).

In addition to all this information, students' TOEFL ITP experiences were also gathered and it was found out that the number of the test taken throughout their preparatory education differed among the students. According to the results, 41.2 % of the students (n=68) took the test twice, 46.1 % of them (n=76) three times, 7.9 % of the students (n=13) four times, and 4.8 % of them (n=8) five times (see Table 3.3).

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

For the data collection purpose, students were given a demographic information form and six different instruments. The data necessary for the first research question were gathered through four different scales: (a) Sense of University Belonging Scale adapted from Freeman, Anderman, and Jensen (2007) by Capa Aydin (2011) for METU Center for Advanced Learning and Teaching, (b) English Self-Efficacy Scale adapted from Wang (2012) by Acikel (2011), (c) Language Learner Autonomy Scale developed by Ozturk (2007), and (d) Language Learning Strategy Use Scale developed by the researcher for the current study.

So as to address the second research question, two separate instruments were constructed by the researcher. One questionnaire was designed to get students' opinions about the role of two need-supporting language teacher practices (provision of structure and pedagogical caring) on the promotion of their engagement. The other instrument focused on their expectations concerning language school practices. As

for the indicators of students' language proficiency and the outcome of their engagement, the TOEFL ITP exam scores were secured.

3.6.1 Validity and Reliability Analyses of the Instruments

Prior to the administration of all these instruments to the study group, they were all piloted and then analysed through exploratory factor analysis. Following the analysis, Cronbach Alpha level was calculated for the internal consistency of the scale and the reliability levels were checked whether they were higher than .70 (Nunnaly, 1978). With regard to the exploratory factor analysis results, the instruments were modified and prepared for the real implementation.

3.6.1.1 Profile of the Pilot Study Participants

The pilot study of this research was conducted with 420 students, most of whom were new at the university (n=394). Of all the participants, 12.4% (n=52) were AR level students and 87.6 % (n=368) were B level students. 54% of the respondents (n=227) were female and 41% of them (n=172) were male. They ranged in age from 18 to 37, with a mean age of 18.77 (*SD*=1.21). Of all, 32.6% of the students (n=137) graduated from a public high school, whereas 58.3% of them (n=245) reported to have studied at a private high school. In terms of the type of the high school, there existed a variety in the pilot study group members, but it was discovered that 47.3% of them graduated from an Anatolian High School (n=199) or a General High School (n=112). When it comes to their faculties at TOBB University, the respondents were divided into six groups; however, the pilot study group was mostly comprised of those from the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences (24.8%) and those from the Faculty of Engineering (28.8%).

3.6.1.2 Assumption Check for the Exploratory Factor Analyses

To investigate the factor structure of all instruments, exploratory factor analyses were conducted through PASW Statistics 18, and for all statistical analyses, the selected alpha level was .05.

As an initial step, necessary assumptions were checked. First, KMO test was computed to check the sampling adequacy. The analysis obtained the value of .93, which pointed at the adequacy of the sample size by being above .60 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Later, the existence of correlation among the items for each scale was examined and it was discovered that the correlation values between items were above .30 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2006). The factorability of the correlation matrix was also checked through Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, and the test revealed significant values ($p<.05$) for each scale, indicating that the correlation matrix was significantly different from the identity matrix. Considering these results, it was concluded that there was a correlation among the items for each scale.

In addition, univariate normality was checked through Skewness and Kurtosis values, the test of normality, histograms and Q-Q plots. Skewness and Kurtosis values pointed at the normal distribution of the items as they were between the critical values -3 and +3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Besides, the histograms and Q-Q plots supported the Skewness and Kurtosis values. However, the test of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests) violated normality by revealing significant values ($p<.05$).

As the final assumption, the existence of multivariate normality was checked through norm test macro, but the assumption was violated because Mardia's Test value was found significant ($p>.05$). Therefore, rather than Maximum Likelihood Estimation, Principal Axis Factor Analysis technique with direct oblimin rotation was used as the method of analysis.

3.6.1.3 Validity and Reliability Analysis of Sense of University Belonging Scale

The Sense of University Belonging Scale was adapted from Freeman, Anderman, and Jensen (2007) by Capa Aydin (2011) for a part of research conducted by METU Center for Advanced Learning and Teaching. The scale was composed of three factors with totally 13 items (general sense of belonging, teacher support and peer acceptance) and participants were expected to rate their feeling of relatedness through a five-point scale ranging from “totally disagree” (1) to “totally agree” (5).

However, since the reliability score of the adapted version was not reported in the document of METU Center for Advanced Learning and Teaching, it was found essential to run factor analysis to validate the underlying factor structure of the scale. Besides, the word “university” was changed into “preparatory school” in all items and the peer acceptance dimension of the sense of belonging was left out of the scope of this research. Therefore, the scale was reorganized by removing two items referring to peer acceptance and piloted.

Considering the Eigenvalue criterion of Kaiser (1960), the results of the exploratory factor analysis were interpreted and it was discovered that the scale was composed of three factors, all of which explained the 56.94 % of the total variance (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the Sense of University Belonging Scale

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	3.90	35.45	35.45
2	1.33	12.13	47.57
3	1.03	9.37	56.94

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

However, in order to determine the number of factors, the scree plot was also analysed and when the point of inflexion of the curve was taken into consideration (Cattell, as cited in Field, 2009), it became apparent that the scale was composed of two factors (see Figure 3.1). Moreover, when the factor loadings were analysed, it was discovered that one item did not fit into any of the factors and one factor had two items, preventing the solution to be considered as a factor (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

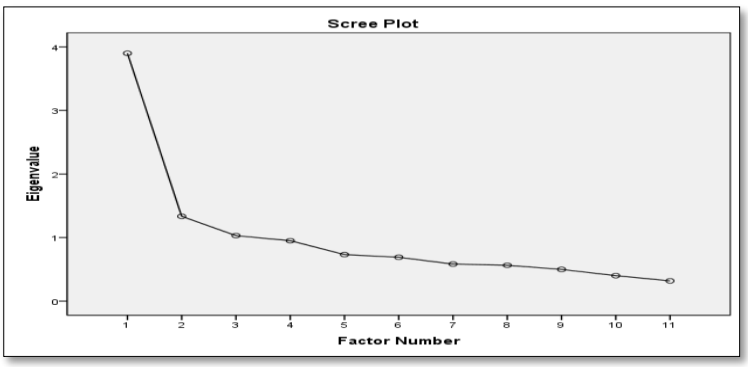

Figure 3.1. Scree plot of the Sense of University Belonging Scale

Due to the above-mentioned reasons and considering the two-factor structure proposed originally, the factor analysis was run for the second time. The results validated the new two-factor structure (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the Sense of University Belonging Scale

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	3.10	44.34	44.34
2	1.30	18.63	62.97

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

The examination of the results suggested that there were four items whose loadings were less than .30 (Hair, Black, Tatham, & Anderson, 2010) and therefore it was

found essential to exclude these items (Item 2 - *I am treated with as much respect as other students*; Item 7 - I *can really be myself at this prep school*; Item 11- *I am included in lots of activities at this prep school*; Item 12- *I feel very different from most other students at this prep school*).

Table 3.6

Summary of Factor Loadings for the Oblimin Two-Factor Solution for the Language Learners' Sense of Belonging Scale

Item	Factor loading	
	1	2
Being noticed by the instructors when s/he is good at something (Item 10)	**.72**	-.02
Being cared by most of the instructors (Item 13)	**.70**	-.01
Being believed that s/he can do good work (Item 9)	**.67**	-.08
Having at least one instructor that s/he can talk to when s/he has a problem (Item 8)	**.61**	.06
Feeling himself/herself as a real part of the school (Item 3)	-.08	**-.97**
Feeling proud to be a student of this school (Item 1)	.10	**-.58**
Feeling as if s/he does not belong to the school sometimes (Item 4) (reversed)	.01	**-.58**
Factor Correlations		
Perceived pedagogical caring	-	-
Identification with university	-.50	-

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin; Factor loadings >.30 are in boldface.

Regarding the total variance explained by both factors, the analysis pointed at 62.97 %. The first factor (perceived pedagogical caring) had four items (Item 8, 9, 10, 13), uniquely explained 44.34 % of the variance and its loadings ranged between .61 and .72. The second factor (identification with university) had three items (Item 1, 3, 4). It accounted for 18.63 % the variance and the item loadings were from .58 to .97 (see Table 3.5 and 3.6).

As for the reliability values of the factors, Cronbach Alpha coefficients indicated that each factor satisfied the necessary reliability levels (Nunnaly, 1978). While the

analysis revealed a reliability value of .77 for the first factor (perceived pedagogical caring), it was calculated as .74 for the second factor (identification with university) (see Table 3.7).

Table 3.7

Reliability Scores for Factors of the Language Learners' Sense of Belonging Scale

Factors	Factor loading	α	α if item deleted
Perceived pedagogical caring		.77	
Item 10	.72		.70
Item 13	.70		.71
Item 9	.67		.71
Item 8	.61		.75
Identification with university		.74	
Item 3	-.97		.53
Item 1	-.58		.70
Item 4	-.58		.73

3.6.1.4 Validity and Reliability Analysis of English Self-Efficacy Scale

English Self-Efficacy Scale was adapted from Wang (2012) by Acikel (2011). Despite the four-factor structure of the original scale, Acikel (2011) found two factors after adopting it into Turkish culture and named them as *self-efficacy for receptive skills* and *self-efficacy for productive skills*. Under the former factor, there were 15 items (∝= .94) and the latter one had 8 items (∝= .87). Therefore, there were 23 items in the adapted scale and respondents were supposed to assess themselves through seven points ranging from "Definitely I cannot" (1) to "Definitely I can" (7).

Since the questionnaire was adapted from a different language by Acikel (2011) and its factor structure was changed from four to two, it was found essential to pilot the scale prior to the study and make necessary modifications if necessary by considering the factor analysis results.

Considering the initial eigenvalue solutions, the factor analysis suggested a four-factor structure, which totally explained 57.51 % variance (Table 3.8) and the scree plot indicated a 2-3 factor structure (Figure 3.2). Nevertheless, the solutions did not yield meaningful interpretations and similar to Acikel (2011), a two-factor structure was detected after running the factor analysis again.

Table 3.8

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the English Self-Efficacy Scale

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	8.97	38.98	38.98
2	1.93	8.40	47.37
3	1.26	5.49	52.86
4	1.07	4.65	57.51

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

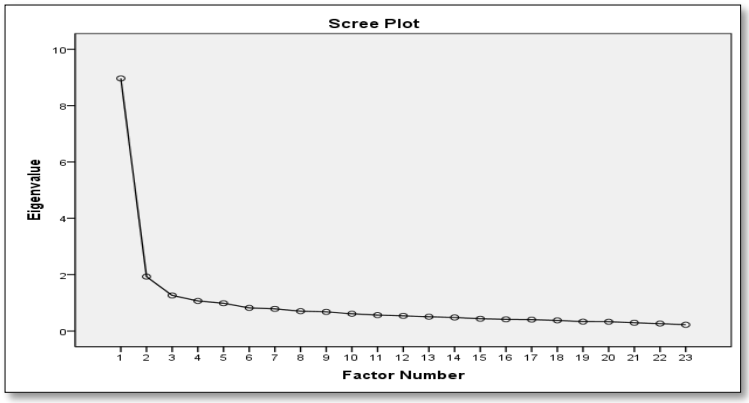

Figure 3.2. Scree plot of the English Self-Efficacy Scale

As illustrated in Table 3.9, the results showed that the scale better fitted a two-factor structure. Besides, both factors accounted for 49.24 % of the total variance. At first, 11 items loaded on the first factor (self-efficacy for receptive skills), but later one item (Item 23) was placed under this factor for accurate interpretation as well. Despite the fact that it received a higher value for the second factor, it was found appropriate to place the item 23 (Being able to understand new lessons in his/her English book) under the first factor. Therefore, the number of items renewed and

twelve items loaded on the first factor (self-efficacy for receptive skills) (Item 3, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 14, 15, 17, 18, 20, 23). This factor uniquely explained 40.21 % of the variance and the loadings varied from .30 to .85 (see Table 3.9 and 3.10).

Table 3.9

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the English Self-Efficacy Scale

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	8.44	40.21	40.21
2	1.90	9.03	49.24

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

As for the second factor (self-efficacy for productive skills), the results indicated that this factor uniquely explained 9.03 % of the total variance and was composed of nine items (Item 2, 7, 9, 12, 13, 16, 19, 21, 22). Their loadings ranged between .34 and .89 (see Table 3.9 and 3.10). Two items (Item 1 – *understanding stories told in English*; Item 4 – *describing the way from school to house in English*) did not seem to fit either of the factors and were therefore removed from the scale. As a result of this removal, the number of the items decreased from 23 to 21, but the number and the name of the factors stayed the same.

Table 3.10

Summary of Factor Loadings for the Oblimin Two-Factor Solution for the English Self-Efficacy Scale

	Factor loading	
Item	1	2
Being able to understand radio programs in English speaking countries (Item 5)	**.85**	.12
Being able to understand English TV programs (Item 3)	**.76**	.09
Being able to understand English movies without Turkish subtitles (Item 15)	**.73**	.12
Being able to read English newspapers (Item 18)	**.67**	-.07

Table 3.10 (continued)

Being able to understand English TV programs made in Turkey (Item 6)	**.63**	-.13
Being able to understand the English news on the Internet (Item 11)	**.61**	-.13
Being able to understand English songs (Item 17)	**.56**	-.15
Being able to understand English articles about Turkish culture (Item 20)	**.48**	-.04
Being able to guess the meaning of unknown words when s/he reads English articles (Item 8)	**.45**	-.15
Being able to understand a tape-recorded English dialogue about school life (Item 10)	**.41**	-.36
Being able to read English short novels (Item 14)	**.38**	-.26
Being able to understand new lessons in his/her English book (Item 23)	**.30**	-.47
Being able to introduce his/her instructor in English (Item 13)	-.11	**-.89**
Being able to ask questions to instructors in English (Item 12)	.00	**-.76**
Being able to introduce himself/herself in English (Item 21)	-.14	**-.75**
Being able to answer the instructors' questions in English (Item 16)	.13	**-.68**
Being able to make sentences with the words just learned (Item 9)	.01	**-.64**
Being able to leave a message to classmates in English (Item 7)	.09	**-.56**
Being able to write a composition about his/her instructor in English (Item 22)	.18	**-.46**
Being able to finish reading assignments independently (Item 2)	.17	**-.40**
Being able to find the meaning of new words by using English-English dictionaries (Item 19)	.29	**-.34**
Factor Correlations		
Self-efficacy for receptive skills	-	
Self-efficacy for productive skills	-.60	-

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin; Factor loadings >.30 are in boldface.

The reliability values for each factor were also calculated and both factors received high reliability scores. Cronbach Alpha coefficients indicated that the first factor (self-efficacy for receptive skills) had the value of .89 and the second factor (self-efficacy for productive skills) had .88, meeting the reliability criteria (Nunnaly, 1978) (see Table 3.11).

Table 3.11

Reliability Scores for Factors of the English Self-Efficacy Scale

Factors	Factor loading	α	α if item deleted
Self-efficacy for receptive skills		.89	
Item 5	.85		.87
Item 3	.76		.87
Item 15	.73		.88
Item 18	.67		.87
Item 6	.63		.87
Item 11	.61		.87
Item 17	.56		.88
Item 20	.48		.88
Item 8	.45		.88
Item 10	.41		.88
Item 14	.38		.88
Item 23	.30		.88
Self-efficacy for productive skills		.88	
Item 13	-.89		.85
Item 12	-.76		.86
Item 21	-.75		.87
Item 16	-.68		.86
Item 9	-.64		.87
Item 7	-.56		.87
Item 22	-.46		.87
Item 2	-.40		.87
Item 19	-.34		.87

3.6.1.5 Validity and Reliability Analysis of Language Learner Autonomy Scale

The language learner autonomy scale was developed by Ozturk (2007) to investigate the relationship between the autonomy of English language learners, their success in reading skill and in-class behaviors. It was a five-point scale ranging from “totally disagree” (1) to “totally agree” (5) and was originally composed of 38 items and 4 factors, with a total reliability score of .90. The first factor, taking responsibility of language learning, had 17 items and its reliability was .90, while the second factor, taking part in language learning activities out of school consisted 7 items with a reliability score of .80. The third factor was about learners’ use of meta-cognitive skills and had 9 items, but this part of the scale was not included to this study since

there existed a separate scale assessing learners' strategy use. The final factor, associating the language with real life, had 6 items and its reliability score was .74.

Table 3.12

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the Language Learner Autonomy Scale

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	7.94	26.46	26.46
2	3.09	10.31	36.77
3	2.56	8.52	45.29
4	1.44	4.80	50.10
5	1.25	4.17	54.26
6	1.00	3.34	57.60

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

Despite the high reliability score of the scale, due to the removal of one factor from the original scale, the instrument was piloted and its factor structure was re-examined through exploratory factor analysis prior to the main implementation. After checking the assumptions, the factor analysis was conducted and the scree plot pointed at 4-5 factor structure, whereas the results of the factor analysis suggested 6 factors, whose Eigenvalues were over 1.00 (Kaiser, 1960) and they totally explained 57.60 % variance (see Table 3.12 and Figure 3.3).

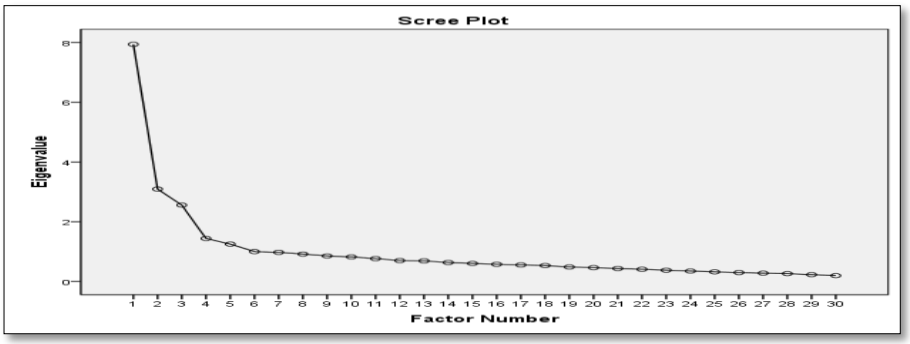

Figure 3.3. Scree plot of the Language Learner Autonomy Scale

Nevertheless, this factor structure did not yield similar qualities with the original scale and it was not theoretically interpretable. Therefore, the factor analysis was run for the second time by limiting the solution to three factors as suggested in the original scale. The results of the piloting study with 420 students validated the three-factor structure, which explained 46.43 % of the total variance (see Table 3.13).

Table 3.13

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the Language Learner Autonomy Scale

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	7.63	27.26	27.26
2	2.83	10.12	37.37
3	2.54	9.05	46.43

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

17 items loaded on the first factor (taking responsibility of language learning), which accounted for the 27.26 % of the variance (Items 1 - 17). The second factor (associating the language with real life) contained five items (Item 25, 26, 28, 29, 30) and it explained 10.12 % of the variance. The third factor (taking part in language learning activities out of school) explained 9.05 % variance and six items loaded on this factor (Item 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24). However, two items did not seem to have fitted to the factors (Item 23, 27), so they were excluded from the scale and the final version of the scale had totally 28 items and three factors (see Table 3.13 and 3.14).

Table 3.14

Summary of Factor Loadings for the Oblimin Three-Factor Solution for the Language Learner Autonomy Scale

	Factor loading		
Items	1	2	3
Studying English voluntarily (Item 9)	**.80**	-.01	-.04
Monitoring what is learnt regularly (Item 17)	**.79**	.05	-.01
Doing extra grammar practice (Item 8)	**.74**	-.01	-.07
Revising what is learnt regularly (Item 12)	**.72**	.02	-.06
Doing homework even if it is not graded (Item 7)	**.64**	-.01	-.003

Table 3.14 (continued)

Having a study plan (Item 4)	**.61**	.24	-.13
Studying English besides his/her homework (Item 1)	**.61**	.12	-.001
Setting learning objectives (Item 5)	**.57**	.07	.15
Asking teachers for advice about different learning methods (Item 10)	**.55**	.12	.04
Studying only when there is an exam (Item 6) (reversed)	**.55**	-.16	-.02
Attending English classes prepared (Item 2)	**.53**	.31	-.13
Thinking on how to study English (Item 14)	**.52**	-.06	.08
Searching for answers to the exam questions that s/he couldn't answer even if s/he receives high marks (Item 16)	**.47**	.09	.15
Searching for answers to the exam questions that s/he couldn't answer when the exam is over (Item 13)	**.44**	.05	.18
Keeping a record of new English words (Item 11)	**.43**	-.19	.15
Being willing to attend English classes even if the compulsory attendance policies are abolished (Item 15)	**.42**	.13	-.05
Attending English speaking clubs after school (Item 30)	-.01	**.74**	.003
Following English newspaper or magazine(s) (Item 29)	.11	**.67**	.17
Keeping a diary in English (Item 25)	.05	**.63**	-.08
Attending English speaking clubs at school (Item 26)	.06	**.63**	.01
Reading newspapers that are in English (Item 28)	.10	**.56**	.17
Watching English TV channels (Item 20)	-.03	.15	**.74**
Listening to English songs (Item 21)	.02	-.11	**.67**
Watching English films (Item 18)	-.02	-.20	**.67**
Listening to English CDs/cassettes (Item 19)	.15	.16	**.53**
Trying to understand the lyrics of English songs (Item 24)	.03	.07	**.52**
Listening to the English radio stations (Item 22)	.01	.30	**.44**
Factor correlations			
Taking responsibility of language learning	-		
Associating the language with real life	.23	-	
Taking part in language learning activities out of school	.27	.11	-

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin; Factor loadings >.30 are in boldface.

For the internal consistency of the scale, Cronbach Alpha level was calculated for each factor. The first factor (taking responsibility of language learning) had the reliability value of .90, the second factor (associating the language with real life) had the value of .81, and for the final factor (taking part in language learning activities out of school), it was calculated as .78. Therefore, since these results were above .70, they all satisfied the reliability levels (Nunnaly, 1978) (see Table 3.15).

Table 3.15

Reliability Scores for Factors of the Language Learner Autonomy Scale

Factors	Factor loading	α	α if item deleted
Taking res. of lang. learning		.90	
Item 9	.80		.88
Item 17	.79		.89
Item 8	.74		.89
Item 12	.72		.89
Item 7	.64		.89
Item 4	.61		.89
Item 1	.61		.89
Item 5	.57		.89
Item 10	.55		.89
Item 6	.55		.89
Item 2	.53		.89
Item 14	.52		.89
Item 16	.47		.89
Item 13	.44		.89
Item 11	.43		.90
Item 15	.42		.90
Item 3	.41		.90
Assoc. the lang. with real life		.81	
Item 30	.74		.77
Item 29	.67		.75
Item 25	.63		.80
Item 26	.63		.78
Item 28	.56		.78
Taking part in lang. learn. act.		.78	
Item 20	.74		.71
Item 21	.67		.75
Item 18	.67		.76
Item 19	.53		.75
Item 24	.52		.76
Item 22	.44		.77

3.6.1.6 Validity and Reliability Analysis of Language Learning Strategy Use Scale

As mentioned in the literature review part, several researchers have advocated the idea that students' cognitive engagement is signalled by his use of deep processing strategies (e.g. Dole & Sinatra, 1998; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). Therefore, in this

study, it was significant to assess learners' strategy use to have a broader perspective about their engagement. To fulfil this aim, relevant literature, research findings and some important scales such as the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning by Oxford (1990), Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990), Cognitive Engagement Scale (Greene & Miller, 1996), and Learning & Study Strategies Inventory (Weinstein, Palmer, & Acee, 2016) were examined. Nevertheless, it was discovered that there was no scale focusing on mainly language learners' deep strategy use and therefore a new scale was developed.

Since there existed a theoretical explanation of the construct 'deep strategy' in the related literature, a deductive scale was constructed for this study (Hinkin, Tracey & Enz, 1997). As an initial step, after a broad review of literature, an item pool was created. The preliminary analysis of related literature resulted in the development of 20 items. While designing each item, the suggestions of Hinkin, Tracey, and Enz (1997) were taken into consideration and double-barreled and negatively-worded items were avoided. Later, items were tested for content adequacy to understand whether the items were conceptually consistent with each other and the instrument represented the construct in a comprehensive way or not (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Hinkin, Tracey & Enz, 1997). Therefore, to provide evidence for its construct validity, content and face validity of the instrument were checked (Drost, 2011).

To ensure its content validity, in the item construction process, both theoretical and practical literature were thoroughly examined by the researcher. Besides, the scale was shared with the experts with the aim of making necessary modifications in the instrument. Considering the feedback of the experts, the item, "I underline the parts that I think are important," was deleted since there appeared controversy about whether "underlining" represents surface-learning or deep-learning. Besides, it was claimed by the experts that students may approach the items in a more general fashion and they suggested adding the word "English" to all items to prevent such

misunderstandings. Their suggestions were considered and the scale was revised accordingly. The face validity of the scale was also taken into consideration during the development process. To ensure it, prior to the pilot test, the revised version was tested with a small number of students. According to their feedback and suggestions, necessary changes were made and the scale was finalized for the piloting purposes. The scale was piloted with 420 students studying at the Language Preparatory School of TOBB University. The participants were asked to share their strategy use by responding to items ranging from “totally disagree” (1) to “totally agree” (5).

After the assumption check, exploratory factor analysis was performed, and preliminary judgments about the number of factors were made by depending on the Eigenvalue 1 criterion (Kaiser, 1960). Considering the initial Eigenvalues presented in Table 3.16, it was revealed that the scale was composed of five factors and totally, the factors accounted for 63.76 % variance. However, since it was not possible to interpret this five-factor structure theoretically and the scale was originally designed to have a three-factor structure (which was also supported by the scree plot presented as Figure 3.4), another EFA was performed and the results validated this prediction.

