

**ÇOCUKLARIN YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİNİ BELİRLEME VE
ÇOCUKLAR İÇİN HAZIRLANMIŞ BİR YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ
ENVANTERİ HAZIRLAMA ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA**

**A STUDY ON IDENTIFYING
CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE LEARNING
STRATEGIES AND DEVELOPING A
CHILDREN'S INVENTORY FOR
LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES
(CHILLS)**

**Esim GÜRSOY
(Doktora Tezi)
Eskişehir, 2004**

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STRATEGIES AND DEVELOPING A CHILDREN'S INVENTORY FOR
LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES (CHILLS)**

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**Thesis Submitted for the Doctor of Philosophy
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DOKTORA TEZ ÖZÜ

ÇOCUKLARIN YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİNİ BELİRLEME VE ÇOCUKLAR İÇİN HAZIRLANMIŞ BİR YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ HAZIRLAMA ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

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Hala büyümekte olan bir alan olarak dil öğrenme stratejileri üzerine yapılan araştırmaların farklı ortamları kapsayacak şekilde genişletilmesine ihtiyaç vardır. Bu alanda yapılan önceki araştırmalar incelendiğinde araştırmaların çoğunluğunun ikinci dil ortamlarında (ESL) yapıldığını ve büyük bir bölümünün gençler ve yetişkinler üzerinde yapıldığını görürüz. Buna bağlı olarak geliştirilen strateji taksonomileri ve envanterleri bahsedilen ortamı ve yaş grubunu kapsamaktadır. Buna ek olarak, çocuklarla yürütülen araştırmalar tüm strateji türlerini ve tüm dil becerilerini, kelime, dilbilgisi ve telaffuz dahil olmak üzere, bunları öğrenirken yararlanılan strateji kullanımlarını içerecek kadar kapsamlı değildir.

Dil öğrenme stratejilerini içeren yazında bazı noktalara el değmemiştir ve bu noktalar bu alanlara doğru araştırmaları genişlemeyi desteklemektedirler. Bu açıdan bakıldığında bu çalışma yukarıda bahsedilen konulara değinmeye çalışmaktadır.

Çalışma belirtilenden (ESL) farklı olarak yabancı dil öğrenme (EFL) ortamında gerçekleştirilmiş ve birinci aşama ve ikinci aşama olarak adlandırılan iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci aşamada çocukların ne tür dil öğrenme stratejileri kullandıklarını saptamak amacıyla veri toplanmıştır. Bunu yaparken bir çok veri toplama tekniğinden

yararlanılmıştır. Veriler, yarı kontrollü anket, görev-tabanlı görüşmeler, görev sırasında gerçekleştirilen öğrenci gözlemleri, bu görüşmelerde tutulan alan notları, okuma ve yazma becerileri için yüksek sesle düşünme protokolü, sınıf gözlemleri ve bir anketten elde edilen sonuçlara göre gerçekleştirilen genel görüşmeler yoluyla toplanmıştır. Ayrıca veri toplanan okullarda da çeşitliliğe gidilmiştir. Birinci aşamada Bursa'daki özel okullarda okuyan 54 üçüncü, dördüncü ve beşinci sınıf öğrencisi kullanmıştır. Birinci aşamanın sonunda çocukların dil öğrenme stratejileri tespit edilmiş ve Rebecca Oxford'un (1990) sınıflandırması temel alınarak bir taksonomi geliştirilmiştir.

İkinci aşamada, birinci aşamada elde edilen bilgilerden yararlanarak ve Oxford'un dil öğrenme stratejileri taksonomisini temel alınarak çocuklar için bir dil öğrenme stratejileri envanteri geliştirilmiştir. Oxford'un taksonomisinin seçilmesinin nedeni şu ana kadar geliştirilmiş en kapsamlı sınıflandırma olmasıdır, ancak bu taksonomiye birinci aşamanın sonunda yer alan tüm yeni stratejiler ve strateji grupları eklenerek geliştirilen araca konmuştur.

Envanter 402 dört ve beşinci sınıf öğrencileri üzerinde denenmiş ve on gün sonra ilk uygulamada yer alan 45 öğrenciye tekrar uygulanmıştır. Ölçeğin, görünüş geçerliği, kapsam geçerliği, yapı geçerliği (faktör analizi ile), Pearson Momentler Korelasyonu ile gerçekleştirilen test tekrar-test güvenilirliği, Cronbach Alpha kullanılarak yapılan iç güvenilirliği ve madde toplam korelasyonu hesaplanmıştır. Analizlerin sonunda 30 maddeden oluşan ve üçlü likert olarak hazırlanan geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçeğe ulaşılmıştır.

ABSTRACT

As a still growing area, language learning strategies research (LLS) needs to expand so that it covers different contexts and age groups. When previous research on the area is investigated it is seen that most LLS research is conducted in ESL contexts and the majority of this research looks into strategies of adolescents and adults. Consequently, strategy taxonomies as well as the inventories developed so far comprise the context and age group mentioned. In addition, research conducted with children is not comprehensive enough to cover all strategy types and strategy use while performing all language skills including vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.

There are certain points in LLS literature that remain untouched and encourage expanding research. From this point of view, the current study attempts to address the issues mentioned above by conducting a research especially designed to find out the language learning strategies (LLS) of children and investigating LLS more comprehensively without selecting a certain type of strategy while performing a certain type of skill (for instance, cognitive strategies used while reading). Moreover, the current research is conducted in an EFL environment.

The study is conducted in an EFL context. It is composed of two main phases. In the first phase, data is collected from children to discover what kind of language learning strategies they use. Methodological triangulation is used in the study, thus, data is collected through, a semi-guided questionnaire, task-based interviews, observations during students' task performance, field notes kept during task-based interviews, think - aloud protocols for reading and writing skills, classroom observations, and general interviews conducted

according to the results of the semi-guided questionnaire. Triangulation in location is also used, by collecting data from different schools. In the first phase, the subjects were 54 third, fourth and fifth grade students in private primary schools in Bursa. As a result of the first phase of the study, children's language learning strategies are identified and a taxonomy is developed by taking Oxford's (1990) classification as a basis.

In the second phase, by using the information gathered in the first phase and taking Rebecca Oxford's (1990) Language Learning Strategy taxonomy as a basis, an inventory for language learning strategies of children is developed. The reason why Oxford's taxonomy is chosen is because it is the most comprehensive taxonomy developed so far. However, all of the new strategies and strategy groups identified during the first phase were included in the instrument.

The inventory is tested on 402 fourth and fifth grade students and it was re-tested on 45 students. The instrument was tested for face validity, content validity, construct validity (by using factor analysis), test-retest reliability (by using Pearson r Product-Moments Correlation) and internal reliability (by using Cronbach's Alpha), item-total correlations were also calculated. At the end of the analysis, a 30-item, 3-point likert scale, valid and reliable inventory is developed.

JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ÖZ	iii
ABSTRACT	v
JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI	vii
ÖZGEÇMİŞ	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	x
TABLE OF CONTENTS	xii
LIST OF TABLES	xviii
ADENDUM	xix
 CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION	 1
1.1. Background of the Study	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem	4
1.3. The Purpose of the Study	5
1.4. The Significance of the Study	6
1.5. Research Questions	6
1.6. Scope of the Study	7
 CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE	 8

2.1. How Children Think and Learn? Theories that Affect Language Development	8
2.1.1. Comparison of Piaget's Work with Vygotsky and Bruner	12
2.2. How Children Learn a Second/Foreign Language? Advantages and Disadvantages of being a Child	16
2.3. The Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH)	23
2.4. What are Learning Strategies	34
2.4.1. Language Learning Strategies Research	38
2.5. Language Learning Taxonomies	46
2.5.1. Communication Strategies and Taxonomies	56
2.6. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).....	61
2.7. The Importance of Studying Language Learning Strategies	67
2.7.1. The Importance of Studying Language Learning Strategies of Children ...	68
2.8. Autonomy and Language Learning Strategies	69
2.8.1. The Importance of Being Autonomous	72
2.8.2. Can Children Become Autonomous	74
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY	77
3.1. First Phase	80
3.1.1. The Pilot Study	80
3.1.1.1. Purpose of the Pilot Study	80
3.1.1.2. Methodology of the Pilot Study	81
3.1.1.2.1. Subjects	84
3.1.1.2.2. Instruments	84
3.1.1.2.3. Procedure	85

3.1.1.2.4. Results of the Pilot Study	89
3.1.1.3. Conclusions from and Implications of the Pilot Study	98
3.1.2. The Study	99
3.1.2.1. Purpose of the First Phase of the Study	99
3.1.2.2. Research Questions for the First Phase	100
3.1.2.3. Subjects	100
3.1.2.4. Instruments	103
3.1.2.5. Procedure	108
3.1.2.6. Data Analysis	114
3.2. Second Phase	117
3.2.1. The Study	117
3.2.1.1. Purpose of the Second Phase of the Study	117
3.2.1.2. Research Problem for the Second Phase	117
3.2.1.3. Subjects	117
3.2.1.4. Instrument	118
3.2.1.5. Procedure	120
3.2.1.6. Data Analysis	126
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	128
4.1. Results and Discussion of the First Phase	128
4.2. Results and Discussion of the Second Phase	157
CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	171

5.1. Summary of the Study	171
5.2. Conclusions and Implications of the First Phase of the Study	172
5.3. Conclusions and Implications of the Second Phase of the Study	177
5.4. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research	180
APPENDICES	183
APPENDIX 1 Materials Used in the Task-Based Interviews during the Pilot Study	184
APPENDIX 1A Speaking Task of the Pilot Study	185
APPENDIX 1B Listening Task of the Pilot Study.....	186
APPENDIX 1C Reading Task of the Pilot Study.....	187
APPENDIX 2 Materials Used In The Task-Based Interviews Of Third Grades	188
APPENDIX 2A Speaking Tasks of Third Grades	189
APPENDIX 2B Listening Task of Third Grades	190
APPENDIX 2C Think-aloud Training of Reading and Writing Skills of Third Grades that is Exemplified by the Researcher	191
APPENDIX 2D Think-aloud Training of Reading and Writing Skills of Third Grades that is Exemplified by the Students	192
APPENDIX 2E Think-aloud task of Reading and Writing Skills of Third Grades	193
APPENDIX 3 Materials Used In The Task-Based Interviews of Fourth Grades	194
APPENDIX 3A Speaking Tasks of Fourth Grades (Description)	195
APPENDIX 3B Speaking Tasks of Fourth and Fifth Grades (Comparison)	196

APPENDIX 3C Listening Task of Fourth Grades	197
APPENDIX 3D Think-aloud Training of Reading Skill of Fourth Grades that is Exemplified by the Researcher	198
APPENDIX 3E Think-aloud Training of Reading Skill of Fourth Grades that is Exemplified by the Students	199
APPENDIX 3F Think-aloud task of the Reading Skill of Fourth Grades	200
APPENDIX 4 Materials Used In The Task-Based Interviews of Fifth Grades	201
APPENDIX 4A Speaking Tasks of Fifth Grades	202
APPENDIX 4B Listening Task of Fifth Grades	203
APPENDIX 4C Think-aloud Training of Reading Skill of Fifth Grades that is Exemplified by the Researcher	204
APPENDIX 4D Think-aloud Training of Reading Skill of Fifth Grades that is Exemplified by the Students	205
APPENDIX 4E Think-aloud task of the Reading Skill of Fifth Grades	206
APPENDIX 5 Checklist Used in Classroom Observations	207
APPENDIX 6 Semi-guided Questionnaire	209
APPENDIX 7 Diary Format	214
APPENDIX 8 Examples from the Diaries	216
APPENDIX 9 109-Item Initial Inventory	217
APPENDIX 10 The Sheets given to the Experts for Content Validity	227
APPENDIX 11 108-item Inventory	230
APPENDIX 12 List of Reliable and Unreliable Items	236
APPENDIX 13 Results of the Factor Analysis	238
APPENDIX 14 Reliability Results	244

APPENDIX 15 Item-Total Correlations	247
APPENDIX 16 30-item CHILLS	248
REFERENCES	252

Table 1: Expert Opinions for Content Validity 122

Table 2: Factorial Distribution of Inventory Items 165

Table 3: Mean, standard deviation, item-total correlation, factor analysis, and
internal reliability correlation coefficients of the factors in Children’s
Inventory for Language Learning Strategies (CHILLS)166

LIST OF CHARTS

Chart 1: Strategies and Strategy Sets Used by Children that are Discovered within
the Scope of the Current Study 130

Chart 2: Children’s Taxonomy for Language Learning Strategies 152

Bu çalışma sevgili eşim M. Emin Gürsoy'a ve
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Sen olmasaydın eğer,
O kadar çok şey başka olacaktı ki.
Ne bu kadar sevinçli olacaktım,
Ne bu kadar korkusuz,
Ne de bu kadar umutlu.
Sen olmasaydın eğer,
O kadar çok şey başka olacaktı ki.
Ne güneş bu kadar parlak olacaktı,
Ne ay bu kadar yakın,
Ne de gökyüzü bu kadar mavi.
Sen olmasaydın eğer,
O kadar çok şey başka olacaktı ki.
Ne bu kadar dolu olacaktı yaşamım,
Ne bu kadar göz kamaştırıcı,
Ne de yaşamım kendi yaşamım.