Table 3.16

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the Language Learning Strategy Use Scale

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	6.63	34.91	34.91
2	2.04	10.74	45.65
3	1.29	6.77	52.42
4	1.09	5.72	58.14
5	1.07	5.61	63.76

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

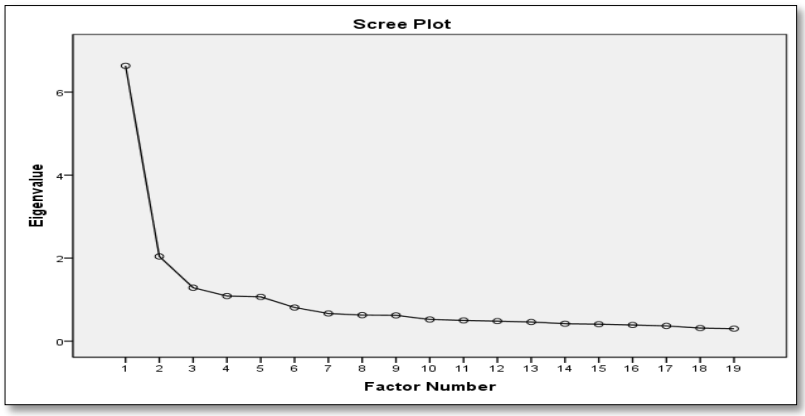

Figure 3.4. Scree plot of the Language Learning Strategy Use Scale

Considering the factor loadings, it was concluded that the scale was composed of three factors, which were later named as planning and organizing the language learning process (Item 1, 2, 3, 4, 5), monitoring the language learning process (Item 14, 15, 16, 18, 19), and elaborating on new knowledge (Item 6, 7, 8). The total variance accounted for by all three factors was 60.52 %. The first factor (planning and organizing the language learning process) explained 39.41 %, the second factor (monitoring the language learning process) 13.12 %, and the third factor (elaborating on new knowledge) 7.99 % of the total variance (see Table 3.17).

Table 3.17

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the Language Learning Strategy Use Scale

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	5.12	39.41	39.41
2	1.71	13.12	52.53
3	1.04	7.99	60.52

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

Table 3.18 presents the factor loadings that are above .30 (Hair, Black, Tatham, & Anderson, 2010) and as can be seen, the loadings of the items for the first factor (planning and organizing the language learning process) ranged between .50 and .78; for the second factor (monitoring the language learning process), the factor loadings

were between .62 and .75; for the final factor (elaborating on new knowledge), the loadings ranged from .50 to .73.

Table 3.18

Summary of Factor Loadings for the Oblimin Three-Factor Solution for the Language Learning Strategy Use Scale

Items	Factor loading		
	1	2	3
Revising what is learnt in English classes regularly (Item 2)	**.78**	.01	-.03
Taking notes in English classes (Item 4)	**.69**	.01	.15
Summarizing what is learnt in English classes after class (Item 5)	**.64**	.02	-.11
Preparing study plans for English classes (Item 1)	**.54**	.10	-.15
Attending English classes by searching about the topic which will be covered in class (Item 3)	**.50**	-.03	-.11
Making sure that s/he is using the appropriate study methods while studying English (Item 15)	.03	**.75**	-.01
Making sure that s/he is using the appropriate information resources (the Internet, books, dictionaries etc.) while studying English (Item 16)	-.03	**.71**	.09
Making sure that s/he is focusing on the relevant topics while studying English (Item 14)	-.05	**.70**	-05
Checking the consistency of the information that s/he has gathered from different resources (the Internet, books, dictionaries etc.) while studying English (Item 18)	-.00	**.64**	-.13
Making sure that s/he has correctly identified the point that s/he should give priority while studying English (Item 19)	.06	**.62**	.03
Using shapes, graphics, pictures etc. that can help understand the topics easily while studying English (Item 8)	-.04	.01	**-.73**
Doing exercises to practice the newly learnt topics while studying English (Item 7)	.29	.10	**-.52**
Studying English by finding more examples for the newly learnt topics (Item 6)	.25	.11	**-.50**
Factor correlations			
Planning and organizing the language learning process	-		
Monitoring the language learning process	.49	-	
Elaborating on new knowledge	-.53	-.40	-

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin; Factor loadings > .30 are in boldface.

However, six items (Item 9 - *I study English through different resources* (the Internet, books, dictionaries etc.); Item 10 - *I get help from my classmates for the parts I could not understand while studying English*; Item 11 - *I get help from the instructor for the parts I could not understand while studying English*; Item 12 - *I study English by connecting the information I already have with the new one*; Item 13 - *I study English by making a connection between the information I have learnt with the real life*; Item 17 – *While studying English, I make sure that I could understand the similarities and differences between the topics accurately*) did not receive the necessary factor loadings and this led to their deletion from the scale. Therefore, the final version of the scale was composed of three factors with totally 13 items.

Table 3.19

Reliability Scores for Factors of the Language Learning Strategy Use Scale

Factors	Factor loading	α	α if item deleted
Planning and organizing the language learning process		.80	
Item 2	.78		.73
Item 4	.69		.78
Item 5	.64		.75
Item 1	.54		.75
Item 3	.50		.78
Monitoring the language learning process		.82	
Item 15	.75		.76
Item 16	.71		.79
Item 14	.70		.78
Item 18	.64		.78
Item 19	.62		.79
Elaborating on new knowledge		.75	
Item 8	-.73		.73
Item 7	-.52		.64
Item 6	-.50		.65

Similar to the previous scale, for the internal consistency of the scale, Cronbach Alpha level was calculated for each factor. All the reliability values were above .70

and this satisfied the necessary reliability levels (Nunnaly, 1978). The reliability coefficient for the first factor (planning and organizing the language learning process) was calculated as .80, for the second factor (monitoring the language learning process), it was .82 and for the final factor (elaborating on new knowledge), it was .75 (see Table 3.19).

3.6.1.7 Validity and Reliability Analysis of Teaching Practices Questionnaire

In order to investigate learners' expectations related to need-supporting teacher practices (provision of structure and pedagogical caring), a questionnaire was developed for the current study by analyzing the earlier research on the role of teachers promoting engagement in the classrooms, and existing teacher evaluation forms as well as documents such as "General Competencies for Teaching Profession" published by MONE (http://oygm.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2018_06/29111119_TeachersGeneralCompetencies.pdf), "National Qualifications Framework for Higher Education in Turkey" by the Council of Higher Education (http://tyyc.yok.gov.tr/?pid=48), and "Teacher Self-Assessment Rubric" shared on the website of National Council of Teacher Quality (https://www.nctq.org/dmsView/RISE_Rubric).

The first version of the instrument had 15 items for provision of structure, and 20 items for pedagogical caring. Similar to the previous instruments, it was piloted with 420 students and the participants were asked to respond to the items ranging from "totally disagree" (1) to "totally agree" (5). Factor analysis was performed in order to see the underlying structure and the results indicated that the instrument was composed of six factors with 64.62 % total variance explained (Table 3.20). Nevertheless, the questionnaire was designed to have a two-factor structure and the scree plot also suggested two factors as well (see Figure 3.5).

Table 3.20

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the Teaching Practices Questionnaire

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	14.92	42.63	42.63
2	2.33	6.67	49.30
3	1.72	4.92	54.23
4	1.36	3.88	58.11
5	1.25	3.58	61.69
6	1.03	2.93	64.62

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

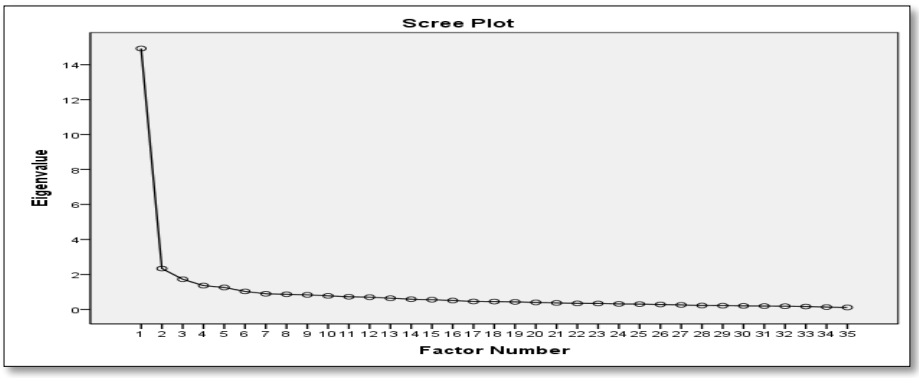

Figure 3.5. Scree plot of the Teaching Practices Questionnaire

The data were re-examined and the results of the factor analysis validated that the instrument was composed of two factors. Both factors accounted for 49.30 % of the total variance. The first factor (pedagogical caring) uniquely explained 42.63 % variance, and the variance computed for the second factor (provision of structure) was 6.67 % (see Table 3.21).

Table 3.21

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the Teaching Practices Questionnaire

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	14.92	42.63	42.63
2	2.33	6.67	49.30

Note. Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

Table 3.22

Summary of Factor Loadings for the Oblimin Two-Factor Solution for the Teaching Practices Questionnaire

Item	Factor loading 1	Factor loading 2
Motivating learners for learning (Item 25)	**.79**	.04
Keeping learners from feeling hopeless when they fail (Item 24)	**.79**	-.09
Building a learning environment of love and respect (Item 19)	**.78**	.03
Helping learners love learning English (Item 30)	**.76**	-.02
Being open to communication (Item 20)	**.75**	.02
Being fair (Item 22)	**.74**	-.11
Showing sympathy towards the mistakes (Item 32)	**.74**	.09
Helping become aware of their language abilities (Item 27)	**.73**	.01
Valuing students' feelings (Item 17)	**.72**	.03
Having a good sense of humour (Item 21)	**.69**	-.05
Using an encouraging language while giving feedback (Item 33)	**.68**	.11
Encouraging students to ask questions (Item 31)	**.67**	-.06
Valuing students' opinions (Item 18)	**.66**	.09
Helping acquire self-discipline to study English (Item 26)	**.65**	.06
Listening to students actively (Item 16)	**.64**	.16
Appreciating students' success (Item 23)	**.60**	.01
Trying to increase students' belongingness (Item 29)	**.56**	-.00
Communicating with students after class as well (Item 34)	**.52**	.05
Approaching all students with the same sensitivity (Item 28)	**.51**	.03
Being a role model by using English actively (Item 35)	**.48**	.18
Recommending some extra resources (Item 3)	.09	**.89**
Recommending some study techniques (Item 4)	-.05	**.82**
Assigning students exercises to help overlearn (Item 5)	-.02	**.75**
Coming to class prepared (Item 1)	-.03	**.70**
Sharing the lesson objectives with students (Item 2)	-.06	**.68**
Giving constructive feedback about learning process (Item 9)	.09	**.68**
Benefiting from instructional technology (Item 8)	.00	**.56**
Teaching by emphasizing similarities and differences (Item 12)	.22	**.55**
Providing students with real life examples (Item 11)	.17	**.53**
Telling where, when and how to use that information (Item 13)	.19	**.51**
Asking questions which students can answer by integrating information they have acquired at different times (Item 14)	.19	**.51**
Giving constructive feedback to students related to the techniques that they use while studying English (Item 10)	.26	**.48**
Factor Correlations		
Pedagogical caring	-	
Provision of structure	.73	-

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin; Factor loadings >.30 are in boldface.

Table 3.22 summarizes the factor analysis results. As can be seen, the first factor (pedagogical caring) consisted 20 items and their loadings were above .48, whereas 12 items loaded on the second factor (provision of structure) with the minimum factor loading of .48. Nevertheless, item 6 (*conducting pair work studies in class*), item 7 (*conducting group work studies in class*), and item 15 (*asking questions that requires a great amount of thinking before finding the answer*) did not show similar patterns, and therefore they were excluded from the instrument.

When it comes to the reliability scores, the results indicated that the first factor (pedagogical caring) had the value of .94 and the second factor (provision of structure) had the reliability value of .92 (see Table 3.23).

Table 3.23

Reliability Scores for Factors of the Teaching Practices Questionnaire

Factors	Factor loading	α	α if item deleted
Pedagogical caring		.94	
Item 25	.79		.94
Item 24	.79		.94
Item 19	.78		.94
Item 30	.76		.94
Item 20	.75		.94
Item 22	.74		.94
Item 32	.74		.94
Item 27	.73		.94
Item 17	.72		.94
Item 21	.69		.94
Item 33	.68		.94
Item 31	.67		.94
Item 18	.66		.94
Item 26	.65		.94
Item 16	.64		.94
Item 23	.60		.94
Item 29	.56		.94
Item 34	.52		.94
Item 28	.51		.94
Item 35	.48		.94
Provision of structure		.92	
Item 3	.89		.91
Item 4	.82		.91

Table 3.23 (continued)

Item 5	.75	.91
Item 1	.70	.91
Item 2	.68	.91
Item 9	.68	.91
Item 8	.56	.91
Item 12	.55	.91
Item 11	.53	.91
Item 13	.51	.91
Item 14	.51	.91
Item 10	.48	.91

3.6.1.8 Validity and Reliability Analysis of School Practices Questionnaire

The study also had a purpose to understand the expectations of learners concerning school practices and a questionnaire was developed with three major themes: organizing extracurricular activities at school (clubs & seminars), creating peripheral learning opportunities, and having language resource centres.

For the first version of the instrument, 20 items were developed and the questionnaire was designed to have a four-factor structure (organizing extra-curricular activities - clubs, organizing extra-curricular activities - seminars, creating peripheral learning opportunities, having language resource centres). Later, the instrument was piloted with 420 students and an exploratory factor analysis was conducted.

Table 3.24

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance, and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the School Practices Questionnaire

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	7.53	39.61	39.61
2	2.39	12.58	52.19
3	1.65	8.67	60.86
4	1.10	5.78	66.64

Extraction method: Principal Axis Factoring

The results of the analysis supported the predetermined factor structure. As indicated in Table 3.24 and Figure 3.6, the questionnaire was composed of four factors, explaining 66.64 % of the total variance.

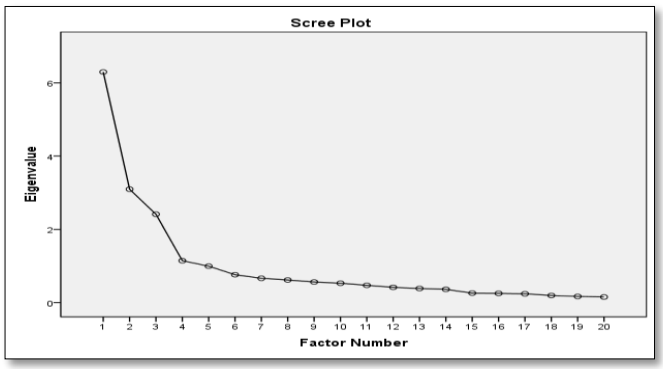

Figure 3.6. Scree plot of the School Practices Questionnaire

The first factor organizing extra-curricular activities (clubs) explained 39.61 % variance, the second factor organizing extra-curricular activities (seminars) 12.58 % variance, the third factor creating peripheral learning opportunities 8.67 % variance, and the final factor having language resource centres 5.78 % variance. All the factors totally accounted for 66.64 % variance and the finalized version of the instrument had four factors with totally 19 items.

It is clear from the Table 3.25 that six items were loaded on the first factor organizing extra-curricular activities (clubs) (Item 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14), five items on the second factor organizing extra-curricular activities (seminars) (Item 15, 16, 17, 18, 19), five items on the third factor creating peripheral learning opportunities (Item 1, 2, 3, 4, 6), and three items on the final factor having language resource centres (Item 5, 7, 8). Nevertheless, the item 20 (*having language exams such as TOEFL or IELTS at the preparatory school*) was deleted since it did not load on either of the factors.

Table 3.25

Summary of Factor Loadings for the Oblimin Four-Factor Solution for the School Practices Questionnaire

Items	Factor loading			
	1	2	3	4
English book and discussion club (Item 13)	**.88**	.01	.13	-.11
English music club (Item 12)	**.81**	-.03	-.10	.02
Student newspaper in English (Item 14)	**.64**	.07	.14	.03
English speaking club (Item 10)	**.53**	-.27	.00	.03
English movie club (Item 11)	**.53**	-.15	-.21	.38
British/American culture club (Item 9)	**.43**	.01	.12	.12
Seminar on "Why is English important?" (Item 15)	-.03	**-.86**	.10	-.08
Seminar on "The role of English in my success" organized by successful sector representatives (Item 19)	-.09	**-.86**	.09	-.02
Seminar on "Why is English necessary for your career?" organized by lecturers of the faculties (Item 18)	-.02	**-.85**	-.01	.01
Seminar on "How is English learnt?" (Item 16)	.14	**-.75**	-.03	.02
Seminar on "How to lessen English language learning anxiety" (Item 17)	.11	**-.70**	-.15	.13
Using English as the correspondence language (emails, facebook, twitter etc.) (Item 2)	.05	.01	**.86**	-.03
Making all announcements and notices (registrar's office, cafeteria, service etc.) in English (Item 1)	.02	.01	**.73**	.03
Sharing weekly programs on the school's website in English (Item 3)	.06	-.01	**.68**	.10
Sharing weekly materials on the school's website in English (Item 4)	.03	-.12	**.63**	.10
Putting posters, newspaper/magazine clippings on the walls to increase exposure to English (Item 6)	.29	-.17	**.30**	.09
Having a language library (Item 8)	-.00	.02	.03	**.76**
Having a language laboratory (Item 7)	.04	.03	.06	**.75**
Sharing the names of the resources that can contribute to our learning on the school's website (Item 5)	-.03	-.12	.19	**.37**
Factor correlations				
Organizing extra-curricular activities (clubs)	-			
Organizing extra-curricular activities (seminars)	-.46	-		
Creating peripheral learning opportunities	.38	-.26	-	
Having language resource centres	.55	-.44	.46	-

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Direct Oblimin; Factor loadings >.30 are in boldface.

The Cronbach Alpha coefficients of .85, .91, .85, and .72, respectively for the four factors, confirmed the internal consistency of the scale. The item-deleted value of item 5 was computed as higher than the reliability score, yet since the item was significant for the study, it was found essential to keep it rather than deleting it for the sake of increasing the reliability score (see Table 3.26).

Table 3.26

Reliability Scores for Factors of the School Practices Questionnaire

Factors	Factor loading	α	α if item deleted
Org. extra-cur. act. (clubs)		.85	
Item 13	.88		.81
Item 12	.81		.82
Item 14	.64		.83
Item 10	.53		.83
Item 11	.53		.83
Item 9	.43		.85
Org. extra-cur. act. (seminars)		.91	
Item 15	-.86		.88
Item 19	-.86		.89
Item 18	-.85		.89
Item 16	-.75		.89
Item 17	-.70		.89
Creating peripheral learning opp.		.85	
Item 2	.86		.80
Item 1	.73		.82
Item 3	.68		.81
Item 4	.63		.81
Item 6	.30		.85
Having language resource centres		.72	
Item 8	.76		.49
Item 7	.75		.57
Item 5	.37		.76

3.6.1.9 The TOEFL ITP exam scores

TOBB ETU uses TOEFL ITP exam scores not only for placement purposes but as the indicators of students' language proficiency as well. Similarly, this study approached students' TOEFL ITP scores as the indicators of their language

proficiency and considered them as the dependent variable of the research.

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

Prior to the data collection process, all the instruments were sent to the Ethics Committee at the Middle East Technical University and they all were found ethically appropriate for the implementation. When the approval was received, the researcher applied for the permission of the university, where the data would be collected and fortunately the application was accepted.

Initially, an informative email about the implementation process was sent to the instructors by the curriculum coordinator of the institution. In that mail, they were explained that the scales would be administered to the groups at two sittings. The first sitting (Part I: Demographic Information, English Self-Efficacy Scale, the Sense of University Belonging Scale, School Practices Questionnaire) would be on Wednesday, 4th hour and the second sitting (Part II: Language Learning Strategy Use Scale, Language Learner Autonomy Scale, Teaching Practices Questionnaire) would be on Thursday, 1st class hour. They were supposed to take the questionnaires from the coordinator during the previous break and leave them to her after class. Each administration would last about 20 minutes and students who were not in class in that hour would not be allowed to take the instruments in a different session.

In the e-mail, the instructors were also informed about the lists in the pack. They were explained that they would find a list and an assigned number for each student in the packs and they were told that it was of high importance for the study that students get the correct questionnaire. For example, if in the list number 12 was assigned to Ahmet Yılmaz, he should get the questionnaire number 12 and this process would be applied for both days. The students' names would not be used in the study; instead, the numbering was only essential so as to combine the responses of each student in both sessions.

Since students studying at AR and B levels participated in the pilot study, the instruments were distributed only to the instructors of BR, C, CR and D levels to be implemented at a predetermined class hour. In totally 13 classes, students were asked to read the consent form and fill it as a sign of their voluntary participation to the research. Then, they were given the instruments and asked to respond to the questions. Finally, the instructors brought the administered instrument packs back to the curriculum office. The researcher organized all the documents and prepared for the analysis.

3.8 Data Analysis

As explained earlier, two different research methods were adopted for this study and this created a need for two different data analysis plans. For the parts of the research where correlation method was applied, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. As explained by Tabachnick and Fidell (2006), "regression analyses are a set of statistical techniques that allow one to assess the relationship between one DV and several IVs" (p. 117) and it is composed of three categories: multiple regression, hierarchical regression and stepwise regression. In this study, hierarchical regression method was preferred since it was found essential to give a priority to some variables to avoid their possible confounding effects on the prediction of the outcome variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). Therefore, in order to address the first research question, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted and throughout the analysis, the alpha was set at .05. The data necessary for the study were gathered through six different instruments, screened for missing values and then secured for the analysis in PASW 18.

At the beginning of the study, the sample size was evaluated for its adequateness through the formula $N>50 + 8k$, where k stands for the number of predictors (Green, 1991). Since there were twelve predictors and 165 students participated in the study ($N>146$), the sample size was found appropriate for the study. After the necessary

assumptions were checked, the main analyses were conducted. To be able to address the research question accurately, at first, the variables the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student) were controlled. The other variables were entered in the second step as the predictors of the outcome variable and the regression analysis was run.

In addition to the correlation method, the study also utilized the descriptive survey method, and therefore the analyses for this part of the research differed. Rather than inferential statistics methods, a descriptive analysis was carried out for the second research question.

3.9 Limitations

Similar to many studies, this investigation also suffered from a number of limitations. The main limitation of this research was that data were collected from a single university and this influenced the external validity of the study. There is no doubt that this investigation should have been conducted with a larger sample group representing various universities; nevertheless, since the study required a valid and reliable language proficiency exam such as TOEFL, IELTS or FCE as the dependent variable, there were not many alternatives, but to conduct the research with a university using the TOEFL test to avoid any possible bias. Nevertheless, the general description of the sample group was presented in detail to minimize the impact of this limitation. An additional limitation was that the student engagement model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) had a very comprehensive nature and this study attempted to integrate as many dimensions as possible to the study. However, since it was unlikely to add all variables into a single investigation, some parts of the model were excluded in this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In this chapter, data analysis results are presented under two major headings. The first section focuses on the results regarding the relationship between the personal facilitators of student engagement and English language proficiency, whereas the second part presents the results related to the expectations of English language learners concerning language teacher and school practices.

4.1 The Relationship Between Personal Facilitators of Student Engagement and English Language Proficiency

The first aim of the study was to explore how well the personal facilitators of student engagement predicted the TOEFL ITP test scores and the results regarding this relationship were presented in the following section after describing the variables of the study.

4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics for the Variables

Prior to the main analyses, descriptive analysis was carried out to have a general view of the data. In the study, the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment, the student status (new vs repeat student), students' English self-efficacy (receptive skills and productive skills), their sense of belongingness (perceived pedagogical caring and identification with the school), their language learning strategy use (planning and organizing the language learning process, monitoring the language learning process, and elaborating on new knowledge), and their language learning autonomy (taking responsibility of language learning, associating the language with real life, and taking part in language learning activities) were considered as the independent variables. Whether these variables predicted the

TOEFL ITP Listening Comprehension score, TOEFL ITP Structure and Written Expression score, and TOEFL ITP Reading Comprehension score of the students was questioned.

As presented in Table 4.1, 41.2 % of the students took the TOEFL ITP exam twice (n=68), 46.1 % of them three times (n=76), 7.9 % of them four times (n=13) and 4.8 % of them five times (n=8). Of all participants, 27.9 % of them (n=46) were repeat group students, while 72.1 % (n=119) were new to the university. Besides, when students were asked about their belongingness feelings towards the prep school, the results indicated that the total score of their responses for the first dimension of this variable, perceived pedagogical caring, differed between 5 and 20 (M = 15.06, SD = 2.97) and for the second dimension, identification with the school, the score was between 3 and 15 (M = 8.65, SD = 2.66) (see Table 4.1). In addition to sense of belongingness, students were also asked to express their self-efficacy beliefs. According to the analysis results, the total score of their responses ranged between 34 and 83 (M = 62.83, SD = 9.27) for receptive skills and from 19 to 63 (M = 52.04, SD = 6.87) for productive skills. In terms of their language learning strategy use, the results revealed that the responses of the students ranged between 5 and 22 for planning and organizing the language learning process (M = 13.44, SD = 3.72), from 6 to 25 for monitoring the language learning process (M = 17.85, SD = 3.71), and between 3 and 15 for elaborating on new knowledge (M = 8.71, SD = 2.64). When it comes to the results regarding their language learning autonomy, it was discovered that the total scores for the first dimension, taking responsibility of language learning, differed between 21 and 82 (M = 48.95, SD = 11.15), for the second dimension, associating the language with real life, between 5 and 23 (M = 10.80, SD = 3.56), and for taking part in language learning activities, between 13 and 30 (M = 23.54, SD = 4.02).

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics for Variables

Variables	*N*	*f*	%	*M*	*SD*	Min	Max
# of TOEFL ITP exam taken	165						
2		68	41.2				
3		76	46.1				
4		13	7.9				
5		8	4.8				
Student status	165						
Repeat		46	27.9				
New		119	72.1				
Sense of belongingness							
Perceived pedagogical caring	165			15.06	2.97	5	20
Identification with the school	165			8.65	2.66	3	15
Self-efficacy							
Self-efficacy for rec. skills	165			62.83	9.27	34	83
Self-efficacy for pro. skills	165			52.04	6.87	19	63
Language learning strategy use							
Planning and organizing the language learning process	165			13.44	3.72	5	22
Monitoring the language learning process	165			17.85	3.71	6	25
Elaborating on new knowledge	165			8.71	2.64	3	15
Language learning autonomy							
Taking responsibility of language learning	165			48.95	11.15	21	82
Associating the language with real life	165			10.80	3.56	5	23
Taking part in language learning activities	165			23.54	4.02	13	30
TOEFL ITP Listening Comprehension score (LC)	165			53.20	4.44	40	65
TOEFL ITP Structure and Written Expression score (SWE)	165			50.46	4.78	35	64
TOEFL ITP Reading Comprehension score (RC)	165			50.33	3.27	41	58

In the TOEFL ITP exam, the participants of this study received scores ranging between 40 and 65 (M = 53.20, SD = 4.44) from the listening comprehension part. As for the second part, the students involving in this study received scores between

35 and 64 (*M* = 50.46, *SD* = 4.78). From the reading comprehension part, the participants of this study had scores from 41 to 58 (*M* = 50.33, *SD* = 3.27) (see Table 4.1).

4.1.2 The Relationship Between the Personal Facilitator of Affective Engagement and English Language Proficiency

As part of the first research question, the predictive value of sense of belongingness (the personal facilitator of affective engagement) on language proficiency was questioned. Prior to the analysis, the intercorrelations between the TOEFL ITP scores and the sub-dimensions of sense of belongingness were checked. The results for this pre-analysis step and the hierarchical regression analysis were presented in the following sections.

4.1.2.1 Intercorrelations for the TOEFL ITP Scores and the Personal Facilitator of Affective Engagement

Prior to all analyses, the intercorrelations between the TOEFL ITP scores and predictors as well as the correlations among all predictors were examined for multicollinearity. As illustrated in Table 4.2, the bivariate correlations between the dependent variables and the predictors were analyzed and it became apparent that there existed no correlation higher than .90, making the results interpretable (Field, 2009).

As an initial step, the statistically significant relationships between the dependent variables and the predictor variables were taken into consideration. First, it was discovered that the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment variable was positively correlated with the structure and written expression (SWE) score, but it was negatively related with the reading comprehension (RC) score. These findings may point to the likelihood that when students took more tests, their

success in the SWE part increased, but their RC scores tended to decrease (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2

Intercorrelations for the TOEFL ITP Scores and the Personal Facilitator of Affective Engagement (Sense of Belongingness)

Variable	1	2	3	4
Listening comprehension score (LC score)	-.11	.61*	.11	.23*
Structure and written expression score (SWE score)	.16*	.10	.25*	.18*
Reading comprehension score (RC score)	-.16*	.47*	-.03	.17*
Predictor variables				
1. # of TOEFL ITP exam taken	__	-.48*	.17*	-.09
2. Student status (New vs repeat)		__	.07	.35*
3. Perceived pedagogical caring			__	.30*
4. Identification with the school				__

* p<.05

Secondly, the results indicated that the student status (new vs repeat student) was significantly and positively correlated with the listening comprehension (LC) score and the RC score. In other words, in terms of students' LC and RC performance, new students seemed to display more achievement. The results also indicated that whereas there was a significant and positive relationship between the identification with the school variable and all TOEFL ITP scores, the perceived pedagogical caring predictor was only correlated with the SWE score. This may suggest that feelings towards the school played a more significant role in students' success in the exam. In other words, students feeling more attached to the school seemed to have more potential to get higher scores.

When the correlation scores among all predictors were examined, the results revealed that the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment was negatively correlated with the student status (new vs repeat student), which was among the

expected results. Another observation was that it was positively correlated with perceived pedagogical caring. In other words, as the number of the TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment increased, students felt themselves more cared by their teachers. What's more, the results pointed at a possible positive and significant relationship between the student status (new vs repeat student) and identification with the school. This may suggest that unlike repeat group students, new students were more likely to feel more attached to the school. Beside all these findings, it was also discovered that both sense of belongingness variables were significantly and positively related. In other words, the more cared students felt, the more attached they became to the school.

4.1.2.2 Results of the Hierarchical Analyses for the Personal Facilitator of Affective Engagement

A series of hierarchical analysis were conducted to understand how well sense of belongingness (the personal facilitator of affective engagement) predicted English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP test exam (listening comprehension, structure and written expression, reading comprehension), controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment. For each analysis, the confounding variables (the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student)) were first entered into the model. In the second step, the variables under students' sense of belongingness (perceived pedagogical caring and identification with the school) were entered as the second model.

Prior to each analysis, a number of assumptions were checked: a) the normally distributed errors, b) homoscedasticity, c) the independent errors, d) multicollinearity, e) influential observations (Field, 2009). The first assumption, the normally distributed errors, was examined through histograms and p-p plots and

since the residuals of this data set were normally distributed and random, it was concluded that the normality assumption was met (Field, 2009). For the second assumption, homoscedasticity, the scatterplot was examined, and no apparent pattern was observed (Field, 2009). The third assumption was the independent errors, which could be checked through the Durbin-Watson test. Since the Durbin-Watson test value of the study was not above 3 (Field, 2009), it was concluded that the assumption was met as well. Multicollinearity was also validated by scanning the correlation matrix, Tolerance and VIF scores. On the correlation matrix, there was no correlation above .90; the Tolerance values were above .10; the VIF values were lower than 4 (Field, 2009), validating the assumption. The final assumption to be checked was influential observations, which was checked by using partial regression plots of each predictor, and by examining Leverage, Cook's Distance and DF Beta values. First, the partial regression plots were examined and no outlier was identified. Secondly, Leverage, Cook's Distance and DF Beta values were checked to see whether or not the calculated maximum values exceeded .40 for Leverage (Stevens, 2002), 1.00 for Cook's Distance (Cook & Weisberg, 1982), and 1.00 for DF Beta (Field, 2009). The results indicated that all values were below the limits and therefore the assumption was satisfied.

Three hierarchical regression analyses were conducted and the results of the first hierarchical regression analysis, which was carried out for the listening comprehension part of the exam, were presented in Table 4.3. As can be seen, the predictors in the first model significantly predicted the outcome variable, the listening comprehension performance of the students, and explained 41 % of total variance, $R^2 = .41$, $\Delta F = 56.52$, $p<.05$. Approximately 4 % of the variance in the listening comprehension performance of the students was explained by the predictor the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and 40 % was accounted by the student status (new vs repeat student) variable. Besides, both predictors were positively correlated with the outcome variable. Nevertheless, the results for the second model revealed a non-significant fit; in other words, sense of

belongingness did not predict the listening comprehension performance of the students.

Table 4.3

Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting the Listening Comprehension Performance of the Students

Variable	*b*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*sr²*	*R²*	*ΔF*
Model 1						.41	56.52*
# of TOEFL ITP exam taken	1.28	.38	.23	3.36*	.04		
Student status (New vs repeat)	7.08	.68	.72	10.47*	.40		
Model 2						.41	.07
Sense of Belongingness							
Perceived pedagogical caring	.04	.10	.03	.39	.00		
Identification with the school	-.01	.11	-.01	-.10	.00		

*p<.05

The results obtained through the hierarchical regression analysis for the second outcome variable, the structure and written expression performance of the students, indicated that both models significantly fitted the data (see Table 4.4). The predictors in the first model (the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student)) significantly and positively predicted the outcome variable and explained 6 % of total variance, $R^2 = .06$, $\Delta F = 5.41$, $p<.05$. Five per cent of the variance in the structure and written expression performance of the students was explained by the predictor the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and 4 % was accounted by the student status (new vs repeat student) variable.

Table 4.4

Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting the Structure and Written Expression Performance of the Students

Variable	*b*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*sr²*	*R²*	*ΔF*
Model 1						.06	5.41*
# of TOEFL ITP exam taken	1.58	.52	.26	3.03*	.05		
Student status (New vs repeat)	2.36	.92	.22	2.56*	.04		
Model 2						.11	4.18*
Sense of Belongingness							
Perceived pedagogical caring	.28	.13	.18	2.20*	.03		
Identification with the school	.18	.15	.10	1.19	.01		

*p<.05

As for the second model into which the sub-dimensions of belongingness were entered, a significant relationship between sense of belongingness and the structure and written expression performance of the students was detected. When the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student) were controlled, sense of belongingness contributed to the SWE score of the students with a 5 % variance, $R^2 = .11$, $\Delta F = 4.18$, $p<.05$. With regard to the predictive value of the sub-dimensions, it was discovered that only the variable perceived pedagogical caring predicted the outcome variable, SWE score, with 3 % variance contribution.

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis for the reading comprehension performance of the students indicated that only the first model was a significant fit of the data overall (see Table 4.5). The predictors in the first model significantly predicted the outcome variable, the reading comprehension performance of the students, and explained 22 % of total variance, $R^2 = .22$, $\Delta F = 23.21$, $p<.05$. However, as displayed in Table 4.5, only the student status (new vs repeat student) variable significantly and positively predicted outcome variable and it uniquely

explained 20 % of the variance in the reading comprehension performance of the students.

When the variables the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student) were controlled, it was found out that the second model did not significantly predict the dependent variable. In other words, it was discovered that similar to the listening comprehension, sense of belongingness did not contribute to the reading comprehension performance of the students.

Table 4.5

Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting the Reading Comprehension Performance of the Students

Variable	*b*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*sr²*	*R²*	*ΔF*
Model 1						.22	23.21*
# of TOEFL ITP exam taken	.35	.32	.09	1.09	.01		
Student status (New vs repeat)	3.68	.57	.51	6.44*	.20		
Model 2						.23	.78
Sense of Belongingness							
Perceived pedagogical caring	-.10	.08	-.09	-1.25	.01		
Identification with the school	.03	.10	.03	.35	.00		

*p<.05

To sum up, in this part of the research, whether or not sense of belongingness (the personal facilitator of affective engagement) predicted English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam, controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment was investigated. The results of each analysis indicated that the first models (the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student)) significantly predicted all the outcome variables (LC, SWE,

RC). Nevertheless, controlling for these variables, it was discovered that the predictor sense of belongingness only had a significant and positive relationship with the outcome variable, SWE score.

4.1.3 The Relationship Between the Personal Facilitators of Cognitive Engagement and English Language Proficiency

As the other part of the first research question, the predictive value of self-efficacy, language learner autonomy and language learner strategy use (the personal facilitators of cognitive engagement) on language proficiency was examined. Initially, the intercorrelations between the TOEFL ITP scores and all the predictors were checked. The results for this pre-analysis step and the hierarchical regression analysis were presented in the following sections.

4.1.3.1 Intercorrelations for the TOEFL ITP Scores and the Personal Facilitators of Cognitive Engagement

Similar to the affective dimension, the first data inspection was made to ensure that there was no correlation higher than .90 between the variables (see Table 4.6). As can be guessed, the bivariate correlations between the dependent variables and the predictors, the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student) yielded the same results for cognitive engagement.

Table 4.6

Intercorrelations for the TOEFL ITP Scores and the Personal Facilitators of Cognitive Engagement

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Listening comprehension score (LC score)	-.11	.61*	.37*	.26*	-.15*	.05	.10	-.21*	-.02	-.20*
Structure and written expression score	.16*	.10	.10	.22*	.08	.06	-.02	.10	.15*	-.02
(SWE score)	-.16*	.47*	.19*	.13*	-.02	.10	-.11	-.11	.14*	-.15*
Reading comprehension score (RC score)										
Predictor variables										
1. # of TOEFL ITP exam taken	__	-.48*	.03	.07	.11	.06	.10	.12	-.00	.00
2. Student status (New vs repeat)		__	.24*	.20*	-.18*	.06	-.10	-.23*	-.00	-.15*
3. Self-efficacy for receptive skills			__	.76*	.03	.14*	.41*	-.06	.26*	-.06
4. Self-efficacy for productive skills				__	.10	.10	.34*	.05	.30*	.02
5. Taking responsibility of language learning					__	.40*	.18*	.70*	.48*	.60*
6. Associating the language with real life						__	.20*	.31*	.23*	.26*
7. Taking part in language learning activities							__	.14*	.30*	.18*
8. Planning and organizing the learning process								__	.37*	.60*
9. Monitoring the language learning process									__	.42*
10. Elaborating on new knowledge										__

* p<.05

As for the other relationships, it was discovered that except the non-significant relationship between the structure and written expression (SWE) score and self-efficacy for receptive skills, a significant and positive relation with both self-efficacy predictors and all TOEFL ITP scores was detected, which may mean that students with higher self-efficacy were more likely to get higher scores in each of the TOEFL ITP parts. In addition, of all factors of language learning autonomy, only the predictor taking responsibility of language learning appeared to have a significant and negative relationship with the listening comprehension (LC) score. This was a very surprising result in that students who felt more responsible for their language learning process seemed to get lower scores in the LC part.

When it comes to the dimensions of language strategy use, the results indicated that the variable planning and organizing the language learning process was only significantly related to the LC score and they were negatively correlated. That's to say, students who had a tendency for planning and organizing their learning process unfortunately received lower scores in the listening part. Secondly, the data set indicated that monitoring the language learning process was positively related to both the SWE score and the reading comprehension (RC) score, which may mean that students who had a habit of monitoring their learning process were more likely to achieve higher scores in the SWE and RC parts. Thirdly and interestingly, a negative correlation between the predictor elaborating on new knowledge and the scores of the LC and RC parts was identified. In other words, students who were into elaboration strategies were also those getting lower scores from LC and RC parts.

With regard to the statistically significant relationships between the predictor variables, the first thing that was noticed was that the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment was negatively correlated with the predictor the student status (new vs repeat student), which was also discovered in the previous part. As for the variable the student status (new vs repeat student), the results

indicated a positive correlation with both self-efficacy predictors, which may suggest that new students had more self-efficacy. Nevertheless, the variable, the student status (new vs repeat student), was found to be negatively correlated with one learner autonomy variable, taking responsibility of language learning, and two strategy use sub-dimensions planning and organizing the language learning process, and elaborating on new knowledge. In other words, repeat groups seemed more likely to use planning, organizing as well as elaboration strategies and feel more responsible for their learning process.

In addition to all these observations, it was also discovered that both self-efficacy variables were significantly and positively related. In other words, an increase in the self-efficacy for receptive skills seemed to lead to an increase in the self-efficacy for productive skills. Moreover, the variable self-efficacy for receptive skills was positively correlated with both two autonomy variables (associating the language with real life and taking part in language learning activities) and one strategy use variable (monitoring the language learning process). On the other hand, the variable self-efficacy for productive skills was only significantly and positively related to taking part in language learning activities, and monitoring the language learning process. These results could be interpreted as evidence for the fact that students with higher self-efficacy were more likely to take part in language learning activities and monitor their own learning, whereas those who felt themselves more capable at receptive skills tended to act more autonomously by trying to make connections with real life.

Beside all these findings, the results indicated that all predictors under the title of language learning strategy use and language learning autonomy were positively and significantly related. That’s to say, students who were used to planning were more likely to monitor or elaborate, or those who took more responsibility of language learning seemed to display either or both of the two other dimensions of language learning autonomy as well.

4.1.3.2 Results of the Hierarchical Analyses for the Personal Facilitators of Cognitive Engagement

A series of hierarchical analysis were conducted to understand how well self-efficacy, language learning autonomy, and language learning strategy use (the personal facilitators of cognitive engagement) predicted English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam (listening comprehension, structure and written expression, reading comprehension), controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment. In order to address this need, three hierarchical analyses were conducted.

Before these analyses, the assumptions of the hierarchical analysis were checked and the results indicated that all necessary assumptions were satisfied. Initially, for the normally distributed errors assumption, the histograms, p-p plots, and the residuals of the data were scanned and considering the analysis results, it was concluded that the normally distributed errors assumption was met. Secondly, homoscedasticity was inspected by checking the scatterplots and no apparent pattern was observed; thus, this assumption was satisfied as well. The third assumption, the independent errors, was also taken into consideration and the results pointed at its validation since the Durbin-Watson test value of the study was not above 3. For multicollinearity, first, the correlation matrix was examined and it was found out that there was no correlation above .90. Second, the Tolerance and VIF values were checked and it was discovered that the values are within the expected limits. The final assumption, influential observations, was checked by using partial regression plots of each predictor and by examining Leverage, Cook's Distance, and DFBeta values. All values signalled the non-existence of outliers.

Similar to the analyses carried out for the affective dimension, as an initial step, the confounding variables the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student) were entered. Since the

confounding variables were the same, the same results were received for the first models of each analysis (see Table 4.7, 4.8, and 4.9). Later, the sub-dimensions of self-efficacy (self-efficacy for receptive skills and self-efficacy for productive skills), language learning autonomy (taking responsibility of language learning, associating the language with real life and taking part in language learning activities), and language strategy use (planning and organizing the language learning process, monitoring the language learning process, and elaborating on new knowledge) were entered into the analysis respectively.

The first hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for the listening comprehension performance of the students and it was discovered that in addition to the first model, the second model was also a significant fit of the data overall. When the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status were controlled, it was found out that the predictors under the second model (self-efficacy for receptive skills and self-efficacy for productive skills) accounted for 4 % variance in the outcome variable, $R^2 = .45$, $\Delta F = 6.32$, $p<.05$ (see Table 4.7). When it comes to its sub-dimensions, the results indicated that only self-efficacy for receptive skills significantly and positively predicted the dependent variable and uniquely explained 3 % of the variance.

In the third step, after the possible impact of the variables the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment, the student status (new vs repeat student), and self-efficacy were controlled, a new model with the sub-categories of the variable language learning autonomy was entered. The results indicated that the variable language learning autonomy did not significantly predict the outcome variable, the listening comprehension performance of the students.

In the fourth step, a new model was composed by controlling all these variables as well as language learning autonomy. The results mirrored those of the previous

model in that students' language learning strategy use did not contribute to their listening comprehension performance.

Table 4.7

Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting the Listening Comprehension Performance of the Students

Variable	*b*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*sr²*	*R²*	*ΔF*
Model 1						.41	56.52*
# of TOEFL ITP exam taken	1.28	.38	.23	3.36*	.04		
Student status (New vs repeat)	7.08	.68	.72	10.47*	.40		
Model 2						.45	6.32*
English self-efficacy							
SE for rec. skills	.14	.04	.28	3.12*	.03		
SE for pr. skills	-.07	.06	-.11	-1.16	.00		
Model 3						.47	1.06
Language autonomy							
Taking resp. of language learning	-.02	.03	-.06	-.86	.00		
Associating the lang. with real life	-.03	.08	-.03	-.40	.00		
Taking part in lang. learning act.	.11	.07	.10	1.51	.01		
Model 4						.47	.75
Language strategy use							
Planning and organizing the lang. learning process	-.04	.11	-.04	-.40	.00		
Monitoring lang. learning process	-.06	.09	-.05	-.64	.00		
Elaborating on new knowledge	-.13	.13	-.08	-.97	.00		

*p<.05

A second hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for the structure and written expression performance of the students and the results indicated that only the first and the second model significantly fitted the data. In other words, neither language

learning autonomy nor language learning strategy use significantly predicted the dependent variable (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8

Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting the Structure and Written Expression Performance of the Students

Variable	*b*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*sr²*	*R²*	*ΔF*
Model 1						.06	5.41*
# of TOEFL ITP exam taken	1.58	.52	.26	3.03*	.05		
Student status (New vs repeat groups)	2.36	.92	.22	2.56*	.04		
Model 2						.11	3.86*
English self-efficacy							
SE for rec. skills	-.10	.06	-.19	-1.67	.02		
SE for pr. skills	.22	.08	.32	2.74*	.04		
Model 3						.12	.57
Language autonomy							
Taking resp. of language learning	.03	.04	.07	.86	.00		
Associating the lang. with real life	.02	.11	.02	.19	.00		
Taking part in lang. learning act.	-.10	.10	-.08	-.96	.01		
Model 4						.14	1.47
Language strategy use							
Planning and organizing the lang. learning process	.17	.15	.13	1.15	.01		
Monitoring lang. learning process	.19	.12	.15	1.60	.01		
Elaborating on new knowledge	-.24	.18	-.13	-1.29	.01		

*p<.05

With regard to self-efficacy, it was discovered that when the confounding variables were controlled, the predictors under the second model (self-efficacy for receptive skills and self-efficacy for productive skills) accounted for 5 % variance in the outcome variable, $R^2 = .11$, $\Delta F = 3.86$, $p<.05$. However, of all sub-dimensions, only the variable self-efficacy for productive skills predicted the outcome variable and uniquely explained 4 % of the variance (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.9

Summary of the Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting the Reading Comprehension Performance of the Students

Variable	*b*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*sr²*	*R²*	*ΔF*
Model 1						.22	23.21*
# of TOEFL ITP exam taken	.35	.32	.09	1.09	.01		
Student status (New vs repeat groups)	3.68	.57	.51	6.44*	.20		
Model 2						.23	.53
English self-efficacy							
SE for rec. skills	.04	.04	.10	.95	.00		
SE for pr. skills	-.02	.05	-.05	-.44	.00		
Model 3						.25	1.27
Language autonomy							
Taking resp. of language learning	.02	.02	.06	.70	.00		
Associating the lang. with real life	.05	.07	.05	.69	.00		
Taking part in lang. learning act.	-.11	.07	-.14	-1.70	.01		
Model 4						.29	3.16*
Language strategy use							
Planning and organizing the lang. learning process	-.04	.09	-.04	-.39	.00		
Monitoring lang. learning process	.19	.07	.21	2.55*	.03		
Elaborating on new knowledge	-.23	.11	-.18	-1.99*	.02		

*p<.05

The third hierarchical regression analysis, which was for the reading comprehension score of the students, yielded interesting results. As explained earlier, the first model was a significant fit of the data overall. Nevertheless, it was found out that neither the second model in which the relationship with self-efficacy was tested nor the third model into which the variable language learning autonomy was entered contributed to students' reading comprehension.

In contrast to these non-significant relationships, the third variable, language learning strategy use, was found to have a predictive power accounting for 4 % variance in the outcome variable, $R^2 = .29$, $\Delta F = 3.16$, $p<.05$. As for its sub-dimensions, the results showed that monitoring the language learning process and elaborating on new knowledge significantly predicted the dependent variable. The first predictor monitoring the language learning process uniquely explained 3 % of the variance, whereas the other variable elaborating on new knowledge accounted for 2 % variance in the outcome variable. However, while the variable monitoring the language learning process was positively correlated with the outcome variable, there was a negative relationship between the predictor elaborating on new knowledge and the outcome variable (see Table 4.9).

Overall, in this part of the study, it was aimed to examine how well the personal facilitators of cognitive engagement predicted English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam, controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment. To begin with, as previously mentioned, the results of each analysis indicated that the first models (the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student)) significantly predicted all the outcome variables (LC, SWE, RC). Besides, when they were controlled, the analyses revealed that self-efficacy contributed to students' LC and SWE scores. On the other hand, no significant link was detected between students' language learning autonomy and their TOEFL ITP scores. As for the predictive value

of language learning strategy use, it was discovered that the variable only had impact on students' reading comprehension performance.

4.2 The Expectations of English Language Learners Concerning Social Facilitators of Engagement

The second aim of the study was to gather student opinions related to social facilitators (teacher and school practices) that were likely to increase their engagement and learning while learning English. The results were presented in the following sections.

4.2.1 The Expectations of English Language Learners Concerning Language Teacher Practices

As a part of the study, it was aimed to understand the expectations of the language learners concerning language teacher practices that are likely to promote their engagement. To explore their opinions, a questionnaire was administered.

Table 4.10 displays the items of the questionnaire regarding the first dimension of the need-supportive teacher practices – provision of structure – and related descriptive statistics results. As can be seen, students' response ratings, most of which were accumulated around 'totally agree', ranged between 4.18 and 4.45. The analysis of each item separately yielded more detailed results. Considering the items receiving the highest mean values, it was discovered that for the promotion of their engagement, most participants preferred to get education from teachers who recommend some extra resources that they can get help while studying English (Item 3) (M=4.45, SD=.68), benefit from instructional technology (computers, projectors etc.) during class (Item 6) (M=4.41, SD=.76), and give constructive feedback related to their English language learning process (Item 7) (M=4.42, SD=.69).

Table 4.10

Provision of Structure

Items	*M*	*SD*	*f*				
			a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*e*
1. Coming to class prepared	4.22	.94	4	4	22	56	79
2. Sharing the lesson objectives with students	4.22	.84	2	3	23	65	72
3. Recommending some extra resources	4.45	.68	1	14	59	90	1
4. Recommending some study techniques	4.39	.71	0	1	19	60	85
5. Assigning students exercises to help overlearn	4.33	.77	0	3	21	60	81
6. Benefiting from instructional technology	4.41	.76	2	2	10	64	87
7. Giving constructive feedback about learning process	4.42	.69	0	2	13	63	87
8. Giving constructive feedback to students related to the techniques that they use while studying English	4.27	.79	1	3	20	67	74
9. Provide students with real life examples	4.18	.86	1	6	25	64	69
10. Teaching by emphasizing similarities and differences	4.32	.80	1	3	19	62	80
11. Telling where, when and how to use information in daily life	4.40	.83	1	5	15	50	94
12. Asking questions which students can answer by integrating information they have acquired at different times	4.26	.82	1	2	27	58	77

Note. a = totally disagree; b = disagree; c = somewhat agree; d = agree; e = totally agree.

On the other hand, of all need-supportive teacher practices, coming to class prepared (Item 1) (*M*=4.22, *SD*=.94), sharing the lesson objectives with them (Item 2) (*M*=4.22, *SD*=.84), and providing them with real life examples while presenting a topic (Item 9) (*M*=4.18, *SD*=.86) received the least mean scores.

Table 4.11

Pedagogical Caring

Items	*M*	*SD*	*f*				
			a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*e*
13. Listening to students actively	4.54	.62	0	1	8	57	99
14. Valuing students' feelings	4.48	.82	2	4	11	44	104
15. Valuing students' opinions	4.61	.63	0	1	10	41	113
16. Building a learning environment of love and respect	4.60	.67	0	2	11	38	114
17. Being open to communication	4.65	.59	0	0	10	37	118
18. Having a good sense of humour	4.36	.77	0	1	27	49	88
19. Being fair	4.59	.71	2	1	6	45	111
20. Appreciating students' success	4.27	.93	2	6	24	46	87
21. Keeping learners from feeling hopeless when they fail	4.44	.77	1	2	16	51	95
22. Motivating learners for learning	4.48	.82	3	2	11	46	103
23. Helping acquire self-discipline to study English	4.33	.81	2	1	21	57	84
24. Helping become aware of their English language abilities	4.43	.73	1	2	12	60	90
25. Approaching all students with the same sensitivity	4.35	.88	1	6	20	45	93
26. Trying to increase students' belongingness	4.15	1.00	5	5	27	51	77
27. Helping learners love learning English	4.35	.87	3	3	16	54	89
28. Encouraging students to ask questions	4.27	.88	2	5	20	57	81
29. Showing sympathy towards the mistakes	4.47	.79	3	1	9	55	97
30. Using an encouraging language while giving feedback	4.47	.82	3	2	11	48	101
31. Communicating with students after class as well	4.27	.92	2	6	23	49	85
32. Being a role model by using English actively	4.43	.86	4	1	14	47	99

Note. a = totally disagree; b = disagree; c = somewhat agree; d = agree; e = totally agree.