Diego Armando

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Recently, steps are being taken by many countries such as Japan, Thailand, Turkey etc. to introduce English as a foreign or second language to students at an earlier age or grade (Tucker, 2001). Teaching English as a foreign/second language (FL/SL) to children has spread widely in the last decade, however, the topic is just beginning to be researched (Cameron, 2001). The increase in teaching English to young learners also boosted undergraduate and graduate English Language Teaching (ELT) programs to include courses about the subject, especially in countries that have a Foreign Language (FL) context such as Turkey. In addition, the interest in teaching young learners has shown up in master and Ph.D. theses increasingly each year [see, Vertaç, (1985); Koydemir, (2001); Acar, (2001); Kara, (2000)]. As stressed by Cameron (2001), this rising interest makes it unavoidable to find out more about how children learn a FL/SL and conduct research to see if theories are supported in real applications.

Rubin (1987) argues that almost simultaneous to the blast of methodologies during the 70s and 80s, that enabled the teachers to select from various methods and materials, interest in the learner himself/herself also grew and directed classroom focus from teacher-centered approaches to student-centered ones. She further argues that teachers are highly interested in learners' taking charge of their learning and becoming autonomous. One of the ways to enhance learner autonomy, to move towards self-

directed learning and to create student-centered learning environment is through the use of language learning strategies (LLS).

Language learning strategies have been investigated since the late 70s and early 80s and started with the identification of LLS of good language learners. It has been observed by many language educators that some learners become more successful in the language learning process, whereas, others fail to reach such success. At this point, Rubin (1987) mentions that the literature on LLS assumes that these successful learners use particular cognitive and metacognitive behavior. Thus, their success is attributed to the use of such cognitive and metacognitive processes. The differences between learners become clear when they share the same L1 background, learn the same target language under the same circumstances and in the same context. It is thought that if the strategies of successful language learners can be identified it would be possible to teach them to less successful learners and thus, increase their learning outcomes.

Language learning strategies are one thing that all language learners, including children, are assumed to use when learning a language other than their first (Strategies used for native language learning is under the area of 'Learning Strategies'). However, research on language learning strategies have mostly focused on adolescents and adults so far and little is known about the strategies of young learners. This might be due to the fact that teaching a language other than the children's first is relatively a new subject especially in EFL contexts. Teaching a second language to children has been practiced in countries such as the USA, Canada, and/or Australia due to their immigrant populations. Hence, limited studies on children's LLS focused on children in such ESL contexts. The research mostly investigated the strategies of bilingual children and children in immersion classrooms. The growing tendency to teach a foreign language to

children in countries having different L1 backgrounds is a triggering factor to investigate language learning behaviors of children in such contexts.

When looking in general at research on children's LLS, it is seen that there is not a comprehensive study that covers all possible strategy types (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social) and strategy sets under them. Nor is there a study that looks at strategy use while integrating all language skills as well as vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar learning.

Furthermore, since the majority of LLS research has focused on learners in adolescence and adulthood, strategy taxonomies developed so far concern only this age group. Although it is possible that children might use similar strategies as adults and adolescents, we cannot presuppose that these strategies are also applicable to children. This is because data for these taxonomies are collected from this age group (adults and adolescents) (Taxonomies will be dealt with in more detail in Chapter II in section 2.5). Therefore, there is also a need to develop a taxonomy for children with data gathered from children. This would enable educators and researchers to identify the differences between adults and children, which would enable methodologists as well as classroom teachers to develop appropriate methodologies for their learner groups by becoming aware of their capabilities and limitations, both cognitive and affective. Moreover, this in turn will help develop more suitable strategy training.

Last but not least, in addition to the identification of LLS strategies of children it is also important to develop an instrument to learn about children's LLS in a more practical, reliable and valid way. Although there is a complete inventory, Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), that is frequently used with adolescents and adults, it is not appropriate to use with children for two reasons: First, the language of

the inventory can be difficult for children to comprehend, even when translated and its validity and reliability is measured. Second, the inventory is developed by using previous data and research results, mostly conducted on older learners, and, hence covers strategies used mostly by a specific age group. It is possible that children use different strategies than those listed in the inventory and/or they may not use all strategy types used by adults.

Due to these absences in the literature, this research focuses on language learning strategies of children in an EFL context, identifies their strategies, finds differences between adults and children in strategy use and develops a taxonomy of strategies for children, and finally, the researcher will attempt to develop a children's inventory of language learning strategies.

Before talking about which strategies children use when learning a language other than their first, one needs to talk about how children learn in general, how they learn a SL/FL, differences of children from adults when learning a SL/FL, what their characteristics are, what their learning strategies are and last but not least, what their language learning strategies are and what previous research says about the LLS taxonomy of adults and the inventories developed so far. These issues will be dealt with in more detail in Chapter II.

1.2. Statement of the Problem:

As it is seen, research in language learning strategies is not complete. Especially, there is a considerable gap in studies concerning the language learning strategies of children in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) contexts. Hsiao and Oxford (2002)

stress the importance of recognizing differences in SL and FL settings. In addition, in their study Green and Oxford (1995) argue that the strategy use of students might vary depending on their learning environments. A limited number of studies on bilingual children, immersion and ESL contexts point to the need to extend strategy research to young learners. Furthermore, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is developed for and tested on adolescents and adults and therefore may not be appropriate for and applicable to children. To help children become aware of language learning strategies, enable teachers to learn about their students' strategy types, develop new methodologies or adopt existing ones, aid young students to become autonomous and self-directed learners, increase the number of strategies that are being preferred and used by children, and implement strategy training, it is important to develop a strategy inventory designed especially for children.

1.3. The Purpose of this Study:

For the reasons mentioned above, current research aims to, first, discover the language learning strategies as well as the strategy preferences of children who are 9, 10, and 11 years old and in third, fourth and fifth grade at primary schools; second, develop a strategy taxonomy for children, which will enable the researchers as well as educators to compare strategy taxonomies for adults and children; third, develop a strategy inventory for children learning English as a foreign language by using the data gathered from children in an EFL context and by incorporating necessary validity and reliability tests that are absent or ignored in most inventories or questionnaires, except SILL.

1.4. The Significance of the Study:

This study is unique in that it inquires into language learning strategies of young learners as a whole without any specific concentration on a specific strategy type such as memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social, and affective, or specific strategy or strategies within a specific strategy set such as repeating and translating strategies under cognitive strategies, nor is it limited to certain language skills (reading, listening, ...). In addition, a taxonomy that consists of children's LLS will be developed as a result of data gathered from children. Taxonomy is the appropriate clustering of the strategies found, into groups or sets. Development of such taxonomy will enable a comparison of strategy use between adults and children. Furthermore, the current study attempts to develop a valid and reliable language learning strategy inventory specifically for children, due to the absence of such an instrument. Therefore, it is hoped that the present study will fill the mentioned gap in the literature and contribute to strategy research.

1.5. Research Questions:

The study attempts to answer the following questions. The first phase of the study addresses the issues in the first three questions, and the second phase seeks to answer the last question.

1. What are the language learning strategies of children in the third, fourth and fifth grades?
2. Does the LLS taxonomy for children differ from the one that was developed for adults?

3. Do children use all strategy groups and sets mentioned in the literature?
4. Is it possible to develop a language learning strategy inventory for children?

1.6. Scope of the Study:

The results of the study are limited to the findings gathered from the subjects who participated in the study and to the data collection methods used. The inventory has been designed and used for students in EFL contexts and for curriculum that provides the teaching of all language skills. Thus, it is not appropriate for schools where students are taught only grammar and vocabulary or reading and writing.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. How Children Think and Learn?: Theories that Affect Language Development:

How people think and learn greatly influenced educators in primary education. Especially three theorists Piaget, Vygotsky, and Bruner are important to mention for their views about children's learning.

For Piaget, the child is an active learner who actively constructs meaning. He is concerned with how the child functions in his/her environment and how his/her mental development is influenced during the process. While interacting with the environment and the world, the child tries to solve problems that are posed by the environment. And learning occurs by taking action to solve these problems. Problem-solving could either be concrete such as feeding himself/herself or abstract, which would occur in the mind. Accordingly, "thought is seen as deriving from action; action is internalized, or carried out mentally in the imagination, and in this way thinking develops" (Cameron, 2001, p. 3). According to Piaget, action is essential for cognitive development, not the first language development, as Vygotsky argues.

The Piagetian viewpoint argues that "a child's thinking develops as gradual growth of knowledge and intellectual skills towards a final stage of formal, logical thinking" (Cameron, 2001, p. 3). This gradual growth is explained through various stages each of which is marked with a certain important change.

- Sensorimotor Period (0 - 2 years)
- Preoperational Period (2 - 7 years)
- Period of concrete operations (7 - 11 years)
- Period of formal operations (11 + years) (Dworvetzky, 1993)

Sensorimotor period :

At this period the child cannot fully develop object permanence, that is the ability to identify an object, no matter if it is present or not. Piaget argued that the lack of object permanence indicated a lack of mental representations. Thus, object permanence is necessary for problem solving and internal thinking. The reason why this period is named as sensorimotor is because at this period the child responds to what s/he senses. This period is characterized by six stages;

Stage 1 (0 - 1 month): reflex activity

Stage 2 (1 - 4 months): self-investigation

Stage 3 (4 - 8 months): coordination and reaching out

Stage 4 (8 - 2 months): goal-directed behavior

Stage 5 (12 - 18 months): experimentation

Stage 6 (18 - 24 months): problem solving and mental combinations (Dworetzky, 1993)

Preoperational period:

Object permanence, which is the indicator of the development of thought draws the line between sensorimotor and preoperational periods. The reason why the latter

period is named as preoperational is because the child hasn't yet acquired "the logical operations or rules of thought characteristic of later periods of cognitive development" (Dworetzky, 1993, p. 252). During this period, the child does not form his/her conclusions upon his/her logical operations. This period consists of two stages:

Preconceptual stage (2 - 4 years) : In the preconceptual stage symbolic functions emerge, as well as syncretic and transductive reasoning and animism. Syncretic reasoning is a method that preschoolers use to sort and classify objects. By using transductive reasoning the child uses a single attribute of two objects to draw an inference about the relationship of the two.

Intuitive stage (4 - 7 years): The reason why this stage is referred to as intuitive is because children at these ages tend to base their beliefs "on what they sense to be true" (p. 253). They are not yet able to use logic or rational thought. Their reasoning is also limited, because at this stage the child is egocentric.

The period of concrete operations:

During this period, having developed a logical understanding children are able to solve problems by using logical rules. Still, the child is bound to what is concrete to solve problems with logic. The abstract and hypothetical are not comprehensible (Dworetzky, 1993). The beginning of concrete operations is marked with the onset of conservation. Conservation is a principle that the mass, volume, and weight remain the same even though there are differences in appearance. Conservation encompasses three other concepts: Identity, decentration, and reversability. Identity is the fact that unless something is added or taken away from a material the amount does not change no

matter the form or the distribution. Decentration is the child's ability to conserve, which causes him/her to focus on more than one aspect. For instance, a child in the period of concrete operations is able to understand that the amount of milk does not change when it is poured from a glass to a plate. That is, he is able to decenter his attention from one aspect of the changing situation. Reversibility is the ability to understand that a series of actions done to an object can be reversed to bring the objects back to their original state.

The period of formal operations:

Children at this period can operate beyond the concrete and apply logical rules to abstract concepts, "the ability to make complex deductions, analyze ways of reasoning, and solve problems by systematically testing hypothetical solutions" are within the ability of the individual (Dworetzky, 1993, p. 257). "... The Piagetian end-point of development - thinking that can manipulate formal abstract categories using rules of logic- is held to be unavailable to children before they reach 11 years of age or more." (Cameron, 2001, p. 3).

One deficiency of the Piagetian framework is that it neglects the social lives of children. A child's social interaction and communication with other people, both children and adults, is not the concern. Rather, the main concern is the child him/herself in the world (Cameron, 2001).

For language learning, the major implication of Piaget's theoretical view is that the child constructs his/her knowledge while working in the environment, either with objects or ideas. The child is an active sense-maker, learner and thinker. Yet, these are

limited to the child's experiences in the world. Thus, children's responses to classroom tasks and activities are dependent on these experiences (Cameron, 2001).

2.1.1. Comparison of the Work of Piaget with Vygotsky and Bruner:

Vygotsky differs from Piaget in the way that he gives importance to language and the other people with whom the child interacts. His views of development focus on the social aspect, which is why his theory is often labeled as "sociocultural theory". Vygotsky argues that both development and learning occur in a social context (Cameron, 2001). According to him, at the early stages, talk has a regulative and communicative function; later speech transforms the child's thinking, learning, and comprehension. It is an instrument that shapes thought. For Piaget, mental actions do not derive from talk but from action (Brewster, 1991). "... for Piaget the child is an active learner alone in a world of objects, for Vygotsky the child is an active learner in a world full of other people" (Cameron, 2001, p. 6). With the help of a skilled person, a child can understand and perform better. What a child does with the help of an adult, but not alone, is called the "Zone of Proximal Development" (ZPD). The ZPD brings another dimension to the meaning of intelligence. Vygotsky argued that it is better if intelligence is measured by what a child can do in his Zone of Proximal Development, (ZPD) that is, with the aid of a skilled person (Cameron, 2001).