In addition to the teacher behaviours related to the provision of structure, the questionnaire had items for teaching practices signalling pedagogical caring. As illustrated in Table 4.11, the mean scores of the items differed from 4.15 to 4.65 and except one item (Item 26), students totally agreed with all the items. When the results were examined, it became evident that items 15, 16 and 17 received the highest mean values, which means that of all teacher behaviours, students would like their teachers to actively listen to them (Item 15) (*M*=4.61, *SD*=.63), build a learning environment of love and respect (Item 16) (*M*=4.60, *SD*=.67), and be open to communication (Item 17) (*M*=4.65, *SD*=.59) to become more engaged. On the other hand, the items 20, 26, 28, and 31 received the lowest mean scores. That's to say, when compared to the other teacher practices promoting engagement, appreciating students' success (Item 20) (*M*=4.27, *SD*=.93), trying to increase their belongingness to the school (Item 26) (*M*=4.15, *SD*=1.00), encouraging them to ask questions (Item 28) (*M*=4.27, *SD*=.88), and communicating with them after class (Item 31) (*M*=4.27, *SD*=.92) appeared to be less preferred.

4.2.2 The Expectations of English Language Learners Concerning Language School Practices

In addition to teacher practices, students were also asked to share their expectations concerning language school practices that are likely to promote their engagement. Five items of the instrument questioned whether or not students needed peripheral learning opportunities for engagement. As illustrated in Table 4.12, considering the mean scores, students' ratings ranged from 3.21 (somewhat agree) to 4.21 (totally agree). The highest mean score was observed for Item 6, which was about placing posters, newspaper/magazine clippings on the walls (*M*=4.21, *SD*=.93), whereas Item 1, 'All announcements and notices (registrar's office, cafeteria, service etc.) should be made in English' had the least mean value (*M*=3.21, *SD*=1.34).

Table 4.12

Creating Peripheral Learning Opportunities

Items	*M*	*SD*	*f*				
			a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*e*
1. Making all announcements and notices (registrar's office, cafeteria, service etc.) in English	3.21	1.34	19	38	36	34	38
2. Using English as the correspondence language (emails, facebook, twitter etc.)	3.33	1.33	17	34	34	38	42
3. Sharing weekly programs on the school's website in English	3.79	1.11	8	14	33	60	50
4. Sharing weekly materials on the school's website in English	3.81	1.09	9	10	32	67	47
6. Putting posters, newspaper/magazine clippings on the walls to increase exposure to English	4.21	.93	5	3	18	65	74

Note. a = totally disagree; b = disagree; c = somewhat agree; d = agree; e = totally agree.

The school practices questionnaire also had a section focusing on language resource centres and participants were expected to report if their engagement might increase through these centres or not.

Table 4.13

Having Language Learning Resource Centres

Items	*M*	*SD*	*f*				
			a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*e*
5. Sharing the names of the resources that can contribute to our learning on the school's website	4.47	.68	1	0	11	61	92
7. Having a language laboratory	4.25	.91	4	2	23	56	80
8. Having a language library	4.40	.76	1	2	16	57	89

Note. a = totally disagree; b = disagree; c = somewhat agree; d = agree; e = totally agree.

As illustrated through Table 4.13, this factor had three items and students' responses indicated that they totally agreed with the items, which may suggest that they would like to get education at a school where they are provided with resources and suitable settings. Considering the mean values, of all school practices, it was observed that

the highest mean value was calculated for Item 5 (*M*=4.47, *SD*=.68). In other words, students were of the opinion that if their school supported their learning by sharing the names of the language learning resources online, their engagement would most likely increase.

The school practices questionnaire had another section investigating the role of extra-curricular activities, particularly clubs, on the participants' engagement. Table 4.14 shows the items and the related analysis results. As can be seen, the mean values of the items differed from 3.89 (agree) to 4.30 (totally agree). The minimum mean value belonged to the Item 9, which questions whether students feel a need for a British/American culture club in the prep school or not (*M*=3.89, *SD*=1.15). When it comes to the highest value, it was observed that Item 11, 'There should be an English movie club in the prep school' (*M*=4.30, *SD*=.87) received the highest.

Table 4.14

Organizing Extra-Curricular Activities (Clubs)

Items	*M*	*SD*	*f*				
			a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*e*
9. British/American culture club	3.89	1.15	9	10	34	49	63
10. English speaking club	4.19	.94	5	1	27	57	75
11. English movie club	4.30	.87	4	0	20	59	82
12. English music club	4.15	.98	4	5	30	50	76
13. English book and discussion club	4.12	.96	3	6	30	55	71
14. student newspaper in English	3.96	1.09	5	11	38	43	68

Note. a = totally disagree; b = disagree; c = somewhat agree; d = agree; e = totally agree.

The final part of the questionnaire aimed to gather the opinions of learners regarding the role of seminars in their engagement. As can be seen through Table 4.15, this section was composed of five items and it was discovered that the mean values ranged between 3.75 and 4.18, suggesting that they agreed with all the items.

Table 4.15

Organizing Extra-Curricular Activities (Seminars)

Items	*M*	*SD*	*f*				
			a	*b*	*c*	*d*	*e*
15. Seminar on "Why is English important?"	3.75	1.26	11	19	32	41	62
16. Seminar on "How is English learnt?"	4.08	1.06	6	9	23	55	72
17. Seminar on "How to lessen English language learning anxiety"	4.04	1.12	9	5	31	45	75
18. Seminar on "Why is English necessary for your career?" organized by lecturers from the faculties.	4.18	1.02	3	13	16	52	81
19. Seminar on "The role of English in my success" organized by successful sector representatives.	4.14	1.08	7	4	32	38	84

Note. a = totally disagree; b = disagree; c = somewhat agree; d = agree; e = totally agree.

When the results were analysed, it was observed that Item 15, which was about the organization of a seminar on "Why is English important?", received the least mean value score (*M*=3.75, *SD*=1.26), whereas Item 18, questioning the necessity of a seminar on "Why is English necessary for your career?" got the highest.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter is structured around two major themes. First, the results for each research question are discussed and each finding is critiqued in the light of the existing literature. Second, the implications for educational practice and the presentation of the areas identified for further research are shared.

5.1 Discussion of the Results

This research was designed in line with the principles of the engagement model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) in order to offer new insights into the current knowledge of engagement in language education. Inspired by their theoretical predictions regarding the facilitators of engagement, two research questions were raised and analysed: 1) How well do the personal facilitators of student engagement (sense of belongingness, self-efficacy, language learning strategy use, language learning autonomy) predict English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam (listening comprehension, structure and written expression, reading comprehension), controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment?, 2) What are the expectations of English language learners concerning social facilitators (teacher practices and school practices) of engagement?.

165 English language preparatory school students participated in the study and as the indicator of their language proficiency, their TOEFL ITP scores were secured. The data necessary for the first dimension of the study were gathered through four different scales and the hierarchical regression method was adopted for the analysis, whereas the second dimension was assessed through two different questionnaires and the data gathered were analysed in a descriptive manner. The results were discussed

under two major themes: a) the relationship between personal facilitators of student engagement and English language proficiency, b) the expectations of English language learners concerning social facilitators of engagement, which could be found in the following sections.

5.1.1 The Relationship Between Personal Facilitators of Student Engagement and English Language Proficiency

The first objective of the study was to examine whether the personal facilitators of student engagement predicted English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam, controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student) and the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment.

Initially, as part of this research question, the predictive value of sense of belongingness (the personal facilitator of affective engagement) was questioned. The responses of the students to the scale were investigated through the hierarchical regression method. In the first step, the contribution of the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student) into students' performance was checked. The results indicated that the model significantly predicted the performance of the students in all parts, validating the possible confounding effect of the variables on the outcome.

Considering the variables separately, it was discovered that the number of the TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment was significantly and positively related to both the listening comprehension (LC) and structure and written expression (SWE) scores with a similar contribution, yet there was no significant correlation between the predictor and the reading comprehension (RC) score. Despite its small contribution into the total variance, this finding indicated that experience in the TOEFL ITP test predicted students' performance in the listening, grammar and vocabulary parts of the exam. Nevertheless, it did not make impact on their reading

comprehension score, suggesting that whether or not they took the TOEFL ITP test previously did not change their reading comprehension performance.

The results indicating the significant links provided evidence for a possible testing effect for two parts of the exam. As stated by Schweigert (1994), when individuals take standardized tests more than once, their scores tend to increase as a result of the testing effect. It seems that the results of the current study pointed at a similar relationship in that as the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken increased, students became more knowledgeable about the testing procedure, which in turn influenced their scores in two parts of the exam. On the other hand, the non-significant connection between students' experience in the TOEFL ITP test and their reading score could be attributed to the length of the reading texts and the time allocated for this section. In this part of the test, the length of the reading texts varies from 200 to 450 words, students are given 55 minutes to read 5-6 reading passages, and they are expected to answer totally 50 questions. Therefore, the demanding nature of this task might have led to an increase in the anxiety level of the students and prevented the potential influence of practice effect.

On the other hand, with regard to the other confounding variable, the student status (new vs repeat student), it was found out that it was significantly and positively related to all scores. In contrast to repeat group students, new students displayed better performance in all parts of the TOEFL ITP exam. This was an unexpected finding in that this variable was expected to interfere with the results by creating some maturation effects on repeat group students and make them more advantageous; however, the results indicated an inverse relationship. Contrary to the expectations, repeat group students seemed to be less advantageous and this finding accorded with the observations of Morrison and On No (2007), who also discovered that repeating a year in English language schools did not improve performance in the final exams. One possible explanation for this negative correlation could be that being with new students in the same classroom might have led to a transformation in their self-beliefs. In these competitive environments, they might have begun to

question their innate potential and feel less competent compared to the others, which in turn may have negatively affected their academic performance. Moreover, since these students went through the same learning process with the same materials, it is likely that they lost their interest and motivation to attend the course, which may have led to a decrease in their success. Or it may simply be due to their resistance to following the necessary steps of learning a language, attending school regularly, and completing the required tasks.

With regard to the performance of the new students, the results indicated that they received higher scores and there could be a number of reasons behind this finding. Initially, the analysis of the students' educational background and previous abroad experiences might partly explain their success in the exam. Acikel (2011) conducted research at the same language school and discovered that previous language learning experience, being abroad, and having a private school background contributed to students' TOEFL ITP scores. Although the demographic form distributed as a part of this study did not ask for this information, a more detailed investigation on these factors might point at a positive impact on these students' academic performance. Besides, the significant and positive relationship between being a new student and the TOEFL scores could be attributed to these students' eagerness to pass the test in order to be in their department. Despite the fact that both new and repeat groups had the same desire, the degree of motivation among new students is likely to be higher. Although such kind of motivation seems to be a kind of performance goal orientation, it is possible that these feelings increased their willingness to study, helped them develop necessary language skills, and enabled them to get higher scores in the exam.

Apparently, all these results provided evidence for the assumption that both the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student) would confound the results. After blocking on these variables as a precaution, in the second step, students' responses related to their belongingness feelings (perceived pedagogical caring and identification with the school) were

entered into the model and the results indicated that students' sense of belongingness towards the language school did not predict their LC (Listening Comprehension) and RC (Reading Comprehension) performance on the TOEFL ITP test. To clarify, whether English language learners felt attached to the language school did not make any difference in their listening or reading performance.

There are several possible explanations for this result. First of all, these findings may be due to the fact that although language education is offered as the initial step of university education at TOBB ETU, students may not have perceived it as a part of their undergraduate program. Therefore, since the primary motivator for attending university is to get a degree from a department, it is likely that the participants of the current research did not develop a sense of belonging towards the language school. The other possible explanation of this non-significant link could be that as some researchers have speculated (e.g. Lam, Chen, Zhang, & Liang, 2015; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009: Ryan & Deci, 2000), the relationship between belongingness and achievement may require the existence of some other variables in the role of mediators. For instance, the studies of Ryan and Deci (2000) and Niemiec and Ryan (2009) indicated that feeling more related to a community and motivation are associated. Therefore, according to these researchers, motivation plays the role of a mediator between belongingness and achievement. Nevertheless, at TOBB ETU, it is officially announced that the medium of instruction at the departments is Turkish, which may lead to a lack of motivation to get language education. Based on this assumption, this statistically non-significant association could be attributed to the lack of motivation towards learning English. In a different investigation, Lam and his colleagues (2015) discovered that positive academic emotions (i.e. pride, happiness, hope, satisfaction) mediated the relationship between school belonging and achievement. Sense of school belonging was found to be one of the significant sources of academic emotions, which in turn led to a change in the degree of engagement and achievement. The statistically non-significant correlation detected in the current study might also be explained when a detailed investigation is conducted to understand students' both positive and negative academic emotions. Alternatively,

as indicated in the study of Wang and Eccles (2011), it is likely that belongingness does not contribute to students' success unless they attend classes regularly and do the required tasks. Feeling attached to school may not be adequate for a better performance in these two major skills.

Although the analysis results indicated that students' sense of belongingness did not predict their LC and RC scores, a significant relationship with their SWE (Structure and Written Expression) scores was noted. Besides, of two sub-dimensions, only the perceived pedagogical caring variable significantly contributed to students' grammar and vocabulary performance. Taking these findings into consideration, it can be concluded that despite its low contribution, sense of belongingness, when particularly facilitated by teachers, helped students display better performance in grammar and vocabulary. One of the reasons for this impact could be partly related to the instructional behaviours of the English language teachers at TOBB ETU. It is possible that compared to major skills such as reading or listening, these sub-skills (grammar and vocabulary) were emphasized in the classrooms in such a way that students felt noticed or cared by the instructors and were encouraged to feel that they can do good work, which in turn contributed to their belongingness feelings and performance in the exam. Or alternatively, this can be simply attributed to the nature of the sub-skills. When studying language skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening), students are supposed to employ these sub-skills and this creates a need for more interaction with the instructors, specifically for grammar and vocabulary. Receiving more and immediate feedback from their teachers about their grammar or vocabulary skills may have created a feeling that they were cared by their teachers, which in turn increased their sense of belongingness as well as achievement. The other likely explanation for this finding could be that self-efficacy might have mediated the relationship between students' belongingness feelings and their achievement in the SWE part of the exam. The findings of the current study pointing at a significant connection between students' self-efficacy and their SWE performance seem to provide evidence for this assumption. As stated in the results part of the study, it was discovered that students who felt more capable of succeeding

displayed better performance in the SWE part of the exam; therefore, the relationship between belongingness feelings and their achievement could be attributed to the contribution of their self-efficacy beliefs. A similar conclusion was made by Zumbrunn, McKim, Buhs, and Hawley (2014). Their detailed investigation on belongingness, engagement, and achievement demonstrated that belongingness was not directly related to achievement; rather, the results indicated that self-efficacy played the mediator role, which can also be valid for the current study as well.

As the second part of the research question, in addition to the predictive value of sense of belongingness as the personal facilitator of affective engagement, this study called into question whether self-efficacy, language learner autonomy, and language learning strategy use (the personal facilitators of cognitive engagement) would predict English language learners' performance in the TOEFL ITP exam, controlling for the variables the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student) as well. The responses of the students were gathered through three scales and analysed through the hierarchical regression analysis.

Initially, similar to the analysis carried out for the affective dimension, the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken after university enrolment and the student status (new vs repeat student) into students' performance were controlled and as expected, this model significantly predicted the performance of the students in all parts. Later, as a second step, controlling for these variables, the contribution of self-efficacy (self-efficacy for receptive skills and self-efficacy for productive skills) was investigated. The results indicated that English self-efficacy significantly predicted the LC and SWE performance of the students, but there was no significant relationship between the predictor and the RC score of the language learners. When it comes to the sub-categories of self-efficacy, significant links were detected only between the variable self-efficacy for receptive skills and students' LC performance and between the variable self-efficacy for productive skills and their SWE scores.

Despite the fact that self-efficacy explained only a small amount of variance in students' LC and SWE scores, regarding these findings, the first comment to be made was that language learners who believed in their own capabilities for language learning tended to obtain better scores in listening, grammar and vocabulary; nevertheless, whether or not they felt competent did not make any change in their reading skill. In addition, particularly those with higher self-efficacy for the receptive skills (listening and reading) were more likely to be better at listening and students who felt themselves adept at productive skills (speaking and writing) seemed to be good at grammar and vocabulary.

Considering the results of the previous studies identifying a significant relationship between self-efficacy and engagement (e.g. Greene & Miller, 1996; Walker, Greene, & Mansell, 2006), self-efficacy and achievement (e.g. Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Nassrelgrgawi, 2016; Sedaghat et al., 2011), self-efficacy and language proficiency (e.g. Acikel, 2011; Bai, Chao, & Wang, 2019; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2007; Nasrollahi & Barjasteh, 2013), self-efficacy and the listening performance of language learners (e.g. Chen, 2007; Rahimi & Abedini, 2009; Tabrizi & Saeidi, 2015; Todaka, 2017), and self-efficacy and grammar (e.g. Collins & Bissell, 2004), the findings of the present study came as no surprise. As also strongly underlined in the self-determination theory of Deci and Ryan (1985), in the detailed observations of Bandura (1994), in the studies of Schunk and Pajares (2005), and in the engagement model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012), learners' perceived self-efficacy significantly contributed to their performance in the current research as well. However, what appeared as contradictory to previous studies (e.g. Balci, 2017; Naseri & Zaferanieh, 2012) was that language learners' perceived self-efficacy did not lead to a change in their reading comprehension.

Given the concept of self-efficacy and the listening performance of language learners, the results of this study accorded with the observations of Chen (2007). In her investigations into the predictive value of English listening self-efficacy, English anxiety, and perceived value of English language and culture on EFL learners'

listening performance, Chen (2007) found out that English listening self-efficacy and EFL learners‘ listening performance were significantly related. This finding also corroborated that of Rahimi and Abedini (2009), who also suggested that when students perceived themselves capable of performing the listening comprehension tasks, they were able to demonstrate more proficiency in the listening skill. Likewise, Tabrizi and Saeidi (2015) questioned the predictive value of self-efficacy and autonomy for listening comprehension and their research yielded similar results. Finally, in a more recent study, Todaka (2017) confirmed the relationship between English self-efficacy and language learners’ listening comprehension ability.

Despite the significant relationship between self-efficacy for receptive skills and the LC performance of the learners, it was discovered that self-efficacy for productive skills did not predict the outcome variable. Therefore, it was concluded that language learners with higher self-efficacy for listening and reading were more likely to be better in the listening skill. Nevertheless, their belief in the capabilities for speaking and writing did not make impact on their listening proficiency.

Several possible explanations for this finding can be made. First, to some extent, this finding was in agreement with that of Acikel (2011), who questioned the predictive value of self-efficacy for productive skills on students’ proficiency (not specifically the listening skill) by using the same scale and discovered that self-efficacy for productive skills was not significantly related with language proficiency. As she suggested, this result might have been partly due to the simple nature of the activities given in the scale to test the self-efficacy of learners for productive skills. All students may have thought that they were competent at doing all those language-related activities, which may have damaged the discrimination of the students in terms of efficacy. Or different from Acikel (2011), it can be suggested that this result may have been simply because of the fact that listening is a receptive skill and it is highly possible that a receptive skill requires self-efficacy for receptive skills.

Considering the relationship between the self-efficacy and SWE performance of the students, the results indicated that they were significantly related. In other words, the students with high English language self-efficacy tended to display better performance in grammar and vocabulary. Despite its small contribution to the total variance in the outcome variable (SWE), this finding strengthened our confidence in the significance of self-efficacy on students' performance. Similar to the initial findings for the listening comprehension part of the exam, it was observed that a person's judgments about his/her capabilities play an important role on his/her grammar and vocabulary performance.

Additionally, the results indicated that individuals who felt themselves more successful in productive skills (speaking and writing) appeared to get higher scores in the SWE part of the exam. This finding could be attributed to the components of speaking and writing skill. Both skills require the production of the target language and the quality of this production depends on the individual's vocabulary and grammatical competence. If a student feels himself/herself adept at speaking and writing, it is likely that s/he is satisfied with the language s/he has produced, which may signal that s/he is able to write and speak with a command of grammar and vocabulary. Therefore, the relationship identified between students' self-efficacy for productive skills and their SWE scores could be related to the extensive use of grammar and vocabulary during the production process and the success it brings to students when they are appropriately applied.

With regard to the predictive value of self-efficacy on students' reading comprehension, the findings were different from previous research. For instance, the results of the study by Naseri and Zaferanieh (2012) suggested a positive relationship between self-efficacy and the reading comprehension proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. In another study, carried out by Balci (2017), the significant impact of self-efficacy on reading comprehension was emphasized as well. Despite all these findings, this study was unable to point at any links between self-efficacy and reading comprehension. This finding can be explained by the fact that other factors

such as tendencies to read in the mother tongue or the familiarity with the academic topics may have played more significant roles in the prediction of the RC score. Or alternatively, as mentioned earlier, this section has a demanding nature and this might have increased the anxiety level of the students, which may have avoided the contribution of self-efficacy into student performance.

In the third step of each analysis, after controlling for the student status (new vs repeat student), the number of TOEFL ITP test taken after university enrolment, and self-efficacy, the facilitative value of language learning autonomy (taking responsibility of language learning, associating the language with real life, taking part in language learning activities) was investigated.

As explained in the literature part of this study, learner autonomy was one of the central concerns of both the Self-Determination Theory of Deci and Ryan (1985) and the model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012). In line with the theory and the model, it was questioned whether learner autonomy would facilitate engagement and therefore predict achievement in the current study. Nevertheless, the results indicated that language autonomy did not make any contribution to students' performance in the exam. In other words, whether students acted autonomously or not did not make impact on their LC, SWE, or RC scores.

As far as the empirical evidence was concerned, the literature mostly offered results indicating a significant relationship of language autonomy with language proficiency (e.g. Dafei, 2007; Mohamadpour, 2013; Unlu & Er, 2016), reading comprehension (e.g. Koosha, Abdollahi, & Karimi, 2016; Ozturk, 2007), and listening comprehension (e.g. Liu, 2014; Tabrizi & Saeidi, 2015). Nevertheless, despite all these findings, the results of this study did not point at any significant contribution. One possible explanation for this finding is that the non-significant link between autonomy and achievement could be due to the impact of autonomy on the process rather than the result. Rotgans and Schmidt (2011) carried out research to understand

how well autonomy predicted cognitive engagement in a problem-based learning classroom. Their findings supported ours in that contrary to what was proposed in the self-determination theory, students' autonomy did not make direct contribution to their cognitive engagement; rather, students' autonomy made direct impact on their knowledge construction. The conclusion made by Rotgans and Schmidt (2011) was that autonomy was indirectly related to success. It contributed to the process rather than the outcome, which may also be valid for the current study as well. Alternatively, this finding might be related to the structure of the culture, the nature of the self, and the definition of autonomy in Turkey. As stated by Palfreyman (2004), the meaning attributed to learner autonomy differs between Western and Eastern countries. In the Western culture, individualism and self-actualization are highly emphasized, while collectivism and familial self mostly dominate the Eastern culture (Kara, 2007). An investigation on the interaction between culture, self, and autonomy might provide more detailed information about these statistically non-significant relationships.

Apart from autonomy, in the fourth step, controlling for all variables in the first three models, the facilitative role of language learning strategy use (planning and organizing the language learning process, monitoring the language learning process, elaborating on new knowledge) was questioned. At this stage, students' responses were entered and the results showed that there was no significant relationship between students' language learning strategy use and their LC scores. Similarly, the SWE performance of the students was not predicted by language learning strategy use, either. On the other hand, the analysis indicated that this variable significantly predicted the RC performance of the students, and except the planning dimension, monitoring the language learning process was positively correlated, while elaborating on new knowledge was negatively related.

Considering these findings, it can be concluded that in spite of the fact that language strategy use did not make any improvement in students' listening, grammar and vocabulary, it had a facilitative role for the reading skill. Students monitoring the

learning process through strategies such as checking whether they are using appropriate study methods or the consistency of the information that they have gathered from different resources (the Internet, books, dictionaries etc.) while studying English displayed better performance in the RC part of the exam. On the other hand, students using elaboration strategies such as using shapes, graphics, pictures etc. while studying English or studying English by finding more examples for the newly learnt topics were those receiving lower scores in the RC part.

Given the predictive value of students' strategy use on their reading comprehension score, the findings of this study mirrored those of Cesur and Fer (2011), who proposed a model to test whether there was a relationship between Turkish university preparatory students' language learning strategies, learning styles and success in reading comprehension and reached a conclusion that students' language learning strategies and learning styles predicted success in reading. Likewise, by using the reading section scores of the students at a TOEFL test, Marzban and Barati (2016) conducted research and identified a significant positive relationship between students' language learning strategies and their reading comprehension.

As for the sub-dimensions of the scale, the results indicated that when students monitored their learning process, they tended to perform better in the reading comprehension part of the exam. This could be explained by the consistency between the strategies presented under this part of the scale and the characteristics of the reading passages given in the TOEFL ITP test. Both the strategies given under the monitoring dimension of the scale and the questions in the reading comprehension part of the TOEFL ITP exam require critical thinking. As suggested by Fahim, Bagherkazemi, and Alemi (2010), there exists a statistically significant relationship between students' critical thinking abilities and their performance on the reading part of the TOEFL exam. Therefore, it is highly possible that students having the tendency to monitor their language learning process continue and reflect this habit on the reading part of the exam.

In contrast to the monitoring aspect, it was discovered that students' reading comprehension scores and the elaboration dimension of the scale were negatively related. This negative correlation could be related to the nature of the items presented under this sub-dimension. That is, students with higher scores most probably had procedural or conditional knowledge, whereas the items under this title mostly required declarative knowledge. As suggested by Smith and Ragan (2005), declarative knowledge is the first step of knowledge construction and involves elaboration of information. They claim that when students receive information for the first time, they tend to elaborate on this knowledge to make it more meaningful by "filling in gaps, making inferences, imagining examples and so forth," (Smith & Ragan, 2005, p. 155). Therefore, from this perspective, the negative correlation between students' reading comprehension scores and the elaboration dimension of the scale was quite meaningful.

When it comes to the findings indicating the non-significant relationships, first, it can be claimed that the non-significant links could be attributed to the lack of motivation to use these strategies. As noted by Pintrich and De Groot (1990), having the knowledge of strategies is not adequate for achievement; students should be motivated to apply these strategies. The participants of the current study may not have felt motivated or may not have been motivated in the classrooms to use these strategies. Another alternative explanation could be that despite their engagement and learning, it was likely that high achievers did not report any use of strategies, which was also reported by Blumenfeld and Meece (1988). The results of their study demonstrated that although successful students knew about effective strategies, they did not report a greater use of them. Since it is likely for self-regulated learners to choose not self-regulating (Zimmerman, 1990), this assumption may also be valid for this study. Or the apparent non-significant correlation could be justified by the lack of ability to use the strategies. It is likely that although students had the knowledge of the strategies, they were not able to use them, which was also highlighted in the study of Graham, Santos, and Vanderplank (2008). Their detailed examination indicated that knowing and doing are two different terms. Even if students know the

strategies, it will not make impact unless they know how to apply them. This assumption can also be true for the current study as well in that despite their knowledge about the strategies, the students might have been unable to apply them appropriately.

All in all, according to the student engagement model proposed by Skinner and Pitzer (2012), students' self-perceptions contribute to their engagement and achievement. In line with the principles of the self-determination theory, the researchers suggested that people are born with three basic psychological needs, which are autonomy, relatedness, and competence. When students act autonomously, feel attached to a community, and have belief in their own capabilities, their engagement and achievement are positively affected. Interestingly, the results of the current study partly provided evidence for this assumption. It was discovered that sense of belongingness, which was regarded as the personal facilitator of affective engagement, contributed to students' performance only in the SWE part of the TOEFL ITP exam. Of all the personal facilitators of cognitive engagement, self-efficacy was found to have a significant relationship with their LC and RC performance, whereas the results pointed at a non-significant relationship between learner autonomy and the TOEFL ITP scores. Different from the model, the facilitative role of language learner strategy use was questioned and it was discovered that it only predicted their success in the RC part of the exam. Therefore, in this study, little evidence was offered to substantiate the claims of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) regarding the facilitative role of self-perceptions on achievement. However, the incongruity between the theoretical predictions of the researchers and the findings of the current study must be interpreted cautiously. As highlighted by Greene (2015), each discipline has its own characteristics, so components of learning vary depending on the requirements of the discipline. With this in mind, it is worth noting that the interplay between students' self-perceptions and language proficiency may require the integration of several other factors into the model.

5.1.2 The Expectations of English Language Learners Concerning Social Facilitators of Engagement

The second objective of the study was to gather the opinions of English language learners about the social facilitators of engagement. Initially, students were first asked to express their views related to various teacher practices that would increase engagement in language classrooms.

The data collected through the teacher practices questionnaire provided information about two need-supportive teacher practices: provision of structure and pedagogical caring. The results for the provision of structure indicated that except for one item (which was about providing students with real life examples while presenting a topic and students agreed with), the students totally agreed that the given language teacher practices were essential for their engagement. When the three items receiving the highest mean values were investigated, it became apparent that students believed in the necessity of the recommendation of extra resources (books, websites etc.) that they can get help while studying English, getting constructive feedback related to their English language learning process, and being informed about where, when and how to use the information they have learnt in their daily life. On the other hand, the teacher practices such as coming to class prepared, sharing the lesson objectives with students, providing them with real life examples while presenting a topic, and asking questions to students which they can answer by integrating information they have acquired at different times received the least mean values.

Apparently, the shared opinion among the students was that the provision of structure, one of the two need-supportive teacher practices, was essential for their engagement, which was largely congruent with the findings of previous studies. Particularly, the results supported the claims of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) about the close relevance of need-supportive teacher practices to student engagement and learning. The investigation by Skinner and Belmont (1993) on the effects of teacher

behaviour yielded similar results. The researchers discovered that provision of structure significantly and positively predicted student engagement. Their study revealed that when students were provided with clear expectations and strategic help, they felt more engaged. More recently, Hospel and Galand (2016) conducted a similar research and their findings mirrored those of Skinner and Belmont (1993). They also found out that students were more engaged in the classrooms where the structure was well-defined. Providing them with guidance reduced their cognitive load and enabled the existing cognitive resources to be used for more attention on the given tasks.

When it comes to the research conducted in language education, similar findings were noted. For instance, one of the earliest studies was carried out by Brosh (1996), who aimed to identify the characteristics of an effective language teacher. The results indicated that students believed in the necessity of proper course organization. Teaching the content professionally and providing students guidance about what s/he was and would be teaching were found to be significant for students. Likewise, Barnes and Lock (2013) carried out research with an aim of exploring language teacher characteristics. Under the title of delivery attributes, students were asked to share their opinions regarding necessary teacher provision of structure behaviours. The results indicated that of all behaviours, the students gave more importance to the clarity of explanations and the use of examples while teaching. A more detailed investigation was conducted by Hicks (2008) with an aim of understanding the teacher actions that support classroom structure. Considering the responses of the students, the researcher concluded that the structure is maintained when the teacher is clear and consistent in his/her expectations, pays attention to students' reactions and checks whether they have understood, offers help when students have difficulty in answering the questions, simplifies or modifies the question when students are unable to respond, encourage students to continue speaking by asking additional questions, gives immediate feedback in an encouraging manner, and provides feedback for previous work so that students can identify the areas of weaknesses and strengths.

It is also worth noting at this point that, as highlighted by Connell and Wellborn (1991) and restated by Reeve (2008), the provision of a structured environment helps satisfy the need for competence. The finding pointing at a significant relationship between self-efficacy and student performance in two parts of the TOEFL ITP exam may imply that the students studying at TOBB ETU prep school were presented with environments with a clear structure. A more detailed investigation may help understand to what extent the classrooms are structured and able to nurture the students' competency feelings.

In addition to the provision of structure, students were also provided with a variety of teacher practices questioning the necessity of teacher pedagogical caring. The analysis of the data indicated that similar to the results for the first subscale, except for one item (which was about teachers' attempt to increase students' belongingness to the school and students agreed with), the students totally agreed that the practices presented under this title were necessary for their engagement. Considering the three items receiving the highest mean values, it was discovered that students would like to get language education from teachers who value their opinions, build a learning environment of love and respect, and are open to communication. On the other hand, the items related to being appreciated for success, being motivated to feel attached to the school, being encouraged to ask questions, and communicating with teachers after class as well received the least mean values.

A number of researchers investigated the same relationship and reached at the same conclusion. For instance, as a part of their study, Skinner and Belmont (1993) aimed to understand whether pedagogical caring would make a difference in the engagement of the students and their results provided evidence to the teacher caring-student engagement relationship. Their findings suggested that when students perceived their teachers as warm, caring, and affectionate, they became more affectively engaged. In a different study, Wentzel (1997) questioned to what extent teacher caring predicted academic outcomes and her findings were in line with those of Skinner and Belmont (1993). She also concluded that engagement increased when

students felt supported and valued, so the interaction between student and teacher had a positive influence on student engagement. Likewise, Wang and Holcombe (2010) drew attention to students' need for teacher praise and positive approach. In their research, they discovered that there existed a significant association between students' school experiences and their engagement and teacher support acted as a part of this connection.

The language education literature offered similar findings. For instance, Barnes and Lock (2013) carried out research to gather the perceptions of students related to essential language teacher characteristics. The results showed that students would like to get education from teachers who are friendly, caring, patient, and sensitive to individual differences. Likewise, Kil (2015) found out that students expected teachers to motivate them for learning English, help them enjoy the process, and approach them in a friendly way. The investigation of Hicks (2008) indicated that students feel more engaged and motivated when teachers are patient, enthusiastic, energetic, approachable, and have a good sense of humour. Moreover, as also reported by the students, they expect teachers to help students feel comfortable in the classroom, give the sense that making mistakes is tolerable, communicate with students in a sincere way, and give individual attention to each learner during the activities.

These results were also in accord with the theoretical predictions of Skinner and Pitzer (2012). The expectations of the students provided evidence to the view that teachers' caring behaviours function as a contributor to student engagement, which was also observed in the relationship between the pedagogical caring dimension of belongingness and students' SWE scores detected in the current study. As previously stated, the results indicated that when students felt cared by the teachers, their performance in grammar and vocabulary improved. Despite its non-significant links with the listening and reading comprehension scores of the students, this finding strengthened the potential of pedagogical caring as a contributor to engagement.

In order to offer more insight into the social facilitators of engagement, students were also asked to express their opinions regarding various language school practices that were likely to increase their engagement. The data were collected through a questionnaire composed of four categories (creating peripheral learning opportunities, having language learning resource centres, organizing extra-curricular activities - clubs, and organizing extra-curricular activities - seminars).

When the opinions of students regarding peripheral learning opportunities were analysed, it was discovered that all students agreed that placing posters, or newspaper/magazine clippings on the walls would help increase their exposure to English and positively affect their engagement. On the other hand, the results indicated that they were undecided about whether announcements and notices (registrar's office, cafeteria, service etc.) should be made in English, the correspondence language (e-mails, facebook, twitter etc.) should be English, and weekly programs and materials should be shared on the school's website in English.

The findings related to the placement of posters or newspaper/magazine clippings on the walls mirrored those of Gezer, Sen, and Alci (2012). These researchers conducted research to explore the effect of peripheral learning on idiom teaching and learning by putting posters on the walls and when students were asked about their opinions regarding the impact of this activity, they reported that putting posters was beneficial for their learning. Similarly, Demirag (2018) questioned whether putting educational posters on the wall would make impact on students' learning. The results of the study indicated that students who were exposed to the posters were more successful at vocabulary and grammar.

With regard to the peripheral learning opportunities which students were undecided about, the first conclusion that could be made was that these students were not so eager for being exposed to English outside the classroom. It seemed that they would like to limit language education to their classroom and once they left the classroom,

it is possible that they preferred to interact with people and be contacted in their own language. This tendency might be explained by the fact that, as mentioned earlier, TOBB ETU openly declares that the medium of instruction at this university is Turkish and this school policy might have resulted in the development of performance-oriented goals rather than mastery goals towards language learning. Rather than considering language education as a shaping factor on their future career, it is likely that these students developed a short-term goal, that is, to pass the proficiency test and be in their department. Another explanation could be that such school practices might have caused the students to question their communication skills in English. Due to a possible decrease in self-efficacy and an increase in the anxiety, students may have approached these opportunities with some hesitations.

In addition to peripheral learning opportunities, students were also asked to respond to the items regarding language learning resource centres. Considering the results, it was concluded that students totally agreed that if the language school shared the names of the resources that can contribute to their learning on the school's website, and had a language laboratory as well as a library that they can benefit from, they would feel more engaged. Of all these items, the item questioning the necessity of resource sharing on the school's website received the highest mean value, whereas the item about the language library had the least mean value. These findings suggested that students would feel more engaged in a language school giving priority to all these needs, particularly resource sharing on the school's website.

The students' expectations were consistent with the findings of earlier research. One of the researchers interested in the language resource centers was Danaher & Danaher (1998), who examined the impact of language laboratories on student performance. The researchers found out that students had the opportunity to hear the voice of native speakers and do exercises for speaking and listening in the laboratories and this positively affected their performance. Likewise, Mohammed (2017) questioned whether language laboratories would be beneficial for students and the results of his study indicated that lab use increased students' performance in

both speaking and listening skill. In a different investigation, Morrison (2008) aimed to understand the effectiveness of self-access centers and what he discovered was that these places helped increase students' linguistic knowledge, proficiency and learning strategies. With regard to the impact of online resource sharing, the study of Kvavik (2005) yielded supportive results. His research on the types of technologies which students mostly would like to have at university indicated that although not widely used at university, students would like to have materials online.

The final two parts of the questionnaire aimed to gather the opinions of the students related to the necessity of extra-curricular activities for their engagement. When the opinions of the students regarding clubs as extra-curricular activities were analysed, it was discovered that expect for one item (which was about the necessity of an English movie club in the prep school and students totally agreed with), students agreed with all the items. The maximum mean value was calculated for the item on English movie club, suggesting that having a movie club would make language learners feel more engaged. Besides, of all the agreed items, organizing an English speaking club appeared to have received the maximum value, while organizing a British/American culture club received the least. These findings pointed at the fact that in addition to having an English movie club, students mostly expected the language school to have a speaking club for their engagement. When it comes to the expectations of students regarding seminars as the extra-curricular activities, the investigation of student responses showed that they all agreed with the items. In other words, students reported that if the language school organized seminars on topics related to English learning, they would feel more engaged. Among all seminar titles, a seminar on "Why is English necessary for your career?" organized by lecturers from the faculties received the highest mean value, while the minimum value was observed for the item questioning the necessity of a seminar on "Why is English important?".

The students' expectations were in line with the studies conducted to understand the impact of extra-curricular activities on student language performance. For instance,

Fatash (2008) carried out a descriptive research to explore students' attitudes towards using extra-curricular activities. The results of his study showed that if organized, students would like to benefit from such activities while learning English. Likewise, Yin (2015) focused on the relationship between learners' outside-of-class language activities and their listening comprehension performance in listening tests and she discovered that these activities contributed to students' performance. Yildiz (2016) conducted a similar investigation and discovered that language-oriented extracurricular activities increased the motivation of the students and helped them deal with anxiety.

To sum up, Skinner and Pitzer (2012) propose that student engagement is a construct that is continuously reshaped with the interaction between context and self. According to their model, students bring their personal facilitators (self-perceptions) into the educational platforms and if the aim is to ensure engagement, learning, and achievement, the context is supposed to help develop positive self-perceptions through social interactions. As suggested by the researchers, the interaction with teachers is one way of building social contact. If teachers provide students with a clear classroom structure and approach them with care, they feel more engaged. The social interaction built during school activities is the second way of engagement. When students are involved in school activities, they have more opportunities to be in social interactions and improve self-perceptions, which facilitates their engagement. The results of the current study indicated that, the expectations of the students studying at TOBB ETU prep school were, by and large, in line with the theoretical predictions of Skinner and Pitzer (2012), notably in terms of the necessity of need-supportive teacher practices (provision of structure and pedagogical caring) and school activities such as organizing language learning resource centers and extra-curricular activities. Thus, although their impact on student performance still required investigation, the contribution of social facilitators into student engagement was validated.

5.2 Implications of the Results

In the previous section, the findings of the current study are discussed and the following sections address the implications of these findings for educational practice and further research.

5.2.1 Implications for Educational Practice

The results of the current study show that as proposed by Skinner and Pitzer (2012), students' self-perceptions have impact on their achievement and contextual features have the potential to improve these self-beliefs. Considering these findings, a number of critical recommendations have been made for those who would like to create language learning environments conducive to engagement and learning.

Of all the personal facilitators, the results revealed that sense of belongingness contributed to the students' performance in the SWE part of the TOEFL ITP exam. Specifically, it was discovered that those whose belongingness feelings were mainly shaped by teachers' pedagogical caring behaviours displayed better performance in grammar and vocabulary. This finding indicates that creating a community where its members "experience a sense of belonging or personal relatedness" (Osterman, 2000, p. 324), "feel supported, respected, and accepted by other members of the school community" (Lam et al., 2015, p. 405) is crucial. As stated by Cleary, Walter, and Jackson (2011), the transition from high school to college brings new academic and social demands to students' lives. They are led into a new community of practice where they interact with new people, exchange ideas, acquire new cultural tools, and finally transform their identities and worldviews (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989). Helping students complete this enculturation process successfully rests heavily on teacher behaviours. As also indicated in the current study, approaching students with care, interest, and enthusiasm plays a significant role in the development of their relatedness feelings. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers create supportive

learning environments that nurture students' belongingness feelings. Similar to those offered in grammar and vocabulary teaching/learning sessions, it is essential that the teacher-student interaction opportunities be optimized for the other skills.

This study also detected that perceived self-efficacy contributed to the students' listening comprehension, grammar and vocabulary performance in the TOEFL ITP exam. Particularly, it was discovered that those who felt competent at receptive skills displayed better performance in the listening part and those who believed in their capabilities in productive skills received better scores in the structure and written expression part of the exam. Thus, the facilitative role of self-efficacy on these skills was validated and this finding highlights the fact that if context nurtures competency feelings, students tend to perform better in language learning. Therefore, the first step to be taken might be to provide learners with a clear structure both in class and school. When students know what the context expects them to do, they feel more competent as they are fully aware of the requirements to be successful (Reeve, 2008), so it is important to provide learners with clear guidance about what is essential to achieve desired outcomes in each skill. Moreover, the challenge degree is another issue that requires attention. Teachers are recommended to select tasks, activities, and materials that nurture students' self-efficacy feelings. They should keep the challenge at the optimal level and help learners develop positive self-views (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). In addition, giving feedback in a constructive and encouraging manner is also essential for the improvement of self-efficacy beliefs. During feedback sessions, comparing student performance with that of the others should be avoided; instead, students should be led into a reflection process of their own strengths and weaknesses. Besides, students should be taught about the significance of making accurate interpretations about their performance in each skill. When they fail, they should be encouraged to persist and try to figure out the real reasons behind these failures. They should be advised to reflect on some issues such as whether they have studied adequately, made enough effort, used necessary strategies, or asked for help when they have felt stuck. Otherwise, it is highly possible for students to begin questioning their capabilities, create negative self-

beliefs, and generalize these failures to all dimensions of language learning (Bandura, 1994; Linnenbrick & Pintrich, 2003; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Schunk & Mullen, 2012; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

Apart from the above-mentioned findings, this study pointed at a significant relationship between language strategy use and students' reading comprehension performance in the TOEFL ITP exam as well. Those monitoring the language learning process showed better performance; on the other hand, students using elaboration strategies were found to receive lower scores. These findings provide evidence to the fact that the language curriculum designers at TOBB ETU prep school should pay special attention to the integration of reading comprehension strategies into the program. Giving space to strategy teaching/learning in tasks, activities, or materials may help raise awareness. However, considering the negative correlation between elaboration strategies and the reading comprehension scores, it is recommended that strategy teaching be consistent with students' language level. Those with declarative knowledge may receive training for elaboration strategies first, but when they acquire procedural knowledge, they may be provided with strategies that necessitate more critical thinking. Additionally, giving enough guidance about how to apply these strategies appropriately in the TOEFL ITP test is also essential. Analysing reading texts that are similar to those in the TOEFL ITP may help students make connections and understand which strategy works best.

In addition to the personal facilitators, this study offers some practical implications for the social facilitators of engagement in language learning as well. To begin with, the results for teacher practices indicate that students would like to get language education from teachers who are able to provide a well-designed structure and give pedagogical caring. In order to provide students with a clear structure and thus, nurture their competency feelings, informing learners about classroom expectations and procedures as well as school policies is of primary importance. It is essential for both school administrators and teachers to set consistent standards so that students can organize their learning process by being aware of what the environment expects

from them to achieve desired goals (Reeve, 2008). In addition to the clarity of expectations, designing tasks with an optimal challenge is also required for the provision of structure (Reeve, 2008). When tasks are too simple, it is likely that students feel bored and disengaged; on the other hand, if students are presented with tasks that are too difficult, it may also result in disengagement. Therefore, the difficulty level of the tasks should be kept at an ideal level. Students should be given a chance to get the sense of achievement and feel competent at doing the tasks. Besides, teachers should avoid direct intervention into the learning process; rather, they should assist learners by applying instructional scaffolding. This strategy "enables a child or a novice to solve a problem, carry out a task or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts" (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976, p.90) and what makes it effective is that it helps improve student competency feelings and strengthens the motivation to proceed. Therefore, it is recommended for teachers to break tasks into meaningful and manageable chunks and provide help only when students are unable to complete the task on their own. Teachers can initiate the solution and increase their engagement by asking reflective questions or providing hints and tips but it is the learners who are supposed to complete the task. Moreover, as stated by Bransford et al. (2006), learners should be provided with immediate and constructive feedback about their performance and encouraged to try and make revisions. When they are given unclear or unspecified feedback, they feel incompetent and as a result, their self-perceptions are negatively affected (Raftery, Grolnick, & Flamm, 2012). To avoid such consequences and contribute to the structure of the classroom, teachers are advised to give clear, relevant, consistent, encouraging, and constructive feedback (Gettinger & Walter, 2012; Hicks, 2008) and remind learners that mistakes and failures are essential for future steps. Finally, so as to increase engagement, students should be provided with rich and skill-building information that reflects the real life conditions. Providing students with a rich content and informing them about the conditions in which this new information is applicable makes learning more meaningful and students become more adept at making connections and transferring knowledge to other situations, which in turn facilitates their engagement and learning.

In addition to the provision of structure, attention should also be paid to the other teacher need-supportive behaviour, pedagogical caring. As stated by various researchers (e.g. Hicks, 2008; Reeve, 2008; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012), teacher warmth promotes student engagement since it helps satisfy the need for relatedness. Based on the observations of these researchers and the findings of the current study, it is recommended for teachers to build a healthy and trustworthy relationship with students to ensure engagement and learning. They should cooperate with students, rely on their abilities, respect their feelings and ideas and avoid judgment (Costa & Garmston, 1994). It is also advised to create environments where students trust their teachers and feel free to express themselves (Flaherty, 1999). By using paralanguage or paraphrasing what the individual is asking/saying, teachers may help learners feel that they are important and listened (Costa & Garmston, 1994). Having detailed information about the students, showing care, expressing affection and appreciation, supporting them emotionally and taking time for their concerns also help the facilitation of belongingness feelings and engagement (Reeve, 2008).

The student responses also indicated that school practices/activities were essential for their engagement and learning and considering these findings, some suggestions could be made. To begin with, in order to facilitate student engagement, it is recommended to place posters, or newspaper/magazine clippings on the walls. In addition to their possible benefits to the language learning process, these authentic materials may arouse interest among students and help develop curiosity in the target culture and language, which may make them feel more engaged. Moreover, providing guidance about helpful language learning resources on the school website may also contribute to student engagement. This strategy may not only increase student motivation but prevent learners from using irrelevant resources and wasting time as well. Additionally, it is also recommended to have a language laboratory at schools. These places play a significant role in language education, but they are also beneficial for self-pacing, autonomy and anxiety control. Besides, building self-access centers is also essential for student engagement. If properly designed, these places may help learners act more autonomously, feel more motivated and engaged.

Moreover, organising extra-curricular activities within the language school is also recommended for student engagement. Having an English movie club or an English speaking club could be beneficial for both language learning and social interactions. Finally, seminars organized by faculty members or sector representatives on topics such as “Why is English necessary for your career?” or “The role of English in my success” may contribute to students’ task value perceptions. Since the medium of instruction is Turkish at TOBB ETU, such organisations might motivate those who are unable to find learning English relevant to their future career.

Apart from all these findings, the study revealed that there was a significant relationship between the number of TOEFL ITP exam taken and students’ listening comprehension, structure and written expression scores. This provides evidence to the impact of test practice on student performance and this testing effect could be turned into an advantage by integrating similar tests into the curriculum as a learning tool. Making students more familiar with the test structure might help decrease student test anxiety and facilitate student self-efficacy as well as motivation. Moreover, it was also discovered that student status (new vs repeat) was significantly related to all scores in the TOEFL ITP test, signalling an urgent need for curricular improvements for repeat group students. More attention should be paid to the academic and psychological needs of these learners. A detailed needs analysis might provide guidance about their self-perceptions since repeating a year might have resulted in the development of negative personal and academic emotions. If required, intervention programs should be organized to increase their persistence, motivation, and engagement. Moreover, it should be investigated whether placing these students with the newcomers in the same context is beneficial or not. Being with new students might negatively affect their self-efficacy beliefs and if so, this placement system should be reconsidered. Most importantly, organizing teacher training sessions or workshops on how to approach these students is essential for healthy teacher-student interactions. Teachers should be equipped with skills that are required to cope with the negative consequences of class repetitions. These students should be made sure

that they are still the part of the community and will always be equally treated regardless of their negative academic experiences.

This research has significant implications not only for language teachers and schools, but also (language) teacher education programs, school administrators, and (language) curriculum designers. In order to achieve consistent and long-term effectiveness, the initial step to be taken could be to integrate student engagement into courses such as educational psychology or classroom management in (language) teacher education programs. It may help raise the awareness of the teacher candidates about the significance of engagement on learning and student performance.

These pre-service attempts to equip teachers with adequate knowledge about student engagement should be complemented with in-service teacher training programs at language schools. If these programs are designed by considering the needs of the students studying in that particular school, the teacher profile, and the existing contextual features, they might bring more benefits to these educational environments. In addition to the training programs for teachers, the language school administrators are advised to establish a student engagement office whose aim will be to improve students' self-perceptions, provide academic guidance, organise motivating events with an emphasis on the importance of English language learning, and increase student-student or teacher-student interactions through various social activities. Besides, having an office for psychological support is also essential, especially for repeat group students. In order to eliminate their concerns and hesitations, some intervention programs could be organised. New students may also benefit from these offices by attending orientation programs.

When it comes to the responsibilities of (language) curriculum designers, at the beginning of each academic year and on a regular basis throughout the year, they are recommended to conduct a needs analysis to understand students' self-perceptions,

anxiety, and motivation degree and if required, the components of the program should be reconsidered so as to improve students' both in-class and out-of-class learning experiences. Moreover, both language curriculum designers and curriculum designers in general should regularly organize meetings with teachers as well as administrators and inform them about students' needs, lacks, and wants. Most importantly, the success of such a curriculum requires teamwork and collaboration, so it is recommended for (language) curriculum designers to work closely with administrators, subject area experts, educational psychologists, and student representatives in their design, evaluation, and revision process.

5.2.2 Implications for Further Research

It is recommended that further research be conducted in a number of areas. To begin with, although the results of the current study are encouraging, validating the findings by a larger sample might strengthen the generalizability of the results. Comparisons between state vs public universities, faculties, or repeat vs new students might be more likely with a larger sample size.

In this study, due to its comprehensive nature, the student engagement model of Skinner and Pitzer (2012) was not fully addressed. Future work is required with a focus on the other components of the model such as the facilitators of behavioural engagement, the indicators of engagement or the role of peer interaction in the development of student engagement. In addition, the dynamic nature of student engagement requires further investigation. As stated by Skinner and Pitzer (2012), student engagement is continuously reshaped with the interaction between context and self, so conducting a longitudinal study with the contribution of various stakeholders may offer more detailed information about the nature of the construct.

Research into the contribution of student engagement into students' productive skills (writing and speaking) is also essential. The TOEFL ITP exam is designed to assess

students' listening comprehension, reading comprehension, and structure and written expression performance and unfortunately, the facilitative value of self-perceptions on students' productive skills was left out of the scope of the current study due to validity and reliability issues. If possible, more research should be conducted in contexts where these skills are objectively evaluated.

Considering the non-significant relationships between the target psychological needs (belongingness, autonomy, and self-efficacy), it is recommended to enhance the comprehensiveness of the research by adding more variables such as language anxiety, student task value, goal-oriented orientations, persistence tendencies, or some presage variables such as prior language knowledge or abroad experience. New results may point at any of these variables in a mediator role. Besides, studying the sense of belongingness towards class, language school, and university separately is suggested since there could be differences in student perceptions. Moreover, the non-significant link between autonomy and student performance has given rise to many questions about the impact of autonomy on achievement. Future studies should question whether autonomy has a facilitative role on the language learning process rather than the outcome. In addition, self-efficacy might be investigated for each skill to understand its direct impact. This feeling is believed to be domain-specific, so it is also likely that student self-efficacy tends to change from one skill to the other, which could only be understood by conducting more research.