In the classroom, the teacher is the skilled help for his/her students having different ZPD's. Each student can perform differently with the same help. For instance, the teacher may be teaching the preposition "in" and gives an example; "My pencil case is in the drawer", then asks the class to practice with this new preposition. Some

students may choose to repeat the example sentence, some may produce similar sentences like “ My pencils are in my pencil case”, yet, some other may focus on his/her pronunciation. Therefore, Vygotsky argued that it would be more useful to measure ability and/or intelligence within the ZPD.

The dependence on others will gradually decrease and the individual will become more independent and self-reliant. This shift from being interpersonal towards being intrapersonal is referred to as the “internalizing process” (Cameron, 2001).

Under the influence of Vygotsky’s work, Bruner emphasizes the importance of social interaction in the development of the language and learning of children. Unlike Piaget and Vygotsky, Bruner studied adult thinking and problem solving before he studied child development. Bruner followed the work of Vygotsky and supported the idea that social experience is crucial in mental development. However, his view of the relation of social experience to mental development differs from that of Vygotsky’s in that Bruner not only emphasized the importance of the role of social interaction and culture, but also biology and evolution, whereas, Vygotsky ignored biological effects. It is argued that Bruner’s work and theory is between Piaget’s and Vygotsky’s. Similar to Piaget, Bruner points out the importance of biological and evolutionary constraints in human mental development. At the same time, his theory is in line with Vygotsky’s theory about the importance of social interaction (Wood, 1988).

Both Bruner and Vygotsky stress language, communication and instruction in a child’s development, and Bruner introduces a concept called Language Acquisition Support System (LASS). Accordingly, the development of language is dependent on a child who has an innate ability for social interaction and language learning that is activated by adult support (Brewster, 1991). “Talk that supports a child in carrying out

an activity ... has been labeled scaffolding” (Cameron, 2001, p. 8). According to Bruner, language is essential for cognitive growth. Adults help children solve problems by mediating the world around them. Scaffolding is determined according to the needs of the child, and necessary changes need to be made as the child’s competency increases. Similarly, in the classroom, scaffolding shows itself in teacher-student talk. According to Wood (1998), students’ learning can be scaffolded in different ways: First of all, teachers can help children to focus their attention on the relevant aspects of the task. There are several ways to do this: The teacher can suggest what to do, emphasize crucial aspects, and/or provide activities that focus children’s attention. Second, teachers can enable students to learn and use effective strategies by giving explicit information about the organization of the task and encouraging rehearsal. Third, teachers can aid children to remember the task and its goals by simply reminding them about the task, modeling and having children do part-whole activities.

Another idea of Bruner’s that is useful for language teaching is the notion of “formats and routines”. Formats and routines allow scaffolding to happen. They “combine the security of the familiar with the excitement of the new” (Cameron, 2001, p. 9). Certain routines in teaching such as using certain prefabricated patterns in certain situations enable scaffolding. Many classroom routines such as directives, are frequently used before starting a task or activity. At the beginning levels, for example, using directives like: “Open your books to page 10. Pick up your pens. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate word....” provide good opportunities for language development. As the language the teacher uses gets more complex, students continue to understand with the help of the routine and the situation. Familiar experience that students are

exposed since from the beginning, enable them to comprehend the new language and “provide a space for language growth” (Cameron, 2001, p. 11).

The similarity between Bruner’s and Vygotsky views is the match between the ZPD and this space for growth. It is believed that at some point the learner will become more independent and grasp the language him/herself due to this space (Cameron, 2001).

Both Piaget and Bruner “emphasize the importance of action and problem-solving in learning and believe that abstract thinking should grow out of and be abstracted from material actions” (Brewster, 1991, p.2).

Several practices were derived from these theories such as;

1. Teacher autonomy,
2. Child-centered curriculum, which puts children’s interests into its center,
3. Individualized learning, which was hoped to enable learner autonomy and self-discipline,
4. Topic-based approach, which was derived from a child-centered curriculum,
5. A methodology that stresses the importance of learning by doing and problem-solving (Brewster, 1991, p. 2).

These theories are also important in discussing and understanding language learning strategies, although they were put forward for first language learning. According to Vygotsky, for instance, social interaction of the child with other people is an important aspect of learning. The child cognitively develops within his/her ‘Zone of Proximal Development’ and through scaffolding. The reflection of this theory can be found in the use of social strategies. Interacting with other people to consolidate knowledge, to ask for more explanation, to ask questions about an issue, and/or to seek

cooperation of others while learning are examples that reflect Vygotsky's theory of learning.

To give another example, Piaget sees learning as a problem solving process, where the child is actively engaged in the process. All strategies cognitive, metacognitive, compensation etc., are learners' endeavours to learn another language, which indicates active involvement.

In addition, Piaget's stages of child development are important when working with children. The current study benefited a great deal from the cognitive abilities of children at certain stages when selecting the subject group and when designing data collection methods with the chosen subject group. Therefore, the discussion of these theories constitutes the backbone of the present research.

In light of these theories, the next section discusses issues concerning the characteristics of children, their abilities and skills that serve as advantages or disadvantages while learning a SL/FL and differences between children and adults when learning a SL/FL.

2.2. How Children Learn a Second/Foreign Language?: Advantages and Disadvantages of being a Child

As with children acquiring their mother tongue, children learning a second or foreign language make errors, which indicate that they are actively engaged in the learning process. These errors are not something that educators should resist, since they are the signs of an active process that is far from imitation. Furthermore, these errors are signs of involvement in the operation of the language system. Moreover, they are clues

for teachers to discover children's ways of learning. One difference between children acquiring their first language and those learning a second/foreign language is the fact that the latter has already learned a language. This may have both advantages and disadvantages. It could be beneficial because these children have experience in their mother tongue, which also brings many other abilities that enable them to learn a second/foreign language (Moon, 2000).

Some of these abilities and skills are mentioned in Halliwell, 1992 and Cameron, 2001:

1. Children have an ability to interpret the meaning of an utterance even when they don't understand the individual words in that utterance. They are actively engaged in constructing the meaning.

Even when learning their mother tongue, children are able to understand what's said to them although they do not understand the individual words or phrases. They use clues such as gestures, actions, stress, and intonation, and the situation to construct meaning. When learning a second/foreign language they are already equipped with such skills coming from their first language acquisition experience. Similarly, as in first language acquisition, they do not always understand or find it difficult to comprehend instructions and utterances directed to them. Yet, they can still grasp the meaning by using their general ability to "read" the message. Also, children's experiences enable them to comprehend. However, they have limited world knowledge, hence it is important for teachers to pay specific attention to tasks and activities in the classroom and observe students' responses. This way it is possible to create opportunities for children to expand their experiences and world knowledge.

2. Children are creative and they use this skill to use their limited knowledge in a second/foreign language in many creative ways.

Children are creative. By using their limited world knowledge they can produce and create utterances not only in their mother tongue but also in their second/foreign language. A two year-old Turkish child who said “geldim degil” is using his knowledge about a negative word “degil” to make a positive sentence negative in his own creative way of using his mother tongue. Similarly, a child learning a second/ foreign language can make similar productions. For this to happen, teachers need to plan activities that demand for real language use, not just repetitions of words and phrases. If children find the need to communicate, there is no doubt that they will find creative ways to use the target language and maybe even produce incorrect forms which are signs of active involvement.

3. They mostly appreciate indirect learning.

Intuitively we know that children at the primary level learn better if information is introduced indirectly. Halliwell (1992) supports this intuition. She claims that the capacity of primary school children is very limited when conscious learning is concerned. Contrary to their limited, or lack of, capacity to learn directly, they are greatly skilled in learning indirectly. In addition to games, tasks and activities that require real life skills support children’s indirect learning capacity.

4. They like to have fun and enjoy even when they are learning

It is no doubt that all children like to play and have fun. This general characteristic of children can be used in the language classroom. Games are a precious weapon to learn the target language since they create a realistic environment for

language learning. Using the language for realistic purposes makes it more meaningful and enhances learning.

5. They are imaginative.

When talking about reality and real language use, one should not forget that one of children's characteristics is the imagination itself. The language classroom needs to benefit from the imaginative side of children to stimulate realistic language use.

6. They like talking.

In most primary classrooms teachers spend a considerable amount of their classroom time trying to keep silence by asking children to stop talking. However, children love talking. This should not be something that language teachers try to prevent but encourage, since to learn to use a language one needs to actually use it.

7. For language growth, children need to be given some space (through scaffolding and routines.

For language growth and cognitive development children need space, which can be obtained through scaffolding and routines. Teachers need to aid children by pulling their interest to the topic, simplifying the task or breaking it down into smaller parts, preventing or controlling their frustration, pointing out the important or necessary points and keeping them on track. They also need to create and use routines to make children feel safe and encourage them to move forward.

8. To notice and attend to important aspects of the language, children need skilled guidance.

A child can best develop cognitively with the help of a skilled person, who is the teacher in most of the case. This help can enable him/her to notice meaning that s/he will not be able to understand by him/herself.

9. They need social interaction for their language development.

It is equally important that the child is engaged in social interaction either with the teacher or peers, because language development can be facilitated through social interaction. Games and activities also provide opportunities for social interaction that is essential for language growth.

10. They learn when they experience new language.

Each child's world knowledge and language develops within their ZPD. When their experiences increase their learning outcomes also increase. Therefore, it is of utmost importance to provide children with a broad and rich learning environment. Every child has a different ZPD. Within the same lesson, it is possible that all children learn different things, depending upon what they find easy. Since the ZPD is not global but individual, it becomes more important to provide a rich learning environment.

Aside from the advantages of knowing a first language before starting to learn a second/foreign language there is also a major disadvantage. It is the fact that the knowledge of the first language may interfere with the knowledge of the second and at certain times slow down the process. Therefore, it is important for teachers to find ways to use the advantages and prevent the disadvantages by making observations while children are engaged in the SL/FL.

Children can learn a language other than their mother tongue in various situations depending on the amount and type of exposure to the target language. Undoubtedly a second language context, where the second language is the first language (L1) of the community, is ideal as it provides many opportunities for the language learner to hear and use the target language for natural reasons. However, the focus of this thesis will be the foreign language in a formal environment such as schools. This

brings many disadvantages. First of all, children in such contexts spent limited time on the target language, which is mostly limited to exposure in the classroom. Secondly, as opposed to children learning in a second language (SL) context, these children don't usually have a real purpose for learning the target language. Most of them do not need to learn this additional language. Thirdly, these children, learning a foreign language in schools, are exposed to controlled and limited input. Fourthly, many formal learning environments focus on correctness and lose focus on meaningful interaction (Moon, 2000). In EFL environments, mostly it is the teachers' responsibility to provide opportunities for students to learn and provide "adequate" exposure to language. In addition to providing opportunities for students to be exposed to the new language, teachers also need to teach and/or exemplify the way to facilitate language learning. Language learning strategies are one way to do this. Learning about their students' current strategies and teaching new ones facilitates the process of teaching a second/foreign language. Identifying learners' learning strategies is one of the crucial points that need consideration. Although many researchers conducted surveys for this purpose most of these instruments lack statistical analysis such as reliability and validity. The one, which includes psychometric tests, is the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) that is going to be dealt with in the following sections (Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Crookall, 1989; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Since, this instrument was developed by extensive literature review and used data gathered from adults, it couldn't be used with children.

In addition to being aware of the characteristics of children and how they learn, it is also important to be aware of their differences from adolescents and adults. For an

inventory designed and developed especially for children, it becomes essential to become aware of these differences.

There is no doubt that teaching a foreign/second language to children is different from teaching adolescents and adults. The differences are due to characteristics of children. For example;

1. Children are more enthusiastic, active, and lively when compared to adults,
2. Pleasing the teacher is important for children, whereas, it is their peers for adolescents,
3. They engage in an activity more quickly no matter if they understood why or how,
4. Though they are enthusiastic, they lose concentration and motivation easily.
5. Children are a difficult group with which to talk about language by using a language, that is they don't have access to metalanguage as do older learners.
6. In contrast to adults, children are not usually inhibited when talking in a new language,
7. This lack of embarrassment enables them to gain a native-like accent (Moon, 2000).

The information on how children learn and characteristics of children is crucial when deciding on the appropriate ways of collecting data from children, developing appropriate instruments for children and discussing the results of the present research. Moreover, understanding the differences between adults and children will enable the reader to compare the results of this study, which utilizes children, with similar ones utilizing adults.

Along with all the theories about how children think and learn, there is an equally important issue which questions the appropriate age to start learning or acquiring a SL/FL. The Critical Period Hypothesis, which has boggled the minds of many researchers, will be dealt with in the next section.