To gain more insight about the complex nature of student engagement, the quantitative findings could be enriched by adding a qualitative dimension into the research. Interviews with both students and teachers or classroom observations might yield more detailed results. Besides, since this study aimed to examine the predictive nature of the variables, whether there exist any causal relationships with the outcome variables still requires further investigation. Moreover, the time of the administration of the scales and the TOEFL ITP test differed. It is likely that collecting data concurrently with the TOEFL ITP test may yield different results. In addition, if possible, some intervention programs could be designed and the impact of these

programs on student engagement as well as achievement might be examined. Finally, as part of this study, student expectations about teacher and school practices were gathered. However, students were not asked to express opinions related to their teachers or existing school practices. To fill this gap, a qualitative dimension could be added to the study and such an investigation might help provide more information about the teacher behaviours at TOBB ETU prep school and existing school activities/practices.

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APPENDICES

A. DEMOGRAPHIC FORM

Demografik Bilgiler

1. Cinsiyetiniz: ( ) Kız ( ) Erkek

2. Yaşınız: _____

3. Mezun olduğunuz lise: ( ) Devlet ( ) Özel

4. Mezun olduğunuz lise türü:
( ) Genel Lise
( ) Temel Lise
( ) Anadolu Lisesi
( ) Fen Lisesi
( ) Askeri Lise
( ) Sosyal Bilimler Lisesi
( ) İmam Hatip Lisesi
( ) Çok Programlı Lise
( ) Ticaret Meslek Lisesi
( ) Teknik Lise
( ) Endüstri Meslek Lisesi
( ) Diğer: _____

5. Kayıtlı olduğunuz fakülte: _____

6. Hazırlıktaki kurunuz:
( ) BR
( ) C
( ) CR
( ) D

B. SENSE OF UNIVERSITY BELONGING SCALE

Ölçeğin bu bölümünde **İngilizce hazırlık okuluna dair sahip olduğunuz duygular** üzerinde durulmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı "**kesinlikle katılmıyorum**", "**katılmıyorum**", "**ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**", "**katılıyorum**", "**kesinlikle katılıyorum**" şeklinde sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

HAZIRLIK OKULUNDA KENDİNİZİ NASIL HİSSEDİYORSUNUZ?	**Kesinlikle katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle katılıyorum**
1. Bu hazırlık okulunun öğrencisi olmaktan gurur duyuyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2. Kendimi gerçekten bu hazırlık okulunun bir parçası gibi hissediyorum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3. Bazen kendimi bu hazırlık okuluna ait değilmiş gibi hissederim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. Hazırlık okulunda bir problemim olduğunda konuşabileceğim en az bir hoca var.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5. Hazırlık okulundaki hocalarım benim bir işi iyi yapabileceğimi düşünür.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6. Hazırlık okulundaki hocalarım bir şeyde iyi olduğum zaman bunu fark ederler.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. Hazırlık okulundaki hocalarımın çoğu benimle ilgilenir.	①	②	③	④	⑤

C. ENGLISH SELF-EFFICACY SCALE

Ölçeğin bu bölümünde **İngilizce yeterliğinize** dair ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı "**Kesinlikle yapamam (1)**"dan "**Kesinlikle yapabilirim (7)**"e uzanan yedili değerlendirme ölçeğinde sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle yapamam	**Yapamam**	**Belki yapamam**	**Belki yapabilirim**	**Biraz yapabilirim**	**Yapabilirim**	**Kesinlikle yapabilirim**
İNGİLİZCE BİLGİNİZİ NASIL DEĞERLENDİRİRSİNİZ?							
1. Kendi başınıza İngilizce okuma ödevini bitirebilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2. İngilizce TV programlarını anlayabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3. İngilizce konuşan ülkelerde yayınlanan radyo programlarını anlayabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
4. Türkiye'de yapılan İngilizce televizyon programlarını anlayabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
5. Sınıf arkadaşınıza İngilizce mesaj bırakabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
6. İngilizce makale okuduğunuzda, bilmediğiniz kelimelerin anlamını tahmin edebilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
7. Yeni öğrendiğiniz kelimeleri kullanarak cümle yazabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
8. Öğretmeniniz okul yaşamıyla ilgili İngilizce kaydedilmiş bir konuşma kaydı verirse anlayabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
9. İnternetten İngilizce haber okuduğunuzda anlayabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
10. Öğretmenlerinize İngilizce soru sorabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
11. İngilizce öğretmeninizi İngilizce tanıtabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
12. İngilizce kısa romanları okuyabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
13. İngilizce filmleri Türkçe altyazısız anlayabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

14. Öğretmenlerinizin sorularını İngilizce cevaplayabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
15. İngilizce şarkıları anlayabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
16. İngilizce gazeteleri okuyabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
17. İngilizceden İngilizceye olan bir sözlük kullanarak bilmediğiniz bir kelimenin anlamını	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
18. Türk kültürü hakkında yazılmış İngilizce makaleleri anlayabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
19. Kendinizi İngilizce tanıtabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
20. İngilizce öğretmeniniz hakkında İngilizce bir kompozisyon yazabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
21. İngilizce kitabınızdaki yeni konuları okuduğunuzda anlayabilir misiniz?	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

D. LANGUAGE LEARNER AUTONOMY SCALE

Ölçeğin bu bölümünde kendinizi **özerklik açısından** değerlendirmeniz istenmektedir. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı "**kesinlikle katılmıyorum**", "**katılmıyorum**", "**ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**", "**katılıyorum**", "**kesinlikle katılıyorum**" şeklinde sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

KENDİNİZİ ÖZERKLİK AÇISINDAN NASIL DEĞERLENDİRİRSİNİZ?	**Kesinlikle katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle katılıyorum**
1. Ödevlerim dışında İngilizce çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İngilizce dersleri öncesi hazırlık yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sadece öğretmenin not vereceği ödevleri tamamlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Ders sonrası için izlediğim düzenli bir çalışma programım vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
5. İngilizcemi geliştirmek için kendime öğrenme hedefleri koyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Sadece sınav dönemlerinde İngilizce çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Öğretmenin not vermeyeceğini bilsem de ödevlerimi yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Ödevlerim dışında dilbilgisi çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Zorunlu olmadığı halde kendi kendime İngilizce alıştırmalar çözerim.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Farklı öğrenme yöntemleri için öğretmenlerime danışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimeleri not ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Öğrendiklerimi düzenli olarak tekrar ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Sınavlardan sonra yapamadığım soruların yanıtlarını araştırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
14. "Nasıl çalışırsam İngilizceyi daha iyi öğrenirim?" sorusunu yanıtlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

15. Devam zorunluluğu kaldırılsa bile İngilizce derslerine katılırdım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16. Sınavlardan iyi not alsam bile yapamadığım soruların yanıtlarını araştırırım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
17. Öğrendiklerimi düzenli olarak değerlendiririm.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18. İngilizce filmler izlerim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19. İngilizce dinleme becerimi geliştirmek için CD/kaset dinlerim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
20. İngilizce yayın yapan TV kanallarını izlerim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
21. İngilizce şarkı dinlerim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
22. İngilizce yayın yapan radyo kanallarını dinlerim.	①	②	③	④	⑤
23. İngilizce şarkı sözlerini anlamaya gayret ederim.	①	②	③	④	⑤

E. SAMPLE ITEMS FROM THE LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY USE SCALE

Ölçeğin bu bölümünde **İngilizce öğrenirken kullandığınız çalışma stratejileriniz** sorgulanmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı "**kesinlikle katılmıyorum**", "**katılmıyorum**", "**ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**", "**katılıyorum**", "**kesinlikle katılıyorum**" şeklinde sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENİRKEN KULLANDIĞINIZ ÇALIŞMA STRATEJİLERİ NELERDİR?	**Kesinlikle katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle katılıyorum**
1. Kendime İngilizce dersi için çalışma planları hazırlarım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4. İngilizce dersinde düzenli bir şekilde not tutarım.	①	②	③	④	⑤
9. İngilizce çalışırken doğru konulara odaklandığımdan emin olurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10. İngilizce çalışırken doğru çalışma yöntemlerini kullandığımdan emin olurum.	①	②	③	④	⑤

F. SAMPLE ITEMS FROM THE TEACHING PRACTICES QUESTIONNAIRE

Ölçeğin bu bölümünde **İngilizce öğrenim sürecinizde okula katılımınızı artıracak öğretmen uygulamaları/davranışları** üzerinde durulmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı "**kesinlikle katılmıyorum**", "**katılmıyorum**", "**ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**", "**katılıyorum**", "**kesinlikle katılıyorum**" şeklinde sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENİM SÜRECİNİZDE SİZCE ÖĞRETMEN NE YAPMALIDIR?	**Kesinlikle katılmıyorum**	**Katılmıyorum**	**Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle katılıyorum**
2. Bizimle dersin hedeflerini paylaşmalı	①	②	③	④	⑤
7. İngilizce öğrenim sürecimize ilişkin yapıcı geri bildirimler vermeli	①	②	③	④	⑤
28. Bizi soru sormaya teşvik etmeli	①	②	③	④	⑤
30. İngilizce öğrenirken yaptığımız hataları düzeltirken cesaretlendirici bir dil kullanmalı	①	②	③	④	⑤

G. SAMPLE ITEMS FROM THE SCHOOL PRACTICES QUESTIONNAIRE

Ölçeğin bu bölümünde **İngilizce öğrenme ortamı** üzerinde durulmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı "**kesinlikle katılmıyorum**", "**katılmıyorum**", "**ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**", "**katılıyorum**", "**kesinlikle katılıyorum**" şeklinde sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	**Katılmıyorum**	**Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum**	**Katılıyorum**	**Kesinlikle katılıyorum**
İNGİLİZCE HAZIRLIK OKULUNDA ÖĞRENME ORTAMI NASIL DÜZENLENMELİDİR?					
1. Bütün duyurular ve yazılar (öğrenci işleri, kantin, servis vb.) İngilizce olarak yapılmalı	①	②	③	④	⑤
8. Öğrencilerin faydalanabileceği bir dil kütüphanesi olmalı	①	②	③	④	⑤
11. Hazırlık okuluna ait bir İngilizce sinema kulübü olmalı	①	②	③	④	⑤
18. Fakülte hocaları tarafından, "Kariyeriniz için İngilizce neden gereklidir?" konulu bir seminer düzenlenmeli	①	②	③	④	⑤

H. APPROVAL OF RESEARCH BY HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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S901-28620816/27

02 OCAK 2018

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof.Dr. Ahmet OK;

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız Şermin VARDAL OCAKLI'nın " **Okula Bağlılıkları (bilişsel ve duyuşsal) yüksek olan öğrenciler ile düşük olan öğrencilerin öğretmen ve okul uygulamaları beklentileri"** başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2017-EGT-215** protokol numarası ile **02.01.2018-30.12.2018** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN
Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL
Üye

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR
Üye

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI
Üye

Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK
Üye

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN
Üye

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK
Üye

I. INFORMED CONSENT FORM

ARAŞTIRMAYA GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Bu araştırma, ODTÜ Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü doktora öğrencisi Şermin VARDAL OCAKLI tarafından yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın Amacı Nedir?

Bu çalışma, öğrencilerin akademik başarıları ile onların okula katılımları (bilişsel ve duyuşsal) arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olup olmadığını tespit etmeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Bize Nasıl Yardımcı Olmanızı İsteyeceğiz?

Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz, sizden ölçekte yer alan bir dizi soruyu derecelendirme ölçeği üzerinde yanıtlamanız beklenecektir. Bu çalışmaya katılım ortalama olarak 15 dakika sürmektedir.

Sizden Topladığımız Bilgileri Nasıl Kullanacağız?

Araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Ölçekte, sizden kimlik veya kurum belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak, sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Katılımcılardan elde edilecek bilgiler toplu halde değerlendirilecek ve bilimsel yayınlarda kullanılacaktır. Sağladığınız veriler gönüllü katılım formlarında toplanan kimlik bilgileri ile eşleştirilmeyecektir.

Katılımınızla ilgili bilmeniz gerekenler:

Ölçek, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakmakta serbestsiniz. Böyle bir durumda ölçeği uygulayan kişiye iletip, çalışmayı tamamlamadığınızı söylemeniz yeterli olacaktır.

Araştırmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz:

Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Şermin VARDAL OCAKLI (E-posta: serminvo@gmail.com) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.

(Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

İsim Soyad Tarih İmza

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J. CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name, Last Name: Şermin VARDAL OCAKLI

Nationality: Turkish

Date of Birth: 29/11/1982

Place of Birth: Adana, TURKEY

Marital Status: Married

Current Place of Residence: Ankara

Cell Phone Number: + 90 505 4685171

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EDUCATION

2005 – 2008	Ankara University	Foreign Language Teaching (MA)
2000 – 2004	Ankara University	English Language and Literature
2001 – 2003	Anadolu University	Public Relations
1993 – 2000	Mersin Yusuf Kalkavan Anatolian High School	

OCCUPATIONAL EXPERIENCE

2008 – currently	Ankara University	Instructor
2005-2008	TOBB University	Instructor
2004-2005	Fatih Primary School	Teacher

K. TURKISH SUMMARY/ TÜRKÇE ÖZET

YABANCI DİL EĞİTİMİNDE ÖĞRENCİ KATILIMI:
BİR YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURUMUNDA
KOLAYLAŞTIRICI KİŞİSEL VE SOSYAL ETMENLER ÜZERİNE
ÇOKLU YÖNTEM ARAŞTIRMASI

Giriş

Öğrenci katılımı son yıllarda araştırmacılar tarafından oldukça ilgi görmüş bir kavramdır. Tanımı ve alt boyutları konusunda henüz genel bir ortak görüşe varılamamış olsa da çoğunlukla öğrencilerin okulla ilgili etkinliklere katılımı şeklinde yorumlanmakta (Appleton, Christenson, Kim, & Reschly, 2006) ve davranışsal, duyuşsal ve bilişsel katılım olarak üç alt bileşenden oluştuğu düşünülmektedir (Archambault, Janosz, Fallu, & Pagani, 2009; Fredericks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; Sharkey, Sukkyung, & Schnoebelen, 2008; Zaff ve diğerleri, 2011). Davranışsal katılım öğrencilerin derse ve sosyal gruplara olan etkin katılımı (Archambault ve diğerleri, 2009; Powell, Burchinal, File, & Kontos, 2008), duyuşsal boyut bireylerin öğretmenlerine, akranlarına, öğrenme sürecine ve okula karşı geliştirdikleri olumlu duygular (Eccles, Wigfield, Harold & Blumenfeld, 1993; Watt, 2004) ve bilişsel boyut ise öğrencilerin öğrenme etkinliklerine yaptıkları zihinsel yatırım şeklinde tanımlanmaktadır (Greene, 2015; Sedaghat, Adedin, Hejazi, & Hassanabadi, 2011).

1980lerden bugüne öğrenci katılımının öğrenme üzerindeki etkisini konu alan birçok çalışma yayımlanmış (örn., Appleton ve diğerleri, 2006; Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Finn, 1989; National Research Council & Institute of Medicine, 2004; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012) ve öğrenci katılımı ile okul başarısı arasındaki ilişkiye yönelik çeşitli kuramsal modeller geliştirilmiştir (Fredricks ve diğerleri, 2011). Alt boyutlar konusunda farklı yaklaşımlar ortaya atılmış olsa da çoğu model öğrenci katılımını üç

bileşenli bir kavram (davranışsal, duyuşsal, bilişsel) olarak ele almış (örn.,Fredericks ve diğerleri, 2004; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Svalberg, 2009) ve modeli öğrenci katılımının başarı ile bağlantılı olduğu varsayımı üzerine kurgulamıştır (örn., Appleton ve diğerleri, 2006; Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Finn, 1989; Martin, 2007; Skinner ve diğerleri, 2008; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012; Wang & Degol, 2014).

Öğrenci katılımı ile ilgili farklı alanlarda yürütülmüş olan akademik çalışmalar uygulamalı dilbilimdeki araştırmaların hızlanmasına yardımcı olmuştur. Dörnyei (2019), Ellis (2010), Norton (2008), Philp ve Duchesne (2016) ve Svalberg (2009) gibi araştırmacılar dil öğrencilerinin okula katılımlarına odaklanmış ve dil öğrenimi alanyazınının zenginleşmesine yardımcı olmuştur. Ancak ne yazık ki çalışmaların çoğu öğrenci katılımını ikinci dil edinimi başlığı altında ele almış ve dolayısıyla, Türkiye'nin de aralarında bulunduğu (Tarhan, 2015) birçok ülkede bu kavramın yabancı dil eğitimindeki rolüne ilişkin alanyazın yeterince zenginleştirilememiştir (Block, 2009; Taylor, Busse, Gagova, Marsden, & Roosken, 2013). Dahası, yürütülmüş olan çalışmalar çoğunlukla tek bir boyutu (Philp & Duchesne, 2016) ya da sadece öğrenci katılımının göstergelerini konu almıştır (Han & Hyland, 2015; Qiu & Yi Lo, 2017; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010). Katılım göstergelerine ilişkin elde edilmiş olan araştırma bulgularının yabancı dil öğretimindeki kolaylaştırıcı etmenleri tespit etmemize ne derece yardımcı olduğu bir soru işaretidir. Öğrenci katılımının kolaylaştırıcı etmenlerine, göstergelerine ve çıktılarına yüklenen anlam çalışmadan çalışmaya farklılık göstermekte ve bu belirsizlik araştırma bulgularının doğru bir şekilde yorumlanmasını zorlaştırmaktadır.

Tüm bu sebeplerden yola çıkarak, gerek kuramsal gerekse uygulama noktasında alanyazına katkıda bulunabilmek adına yabancı dil öğretiminde öğrenci katılımı konulu bir çalışma yürütülmesine karar verilmiştir. Daha önceden de bahsedildiği üzere, ilgili alanyazında farklı öğrenci katılım modelleri bulunmaktadır ancak bu çalışmada dil öğretimi dahil olmak üzere (örn., Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Zhang & Hyland, 2018) birçok alanda yaygın bir şekilde kabul görmüş olan Skinner ve Pitzer (2012) öğrenci katılım modeli kullanılmıştır. Araştırma, üniversite dil hazırlık

okulunda eğitim gören öğrencilerin dil başarılarına katkı sağlaması muhtemel kolaylaştırıcı kişisel ve sosyal etmenler ile sınırlandırılmıştır. Kişisel etmenler başlığı altında, öğrencilerin aidiyet duyguları, öz yeterlik duyguları ve dil öğrenim özerkliği ve dil öğrenimi strateji kullanımı ele alınmış ve bu etmenlerin onların dil yeterlik sınavında gösterdikleri başarıyı ne derece yordadığı incelenmiştir. Alanyazına paralel olarak, çalışma boyunca aidiyet duygusu duyuşsal katılımın kolaylaştırıcı etmeni, öz yeterlik, dil öğrenim özerkliği ve dil öğrenimi strateji kullanımı ise bilişsel katılımın kolaylaştırıcı etmeni olarak kabul edilmiştir. Dil yeterlik göstergesi olarak da öğrencilerin TOEFL ITP puanları kaydedilmiştir. Sosyal etmenler başlığı altında ise öğrencilerden onların okula katılımlarını artırması muhtemel öğretmen ve okul uygulamalarına yönelik görüş bildirmeleri istenmiştir.

Bu çalışmada kolaylaştırıcı etmenlere odaklanılmış olmasının en temel sebebi yabancı dil öğrenim ortamlarında görülmesi muhtemel olumsuz eğitim deneyimlerinin önüne geçebilmektir. Skinner ve Pitzer (2012)'in de belirttiği gibi, öğrenci katılımına gerekli önemi vermeyen eğitim kurumlarında okulu bırakan, dersten çekilen ya da öğrenmeye karşı direnç gösteren öğrenci sayısında artış görülme ihtimali çok daha yüksektir. Aynı durum dil öğrenimi gören öğrenciler için de geçerlidir ve bu tarz sonuçların oluşmaması için öğrenci katılımı kavramı yabancı dil öğretiminin temel başlıkları arasında yer almalıdır. Kolaylaştırıcı kişisel ve sosyal etmenler konusunda bilgilenildikçe olası olumsuz durumlara karşı önlem alınabileceği düşünülmektedir. Bu çalışmada öğrenci katılımı konusunda kolaylaştırıcı etmenlere odaklanılmış olunmasının bir diğer sebebi ise yabancı dil öğrenimi gören öğrencilere başarılı bir benlik dönüşümü için gerekli olan sağlıklı ortamı sunabilmektir. Bir dili kullanmak bilgi değişiminden öte bir kavramdır. Yeni bir dil öğrenmek demek yeni bir sosyal ortamda yeni bir kimlik edinimi anlamına gelmektedir. Dolayısıyla yabancı dil öğrenimi ortamlarını kolaylaştırıcı kişisel ve sosyal etmenlerin bilincinde olarak düzenlemek sağlıklı bir benlik dönüşümü için oldukça önemlidir.

Kolaylaştırıcı etmenler üzerine odaklanmış ve Skinner ve Pitzer (2012)'in kuramsal öngörülerinden ilham alınarak düzenlenmiş olan bu çalışmaya iki temel araştırma sorusu yön vermiştir:

1. Öğrencilerin üniversiteye kaydolduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısı ve öğrenci durumları (yeni ve tekrar öğrencileri) kontrol edildiğinde, öğrenci katılımını kolaylaştırıcı kişisel etmenler (aidiyet duygusu, öz yeterlik, dil öğrenim özerkliği, dil öğrenimi strateji kullanımı) onların TOEFL ITP sınavında gösterdikleri başarıyı (Dinleme-Anlama Bölümü, Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım Bölümü, Okuma-Anlama Bölümü) ne derece yordamaktadır?

2. Okula katılımı artırması muhtemel sosyal etmenlere (öğretmen ve okul uygulamaları) ilişkin öğrenci görüşleri nelerdir?

Çalışmanın Önemi

Her disiplin kendine has özelliklere sahiptir. Bu sebeple öğrenmeye ilişkin unsurlar disiplinden disipline farklılık göstermektedir (Greene, 2015). Bu çalışma öğrenci katılımı konusunu genel olarak değil yabancı dil öğretimi kapsamında ele almış ve ilgili alanyazına önemli bir katkıda bulunmuştur.

Araştırmayı önemli kılan bir diğer unsur ise öğrenci katılımını kolaylaştırıcı etmenlerin genel kullanım için geliştirilmiş ölçekler yerine dil alanına yönelik olan ölçekler ile incelenmiş olmasıdır. Bu konuya odaklanmış çalışmaların çoğunda öğrenci katılımını hangi disiplin olduğuna bakmaksızın genel bir bakış açısı ile değerlendirme eğilimi olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Bu araştırmada ise öğrenci katılımı tek bir alanda ve o alana has veri toplama araçları ile ele alınmıştır.

Çalışma bulgularının, (yabancı dil eğitimi veren) öğretmenleri, (yabancı dil) program geliştirme uzmanlarını ve (yabancı dil) öğretmen yetiştirme programlarını öğrenci

katılımını kolaylaştırıcı etmenler konusunda bilgilendirmesi açısından önem arz ettiği düşünülmektedir. Öncelikle, araştırma, öğretmenlerin öğrenci katılımını artırmadaki rolüne ilişkin bulgular sunmaktadır. Medley (1979)'in de belirttiği üzere etkili öğretmenler birçok yetkinliğe sahip kişilerdir ve öğrenci katılımına olanak sağlayan eğitim ortamları düzenleyebilmek bu yetkinliklerden bir tanesidir (Skinner ve Pitzer, 2012). Bu araştırmanın (yabancı dil eğitimi veren) öğretmenlerin öğrenci katılımına ilişkin farkındalıklarını artırmada önemli bir rol oynayacağı düşünülmektedir. Öğretmenlerin yanı sıra, bu çalışma program geliştirme uzmanlarına, özellikle yabancı dil programı üzerine çalışma yürüten kişilere, önemli bakış açıları sunması açısından önemdir. Öğrenci katılımı müfredat geliştirme sürecinde de dikkate alınması gereken bir konudur. Skinner ve Pitzer (2012)'in de söylediği gibi "öğrenci katılımı müfredat ve öğrenme arasındaki etken fiildir" (s. 23). Öğrenci katılımını ana başlıklar arasında tutan bir program daha iyi bir performans ve daha uzun soluklu bir öğrenmenin oluşmasına olanak sağlar. En önemlisi, öğrenci katılımı, öğretmen yetiştirme programlarında hassasiyet kazanması gereken bir konudur. Bu programlar hem rol model olmalı hem de öğretmen adaylarına bu yetkinlikleri aktarabilmelidir. Çalışmanın bulgularının bu aktarım sürecine ışık tutacağı düşünülmektedir.

Bu araştırmayı önemli kılan son unsur ise çalışmanın üniversite dil hazırlık okullarına yönelik öneriler sunmasıdır. Cleary, Walter ve Jackson (2011)'ın da belirttiği üzere liseden üniversiteye geçiş beraberinde yepyeni akademik ve sosyal zorlukları da getirmektedir. Türkiye'de üniversite dil hazırlık okullarında sunulan yabancı dil eğitimi bu geçiş dönemine denk gelmektedir. Bu bakımdan, bu eğitim ortamlarının öğrencilere olumlu öz benlik ve sağlıklı bir kimlik oluşturabilecek olanaklar sunması önemlidir ve bu çalışmanın bu konuda yön gösterici olacağı düşünülmektedir.

Özetle, bu çalışma öğrenci katılımını kolaylaştırıcı etmenleri yabancı dil öğretimi alanında inceleyen nadir araştırmalardan biridir. Dolayısıyla çalışma hâlihazırdaki alanyazına hem kuramsal hem de uygulama noktasında önemli katkılarda

bulunmaktadır.

Yöntem

Araştırma Deseni

Bu nicel çalışmada, nicel-nitel ayrımı yapmaksızın iki ve daha fazla araştırma yöntemini kullanmaya olanak sağlayan çoklu eşzamanlı araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır (Hunter & Brewer, 2015). Veriler eşzamanlı olarak toplanmış ancak farklı analiz sürecine tabii tutulmuştur. Yabancı dil eğitiminde öğrenci katılımını kolaylaştırıcı kişisel etmenler ile ilgili bölümde ilişkisel metot, sosyal etmenler bölümünde ise betimsel tarama metodu kullanılmıştır.

Evren ve Örneklem

Çalışmanın ulaşılabilir evrenini TOBB Üniversitesi İngilizce Hazırlık Bölümünde okuyan öğrenciler oluşturmuştur. Bazı sınırlılıklardan ötürü, katılımcı seçimi kolay ulaşılabilir örnekleme yöntemi kullanılarak yapılmıştır. Bu sınırlılıkların ilki, çalışma için geçerli ve güvenilir bir İngilizce yeterlik sınavına ihtiyaç duyulmuş olmasıdır. Türkiye'deki hazırlık okullarında kullanılan sınavlar incelenmiş ancak bu sınavların güvenirlik-geçerlik raporu oluşturmadıkları tespit edilmiştir. Ancak TOBB ETU Hazırlık Okulu tüm dünyada kabul gören TOEFL ITP sınavını kullanmaktadır. Bu sebeple, çalışma farklı üniversiteler ile yürütülememiş, TOBB ETU Hazırlık Okulu ile sınırlandırılmıştır. Bir diğer sebep ise veri toplama sürecinin sağlıklı ve güvenilir bir şekilde yürütülmek istenmesidir. Araştırmacının çalışmanın yürütüldüğü hazırlık okuluna aşina oluşu ve yöneticileriyle iletişim halinde olması bir avantaj olarak kabul edilmiş ve araştırmanın güvenilirliği için çalışmanın TOBB ETU Hazırlık Okulunda yürütülmesine karar verilmiştir.

Bu okulda eğitim gören öğrenciler arasından seçilen 165 katılımcı örneklem grubu olarak belirlenmiştir. Grubun % 57'sini kız ve % 43'ünü erkek öğrenciler oluşturmuştur. Katılımcıların yaşları 18 ile 25 arasında değişkenlik göstermiş ve % 57,6'sının özel okul mezunu olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Kayıtlı oldukları bölümler söz konusu olduğunda ise, katılımcıların çoğunluğunun Mühendislik Fakültesi (% 34,5), İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi (% 24,8) ve Mimarlık ve Tasarım Fakültesi (% 15,8) öğrencileri oldukları gözlemlenmiştir.

TOBB ETU hazırlık okulunda öğrenim gören öğrencilerin bölüme geçebilmeleri için yeterlik sınavından 500 ve üzeri puan almaları gerekmektedir. Bu puan barajının altında kalan öğrenciler AF, A, B, C ve D kurlarına, kur tekrarı yapan öğrenciler ise AR, BR ya da CR şeklinde adlandırılan sınıflara yerleştirilmektedir. Bu çalışmaya, çoğunluğu C seviyesi öğrencisi olmak üzere (% 69,7), BR, CR ve D grubu öğrencileri de katılmıştır. Kayıt yılları incelendiğinde ise öğrencilerin % 72,1'inin yeni kayıtlı öğrenci olduğu (2017 yılında kayıt yaptıran öğrenciler), % 27,9'unun ise tekrar öğrencisi olduğu (2016 yılında kayıt yaptıran öğrenciler) tespit edilmiştir. Tüm bu bilgilerin yanı sıra, araştırma için önemli bir değişken olduğu düşünüldüğünden öğrencilerin üniversiteye kayıt olduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısı belirlenmiş ve bu bilgiler ışığında, % 46,1'inin üç kez, % 41,2'sinin iki kez, % 7,9'unun dört kez ve % 4,8'inin beş kez sınava girdiği tespit edilmiştir.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Çalışmada bir demografik bilgi formu ve altı farklı veri toplama aracı kullanılmıştır. İlk araştırma sorusu için gerekli olan veri dört ölçek ile toplanmıştır: a) Üniversite Aidiyet Ölçeği, b) İngilizce Öz yeterlik Ölçeği, c) Dil Öğrenimi Özerkliği Ölçeği, d) Dil Öğrenimi Strateji Kullanımı Ölçeği. İkinci araştırma sorusu için gerekli olan veri ise iki ayrı anket ile toplanmıştır: a) Öğretmen Uygulamaları Anketi, b) Okul Uygulamaları Anketi. Strateji kullanımı ile ilgili ölçek ve ikinci araştırma sorusuna yönelik olan anketler gerekli literatür taraması yapılarak ve uzman görüşü alınarak

bu çalışma özelinde geliştirilmiştir. Öğrencilerin İngilizce yeterlik düzeyinin göstergesi olarak da TOEFL ITP sınav sonuçları kaydedilmiştir.

Tüm veri toplama araçlarının 420 öğrenci ile pilot çalışması yapılmış ve sonuçlar açımlayıcı faktör analizine tabii tutulmuştur. Faktör analizi sonuçlarına göre, aidiyet ölçeğinin iki faktörden (algılanan pedagojik ilgi ve okul ile özdeşleşme), öz yeterlik ölçeğinin iki faktörden (alımlayıcı becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusu ve üretici becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusu), özerklik ölçeğinin üç faktörden (dil öğrenimi sürecinin sorumluluğunu almak, dili gerçek yaşamla ilişkilendirmek ve okul dışı dil öğrenimi etkinliklerine katılmak), strateji kullanımı ölçeğinin üç faktörden (dil öğrenme sürecini planlamak ve organize etmek, dil öğrenim sürecini denetlemek ve yeni edinilen bilgiyi genişletmek), öğretmen uygulamaları anketinin iki faktörden (pedagojik ilgi ve düzen sağlama) ve okul uygulamaları anketinin dört faktörden (müfredat dışı etkinlikler düzenleme – kulüpler, müfredat dışı etkinlikler düzenleme – seminerler, farkında olmadan öğrenme fırsatları yaratma, dil öğrenme kaynağı merkezleri oluşturma) oluştuğu gözlemlenmiştir.

Veri Toplama Süreci

Veri toplama öncesinde bütün araçlar METU Etik Kuruluna sunulmuştur ve alınan onay ardından TOBB ETU yönetimi ile iletişime geçilmiştir. Yönetimin bilgisi dahilinde program geliştirme birimi koordinatörü tarafından öğretim görevlilerine bilgilendirme maili gönderilmiştir. Bu mailde veri toplama sürecinin iki farklı oturumda gerçekleşeceği, her oturumun yaklaşık 20 dakika süreceği ve ilk oturumda olmayan öğrencilerin ikinci oturumda yer alamayacağı belirtilmiştir.

Öğrencilerin verdiği yanıtlar ile TOEFL ITP sonuçlarının eşleştirilebilmesi için her öğrenciye bir numara verilmiş ve aynı şekilde ölçekler de numaralandırılmıştır. Öğretim görevlileri bu numaralandırma sistemi hakkında bilgilendirilmiş ve öğrenci ile anket numarasının aynı olması gerektiği konusunda uyarılmıştır. Uygulama 2017-

2018 akademik yılı güz döneminde gerçekleştirilmiş ve eşzamanlı olarak BR, C, CR ve D seviyesindeki öğrenciler ile toplamda 13 sınıfta yürütülmüştür. Öğrencilere bilgilendirilmiş onay formu ve ardından veri toplama araçları dağıtılmıştır. Yanıtlama süreci tamamlandığında tüm dökümanlar öğretim görevlileri tarafından program geliştirme ofisine iletilmiştir. Elde edilen yanıtlar araştırmacı tarafından derlenmiş, TOEFL ITP sonuçları ile eşleştirilmiş ve analize hazır hale getirilmiştir.

Verilerin Analizi

Daha önceden de belirtildiği üzere bu araştırmada iki farklı araştırma metodu kullanılmış ve bu durum iki farklı veri analizini zorunlu hale getirmiştir. Çalışmanın ilişkisel metot gerektiren bölümünde analiz yöntemi olarak hiyerarşik regresyon yöntemi tercih edilmiş ve alfa değeri .05 olarak alınmıştır. Bu bölüme ait veriler dört ölçek ile toplanmış ve PASW 18 programına işlenmiştir. Analiz öncesi örneklem sayısının analiz için yeterli olup olmadığı N>50 + 8k yöntemi ile incelenmiş (Green, 1991) ve katılımcı sayısının yeterli olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ardından veriler gerekli olan varsayımlar açısından incelenip asıl analize geçilmiştir. Çalışmanın betimsel tarama metodu gerektiren bölümüne ait veriler ise betimsel veri çözümleme yöntemi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Bulgular

Araştırma Sorularına İlişkin Bulgular

Çalışmada bulgular bölümü araştırma sorularına paralel olarak iki ana başlık altında sunulmuştur. Öncelikle katılımı kolaylaştırıcı kişisel etmenlerin (duyuşsal ve bilişsel) öğrencilerin TOEFL ITP sınavında gösterdikleri başarıyı yordamasına ilişkin sonuçlar yorumlanmış, ardından katılımı kolaylaştırıcı sosyal etmenlere ilişkin sonuçlar üzerinde durulmuştur.

Duyuşsal Katılımı Kolaylaştırıcı Kişisel Etmenler ile İngilizce Dil Yeterliği Arasındaki İlişki

Duyuşsal katılımı kolaylaştıran kişisel etmen olarak kabul edilen aidiyet duygusunun öğrencilerin TOEFL ITP puanını (Dinleme-Anlama, Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım, Okuma-Anlama) ne derece yordadığını anlayabilmek için bir dizi hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Modele ilk olarak öğrencilerin üniversiteye kaydolduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısı ve öğrenci durumları (yeni kayıtlı veya tekrar öğrencisi) girilmiş ve kontrol edilmiştir. İkinci aşamada ise modele öğrencilerin aidiyet duygularına ait değişkenler (algılanan pedagojik ilgi ve okul ile özdeşleşme) eklenmiştir.

İlk hiyerarşik analiz TOEFL ITP sınavının Dinleme-Anlama bölümü için uygulanmıştır. Modelin ilk basamağında yer alan değişkenler (öğrencilerin üniversiteye kaydolduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısı ve öğrenci durumu) istatistiksel olarak önemli bir şekilde öğrencilerin dinleme-anlama puanlarını yordamıştır ve toplam varyansın % 41'ini açıklamıştır, $R^2 = .41$, $\Delta F = 56.52$, $p<.05$. Değişkenler bireysel olarak ele alındığında, öğrencilerin üniversiteye kaydolduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısının varyansın % 4'ünü ve öğrenci durumu değişkeninin % 40'ını yordadığı tespit edilmiştir. Ancak ikinci modelde yer alan aidiyet duygusuna ilişkin değişkenlerin öğrencilerin dinleme-anlama puanlarına katkıda bulunmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır.

İkinci hiyeraşik analiz TOEFL ITP sınavının Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım bölümü için uygulanmıştır. Her iki model de öğrencilerin bu bölüme ilişkin puanlarına katkıda bulunmuştur. İlk modelde yer alan değişkenler (öğrencilerin üniversiteye kaydolduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısı ve öğrenci durumu) toplam varyansın % 6'sını açıklamıştır, $R^2 = .06$, $\Delta F = 5.41$, $p<.05$. Öğrencilerin üniversiteye kaydolduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısının varyansın % 5'ini ve öğrenci durumları değişkeninin % 4'ünü yordadığı tespit edilmiştir. Bu iki

değişken kontrol edildiğinde, aidiyet duygusu ile öğrenci puanları arasında önemli ve pozitif bir ilişki olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Sonuçlar aidiyet duygusunun öğrencilerin Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım bölümüne ait başarılarına % 5 varyans ile katkıda bulunduğuna işaret etmiştir, $R^2 = .11$, $\Delta F = 4.18$, $p<.05$. Alt değişkenler bireysel olarak incelendiğinde ise, okul ile özdeşleşme değişkeninin öğrenci puanını yordamadığı ancak algılanan pedagojik ilgi ile öğrencilerin Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım bölümünde gösterdikleri performans arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bu değişkenin tek başına % 3 varyans katkısı olduğu bulgusuna ulaşılmıştır.

Üçüncü hiyerarşik analiz ise Okuma-Anlama bölümü için uygulanmıştır. İlk modelin altında yer alan değişkenler birlikte ele alındıklarında (öğrencilerin üniversiteye kaydolduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısı ve öğrenci durumu) öğrencilerin okuma-anlama puanlarına istatistiksel olarak katkıda bulunmuşlardır, $R^2 = .22$, $\Delta F = 23.21$, $p<.05$. Ancak bireysel olarak bakıldığında, TOEFL ITP sınav sayısına ilişkin değişkenin öğrenci başarısını yordamadığı gözlemlenmiştir. Öğrenci durumunun ise % 20 oranında varyans katkısında bulunduğu tespit edilmiştir. İkinci modelin altında yer alan aidiyet duygusuna ait değişkenlerin ise okuma-anlama puanlarına katkıda bulunmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır.

Bilişsel Katılımı Kolaylaştırıcı Kişisel Etmenler ile İngilizce Dil Yeterliği Arasındaki İlişki

Bilişsel katılımı kolaylaştıran kişisel etmenler olarak kabul edilen öz yeterlik duygusu, dil öğrenimi özerkliği ve dil öğrenim stratejisi kullanımının TOEFL ITP puanını (Dinleme-Anlama, Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım, Okuma-Anlama) ne derece yordadığını tespit edebilmek için üç ayrı hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. İlk araştırma sorusunda olduğu gibi, tüm analizlerde öğrencilerin üniversiteye kaydolduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısı ve öğrenci durumu (yeni kayıtlı veya tekrar öğrencisi) değişkenleri kontrol edilmiştir. Ardından öz yeterlik

duygusu değişkenleri, dil öğrenimi özerkliği değişkenleri ve dil öğrenim stratejisi kullanımı değişkenleri hiyerarşik bir şekilde analize eklenmiştir.

İlk analiz bilişsel katılımı kolaylaştıran kişisel etmenler ile öğrencilerin Dinleme-Anlama bölümüne ait başarıları arasındaki ilişkiyi irdelemiştir. İlk modeldeki değişkenler kontrol edilmiş ve ikinci model olarak analize öz yeterlik değişkenleri (alımlayıcı becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusu ve üretici becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusu) eklenmiştir. Bu modelin altında yer alan değişkenlerin öğrenci puanı üzerinde % 4 varyans katkısı olduğu tespit edilmiştir, $R^2 = .45$, $\Delta F = 6.32$, $p<.05$. Ancak alt kategoriler arasından sadece alımlayıcı becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusunun bağımlı değişkeni yordadığı ve % 3 oranında bir varyans katkısı bulunduğu tespit edilmiştir. İlk iki modeldeki değişkenler kontrol edildikten sonra, üçüncü aşamada analize dil öğrenimi özerkliği değişkenleri (dil öğrenimi sürecinin sorumluluğunu almak, dili gerçek yaşamla ilişkilendirmek ve okul dışı dil öğrenimi etkinliklerine katılmak) eklenmiştir. Ancak sonuçlar incelendiğinde, bu değişkenin öğrenci puanını yordamadığı gözlemlenmiştir. Son olarak analize dil öğrenimi strateji kullanımı değişkenleri (dil öğrenme sürecini planlamak ve organize etmek, dil öğrenim sürecini denetlemek ve yeni edinilen bilgiyi genişletmek) eklenmiştir ve özerklik gibi strateji kullanımının da öğrencilerin dinleme-anlama başarılarını yordamadığı tespit edilmiştir.

İkinci analiz bilişsel katılımı kolaylaştıran kişisel etmenlerin öğrencilerin Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım bölümüne ait başarılarını yordayıp yordamadığını incelemiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre, sadece ilk ve ikinci model altındaki değişkenlerin öğrenci puanlarına katkıda bulunduğu tespit edilmiştir. İkinci model altında yer alan öz yeterlik değişkenlerinin (alımlayıcı becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusu ve üretici becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusu) toplam varyansın % 5'ini yordadığı gözlemlenmiştir, $R^2 = .11$, $\Delta F = 3.86$, $p<.05$. Ancak sadece üretici becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusu değişkeninin öğrenci başarısına katkıda bulunduğu tespit edilmiş ve % 4 oranında bir varyansı açıkladığı görülmüştür. Analiz sonuçları üçüncü ve dördüncü modelde yer alan özerklik ve strateji kullanımına yönelik olan

değişkenlerin öğrencilerin Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım bölümüne ait puanlarında herhangi bir değişikliğe yol açmadığını göstermiştir.

Üçüncü hiyerarşik analiz ise Okuma-Anlama bölümü için uygulanmıştır. İlk modeldeki değişkenler kontrol edildiğinde, ikinci (öz yeterlik duygusu) ve üçüncü model (dil öğrenimi özerkliği) altında yer alan değişkenlerin öğrenci başarısını yordamadığı görülmüştür. Son aşamada ise analize dil öğrenimi strateji kullanımı değişkenleri (dil öğrenme sürecini planlamak ve organize etmek, dil öğrenim sürecini denetlemek ve yeni edinilen bilgiyi genişletmek) eklenmiştir. Bu değişkenlerin öğrencilerin okuma-anlama puanlarına % 4 oranında katkıda bulunduğu gözlemlenmiştir, $R^2 = .29$, $\Delta F = 3.16$, $p<.05$. Alt kategoriler incelendiğinde, dil öğrenme sürecini planlamaya ve organize etmeye yönelik olan değişkenin öğrenci başarısını yordamadığı tespit edilmiştir. Dil öğrenim sürecini denetlemeye ilişkin değişkenin ise % 3 varyansı açıkladığı ve öğrenci başarısı ile istatistiksel olarak pozitif bir ilişkide olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Yeni edinilen bilgiyi genişletmeye ilişkin değişkenin ise % 2 oranında varyans katkısı sağladığı ancak bağımlı değişken ile negatif bir ilişkide olduğu gözlemlenmiştir.

İngilizce Öğrenen Öğrencilerin Öğretmen Uygulamalarına İlişkin Beklentileri

Çalışmanın bu bölümünde kolaylaştırıcı sosyal etmenler başlığı altında ele alınmak üzere öğrencilerden katılımlarını artırması muhtemel öğretmen uygulamaları ile ilgili fikirlerini belirtmeleri istenmiştir. Uygulanan anket sonuçlarına göre, öğrencilerin düzen sağlama değişkenine ilişkin maddelere verdikleri yanıtların 4.18 ile 4.45 değer aralığında olduğu ve bütün olarak ele alındığında ise ‘tamamen katılıyorum’ seçeneği etrafında kümelendiği gözlemlenmiştir. En yüksek ortalamaya sahip maddeler incelendiğinde, öğrencilerin İngilizce çalışırken faydalanabilecekleri ilave kaynaklar öneren (*Ort.*=4.45, *SS*=.68), derste öğretim teknolojilerinden faydalanan (*Ort.*=4.41, *SS*=.76) ve İngilizce öğrenim sürecine ilişkin öğrencilere yapıcı geri bildirimler veren (*Ort.*=4.42, *SS*=.69) öğretmenlere ihtiyaç duydukları tespit edilmiştir. Diğer

maddelere oranla, derse hazırlıklı gelinmesi (*Ort.*=4.22, *SS*=.94), öğrencilerle dersin hedeflerinin paylaşılması (*Ort.*=4.22, *SS*=.84) ve bir konuyu gerçek yaşamdan örneklerle destekleyerek anlatmaya (*Ort.*=4.18, *SS*=.86) ilişkin öğretmen uygulamalarının daha düşük ortalamaya sahip olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Diğer bir öğretmen uygulamaları alt başlığı olan pedagojik ilgi ile ilgili öğrenci yanıtları incelendiğinde ise değerlerin 4.15 ve 4.65 arasında değişkenlik gösterdiği ve bir madde dışında öğrenci görüşlerinin 'tamamen katılıyorum' yönünde olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Öğrencilerin onları etkin bir şekilde dinleyen (*Ort.*=4.61, *SS*=.63), sevgi ve saygıya dayalı bir öğrenme ortamı oluşturan (*Ort.*=4.60, *SS*=.67) ve iletişime açık (*Ort.*=4.65, *SS*=.59) öğretmenlere ihtiyaç duydukları gözlemlenmiştir. Diğer maddelere oranla, başarıyı takdir etmek (*Ort.*=4.27, *SS*=.93), okula bağlılığı artırmaya çalışmak (*Ort.*=4.15, *SS*=1.00), soru sormaya teşvik etmek (*Ort.*=4.27, *SS*=.88) ve ders dışında da iletişim kurmak (*Ort.*=4.27, *SS*=.92) daha düşük ortalamaya sahip olan uygulamalar olarak ortaya çıkmıştır.

İngilizce Öğrenen Öğrencilerin Okul Uygulamalarına İlişkin Beklentileri

Bu araştırmada öğretmen uygulamalarının yanı sıra, kolaylaştırıcı sosyal etmenler başlığı altında okul uygulamaları da ele alınmıştır. Öğrencilere bu uygulamalar ile ilgili anket dağıtılmış ve fikirlerini belirtmeleri istenmiştir.

Okul uygulamaları anketi dört bölümden (farkında olmadan öğrenme fırsatları yaratma, dil öğrenme kaynakları merkezi oluşturma, müfredat dışı etkinlikler düzenleme – kulüpler, müfredat dışı etkinlikler düzenleme – seminerler) oluşmuştur. Farkında olmadan öğrenme fırsatları yaratma başlığı altında sunulan maddelere verilen yanıtlar incelendiğinde, değerlerin 3.21 (kararsızım) ve 4.21 (tamamen katılıyorum) aralığında olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Elde edilen sonuçlar, okul duvarlarına İngilizceye maruz bırakacak poster, gazete vb yazılar asılmasına ilişkin uygulamanın en yüksek ortalamaya sahip olduğunu göstermiştir (*Ort.*=4.21, *SS*=.93).

En düşük ortalama ise bütün duyuruların ve yazıların (öğrenci işleri, kantin, servis vb.) İngilizce yapılması ile ilgili olan uygulama için hesaplanmıştır (*Ort.*=3.21, *SS*=1.34).

Anketin ikinci bölümünde öğrencilere dil öğrenme kaynakları merkezi oluşturmanın okula katılımlarını olumlu yönde etkileyip etkilemeyeceği sorulmuştur. Verilen yanıtların tümü 'tamamen katılıyorum' yönünde olmuş ve ortalamalar 4.25 ve 4.47 arasında değişiklik göstermiştir. Bu değerler arasında en yüksek ortalamaya sahip uygulama İngilizce öğrenimine katkı sağlayabilecek kaynak isimlerinin web sitesinde paylaşılması olarak tespit edilmiştir (*Ort.*=4.47, *SS*=.68).

Üçüncü bölümde öğrencilere müfredat dışı uygulamalar (kulüpler) ile ilgili maddeler sunulmuş ve fikirlerini belirtmeleri istenmiştir. Verilen yanıtlar incelenmiş ve ortalama değerlerin 3.89 (katılıyorum) ve 4.30 (tamamen katılıyorum) arasında değişiklik gösterdiği gözlemlenmiştir. En yüksek ortalamaya sahip olan uygulamanın İngilizce sinema kulübü (*Ort.*=4.30, *SS*=.87) olduğu, en düşük ortalamaya sahip uygulamanın ise İngiliz/Amerikan kültürü kulübü (*Ort.*=3.89, *SS*=1.15) olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Son bölümde bir diğer müfredat dışı etkinlik olan seminer uygulamalarına yönelik görüşler toplanmıştır. Ortalamaların 3.75 ve 4.18 aralığında olduğu gözlemlenmiş, dolayısıyla öğrenci yanıtlarının 'katılıyorum' yönünde olduğu görülmüştür. Fakülte hocaları tarafından "Kariyeriniz için İngilizce neden gereklidir?" konulu seminer etkinliği en yüksek ortalamaya sahipken (*Ort.*=4.18, *SD*=1.02), en düşük ortalama "İngilizce neden önemli?" konulu seminer etkinliği için hesaplanmıştır (*Ort.*=3.75, *SS*=1.26).

Tartışma ve Öneriler

Skinner ve Pitzer (2012) öğrenci katılımına yönelik kuramsal bir model geliştirmiş ve bu modelde kişisel ve sosyal kolaylaştırıcı etmenlere yer vermiştir. Araştırmacıların bu model aracılığıyla ilettikleri kuramsal varsayımlar bu çalışmaya ve dolayısıyla iki temel araştırma sorusunun oluşmasına ilham olmuştur. Daha önce de belirtildiği üzere, araştırmanın ilk amacı öğrenci katılımını kolaylaştırıcı kişisel etmenlerin TOBB ETU hazırlık okulunda okuyan öğrencilerin TOEFL ITP sınavında gösterdikleri başarıyı ne derece yordadığını incelemektir. Bu araştırma sorusuna yanıt bulabilmek için bir dizi hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmış ve tüm analizlerde ilk olarak öğrencilerin üniversiteye kaydolduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısı ve öğrenci durumu (yeni kayıtlı veya tekrar öğrencisi) değişkenleri kontrol edilmiştir. Bu değişkenler analize birlikte eklendiklerinde TOEFL ITP'de yer alan bölümlerin tümünde öğrenci başarısını yordadıkları tespit edilmiş ve dolayısıyla bu değişkenlerin karıştırıcı etkileri doğrulanmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre, TOEFL ITP sınav sayısı değişkeni bireysel olarak öğrencilerin Dinleme-Anlama ve Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım bölümünde gösterdikleri başarıya katkıda bulunmakta ancak Okuma-Anlama bölümüne ait puanda herhangi bir değişikliğe sebep olmamaktadır. Sınav deneyiminin iki bölüme ait sınav sonuçlarını yordaması akla muhtemel bir sınav etkisini getirmektedir. Schweigert (1994)'in de belirttiği üzere bireyler standart testleri birden fazla deneyimlediklerinde test puanları artabilmektedir.

Bu çalışmadan elde edilen sonuç da benzer bir duruma işaret etmektedir ve bu bilgiler ışığında birtakım önerilerde bulunulmuştur. İlk olarak, sınav deneyimi ve başarı arasındaki ilişkinin avantaja dönüştürebileceği düşünülmektedir. Öğrencilere yıl boyunca benzer testler eğitim materyali olarak verilerek onların sınava olan aşinalıkları artırılabilir. Deneyim arttıkça sınav kaygısı azalabilir ve öğrenci kendisini daha motive hissedebilir. Sınav deneyiminin Okuma-Anlama başarısına katkıda bulunmamış olmasının TOEFL ITP sınavında sunulan okuma parçalarının uzunluğu ve bu bölüm için ayrılan sürenin kısalığı ile ilgili olması muhtemeldir. Bu bölümün zorlayıcı yapısının öğrencilerde kaygıya neden olmuş ve sınav deneyiminin

başarı üzerindeki etkisini kısıtlamış olabileceği düşünülmektedir. Benzer alıştırmalar yapmak ve sınav deneyimini artırmak bu tarz problemlerin azalmasına da yardımcı olabilir.