2.3. The Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH):

When talking about learning a second/foreign language in childhood, it is indispensable to talk about the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). In recent second language research, learners' inability, beyond a certain age, to learn certain aspects of the second language is considered to be a biological and developmental phenomenon. The critical period hypothesis (CPH) attempts to offer an explanation (Brown, 1980).

In most behavioral domains, competence is expected to increase over development, whether gradually or in stages. However, in some domains, it has been suggested that competence does not monotonically increase with development, but rather reaches its peak during a "critical period" which may be relatively early in life, and then declines when this period is over (Johnson & Newport, 1989, p. 60).

For language acquisition, this critical period refers to a certain time when it is easy to learn a language and during which the language acquisition process results in success (Marinova-Todd, Marshall, and Snow, 2000).

According to the critical period hypothesis, which was first put forward for the learning of the mother tongue, the language acquisition process must be completed before puberty, for it is suggested that language does not develop fully until then. Although the critical period was suggested for first language acquisition, the claim that

the brain reaches its adult values at puberty and that there is a loss of brain plasticity and its reorganizational capacities, has made researchers undertake studies of second language learning to investigate the effects of age. If there is a critical period, then it must have a different characteristic when it is applied to second language learning (Johnson & Newport, 1989). The Critical Period Hypothesis has been interpreted wrongly in some cases, where it was assumed that by puberty you are “over the hill” to learn a second language successfully (Brown, 1993). This interpretation constitutes the strong version of the hypothesis. In other words, what the Critical Period Hypothesis says, according to this version is that natural and complete acquisition of a language can occur only between the years of two and puberty, and also that children and adults acquire the language differently (Krashen, Sferlazza, Feldman, and Fathman, 1976).

In contrast to these claims, Krashen (1973) suggests that, lateralization of the brain is complete before puberty, and therefore, it is “not a barrier to accent free second language learning by adults” (p. 63). He argues that the lateralization process develops during first language acquisition, as early as age five.

Krashen (1973) supports this idea by looking at the “reports of psychological testing of children with unilateral brain damage” (p. 65). According to the results of the previous studies he examined, unilateral brain damage causes the same results for children and adults; “left lesions impair performance on verbal tests and do not affect performance on spatial and configurational tests, while right sided lesions impair performance on spatial and configurational tests and do not affect verbal scores” (p. 65).

Krashen (1973), also has looked at the results of dichotic listening, that is, presenting subjects “with competing simultaneous auditory stimuli, one to each ear. In right handed subjects the right ear generally excels for verbal material, reflecting left

hemisphere specialization. The left ear excels for certain non-verbal stimuli, indicating right hemisphere dominance" (p. 66). The Critical Period Hypothesis, that suggests lateralization after puberty, says that, in dichotic listening the superiority of the right ear would increase during childhood, and it would reflect the growing dominance of the left hemisphere. On the contrary, the "lateralization-by-five hypothesis" claims that the degree of superiority would not change after the age of five. Krashen (1973), supports this idea with his study where he tested children between the ages of four and nine. He could neither find a significant change in the degree of lateralization, nor a right ear advantage.

In light of these explanations, it can be assumed that the development of lateralization is completed far before puberty. Therefore, it is possible to learn a second language after puberty. However, at this time language learning might not be as rapid or efficient as the acquisition of one's native language. In addition to this, completion of lateralization does not construct a barrier to the language learner (Krashen, 1973).

Brown (1980), brings out a different perspective to the critical period hypothesis, which he calls "the optimal distance model". Some researchers have based their explanations on the optimal stage, or on the lateralization of brain functions, while others have supported their hypotheses with cognitive and affective arguments. It was then that the critical period hypothesis was extended to second language learning. Most of us have observed that children can learn second languages more easily than adults. And most of us have assumed that adults are rather inefficient and unsuccessful when compared to children (Brown, 1980).

As a result of the research on this area, cognitive and affective arguments are found to be more convincing than physiological, brain-related arguments. However,

both of these arguments agree that the ease or difficulty of learning a language, either first or second, is age-related. Brown (1980) argues that if second, not foreign, language acquisition, is occurring within the second language culture, “the critical period hypothesis can achieve explanatory adequacy by including sociocultural factors at play” (p. 158). He claims that such factors, no matter the person’s age, go through an acculturation. If second language learning is happening in the second language culture, it is very much related to culture learning.

The interaction of language and culture produces a syndrome which gives rise to a certain stage during which language learning achieves an optimal level. At that critical stage, adults and children, have an optimal chance to become fluent in the second language (Brown, 1980, p. 158).

According to Brown (1980), there are four aspects of the optimal distance model:

1) Acculturation: He claims that there are four stages of the acculturation process, that people face while assimilating in a new culture:

a) *Period of excitement and euphoria*: this stage is a result of the new environment.

b) *Culture Shock*: This stage occurs when the person becomes aware of the cultural differences and sees these differences as a threat to his self and security. During this stage the person looks for people from his culture to rely on. The result of this stage may be the feelings of estrangement, frustration, homesickness, ... etc.

c) *Gradual Recovery*: At this stage the person solves some of his problems about the new culture, and he becomes more empathetic, and starts to appreciate the differences between his culture and the target language culture.

d) *Assimilation or Adaptation*: This is a result of near or full recovery. The person starts to build self-confidence in the new culture.

2) Anomie: As a result of learning a second language and being exposed to, or living in the second language culture, people may have feelings, such as social uncertainty or dissatisfaction.

3) Social Distance: "Social distance refers to the cognitive and affective proximity of two cultures which come into contact with an individual" (Brown, 1980, p. 158). Distance, here, represents the differences between the two cultures.

4) Perceived Social Distance: Each person perceives the same cultural environment differently. Their perception is through the "filters of their own world" (Brown, 1980, p. 160), so, no matter how biased their opinion may be, they act upon their perception.

Brown (1980) claims that, the beginning of the third stage in the acculturation process, is the point when a person gains skillful fluency in a second language. Adults' failure to synchronize linguistic and cultural development may result in a failure to learn a second language in the second language culture. Since children do not have a culture bound view, they do not have perspective filters like adults do, and, as a result, they can pass through the acculturation process quickly, and consequently learn the language more quickly.

The limitation of the optimal distance model is that, it is applicable to only target language learning in the target language culture. According to the optimal distance model the reason for adults' experiencing difficulty may be the result of "inefficient synchronization of acculturation and language development" (p. 162).

“Second language learning primarily involves the acquisition of a new set of realization rules by means of which the new language expresses underlying relations and modes of the cognitive organization of a universal type” (Richards, 1975, p. 126). Studies have shown that the rule-system of the language learner is not a result of imitation. As understood from error analysis, the learner recreates the system of a language for himself with the help of universal learning strategies. One of the universal principles of child language learning, and an adult second language learning is their tendency towards the simplification of the rules. That is, by applying them into expanded areas, and by dropping rules where there is limited applicability (Richards, 1975).

Errors made by children learning English as their second language, are developmental, not interference errors as it was thought. In this sense, their errors are similar to the errors of children who learn English as their mother tongue (Bailey, Madden, and Krashen, 1974).

Depending on the recent studies that claimed that adults' errors are mostly;

- 1) the same with the learners of different native languages,
- 2) considered false hypotheses about the second language.

Bailey et. al (1974) argues that adult target language learning has a natural sequence of acquisition. Adults were compared with older children, whose ages are between five and eight, in respect to their cognitive maturity. Consequently, the result of their study shows that adults use similar strategies to those of children, when learning a second language. Adults having different native languages made similar mistakes, which proved that errors made while learning second languages are not always the result of interference from the mother-tongue. They also claimed that the major source of errors

are intralingual errors not interlanguage errors. Bailey et. al. (1974) concluded that no significant change occurred in language learning strategies during puberty.

Krashen et. al. (1976) claims that when comparing children and adults learning a second language, adults seem to be more dependent on formal environments, which indicates that children learn a second language more naturally. Generally, adults do not reach the proficiency level of children, that is their learning is less "complete". Recent research indicates that most adult language errors are common to all adult learners even those with different linguistic backgrounds.

The results of the study conducted by Krashen et. al. (1976) indicate that "child and adult ESL learners do not differ significantly with respect to which aspects of English grammar they find hard and which aspects they find easy" (p. 149). Both children and adults learning ESL have "similar difficulty orderings in a spoken English language proficiency test, and that this order is similar for learners with different first languages and for learners exposed to different linguistic environments" (Krashen et. al., 1976, p. 151). These findings imply, in contrast to some of the previous studies, that puberty does not cause a big change in certain aspects of language acquisition. It is possible that adults may have access to younger learners' first and second language acquisition strategies.

Snow (1983), also comparing adults and children, claims that older learners of second languages are superior to younger ones. In her study, she tested 52 subjects whose ages range between three and a half and fifty-five, and who are all English speakers, learning Dutch in Netherlands. The test results on communicative skill-story comprehension and story telling do not show significant age differences. Moreover, she claims that pronunciation showed the smallest effect between ages.

However, when adults are compared with teenagers, it is observed that they always scored worse. She ties this result up with several reasons that:

1) adults had less contact with native speakers, whereas, children had six hours in school.

2) adults were usually in contact with English speakers. In addition, most of their second language acquaintances spoke English well, whereas children played with Dutch children who did not know English.

When testing phonological acquisition, it was found that children are not superior to adults in pronunciation either, and moreover, the so called "children superiority" is not because they hear sounds better than adults. Snow (1983) agrees that children learn more slowly, but they are able to catch up with adult learners, and even surpass them in the long run. She points out the need to make a distinction in second language acquisition:

It is clear, then, we must distinguish between two aspects of second language acquisition when considering age differences - speed of acquisition, and ultimate level of achievement. Child second language learners excel in the second aspect, ultimate level of achievement, but adult second language learners excel in the first aspect, speed of acquisition (Snow, 1983, p. 145).

According to Snow (1983), neurolinguistic explanations are not adequate to prove the presumption that children are superior in second language learning. Successful language learning is more a result of interaction with native speakers and being unsuccessful is very much related to "social, cultural, or economic barriers to contact with native speakers" (p. 146). Snow (1983) believes that adults are better

language learners, because they are also better in most of the other learning tasks, when compared with children.

Fathman (1975), on the other hand, compares younger children with older children. She conducted a study to see if there is a difference in the acquisition rate of English grammatical structures among younger and older children, and she also looked at the order of the acquisition of these structures.

The results showed that, the rate of learning changes with age; however, order of acquisition did not differ among both groups. However, younger children, preteens, achieved significantly higher ratings in pronunciation. According to Fathman (1975), these differences may be a result of maturational, physiological, or environmental factors. At this point she brings out another hypothesis;

There may actually be different critical periods which are optimal times for learning different aspects of a second language. The preteen years may encompass a period during which the ability to discriminate, to interpret or to imitate sounds is manifested most fully; whereas, after puberty the ability to learn rules, to make generalizations or to memorize patterns may be more fully developed (p. 251).

Since most of the studies on the Critical Period Hypothesis are not consistent with each other, Krashen et. al. (1979) brings up a different argument. His claim is that, there are three points where these studies are consistent:

- 1) Adults proceed through the early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children (where time and exposure are held constant);

2) Older children acquire language faster than younger children (again, in early stages of morphological and syntactic development where time and exposure are held constant);

3) Acquirers who gain natural exposure to second languages during childhood generally achieve higher second language proficiency than those beginning language learning as adults (p. 573).

Krashen et. al. (1979) supports the idea that adults and older children are generally faster in acquiring a second language than children “(older-is-better for rate of acquisition)”, but children are superior in the ultimate attainment of second language acquisition “(younger-is-better in the long run)” (p. 574). The best predictor of ultimate attainment is the age of arrival in the target language speaking community. It has been found that children become more proficient in second language proficiency, because of their age of arrival, but after a certain period of time their length of residence do not become a distinguishing factor.

The studies concerning the adult/child differences are usually short term studies, and such studies show that results are superior for children. The studies comparing older and younger children are again short-term studies which show that if both groups are exposed to second language for the same period of time, and in natural environments, older children learn syntax and morphology faster. In addition, in formal environments, when older children are compared with adults, it has been seen that older children surpass adults in morphology and syntax in about a year. Other studies comparing children, learning a second language in formal environments, show that those who started school at a later age, caught up with the ones who started earlier (Krashen et. al., 1979). This might be because younger learners acquire language at a much slower pace.

Since older learners have more developed cognitive skills, they are able to catch up with younger ones by learning fast.

In a recent article by Marinova-Todd et al. (2000) three misconceptions about the relationship between the age of a language learner and the L2 learning is discussed in their review of the literature. According to these researchers, first, it is misinterpreted that the ultimate attainment is gained by children, since they learn quickly and easily. They argue that, in fact, this is not the case and that literature shows examples of older learners who learn more than younger learners when time is kept constant, and younger learners actually learn more slowly and effortfully.

Second, the researchers claim that “neuroscientists have often comitted an error of misattribution, assuming that differences in the location of two languages within the brain in speed of processing account for differences in proficiency levels and explain poorer performance of older learners” (p. 14). However, Marinova-Todd et al. (2000) argue that available data is not adequate to guess the exact nature of brain functioning and language behavior.