Diğer bir değişken olan öğrenci durumunun ise bütün puan türleriyle ilişkili olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Yeni kayıt olan öğrenciler tüm bölümlerde daha yüksek bir başarı sergilemişlerdir. Bu öğrencilerin motivasyon düzeyi onların başarılarına katkıda bulunmuş olabilir. Ya da bu başarının altında yatan sebepler kısmen öğrencilerin eğitim geçmişi ve yurtdışı deneyimleri incelenerek tespit edilebilir. Aynı kurumda tez çalışması yürütmüş olan Açıkel (2011), bu değişkenlerin TOEFL ITP başarısına katkıda bulunduklarını keşfetmiştir ve bu çalışmada da aynı yönde bir ilişki olma ihtimalinden söz edilebilir. Tekrar öğrencilerinin daha düşük bir performans göstermesi ise onların yeni kayıt öğrenciler ile aynı sınıfta eğitim görmesi ve bu durumun onların benlik inançlarını zedeleme ihtimali ile açıklanabilmektedir. Dikkate değer bir başka olasılık ise, bu öğrencilerin iki yıl boyunca aynı materyal ve programa maruz kalmalarının motivasyon düşüklüğüne yol açmış olabileceğidir. Ya da bu durumun sadece dil öğrenmeye karşı geliştirilmiş olan dirençten, derslere düzenli katılmamaktan ve/veya dersin gerektirdiklerini yerine getirmemekten kaynaklandığı düşünülmektedir.

Farklı sebeplerden kaynaklanmış olsa da öğrenci durumu değişkeninin başarıyı yordadığı aşikârdır. Bu nedenle uygulanan program için birtakım önerilerde bulunulmuştur. Öncelikle tekrar grubu öğrencileri için programda iyileştirmeler yapılmalıdır. Detaylı bir ihtiyaç analizi ile onların akademik ve psikolojik ihtiyaçları yeniden değerlendirilmelidir. Gerekli görülürse onlara sebat etme, motivasyon ve katılım konusunda destek sağlanmalıdır. Ayrıca onların eski öğrencilerle aynı ortamda eğitim görmeleri konusu gözden geçirilmelidir. En önemlisi öğretmenlere tekrar öğrencilere olan yaklaşım ve destek temalı eğitimler verilmelidir. Bu öğrencilere akademik deneyimleri ne olursa olsun hala o topluluğa ait oldukları hissettirilmelidir.

Araştırmanın bir diğer bulgusu, aidiyet duygusunun öğrencilerin Dinleme-Anlama ve Okuma-Anlama bölümüne ilişkin başarılarını yordamamasıdır. Bu durum TOBB ETU'de hazırlık okulunun üniversite eğitiminin bir parçası olarak algılanmama ihtimali ile açıklanabilir. Öğrenciler tarafından hazırlıkta ve bölümde alınan eğitim bağımsız olarak algılanmış ve bu sebeple öğrenciler hazırlık okuluna karşı aidiyet duygusu geliştirmemiş olabilir. Bir başka olasılık ise çeşitli araştırmacıların da belirttiği üzere (örn., Lam, Chen, Zhang, & Liang, 2015; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009: Ryan & Deci, 2000), aidiyet duygusu ve başarı arasında farklı değişkenler olabilir. Motivasyon bu olası değişkenlerden bir tanesidir (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000). TOBB ETU'de eğitim dili Türkçedir ve bu durumun dil öğrenme motivasyonunu negatif etkilemiş olma ihtimali yüksektir. Bundan farklı olarak, Wang ve Eccles (2011)'in yürüttükleri çalışma sonuçlarında da görüldüğü üzere aidiyet duygusunun aktif katılım olmadığı ve dersin gerekliliklerinin yerine getirilmediği durumlarda fayda sağlamıyor olması olasılıklar arasındadır.

Bir diğer bulgu ise aidiyet duygusunun, özellikle algılanan pedagojik ilgi değişkeninin, öğrencilerin Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım puanına olan katkısıdır. Bu durum TOBB ETU'de çalışan öğretim görevlilerinin eğitimsel davranışları ile açıklanabilir. Sınıflarda okuma ya da dinleme becerilerine nazaran alt beceriler (dilbilgisi ve kelime bilgisi) daha çok vurgulanıyor ise alt becerilere odaklanıldığında öğretmen-öğrenci etkileşiminin artma olasılığı yüksektir. Bu etkileşimdeki artış öğrencilerin aidiyet duygusunu ve ardından da başarılarını olumlu yönde etkilemiş olabilir. Ya da bu durum alt becerilerin doğası ile açıklanabilmektedir. Beceri öğretiminde dilbilgisi ve kelime bilgisi önemli bir yer tutmaktadır ve dolayısıyla dört beceride de öğrenciler ve öğretmenler bir şekilde alt becerilere de odaklanmak durumundadırlar. Bu da etkileşimi ve geribildirim sayısını artırmaktadır. Bunun sonucunda öğrencinin kendini ilgilenilmiş ve okula daha ait hissetmiş olma ihtimali yüksektir. Bu sebeple öğretmenlerin öğrencilerin aidiyet duygularını besleyecek öğrenme ortamları oluşturmaları ve öğrenci-öğretmen etkileşimini artırmaları önerilmektedir.

Bir başka olasılık ise öz yeterlik duygusu ile ilgilidir. Çalışmanın bir başka bulgusu öz yeterlik duygusunun Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım puanına olan katkısıdır. Kendisini dilbilgisi ve kelime konusunda yeterli hisseden öğrenci bu bölümde daha yüksek başarı sergilemiştir. Dolayısıyla aidiyet duygusu ve bu bölümde gösterilen başarı arasındaki ilişki öz yeterlik duygusunun olumlu katkısına atfedilebilir.

Duyuşsal katılımı kolaylaştırıcı kişisel etmenlerin yanı sıra çalışmada bilişsel etmenlerin TOEFL ITP puanlarını yordama gücü de sorgulanmıştır. Öğrencilerin üniversiteye kaydolduktan sonra girdikleri TOEFL ITP sınav sayısı ve öğrenci durumu (yeni kayıtlı veya tekrar öğrencisi) değişkenleri kontrol edildikten sonra analize sırasıyla öz yeterlik duygusu değişkenleri, dil öğrenimi özerkliği değişkenleri ve dil öğrenim stratejisi kullanımı değişkenleri eklenmiştir ve her bir sınav bölümü için işlem tekrarlanmıştır. Elde edilen bulgulara göre, öz yeterlik duygusu öğrencilerin Dinleme-Anlama ve Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım puanlarını yordamış ancak Okuma-Anlama başarılarını yordamamıştır. Her bir alt değişken bireysel olarak ele alındığında ise, alımlayıcı becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusunun öğrencilerin dinleme bölümünde gösterdikleri başarıya, üretici becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusunun Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım bölümü puanına katkıda bulunduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Dinleme becerisi ve öz yeterlik duygusu arasındaki ilişki başka çalışmalarda da gözlemlenmiştir (örn., Chen, 2007; Rahimi ve Abedini, 2009; Tabrizi ve Saeidi, 2015; Todaka, 2017). Bu pozitif ilişkiye rağmen, alt değişkenler söz konusu olduğunda üretici becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusunun Dinleme-Anlama puanına katkıda bulunmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır ve bu durum farklı şekillerde açıklanabilmektedir. İlk olarak, daha önceden de belirtildiği üzere, Açıkel (2011) aynı okulda araştırma yürütmüş ve öz yeterlik duygusunu aynı ölçekle ölçmeyi hedeflemiştir. Araştırmacının çalışmasında bağımlı değişken bölüm puanları değil TOEFL ITP total puanı olarak alınmıştır. Sonuçlara bakıldığında bu alt değişkenin sınav puanını yordamadığı görülmektedir. Araştırmacı bu durumu ölçekte üretici becerilere yönelik sunulan etkinliklerin öğrenciler tarafından basit olarak algılanmış

olabilme ihtimali ile ilişkilendirmiştir. Bütün öğrenciler etkinliklerle ilgili kendilerini yeterli hissetmiş olabilir ve bu sebeple maddelerin ayırt etme gücü zayıflamıştır. Dikkate değer bir başka ihtimal ise dinleme becerisinin alımlayıcı beceri olması ve alımlayıcı becerinin daha çok alımlayıcı becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusuna ihtiyaç duymasıdır.

Dinleme becerisinin yanı sıra, öz yeterlik duygusunun Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım puanını da yordadığı tespit edilmiştir. Başka bir değişle, dilbilgisi ve kelime bilgisi konusunda kendisini yetkin hisseden öğrenci Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım bölümünde daha yüksek başarı sergilemiştir. Özellikle, üretici becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusuna sahip öğrencilerin bu bölümde daha avantajlı olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu durum üretici becerilerin (konuşma ve yazma becerisi) hedef dili üretme amacı ve bu üretim süreci için dilbilgisi ve kelime bilgisine ihtiyaç duyulması ile ilişkilendirilebilmektedir. Eğer bir öğrenci kendisini konuşma ve yazma becerilerinde yetkin hissediyorsa, bu o öğrencinin ürettiği dil konusunda kendisini iyi hissettiğini göstermektedir. Bu durumun onun iyi bir dilbilgisi ve kelime bilgisine sahip olduğuna işaret etmesi muhtemeldir. Dolayısıyla, üretici becerilere yönelik öz yeterlik duygusu ile Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım bölümünde gösterilen başarı arasındaki ilişki üretim sürecindeki yoğun dilbilgisi ve kelime bilgisi kullanımına ve bu kullanımdan doğan başarıya atfedilebilir.

Bazı çalışmaların aksine (örn., Balcı, 2017; Naseri ve Zaferanieh, 2012), öz yeterlik duygusu Okuma-Anlama bölümüne ait başarıyı yordamamıştır. İstatistiksel olarak anlamlı olmayan bu ilişki öğrencilerin anadildeki okuma alışkanlıkları ya da akademik konulara olan aşinalık dereceleri ile açıklanabilir. Bir diğer alternatif açıklama ise bu bölümün öğrencilerin kaygı düzeyini artırmış olması ve dolayısıyla öz yeterlik duygusunu etkisiz hale getirmiş olmasıdır.

Tüm bu veriler ışığında, özellikle öğrencilerin Dinleme-Anlama ve Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım bölümlere ait başarılarını artırabilmek adına öz yeterlik duygusunu ön plana

çıkaracak ortamların oluşturulması önerilmektedir. Bu amaca ulaşabilmek için öğrencilere hem okul hem de sınıf içerisinde net bir yapı sunulmalıdır. Öğrenci hedefine doğru yürürken hangi beklentileri karşılaması gerektiği konusunda bilgilendirilmelidir. Başarılı olabilmek için ne gerektiğini bilen öğrencinin öz yeterlik duygusu artmakta ve dolayısıyla performansı yükselmektedir. Öz yeterlik duygusunun güçlenebilmesi için seçilen etkinliklerin zorluk derecesine de dikkat edilmelidir. Etkinliklerin zorluk derecesi doğru bir şekilde düzenlendiğinde öğrenciler kendilerini yetkin hissetmekte ve kendileri ile ilgili olumlu benlik duyguları geliştirmektedirler. Bunların yanı sıra, verilen geribildirim de önem arz etmektedir. Öğrencilere geribildirim verirken yapıcı ve cesaretlendirici bir dil kullanılmalıdır. En önemlisi, öz yeterlik duygusunun gelişimi için öğrencilere başarısızlıklarını doğru yorumlamaları öğretilmelidir. Öğrencilerin herhangi bir başarısızlığı tüm öğrenim süreçlerine atfetmeleri mümkündür ve bu durum onların öz yeterlik duygularını zedeler. Bu durumun önüne geçebilmek için öğrencileri doğru bir sorgulama sürecine yönlendirmek önemlidir (Bandura, 1994; Linnenbrick & Pintrich, 2003; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Schunk & Mullen, 2012; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012).

Tüm analizlerin üçüncü basamağında dil öğrenme özerkliğinin TOEFL ITP puanlarını yordayıcılığı sorgulanmıştır. Ancak sonuçlar incelendiğinde, bu değişkenin hiçbir puan türüne katkıda bulunmadığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Alanyazın taraması çoğunlukla özerklik ve başarı arasındaki ilişkiyi vurgulasa da (örn., Dafei, 2007; Mohamadpour, 2013; Unlu & Er, 2016), bu çalışma herhangi bir katkı tespit etmemiştir. Rotgans ve Schmidt (2011)'in araştırma sonuçlarında da gözlemlendiği gibi, özerkliğin sonuca değil sürece etki etmiş olması ihtimaller arasındadır. Ya da bu durumu Türkiye'deki kültür yapısı, benlik algısı ve özerklik tanımı ile ilişkilendirmek mümkündür. Palfreyman (2004)'in de söylediği gibi özerkliğe yüklenen anlam Doğu ve Batı ülkeleri arasında farklılık göstermektedir. Batı ülkelerinde bireysellik ve kendini gerçekleştirme konuları vurgulanırken, Doğu kültüründe daha çok kolektif ve ailesel benlik kavramlarının baskın olduğu gözlemlenmektedir (Kara, 2007). Kültür, benlik ve özerklik arasındaki ilişki daha

detaylı bir şekilde incelenirse bu çalışmanın sonuçlarının daha doğru bir şekilde yorumlanabileceği düşünülmektedir.

Son olarak, dil öğrenimi strateji kullanımı ile TOEFL ITP puan türleri arasındaki ilişki incelenmiş ve sonuçlar bu değişkenin öğrencilerin Okuma-Anlama bölümüne ilişkin başarılarına katkıda bulunduğunu göstermiştir. Bu bulgudan yola çıkarak, TOBB ETU hazırlık okulundaki yabancı dil müfredatına okuma becerisine yönelik stratejilerin eklenilmesi önerilmektedir. Etkinliklerde strateji öğretimi ve kullanımına yer verilmesinin farkındalığı artırabileceği düşünülmektedir.

Strateji kullanımı ve okuma becerisi başarısı arasındaki pozitif yönlü ilişki farklı çalışmalarda da tespit edilmiştir (örn., Cesur ve Fer, 2011; Marzban ve Barati, 2016). Alt boyutlar incelendiğinde ise, dil öğrenim sürecini denetleme değişkeninin öğrenci başarısı ile pozitif yönde ilişkide olduğu ancak yeni edinilen bilgiyi genişletme değişkeninin negatif yönde ilişkide olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Başka bir değişle, dil öğrenim süreçlerini denetleme eğilimi olan öğrenciler TOEFL ITP sınavının okuma bölümünde daha yüksek başarı göstermiştir. Bu durum ölçekte sunulan stratejiler ile TOEFL ITP sınavında yer alan okuma parçaları arasındaki uyumluluk ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Dil öğrenim sürecini denetleme ile ilgili stratejiler eleştirel düşünme gerektirmektedir. Sınavın okuma bölümünde sunulan sorular da aynı beceriye ihtiyaç duymaktadır ve Fahim, Bagherkazemi ve Alemi (2010)'nin araştırma sonuçlarında da görülebileceği üzere öğrencilerin eleştirel düşünme becerileri ile TOEFL sınavı okuma bölümü başarısı arasında istatistiksel olarak önemli bir ilişki vardır. Dolayısıyla, dil öğrenme sürecini denetleme eğilimi olan öğrencilerin bu alışkanlıklarını okuma bölümündeki başarılarına yansıtmış olma ihtimalleri yüksektir.

Okuma-Anlama bölümünde gösterilen başarı ile yeni edinilen bilgiyi genişletme değişkeni arasındaki negatif yönlü ilişki ise ölçekte bu başlık altında sunulan maddelerin özellikleri ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Yüksek puan alan öğrencilerin yordam

bilgisine ya da duruma dayalı bilgi düzeyine sahip olduğu düşünülmektedir. Ancak ölçekte bu başlık altında sunulan stratejiler daha çok bildirime dayalı bilgiyi gerektirmektedir. Smith ve Ragan (2005)'ın da belirttiği üzere bildirime dayalı bilgi, bilgi birikiminin ilk basamağıdır ve yeni edinilen bilgiyi genişletme aşamasına denk gelen bir süreçtir. Bu açıdan ele alındığında, öğrencilerin okuma becerisinde gösterdikleri başarı ile bilgiyi genişletmeye yönelik strateji kullanımı arasında ortaya çıkan negatif yönlü ilişki anlamlı hale gelmektedir.

Bu bulgular ışığında, strateji öğretiminin dil seviyelerine uygun bir şekilde düzenlenmesi, başlangıç seviyesindeki öğrencilere yeni edinilen bilgiyi genişletmeye yönelik stratejilerin sunulması, daha üst seviyedeki öğrencilere ise eleştirel düşünme gerektiren stratejilerin öğretilmesi önerilmektedir. Ayrıca öğrencilerin bu stratejilerin TOEFL ITP sınavındaki kullanımlarına ilişkin bilgilendirilmeleri de önemlidir. Özellikle okuma-anlama bölümüne ilişkin başarının artabilmesi için öğrencilere TOEFL ITP sınavındaki okuma parçalarına benzer parçalar sunmak ve hangi stratejinin hangi nokta için gerekli olduğuna dair yönlendirmeler yapmak önemlidir.

Strateji kullanımının Dinleme-Anlama ve Yapı ve Yazılı Anlatım başarısını yordamaması ise muhtemel bir motivasyon eksikliği ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Pintrich ve De Groot (1990)'a göre, stratejileri bilmek başarı için yeterli değildir. Öğrencilerin bu stratejileri kullanmak için motive olmaları gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmada da benzer bir motivasyon eksikliği yaşanmış olabilir. Alternatif bir olasılık ise Blumenfeld ve Meece (1988)'in çalışmasında olduğu gibi, yüksek başarıya sahip öğrencilerin stratejileri kullanmalarına rağmen bunları ölçeğe yansıtmamalarıdır. Stratejileri bilmelerine rağmen öğrencilerin uygulama noktasında sıkıntı yaşıyor olmaları da ihtimaller arasındadır (Graham, Santos ve Vanderplank, 2008).

Önceden de belirtildiği üzere, bu çalışmanın bir diğer amacı öğrenci katılımını kolaylaştırıcı sosyal etmenler ile ilgili öğrencilerden görüş almaktır. Sosyal etmenler, öğretmen ve okul uygulamaları olarak iki başlık altında ele alınmıştır. Öğretmen

uygulamalarının ilk basamağında düzen sağlamaya ilişkin davranışlara odaklanılmıştır. Öğrenci görüşleri bu uygulamaların öğrenci katılımı için gerekli olduğu yönündedir ve dolayısıyla sonuçlar Skinner ve Pitzer (2012)'in kuramsal yaklaşımlarını destekler niteliktedir. Farklı alanlarda yürütülmüş olan araştırmalar (örn., Hospel ve Galand, 2016; Skinner ve Belmont, 1993) da benzer sonuçlara ulaşmıştır. Öğrencilere belirli bir düzen ortamı sunulduğunda, onların okula katılımlarında artış olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Bu sunulan düzen öğrencideki bilişsel yükü azaltmakta ve böylece onun var olan zihinsel kaynaklarını daha verimli kullanmasına olanak sağlamaktadır. Dil öğretimi alanında da benzer sonuçlar elde edilmiştir (örn., Barnes & Lock, 2013; Brosh, 1996; Hicks, 2008). Öğrencilerin, belirgin bir ders düzeni ve beklentiler konusunda netlik arayışları farklı çalışma sonuçlarında da gözlemlenmiştir.

Bu sonuçlar göstermektedir ki öğrencilere belirli ve net kurallara sahip bir ortam sunmak ve onları okul politikaları ile ilgili doğru bir şekilde bilgilendirmek önemlidir. Ortamdaki netliğin ve düzenin öğrencilerin öz yeterlik duygu gelişimi için gerekli olduğu unutulmamalıdır. Etkinlikler belirli bir zorluk derecesine göre düzenlenmeli, öğrencilerin öz yeterlik duygularını güçlendirecek nitelikte yapılandırılmalıdır. Ayrıca öğretmenler öğrenim sürecine direk müdahil olmamalı, onun yerine yönlendirici destek sağlamalıdır. Verilen geribildirimin niteliği de oldukça önemlidir. Öğrencilere hızlı ve yapıcı bir şekilde geribildirim verilmelidir. Net olmayan geribildirim öğrencinin kendisini yetersiz hissetmesine ve negatif öz benlik oluşturmasına sebep olabilmektedir. Son olarak katılımı artırabilmek adına öğrencilere gerçek yaşamı yansıtan zengin bir içerik sunulmalı ve onlara bu bilgiyi nerede, ne zaman ve nasıl kullanacakları öğretilmelidir.

Düzen sağlamaya yönelik uygulamaların yanı sıra, pedagojik ilginin de öğrenci katılımını artırması muhtemel öğretmen uygulamaları arasında yer aldığı tespit edilmiştir. Benzer sonuçlara hem farklı alanlarda (örn., Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Wang & Holcombe, 2010; Wentzel, 1997) hem de dil alanında yapılan araştırmalarda (örn., Barnes & Lock, 2013; Hicks, 2008; Kıl, 2015) da ulaşılmıştır.

Böylece Skinner ve Pitzer (2012)'in yaklaşımları doğrulanmıştır. Başka bir değişle, bu araştırmacıların da vurguladığı gibi, öğretmenlerin öğrencilere gösterdiği ilgi ve yakınlık onların okula katılımlarına olumlu katkıda bulunmaktadır.

Bu sonuçlar doğrultusunda, öğretmenlere öğrenci katılımını artırabilmek adına sağlıklı ve karşılıklı güvene dayalı bir öğrenme ortamı oluşturmaları önerilmektedir. Bu şekilde öğrencilerin aidiyet duygularının da olumlu yönde etkilenebileceği unutulmamalıdır. Öğrencilerle işbirliği halinde olmak, onların duygu ve düşüncelerine saygıyla yaklaşmak, gerektiğinde duygusal destek sağlamak aidiyet duygusunun gelişimine yardımcı olacak ve öğrenci katılımını olumlu yönde etkileyecektir.

Okul uygulamalarına yönelik elde edilen sonuçlar incelendiğinde ise 'farkında olmadan öğrenme fırsatları yaratma' başlığı altında sunulmuş olan etkinliklerden en yüksek ortalamaya sahip olan uygulamanın okul duvarlarına İngilizceye maruz bırakacak poster, gazete vb yazılar asılması olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Elde edilen bu sonuç daha önce yürütülmüş olan çalışmaları destekler niteliktedir (örn., Demirağ, 2018; Gezer, Şen, & Alcı, 2012). Ancak öğrenciler diğer uygulamaların etkinliği konusunda kararsız olduklarını belirtmişlerdir. Bu kararsızlık durumu onların İngilizceyi sınıf dışında kullanmak konusunda çok da istekli olmadıkları şeklinde yorumlanmıştır. Dil öğrenimini sınıf ile sınırlı tutmak istemeleri ise TOBB ETU'de öğretim dilinin Türkçe olması ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Okulun uyguladığı bu politikanın öğrencilerin dil öğrenmeye karşı performans odaklı hedefler geliştirmelerine sebep olduğu düşünülmektedir. Öğrencilerin yeterlik sınavını geçip bölüme gitmek gibi kısa vadeli hedefler geliştirmiş olmaları muhtemeldir. Başka bir olasılık ise bu tarz uygulamaların öğrencide kaygı yaratmasıdır. Öğrenci işleri, kütüphane vb yerlerde İngilizce iletişim kurmak kaygı düzeylerinde artışa sebep olabileceği için öğrencilerin bu tarz uygulamalara sıcak bakmamaları muhtemeldir.

Dil öğrenme kaynakları merkezi oluşturma başlığı altında sunulan uygulamalar ise öğrenciler tarafından okula katılım ve öğrenim açısından gerekli etkinlikler olarak nitelendirilmiştir. Sonuçlar, hazırlık okulunda İngilizce öğrenimine katkı sağlayabilecek kaynak isimlerinin web sitesinde paylaşılmasının, dil laboratuvarı ya da dil kütüphanesi oluşturulmasının öğrenci katılımına olumlu yönde etki edebileceğini göstermektedir. Bu konu üzerine çalışma yürütmüş olan araştırmacılar da (örn., Danaher & Danaher, 1998; Kvavik, 2005; Mohammed, 2017; Morrison, 2008) benzer sonuçlara ulaşmışlardır.

Bu çalışmada okul uygulamaları müfredat dışı etkinlileri de kapsayacak şekilde ele alınmıştır. Sunulan anketin son iki bölümünde öğrencilerden hazırlık okulunda düzenlenebilecek kulüp ve seminerlere yönelik görüş bildirmeleri istenmiştir. Genel olarak bakıldığında, öğrenci yanıtları 'katılıyorum' ve 'tamamen katılıyorum' etrafında kümelenmiştir. Bu durum, farklı çalışmalarda olduğu gibi (örn., Fatash, 2008; Yıldız, 2016; Yin, 2015), müfredat dışı etkinliklerin öğrenci katılımı için gerekli olduğu şeklinde yorumlanmıştır.

Bu sonuçlar birtakım önerileri de beraberinde getirmiştir. Öncelikle öğrenci katılımını güçlendirebilmek için, okul duvarlarında yabancı dile maruz bırakacak poster vb dökumanlara yer verilmelidir. Ayrıca okulun web sitesinde öğrencilere dil öğrenim süreçlerine yardımcı olabilecek kaynak isimlerini paylaşılmalıdır. Dil laboratuvarı ve kütüphanesi oluşturmak öneriler arasındadır. Müfredat dışı etkinlikler bağlamında ise hazırlık okulunda İngilizce sinema ve İngilizce konuşma kulübü oluşturulmalı, fakülte hocaları ya da sektör temsilcileri tarafından "İngilizce kariyerin için neden gereklidir?", "İngilizcenin başarımdaki rolü" temalı seminerler düzenlenmelidir.

Özetle, Skinner ve Pitzer (2012)'in kolaylaştırıcı kişisel etmenlerin başarıyı yordamasına ilişkin kuramsal yaklaşımları bu çalışmada kısmen doğrulanmıştır. Ancak Greene (2015)'in de belirttiği üzere, her disiplin kendine has özelliklere

sahiptir ve dolayısıyla farklı öğrenme bileşenlerine ihtiyaç duyar. Dil öğrencilerinin öz benlik algıları ve dil öğrenme başarıları modele farklı faktörlerin eklenmesini gerektirebilir. Dolayısıyla araştırmacıların varsayımları ve çalışma sonuçları arasında beliren uyumsuzluklar dikkatlice yorumlanmalıdır. Sosyal etmenler söz konusu olduğunda ise, çalışma bulguları ile Skinner ve Pitzer (2012)'in kuramsal beklentilerinin büyük oranda uyum gösterdiği gözlemlenmiştir. Kolaylaştırıcı sosyal etmenlerin öğrenci başarısı üzerindeki etkisi daha detaylı bir çalışma gerektirse de, öğrenci bakış açısından sosyal etmenlerin öğrenci katılımı için gerekliliği doğrulanmıştır. Öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının, okul yöneticilerinin, öğretmenlerin ve program geliştirme uzmanlarının düzenlenecek eğitimlerle öğrenci katılımı konusunda bilgilendirilmeleri önemlidir.

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