Third, they claim that there is a misemphasis of unsuccessful older learners with a nativelike proficiency ignored. As a result, Marinova-Todd et al. (2000) argue that age of the learners is not the only factor that affects L2 proficiency. Social, psychological, educational and similar factors affect proficiency, in addition to the learners’ age. It is at this point that learning strategies deserve attention as well as other learner-related factors to enhance FL learning success. Whether young learners have a disadvantage or not in learning a FL, the possible negative effects of young age, formal learning environments and/or foreign language learning contexts can be decreased by assessing learners’ learning strategies and training them to use effective ones.

Thus, conflicting ideas about whether a critical period exists for SL/FL and relatedly when to start foreign language education emphasize the importance of the consideration of learner variables. According to Gardner (1997), these variables are language aptitude, attitude towards learning a FL/SL, motivation of the learners, language anxiety and, finally, language learning strategies.

All the issues mentioned so far such as child cognitive development, learning characteristics of children, learning differences between adults and children, the right age to start acquiring/learning a SL/FL are both directly and indirectly tied up with learning strategies. The disadvantages of being a child learner or being in different contexts such as a Second Language (SL) or Foreign Language (FL) context or the difficulty of learning a language other than one's native language can be facilitated by the use and teaching of learning strategies, which is the main concern of this study. Thus, the following section will focus on learning strategies.

2.4. What are Learning Strategies?

Due to increasing attention on student-centered instruction and the student himself/herself, learning strategies have rapidly gained importance (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993). A strategy can be described as a mental procedure that is used to promote learning and, which sometimes can be observed as an overt activity (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999). According to Boudah and O'Neil (1999) a learning strategy is "an individual's approach to complete a task" (p. 1). O'Malley and Chamot (1990), point to the cognitive theory as the backbone of learning strategies. It is argued that due to the shift from behaviorist to cognitive theories of learning, the interest in learning strategies

naturally follows. Behaviorist theories are interested in how behavior is influenced by input, whereas, cognitive theories are mostly concerned with the process of information and how it is structured in memory. According to the cognitive theory, people process information. For that reason, mental processes are individual's thoughts in a cognitive activity. Having the ability to consciously influence one's own learning makes language learning a cognitive process similar to learning other things (McLaughlin, 1978).

Weinstein and Mayer (1986) claim that how we perceive the teaching-learning process has been changed by the cognitive approach. Accordingly;

- 2) Learning is an active process that happens within the learner and the learner can influence this process,
- 3) The type of information and how the learner processes this information determines the outcome of learning.

They also suggest that there are two activities that have a role in information processing. The first one is teaching strategies. These are determined by the way the teacher chooses to present the material and when. The second one is learning strategies. These are dependent on how the learner organizes, elaborates or makes predictions about the material. The behaviorist approach has pulled the educators' attention to teaching strategies, whereas, the cognitive approach has focused on learner strategies. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) propose a framework for the teaching and learning process. The elements of this process include:

- 1) Teacher characteristics: This involves teachers' knowledge about a topic and the ways to teach it.
- 2) Teaching strategies: This involves what the teacher does while teaching.

- 3) Learner characteristics: This involves students' knowledge about the facts, procedures, and strategies.
- 4) Learning strategies: These are behaviors that students engage in while learning.
- 5) Encoding process: These are internal cognitive processes that determine the selection, organization and integration of knowledge.
- 6) Learning outcomes: These depend on teaching and learning strategies.
- 7) Performance: This is the evaluation of learning.

Certain strategies and methods can be made available to the learner through learning strategy training, which in turn can affect the encoding process. Eventually, this encoding process affects the learning outcome and performance.

Cognitive theory is in conflict with Krashen's (1987) acquisition/learning theory under the Monitor Hypothesis, where he argues that language can be acquired through natural communication, but cannot be consciously learnt. Thus, this implies that "conscious learning strategies are not useful in the development of language" (Griffiths and Parr, 2001, p. 249).

Weinstein and Mayer (1986) define learning strategies as "behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning and that are intended to influence the learners's encoding process" (p.315). Similarly, Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (p. 8). Basically, it can be said that strategies are tactics that language learners use to understand input, learn new information in the target language, keep it in mind and remember when needed. They are used to help the learner in the learning process. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) argue that the goal of a learning strategy might be to affect the way the learner "selects, acquires, organizes,

integrates” (p. 315) new information or to affect motivational or affective states of the learner. Some researchers such as Chamot and Küpper (1989) refer to strategies as techniques rather than tactics.

According to Wenden (1987), learner strategies can refer to:

1. learners’ language learning behaviors,
2. learners’ knowledge about their own use of strategies, e.g. when writing a diary or being interviewed about them,
3. learners’ knowledge about the aspects of their learning, not their strategies.

Also, Wenden (1987), identifies six features of strategies:

1. Strategies are actions and techniques used in specific learning tasks,
2. Some of these actions are observable and some are not,
3. Strategies are used in problematic conditions to react in case of a learning need,
4. Strategies can contribute to learning both directly and indirectly,
5. Although some strategies are conscious some of them become automatized,
6. They can change in time.

In addition to these characteristics, Oxford (1990), lists 12 features of language learning strategies five of which are similar to those of Wenden (1987). Other features not mentioned by Wenden are:

1. Strategies contribute to the achievement of communicative competence,
2. They enable learners to be self-directed,
3. They stretch teachers’ role in the classrooms,
4. Many aspects of the learner are involved in learning strategies in addition to the cognitive aspect,
5. It is possible to teach strategies,

6. They are flexible,
7. Various factors can influence strategies.

2.4.1. Language Learning Strategies Research:

Studies on language learning strategies have been popular for the last two decades. Initial studies aimed to investigate the characteristics of the good language learner and identify strategies that effective language learners use while learning a second language (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper, 1985a; Rubin, 1975; Rubin, 1987; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Research on the characteristics of the good language learner originated from the thought that human's innate ability to learn/acquire their mother tongue seem to decline when learning a second/foreign (SL/FL) language. Yet, there are many people who can achieve SL/FL success when compared to others who cannot. Rubin (1975), refers to the former as "successful learners" and the latter as "poorer learners". Griffiths and Parr (2001) claim that the differences in success rates of individuals can be the result of the use of various strategies that learners choose to use for different tasks. Rubin (1975), argues that if more is learned about successful learners, it might be possible to teach their strategies to poorer learners to increase their success level. By strategies she refers to techniques and devices that can be used for the acquisition of knowledge. Accordingly, the good language learner;

1. is a willing and accurate guesser,
2. has a strong desire to communicate, or to learn from communication,
3. is often not inhibited,

4. is prepared to attend to form,
5. monitors his own speech and that of others,
6. attends to meaning (p. 45, 46, 47).

Following intervention studies conducted in first and second language contexts aimed to teach effective learning strategies (Chamot & Kupper, 1989). Efforts to identify the characteristics of the good language learner show that language learners apply learning strategies and that it is possible to describe and classify these strategies (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

Most of the strategy research has investigated learners beyond elementary school. Data is gathered from adolescents and adults. Studies concerning the strategy use of elementary school children mostly focus on strategy use in the learning of the native language. It can be said that success has been achieved in studies where children use L1 learning strategies (Chamot and El-Dinary, 1999). The rest of the research on children's language learning strategies either focuses on a single strategy type and/or skill or tries to describe strategies used by bilingual children.

One such study that focuses on a single strategy use of children on a single language skill is conducted by Padron and Waxman (1988). In their study the researchers investigated the cognitive strategies of 82 Hispanic ESL learners in third, fourth and fifth grades and how these effect their reading achievement. Students were given a pre- and post-test consisting of a reading comprehension section of the 'Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test'. Later they used a 14-item, three-point likert scale 'Reading Strategy Questionnaire (RSQ)', which had been formerly developed by the researchers. The responses in the questionnaire were a) Always, b) Sometimes, or c) Never. The items were read to the participants in order to prevent any interference due

to students' reading ability. The researchers used a stepwise multiple regression to determine strategies that significantly predict students' post-test achievement. The results indicated that two strategies; 'Thinking about something else while reading' and 'Saying the main idea over and over' had a negative effect on students' post-test achievement. By looking at the results of this study, researchers claimed that for reading comprehension, students' cognitive strategies have predictive validity.

One important study conducted to identify language learning strategies of bilingual children is the one by Purdie and Oliver (1999). The study was conducted on 58 successful language learners who are between 9-12 years of age in Australia. The students represented three cultural groups: Asian, European and Arabic. The researchers used a structured interview to collect data, which contained questions about students "1) family, educational and cultural background; 2) attitude to English in the classroom, in the playground, and at home; 3) English language efficacy beliefs; 4) use of language learning strategies" (p. 379).

In order to identify students' attitudes towards English, students indicated how they felt about English on a five-point likert scale. The scale was represented both numerically (1 = very positive attitude; 5 = very negative attitude) and pictorially (happy through sad faces).

Language efficacy questions were prepared for students to indicate how good they thought they were in learning English. A three-point scale (1 = good, 2 = just okay, 3 = not very good) was used for this group of questions.

The language learning strategies section consisting of 38 items was revised after it was tried on three groups of students similar to the subject group. The students were asked to respond on a five-point likert scale both numerically (1 = always or almost

always true for me; 5 = never or almost never true) and pictorially with the use of a series of tricks and crosses. The researchers adopted Oxford's classification procedure without including a Managing Emotions (affective strategies) subscale. For the purpose of comparison, the items were categorized according to O'Malley et al.'s classification scheme (1985 a, b). Thus, O'Malley et al.'s cognitive strategies are referred to and detailed as Remembering Effectively, Using Mental Processes, and Compensating strategies according to Oxford (1989). O'Malley et al.'s metacognitive strategies are the Organising and Evaluating strategies of Oxford and lastly, O'Malley et al.'s social mediation strategies correspond to Oxford's Learning with Others strategy. It is important to note that the name of the strategy sets of Oxford (1989) are altered by Oxford (1990) herself later in her book 'Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know'. Yet, the researchers preferred and used the names of the earlier version of Oxford's taxonomy.

Due to a small sample size, Purdie and Oliver (1999) did not use factor analysis, instead they used MANOVA (Multivariate analyses of variance) on students' answers to strategy questions by taking four personal characteristics into consideration as variables. These are: place of birth, cultural group, whether students received ESL instruction or not, and length of time in Australia.

The results showed no significant relation between strategy use and place of birth, cultural group, and ESL instruction both in Oxford's and O'Malley et al.'s classification systems. The only significant relation was found in the length of time in Australia.

In addition, when relationship between language efficacy beliefs, attitudes to English and language learning strategy use were considered, high intercorrelations

between all measures were found, the largest being (0.81) between cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Deriving from this result, researchers claim that there is a lack of differentiation between cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Also, social mediation strategies were found to be highly correlated with cognitive (0.65) and Metacognitive (0.61) strategies.

Attitude ratings were made according to three types as Academic Attitude (in the classroom), Social Attitude (on the playground) and Home Attitude (at home). Accordingly, academic attitude was found to have a predictive power on language learning strategies, as a result of T values in four of the five multiple regression analyses. Yet, in the fifth regression equation writing efficacy, not academic attitude, indicated predictive power, however, the researchers do not comment on the reasons.

Purdie and Oliver (1999) conclude that according to the broad classification scheme of O'Malley et al. cognitive strategies were the most frequently used strategies. When Oxford's more detailed scheme was used compensating strategies were found to be the most frequently used strategies among other cognitive strategies. Moreover, the least used strategies were social strategies. Although cognitive and metacognitive strategies were significantly related to students' "feelings of language efficacy or to their attitudes to English in the classroom or in the playground" (p. 384). Social strategies were not significantly related to these factors.

One limitation of the study is that the data is collected only through a structured interview. For results to be more generalizable, other ways of data collection should be used along with the interview. In addition, as indicated by the researchers, lack of differences between the groups of students when place of birth, cultural background, and previous ESL instruction might be due to the use of a broad classification scheme.

Moreover, since the age group is young (9-12 years) the five-point likert scale used for the identification of strategies might not be appropriate. As slight differences are put in responses, the child's comprehension of these differences becomes questionable. It is a possibility that some students did not understand slight meaning differences in the responses and answered whatever they understood. Such a possibility lowers the validity of the instrument as well as the credibility of the results. Also, although the researchers argue that "there are psychological and social differences between adults, adolescents and children, [and claim that] ... they approach language learning in different ways" (p. 377), their instrument is based on other instruments previously developed by Oxford (1989) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) that were developed for adolescent and adult language learners.

Despite these limitations, the study is an important attempt to identify language learning strategies of children. However, it stresses the importance of and need for developing an appropriate language learning strategies inventory especially for children, which the current study attempts to do.

According to studies on children, it appears that when acquiring a second language, children's rate and level is influenced greatly by learning strategies. On the other hand, during the acquisition of an L1, developmental and experiential factors have a major influence (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Nonetheless, there is a gap in the literature. Thus, Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) take research on children's language learning strategies one step further and investigated learning strategies of children in immersion classes. In their study, which is a part of a six-year longitudinal study, Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) try to identify language learning strategies of elementary school immersion students in reading and

writing tasks, and they compare strategy use of more and less effective learners. The study involves five French, three Spanish, and six Japanese immersion classrooms. Students' grade levels range from kindergarten to sixth grade, but not every level is represented in the study since immersion teachers participated on a voluntary basis. All but the two of the immersion teachers who participated in the study were native speakers of the target language. The other two are referred to as near-native speakers. The teachers were asked to rate their students' target language proficiency individually and independent from others as high, average, or low, by considering their expectations.

Although for the main (longitudinal) study the researchers used classroom observation, teacher interviews, annual think-aloud protocols as well as questionnaires, for this study they gathered data through think-aloud protocols from third, fourth and fifth grade students. Think-aloud sessions were audio-taped and then transcribed. Analysis of these transcripts indicated that children as young as first grade can describe their thoughts in rich detail, which indicates the use of metacognitive strategies at an early age.

Their results showed that "there were no statistically significant differences between high- and low-rated students in overall measures of strategy use or metacognitive awareness statements for either reading or writing" (p. 325). Significant differences were found in the reading strategies of low and high students. The low students used more phonetic decoding, whereas, high students used more background knowledge strategies such as inferencing, predicting and elaborating. For the writing skill no significant differences were found between high and low students.

When reading and writing skills were compared, it was found that students used more strategies for reading than writing. In addition, cognitive strategies were preferred

mostly for the reading skill, whereas, metaconitive strategies were preferred mostly for the writing skill.

By looking at the think-aloud transcripts researchers claim that less successful students tend to cling to ineffective strategies, yet more effective students are more flexible in their strategy choice.

Strategy research to date has shown that all language learners use some kinds of strategies, yet the frequency, variety, and the choice of strategies show variation among learners (Chamot and Küpper, 1999). However, Purdie and Oliver (1999) cautions practitioners when applying the results of language learning strategy research conducted with adults and adolescents to children. Further, they argue that children differ from adults and adolescents psychologically and socially as well as in their approach to language learning. Consequently, it is necessary to extend strategy research to address the issue of age (Oxford and Crookall, 1989; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990) and children in different contexts. As it is seen, research on children's LLS was mostly conducted in ESL contexts and/or with bilingual learners, in addition to L1 strategy use of children. Research also indicates that studies used questionnaires and inventories previously designed for adult and adolescent learners with few adaptations. If we talk about differences between adults and children, it is important to use instruments developed especially for children by data gathered from children themselves. Therefore, previous research, and inadequate data collection instruments used in children's strategy research justifies the reasons for conducting the second phase of this study, which aims to develop a LLS inventory for children.

Moreover, previous studies focused on single strategy type or strategies used while learning a single skill. A more comprehensive study that investigates LLS without

focusing on a single type or skill needs to be conducted. As a result of such study it would be possible to see if children use different strategies than adults and adolescents and if they use all the strategy types mentioned in the literature. Consequently, this is why the first phase of this study was conducted.

As seen from the literature, strategies of elementary school children were investigated either in L1 or in formal ESL contexts, or they investigated a single strategy use in one or two skills. There is a need for a more comprehensive study that investigates all strategy types and their use in various skills. Hence, there is still a gap to be filled. In addition, there is also a need for studies conducted in EFL contexts to identify strategy use and strategy choices alternating according to the setting, culture, and may be language background.

Before investigating strategies used by children, it is crucial to examine taxonomies developed so far by data gathered from adolescents and adults. In the next section the most important taxonomies developed to date will be examined.

2.5. Language Learning Taxonomies:

One of the most frequently used learning strategies taxonomy was developed by Weinstein and Mayer (1986). Their taxonomy is not specific for language learning; yet there are some overlaps with current language learning strategy taxonomies. The taxonomy consists of eight categories.

- 1) Basic Rehearsal Strategies: Here, rehearsing refers to reciting or naming items while learning. This group of strategies includes repeating the items in a list. By

looking at the literature, Weinstein and Mayer argue that rehearsal strategies are used more by children below the fourth grade to memorize new information.

- 2) **Complex Rehearsal Strategies:** This group of strategies includes strategies such as underlining or highlighting important information, copying necessary parts of a lesson and taking notes of selected parts.
- 3) **Basic Elaboration Strategies:** The main aim of this group of strategies is to build internal associations. Therefore, strategies such as forming mental images or producing sentences that connect two or more items are under this group. These strategies can be used in paired-associate learning tasks such as learning new vocabulary in the foreign language, serial list learning such as learning the months of the year and, finally, free recall list learning such as learning the names of body parts.
- 4) **Complex Elaboration Strategies:** The aim of this group of strategies is to integrate new information with previous knowledge. Strategies include summarizing, paraphrasing, generative note-taking, creating analysis.
- 5) **Basic Organizational Strategies:** Grouping or clustering new information to learn and recall belongs to this group of strategies.
- 6) **Complex Organizational Strategies:** These strategies can be used to accomplish two goals; first, to select necessary information to send to the working memory and second; to build relationships among ideas that are currently in the working memory. Outlining and organizing the new material are two strategies under this group.
- 7) **Comprehension Monitoring Strategies:** These strategies require learners to establish a learning goal and then assess whether these goals are met. In this

group, learners use strategies to check comprehension failures, such as self-questioning using comprehension questions of a passage to check one's own understanding.

- 8) **Affective Strategies:** These strategies are the ones that are used to prevent negative feelings towards the learning task or subject and reducing external distracting factors. Some of these are strategies using thought stopping to prevent fears and anxieties or studying in a calm quiet place.

Some of Weinstein and Mayer's strategies overlap with those of Oxford's (1990). Overlappings will be shown in parantheses when discussing Oxford's taxonomy, which will be dealt with later in the section (p. 52-56). Aside from learning about strategy taxonomies, various researchers have developed taxonomies for language learning strategies. One of these is Rubin's (1981; O'Malley et al. 1985a; and O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo, 1985b) strategy classification. Accordingly, Rubin identified two primary categories: strategies that affect learning directly and indirectly. Rubin's classification of direct strategies includes clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, and practice (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Indirect strategies are creating opportunities for practice and production tricks. While producing her classification scheme, Rubin used various data collection methods in various settings. These methods include;

1. 50 hours of classroom observations,
2. Observation of a small group of students working on a strip-story,
3. Analysis of self-reports from a few students,
4. Analysis of daily journal entries (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p.3).

Another strategy classification was developed by Naiman, Froehlich, Stern, and Todesco (1978). In this classification there are five categories of strategies and a few sub-categories. These are:

1. active task approach, which includes seeking learning opportunities and learning environments, adding language learning activities to a classroom program and practicing;
2. realization of language as a system, which includes comparisons of L1 and L2, analysis of the target language for the purpose of inferencing, and using the system of the language;
3. realization of language as a means of communication and interaction, which includes the emphasis of fluency over accuracy and seeking out opportunities to communicate with L2 speakers;
4. management of affective demands, which includes finding out sociocultural meanings and coping with affective factors in learning; and finally
5. monitoring L2 performance, which includes the revision of the target language system by inference testing and asking for feedback from native speakers.

Naiman et al. (1978) reached these results through interviews of 34 good language learners and by using an earlier scheme developed by Stern (1975).

Another strategy classification was developed by Bialystok (1978), which was born out of her model of second language learning. Accordingly, language learning strategies indicate optional relationships between the elements of her model. Her classification includes four categories: formal practicing, functional practicing, inferencing, and monitoring. According to her model, learning strategies are defined as “optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a

second language” (Bialystok, 1978, p. 71). The type of knowledge necessary to accomplish a task determines the type of strategy used by the learner. Accordingly, there are three types of knowledge: explicit, implicit, and general (referred to as other knowledge). Implicit and general world knowledge is used for inferencing, implicit and explicit linguistic knowledge is used for monitoring, formal and functional practicing. It can be derived from this information that explicit instruction of strategies in formal settings can add to implicit knowledge, which in turn affects students’ comprehension and production in spontaneous language (O’Malley et al, 1985a). In this respect, this model can be contrasted with Krashen’s acquisition and learning distinction in his monitor model, where it is hypothesized that conscious learning cannot turn into unconscious acquisition. Hence, according to Krashen’s monitor model, it would be useless to teach language learning strategies for language acquisition.

Carver (1984) also offers a taxonomy of learner strategies. The backbone of his language learning strategies (LLS) taxonomy consists of the idea that “strategies arise directly from learning styles and work habits, and so tend to be adventitious and unplanned” (p.125). He further argues that learner strategies might be more effective and satisfying if learning styles and work habits are directed by conscious plans. Carver’s taxonomy consists of four major sets each having various strategies;

1. Strategies for coping with TL (target language) rules,
 - Generalization,
 - Transfer from L1,
 - Simplification,
 - Reinterpretation,
 - Hypercorrection,

- Elimination of register differences,
2. Strategies for receiving performance
 - Inferring,
 - Checking,
 - Predicting,
 - Identifying key terms,
 3. Strategies for producing performance
 - Repeating oneself,
 - Labeling discourse elements,
 - Lifting elements of interlocutor's language,
 - Rehearsing before production,
 - Monitoring reception of message,
 - Using routines,
 4. Strategies for organizing learning
 - Repetition,
 - Cognition,
 - Whole or part learning,
 - Concentrated or paced learning.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990), grouped language learning strategies under three broad categories. Accordingly, the first group of strategies are metacognitive strategies, which consist of seven strategies grouped under three strategy sets: planning, monitoring and evaluation. Strategies that are listed under planning strategy set are: advance organizers, directed attention, functional planning, selective attention, and self-

management. The strategy under monitoring is: self-monitoring and, finally, evaluation consists of strategy of the self-evaluation.

Cognitive strategies consist of fourteen strategies: resourcing, repetition, grouping, deduction, imagery, auditory representation, keyword method, elaboration, transfer, inferencing, note taking, summarizing, recombination, and translation. The last group of strategies are social strategies named as social mediation or social affective strategies. In this group there are two strategies: clarification questions and cooperation (Chamot, 1993).

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) used a scheme previously developed by Brown and Palincsar (1982), which consists of metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Social strategies and around 14 more strategies were identified from the literature and added to their strategy classification.

A more complicated and satisfactory strategy classification is developed by Oxford (1990). Through an extensive review of the literature, Oxford (1990) developed a language learning strategy scheme that is the most appreciated and used so far. She initially groups strategies under two main categories as direct and indirect strategies. This broad categorization was also made earlier by Rubin (1981). Direct strategies are those that involve the direct use of language as well as those that affect language learning directly. Indirect strategies are not involved directly with language learning, though they support it (Oxford, 1990; Hsiao and Oxford, 2002). Each major category consists of three strategy groups: Memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies under direct strategies and metacognitive, affective and social strategies under indirect strategies. These strategy groups are composed of 19 strategy sets. As a whole Oxford's

strategy system includes 62 strategies. Since this is the richest and the most detailed system of categorization, the current study uses it as a basis.

It is crucial to define these strategy groups (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social) in order to comprehend the strategy classification.

1. Memory Strategies: These are mnemonic devices that help learners store information in the long-term memory and retrieve it when needed. The strategies under this group enable the learner to keep and remember new information.

Strategy sets under this group are as follows:

- Creating Mental Linkages (Basic Organizational Strategies that are mentioned by Weinstein and Mayer mostly fall under this group)
- Applying Images and Sounds (Weinstein and Mayer's Basic Elaboration Strategies mostly fall under this group)
- Reviewing Well
- Employing Action

2. Cognitive Strategies: This group of strategies helps the learner during the comprehension and production of meaning in the new language. They are directly in relation to the learning tasks. Strategy sets under this group are:

- Practicing (Basic Rehearsal Strategies of Weinstein and Mayer are under this set)
- Receiving and Sending Messages
- Analyzing and Reasoning
- Creating Structure for Input and Output (Complex Rehearsal Strategies and Complex Elaboration Strategies described by Weinstein and Mayer are mostly under this set)

3. **Compensation Strategies:** These are techniques that learners make up for missing or inadequate knowledge. With the use of these strategies the learners manipulate the language for comprehension and production in spite of their knowledge gaps by trying to make intelligent guesses, for instance. Formerly, this group of strategies was referred to as communication strategies. Initial studies on strategies started with the investigation of communication strategies. Thus, research literature dealt with the issue comprehensively and taxonomies were developed for this group of strategies. Due to the fact that communication strategies pulled attention of the researchers for a long time and since it is very much related to compensation strategies and the topic at hand, the next section will review literature on communication strategies. Strategy sets under Compensation Strategies in Oxford's classification scheme are:

- Guessing Intelligently
- Overcoming Limitations in Speaking and Writing

4. **Metacognitive Strategies:** Metacognition means beyond cognition. It refers to learners' knowledge about their cognitive processes as well as their ability to control them (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). Metacognitive knowledge refers to what one knows about learning. It is "information learners acquire about their learning" (Wenden, 1999, p.436). Metacognitive knowledge affects one's cognitive activities. When a learning task requires conscious thinking or when the information is new or when the previous learning has been incorrect or incomplete, learners may purposely use metacognitive knowledge. Metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies are parts of the notion of 'metacognition', yet they are two different concepts. Metacognitive strategies

are learners' actions that are beyond cognitive processes. They are skills that learners use to manage, direct, and regulate their own learning. These strategies help the learner in organizing their learning and while evaluating it, thus enable coordination. Metacognitive strategies are used by learners who have awareness about their thinking and learning. These include strategy sets such as:

- Centering Your Learning
 - Arranging and Planning your Learning (Weinstein and Mayer's Complex Organizational Strategies correspond to this group of strategies)
 - Evaluating Your Learning (Comprehension Monitoring Strategies as described by Weinstein and Mayer are mostly under this set)
5. Affective Strategies: Affect is related to ones attitudes, motivations, and emotions. These factors can be controlled and managed by affective strategies. There are three strategy sets under this group:
- Lowering your Anxiety (Weinstein and Mayer's affective strategies mostly represent strategies under this set)
 - Encouraging Yourself
 - Taking Your Emotional Temperature
6. Social Strategies: Since language is a social behavior that happens among people either verbal or non-verbal, language learning itself is a social process, which involves other people. Social strategies are ways to learn with others, for example asking questions to the teacher or a peer, and working cooperatively with other people are some of these social strategies. (Oxford, 1990; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990). Three strategy sets under this group are:
- Asking Questions

- Cooperating with Others
- Emphatizing with Others

2.5.1. Communication Strategies and Taxonomies:

Among these strategy sets the one that needs additional emphasis is Compensation Strategies. In the literature, this group of strategies is formerly mentioned as communication strategies. The notion of communication strategies first pulled the interest of researchers in the early 1970s (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). This rise of interest was due to recognizing that there was a “mismatch between L2 speaker’s linguistic resources and communicative intentions [which] leads to a number of systematic language phenomena whose main function is to handle difficulties of breakdowns in communication” (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997, p. 174).

Communication strategies (CS) were given various other names such as ‘coping strategies’ by Savignon (1972), ‘strategies in interlanguage communication’ by Faerch and Kasper (1983, 1984), and ‘strategic competence’ by Tarone and Yule (1989). Though many researchers (Tarone, 1980; Faerch and Kasper, 1983, 1984; Vandergrift, 1997; Si-Qing, 1990; Bialystok, 1983) have investigated communication strategies, there is no one accepted definition.

Although there are various definitions of communication strategies, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) pull our attention to two criteria that are mentioned consistently in the literature: problem-orientedness and consciousness. In the first criteria “CS were seen as language devices used to overcome communication problems related to interlanguage

deficiencies” (p. 182). These devices can either be verbal or nonverbal. There are four types of language problems that are handled by CS:

1. resource deficits: these are due to speakers insufficient or lack of knowledge that prevent the verbalization of messages.
2. own-performance problems: due to realizing one’s incorrect or partly-correct utterance using self-editing, self-repair mechanisms.
3. other-performance problems: due to lack of or incorrect understanding of the interlocutor’s speech using meaning negotiation strategies.
4. processing-time pressure: due to the need for more time to process and plan their speech using self-repetition, fillers, and hesitation devices.

The other defining criterion of CS is consciousness. This is an important criteria considering the fact that strategies are conscious techniques that are used to accomplish or reach a goal. Dörnyei and Scott (1997) mention three aspects of consciousness in CS research:

1. Consciousness as awareness of the problem: This is being aware of and distinguishing mistakes and conscious attempts of using erroneous forms, which usually result from coining words (for instance, instead of crib saying baby bed)
2. Consciousness as intentionality. This set of strategies involves speakers’ awareness of the difficulty of the problem but use of unintentional filled pauses such as ‘umming and erring’.
3. Consciousness as awareness of strategic language use. To provide mutual understanding speakers use of stop gap devices such as literal translation.

Due to several definitions found in the literature, there are several taxonomies related to them. Tarone (1980) and Faerch and Kasper’s (1984) taxonomies are worth

mentioning. Tarone (1980) defines CS as “mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where the requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared” (p. 20). This definition signals the importance of the negotiation of meaning among two interlocutors. Therefore, her definition of CS has an interactional view. Tarone (1980) also determines criteria for communication strategies. Accordingly;

1. A speaker desires to communicate meaning x to a listener
2. The speaker believes the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure desired to communicate meaning x is unavailable or is not shared with the listener
3. The speaker chooses to:
 - a. avoid – not attempt to communicate meaning x or
 - b. attempt alternate means to communicate meaning x. The speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems clear to the speaker that there is shared meaning.

By using these criteria Tarone forms her typology of CS, which is composed of categories mentioned below:

Paraphrase

- Approximation
- Word Coinage
- Circumlocution

Transfer

- Literal Translation
- Language Switch
- Appeal for Assistance

- Mime

Avoidance

- Topic Avoidance
- Message Abandonment (p. 429)

In contrast to Tarone's interactional definition of CS, Faerch and Kasper (1984) bring a psycholinguistic definition, and they place "communication strategies within underlying cognitive structures and regard them as a subclass of verbal plans" (p. 47). Their definition is different from other verbal plans in that they consider two criteria "problem orientedness" and "potential consciousness", which were mentioned above. Faerch and Kasper's (1984) typology of CS in interlanguage production has two main categories: Reduction and achievement. Accordingly, when speakers face a communication problem they can either adopt an avoidance or achievement behavior. Thus, in the former, speakers can choose to avoid the topic, abandon the message or replace the meaning. If they choose an achievement behavior, they can develop an alternative plan to accomplish their initial communicative goal.

Reduction Strategies can be divided into two as;

1. Formal reduction (phonological, morphological, grammatical, ...)
2. Functional reduction (actional, prepositional, modal)

Achievement Strategies is initially divided into two:

1. Noncooperative Strategies: Speaker finds an alternative way to express the communicative goal,
 - a) L1/L3-based strategies,

- b) IL-based strategies
- c) Nonlinguistic strategies

2. Cooperative strategies: Both interlocutors engage in problem - solving effort

- a) Appeals

All strategy research makes some contribution to other theories and/or methods of language learning or work along with them such as self-directed learning, student-centered teaching, etc. with an exception of Krashen's Acquisition/Learning theory within the Monitor Hypothesis. Similarly, Griffiths and Parr (2001) suggest that LLS research cooperates with other theories of language learning and teaching as well as various methods and approaches. To exemplify, the Grammar-Translation Method takes its roots from the learning of vocabulary and grammar, which can be developed by the use of memory and cognitive strategies. The same set of strategies "can be involved in the patterning of automatic responses, which are characteristic of the Audio-Lingual Method, more effective" (p.249). Cognitive and metacognitive strategies cover the issue of learning from errors, which is derived from interlanguage theory. Compensation and social strategies can have influence on and be used with the 'Communicative Competence Theory' and the Communicative Language Teaching Approach. Affective strategies can be involved or assimilated in methods with a psychological focus such as Suggestopedia. Deriving from the fact that LLS can go along with many theories and methods, Griffiths and Parr (2001) argue that it "has the potential to be a valuable component of contemporary eclectic syllabuses" (p.249).

As can be seen from the literature, strategy research can have positive influences on classroom practices. Thus, it is necessary to identify language learning strategies of our students to provide extra strategy training and to benefit from our students' current

knowledge on strategies in our classrooms. This, again emphasizes the importance of using LLS inventories appropriate for our learners. The next section will deal with LLS inventories developed so far with a special focus on SILL, which is proved to be a reliable and valid instrument and which is used by many researchers all around the world.

2.6. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL):

There have been survey studies that attempt to learn the LLS use of students. Yet, few of them have conducted reliability and validity studies. Some of them are worth mentioning here.

Upon developing a four-part model related to the learning behaviors of students, Bialystok (1978) surveyed high schools students learning French to test her model. The model consists of:

1. inferencing (guessing)
2. monitoring (noticing errors)
3. formal practicing (with the rules of the language) and
4. functional practicing (using the language)

Bialystok (1981) developed a 12-item, structured rating scale, which asks questions about strategy use in oral and written communicative settings. Yet, neither the reliability nor the validity of the data are reported for this instrument.

Similarly, Padron and Waxman (1988) developed a 14-item instrument with a scale of 1-3 to investigate the reading strategies of 3rd-5th grade ESL learners. This instrument also lacks reliability and validity data.

SILL is one of the instruments that was tested for its reliability and validity. For validity it was factor analyzed. Factor analysis is a statistical procedure, which enables the researcher to divide an instrument into subgroups that are called factors (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995). For the factor analysis, data is gathered from a group of people in order to find out sub-groups or factors that “explain the greatest amount of the reported variability among the individuals” (Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 410)

SILL Version 7.0 for speakers of other languages learning English is a 50-item instrument, which explores ESL/EFL learners’ use of strategies while learning a language. On a five point likert scale learners are asked to indicate how true the statement is for the respondent. Choices range from never or almost never true of me and always or almost always true of me.

SILL has been widely used all around the world in universities, schools, and government agencies (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Language learning strategies, that are in the inventory, cover four basic skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The strategy descriptions used in SILL are gathered from a taxonomy, which was based on an extensive literature and research review and developed by Oxford, (1990).

The initial factor analytic study of SILL was done on 483 adults at the ‘Defense Language Institute’ at Monterey and resulted in five primary factors and five subsidiary factors. Accordingly,

1. general study habits (e.g. Previewing, using time well, self-evaluating)
2. functional or authentic language practice (e.g. seeking native speakers, initiating conversations, going to movies)
3. searching for and communicating meaning (e.g. guessing the meaning, analyzing words, using body language)

4. studying or practicing the language independently (e.g. practicing rules individually, using tape-recorder)
5. memory devices (e.g. remembering by location, making associations, using rhymes)

Subsidiary factors;

1. compensation techniques,
2. formal rule-practicing,
3. metacognitive,
4. visualization,
5. formal model-building (Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 411)

A second factor analytic study was conducted on a total of 1,200 students' learning five different languages (French, Spanish, Italian, German and Russian). All subjects were students at a university. Five factors appeared as a result of the analysis;

1. formal, rule-related practice,
2. functional, authentic language practice,
3. resourceful, independent language learning techniques, both mnemonic and metacognitive,
4. general study habits,
5. elicitation of target language input from other people (Oxford and Crookall, 1989, p. 411).

The previous version of SILL consisted of 121 items. For this version, content, concurrent, and construct validity were measured. Accordingly, two independent raters matched the items with the comprehensive taxonomy mentioned above and the content validity was found to be .95. Oxford & Nyikos (1989) argue that concurrent validity

and to some degree construct validity, can be assumed. Their argument is supported by their claim that "...strong relationships between SILL factors and self-ratings of language proficiency and language motivation" (p. 292) were found in their study. Furthermore, internal consistency reliability is measured by using Cronbach's alpha and found to be .96. Reliability was based on a sample of 1,200 university students.

Factor analysis of the 121-item version of the SILL revealed ten factors:

1. general learning strategies for reading and study,
2. authentic language use,
3. searching for and communicating meaning,
4. independent strategies, which can be used without involving anyone else,
5. memory strategies (mnemonics),
6. social strategies,
7. affective strategies,
8. self-management,
9. visualisation strategies,
10. formal-model building (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989, p. 3).

In another study, Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) did the psychometric testing of SILL by using data gathered from six countries (Puerto Rico, Taiwan, PR China, Japan, Egypt, different universities in US). Reliability and the validity of the instrument according to data coming from these countries were calculated.

Reliability is the degree of accuracy of scores. Cronbach Alpha was chosen to be the most appropriate measure of internal consistency and used by the researchers. Internal consistency reliability changed between .85 and .94 among these countries, which can be considered high (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995).

Validity tests whether an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. There are three types of validity. Content validity requires the judgement of professionals. This is also found high for SILL. A .99 agreement between two strategy experts was found when they matched the SILL items with a comprehensive language learning strategy taxonomy.

Criterion-related validity determines if there is a relationship between a key variable and other variables. Here key variable being a learning strategy use and the other variable being the language performance.

Predictive and concurrent validity, which are forms of criterion validity, shows relationships between SILL and language performance.

Construct validity shows “how well a theoretical construct is measured” (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995, p.8). ANOVA (Analysis of variance) and MANOVA (Multivariate analysis of variance) show construct validity on pre-established groups. Factor analysis and multidimensional scaling are other ways to demonstrate the dimensions of a theoretical construct (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995).

For six of the studies in six different countries principal components analysis (Varimax solution) was used and 9 factors were found. Results from each country showed that most of these factors are common. A total of 13 factors were identified;

1. Active language use,
2. Metacognitive planning,
3. Sensory memory strategies,
4. Affective and Social,
5. Affective strategies,
6. Reflection (analysis and anxiety),

7. Formal oral practice,
8. Compensation and analysis,
9. Compensation in speaking,
10. Social strategies,
11. Sensory (visual) memory,
12. Attention to key details,
13. General memory strategies (p. 17).

As a result of SILL's validity testing, different factorial groupings were found in various studies. Thus, Hsiao and Oxford (2002) conducted a study to test construct validity of SILL composed of the six strategy sets (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social).

Hsiao and Oxford (2002) made a confirmatory factor analysis by using the ESL/EFL version of SILL on 517 college EFL students. SILL was translated into Chinese and instead of original five-point likert scale, this time the students were asked to mark their answers on an eight-point bipolar scale. The left side of the scale indicating "never use it" and shown by number 1, the right side indicating "often use it" and shown by number 8. The scale was then evenly divided between these two polars having no descriptors.

For internal reliability Cronbach Alpha was found to be .94 for the whole inventory and .75 for memory strategies, .84 for cognitive strategies, .69 for compensation strategies, .86 for metacognitive strategies, .68 for affective strategies, and .78 for social strategies.

According to Hsiao and Oxford (2002) SILL also performed well on the validity test. After using chi-square difference tests it was argued that SILL possessed

discriminant validity, which indicates that there are six types of language learning strategies.

Analyses were made by using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), a statistical method found in 'SAS systems's Covariance Analysis of Linear Structural Equations (CALIS)', and which is different from common exploratory factor analysis.

Hsiao and Oxford's study compared rival models of strategy classification, such as O'Malley and Chamot's categorization of cognitive, metacognitive and socioaffective strategies, Rubin and Oxford's direct and indirect strategy dichotomy versus Oxford's six-factor (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social) categorization. Their results indicated that Oxford's "six-factor model without the two higher-order strategy constructs"(p. 378) (direct and indirect strategies) is more representative of learners' strategy use when compared to other models.

2.7. The Importance of Studying Language Learning Strategies:

Although language learning strategies and learning strategies are widely researched topics, some argue that strategy research is still in its infancy due to conflicting results in various research (Skehan, 1989, Huang & Van Naerssen, 1987). As mentioned before, initial studies on language learning strategies derived from endeavors to investigate the good language learner. Some studies argue that good language learners use strategies to aid them in gaining a better command of the language (Naiman et al., 1978, and Rigney, 1978). Some other studies argue that unsuccessful students rarely use strategies and have a small repertoire. Still, when these students do use strategies, most of the time they choose inappropriate ones (Chamot &

Kupper, 1989; Chamot, 1993). Whereas, some other studies such as the one conducted by Vann and Abraham, (1990) argue that unsuccessful students are actually active strategy users, yet sometimes they use their knowledge of strategies inappropriately.

In addition to the conflicting results about the use of strategies by successful and unsuccessful learners, there is one more issue that proves that language learning strategy research is embryonic. This is the fact that most research has been conducted with students above the elementary grades. Thus, they tried to explain language learning strategies and their use according to adolescents and adults. This indicates a huge gap in the literature in that strategy use and strategy type preferences of children at the elementary grades need to be investigated.

2.7.1. The Importance of Studying Language Learning Strategies of Children:

Due to different learning characteristics and different physical and psychological development, it would be misleading to extend or adapt strategy research so that it includes young learners. First of all, it is possible that children use different strategies than adults and/or adolescents. This variation could be in the number and the type of strategies they use. Hence, it is indispensable to extend strategy research to find out any possible differences and/or similarities between children and adults/adolescents in their use of language learning strategies. Secondly, it is argued that language learning strategies influence the rate and level of second language acquisition (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). If children can improve in their language use, it becomes beneficial to investigate their language learning strategy use and use effective strategies to enhance their development.

equally important to identify the types of strategies that children prefer using to integrate strategy training into their learning. Finding out children's strategies would enable the teachers and educators to;

1. develop new methodologies or expand existing ones,
2. find effective ways of teaching,
3. understand children's choice of strategies,
4. design lessons according to children's needs,
5. implement strategy training and help them learn new and effective strategies,
6. create autonomous learners,

After clarifying the current place of strategy research in the literature and indicating the need to stretch strategy research to SL/FL teaching of children, one needs to mention the consequences of strategy use in learning. The major benefit of strategy use is that it enables the students to become autonomous and self-directed. The relation of learning strategies and autonomy, and the possibility of enabling children to be autonomous will be dealt with in the following sections.

2.8. Autonomy and Language Learning Strategies:

One of the reasons that attention in learning strategies has grown due to increasing interest in the student and student-centered models of teaching (Bayer, 1990; Rubin, 1987). Placing the individual at the center of the teaching and learning process supported studies in learner autonomy and self-directed learning (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Brookes and Grundy (1988) argue autonomy and individualisation are linked to the concept of learner-centeredness. They further claim that as with the recognition of

autonomy, learner centeredness and individualization become more important. As opposed to 'lock-step' teaching, which is a characteristic of the audio-lingual approach, individualisation accentuated the need for developing curricula that includes various styles, abilities, and different learning rates. In the interim, the "Functional-Notional Syllabus" emphasized the communicative needs of the learner in the language syllabus rather than the structural analysis of L2, thus, maintained to be learner-centered (Broady & Kenning, 1996).

The widespread practice of learner training in the 80s and 90s benefited from the insights gained from strategy research. The link between learner autonomy and language learning strategies is made explicit by Wenden (1991) in her book entitled "Learner Strategies for Learner Autonomy" and by Oxford (1990) when discussing the features of learning strategies and metacognitive knowledge. Wenden (1999) draws attention to the relationship between metacognitive knowledge and self-direction. Learners' knowledge about learning, affects two phases of self-direction, which are task analysis and monitoring. Task analysis requires pre-task engagement planning. At this point learners use their metacognitive knowledge. This knowledge is also involved in monitoring. It constitutes a basis to follow one's progress and provides internal feedback.

Appropriate and effective use of learning strategies enhances learner autonomy and self-directed learning since it encourages learners to become responsible for their learning. Strategy training and strategy use gained importance to help students become autonomous learners and reach satisfactory learning outcomes (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1986). Further, Chamot (1999) argues that skillful use of language learning strategies will aid students in becoming more independent and

confident. She also argues that once students became aware of the relationship between strategy use and success they would become motivated in the learning process.

Autonomy, as a concept, first entered the language teaching field through a project called “Council of Europe’s Modern Languages Project”, which was established in 1971. As a positive outcome of the project, a center called “Centre de Recherches et d’Applications en Langues (CRAPEL)” was established. Yves Chalon who was the founder of this center is considered to be the “father of autonomy in language learning” (Benson, 2001, p. 8). Benson (2001) claims that:

Autonomy, or the capacity to take charge of one’s own learning, was seen as a natural product of the practice of self-directed learning, or learning in which the objectives, progress and evaluation of learning are determined by the learners themselves (p. 8).

Similarly, self-directed learning is defined by Cohen (1990, p. 10) as an approach in which “learners make decisions, alone or with the help of others, about what they need or want to know, how they will set objectives for learning, what resources and strategies they will use, and how they will assess their progress”. McDonough (2001) brings in a new terminology called “self-regulation”, which hasn’t been used in the foreign language terminology, yet is related to more common concepts such as self-directed learning, self-instruction or autonomy. Corno and Mandidach (1983) define self-regulation as follows: “Self-regulated learning is an effort to deepen and manipulate the associative network in a particular area (which is not necessarily limited to academic content), and to monitor and improve that deepening process” (p. 95). Corno and Mandidach further argue that the cognitive and affective processes, which are used to complete academic tasks successfully, are planned and monitored

through self-regulation. Self-regulation can become automatic when these metacognitive processes, planning and monitoring, are well developed.

The term self-directed learning, became popular during the 1980's since it emphasized autonomy. The term, covered "research on cognitive strategies, metacognition, and motivation in one coherent construct that emphasized the interplay among these forces" (Paris and Winograd, 2001 p. 4). Hsiao and Oxford (2002) argue that self-regulation in psychology and autonomy in L2 are closely related. As with psychologists, foreign language educators see language learning strategies as an integral part of self-regulated or self-directed learning.

Hsiao and Oxford (2002) give a comprehensive definition for L2 autonomy by combining earlier definitions found in the literature. Thus,

L2 learner autonomy: a) willingness to perform a language task with little or no assistance, with flexibility according to situation, and with transferability to other contexts; and b) relevant action, including the use of appropriate L2 learning strategies for accomplishing the task (p. 369)

2.8.1. The Importance of Being Autonomous:

Autonomy comes from the Greek word *autonomia*, which is derived from the combination of two words *auto*+*nomos* (law). Being a legal and political term The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2001) defines autonomy as "having the power/freedom to govern a region, country etc. without being controlled by anyone else". Hence, autonomy refers to "the management of one's own affairs as opposed to a situation of dependence in which one is subjected to decisions and control by some

outside body” (Broady & Kenning, 1996, p. 12). White (1995) defines autonomy in the language learning context as “... an attitude on the part of the learner towards taking control of the language learning process and assuming responsibility of the process” (p. 209). Similarly, Cotteral (1995), defines it as a “tactic” rather than an attitude to control ones own learning. Finally, Henri Holec, who became the leader of CRAPEL (Centre de Recherces et d’Applications en Langues) after the early death of Yves Chalon in 1972 and who is a prominent person in the field of autonomy defines it as “the ability to take charge of one’s learning” (Holec, 1981, p. 3). As seen from slightly different definitions autonomy is considered as an attitude, ability or a tactic to control one’s own learning and take the responsibility of it.

In this respect, an autonomous person is defined by Littlewood (1996), as “one who has an independent capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern his or her actions” (p. 428). He argues that this capacity consists of two elements: ability and willingness, which also have two components. Ability depends on knowledge and skills and willingness depends on motivation and confidence. For a truly autonomous person, all of these four components should be present together. Being autonomous can be a general capacity towards various situations faced in life or towards a specific action such as a learning activity. Candy (1988) combines these distinctions and points out the fact that one superordinate goal of education is bringing up autonomous individuals.

So, why is it important to become autonomous, to take control and responsibility of one’s learning? Dickinson, (1995) argues that when learners are actively and independently engaged in their learning, not only their motivation for learning increases but also as a consequence, their learning effectiveness will increase. In a study, Wang and Peverly (1986) review the results of strategy research (not related to language

learning) and conclude that: autonomous learners are potentially active and independent. They can determine their goals and change in order to compensate their learning needs. Such learners can use learning strategies and are able to monitor their learning.

Most research in the field of autonomy focuses on autonomous adult learners, for example, studies of Cotterall (1995), Wenden (1987), White (1995), and Yang (1998). This raises a critical question for the present research: If language learning strategies promote autonomy can children be autonomous?

2.8.2. Can Children Become Autonomous?:

Most of the research concerning autonomy and the relationship between autonomy and learning strategies talked about autonomous adults. However, autonomy starts developing in the early years of life. According to Erik Erikson, who is a psychoanalyst with great influence on developmental psychology, a child develops autonomy

... when they are taught how to master tasks or do things for themselves. This teaches them that they are important and can manipulate their environment. Erikson believes that children who are not encouraged to develop this self-confidence may come to doubt themselves or be ashamed of their inability” (Dworetzky, 1993, p. 340).

Similar to children developing autonomy early in their lives as individuals, it is possible that foreign language learners who are pre- adolescence can develop autonomy when learning the target language. Children at an early age (between one and three)

develop autonomy if they are 'taught' ways to accomplish tasks and do things for their own benefit. Young learners of foreign languages can be taught to use language learning strategies to become successful learners. As Erikson argues, encouragement constitutes a crucial part of helping somebody to gain self-confidence. In early child development this encouragement is given by the caretakers. But, in formal language learning contexts it is the teacher who encourages the learners.

Chamot, El-Dinary, Robbins & Barnhardt (1999) support the idea that children can also become autonomous. In a negotiated classroom the order of the work as well as with whom it will be done are decided with the children, which contribute to the process of children gaining autonomy. One way for this autonomy to develop is to let children take responsibility in planning their learning. This gives the child an opportunity to make choices and decisions when doing their work. Giving children opportunity to plan their learning motivates them during the language learning process. Hohmann et al., (1979, p.62) claim that;

Children who are able to plan for themselves see that they can make things happen.

Children begin to view themselves as people who can decide and who can act on their own decisions; they have some control over their own activities.

Teachers need to provide teacher-initiated and child-initiated activities, so that children can choose which one to begin with and when they do it. At this point, it is equally important that children know the time-scale for completion. Providing students with this kind of control in their learning will encourage them to become autonomous, since they learn that their thoughts are accounted for in planning and its action (Chamot et al. 1999).

In such learning environments it is important that the classroom is planned appropriately and children are reminded about the location of materials that they are going to use and that they need to return these materials when they are finished. It can also be necessary to remind children about what is expected of them throughout the course of the day. While doing their work, either teacher-initiated or child-initiated, children need support and encouragement to extend their ideas (Hohmann et al. 1979).

After planning and doing the work, it is important to review what has been done. This could be done by having conversations, either individually while the child is working during the day or as a group while talking about what some children have done during the day.

When necessary classroom conditions are provided and expectations are kept at a high level, children demonstrate higher levels of independence. Planning, doing and reviewing increase self-involvement and motivation (Chamot et al. 1999). Establishing a negotiated classroom environment in general and teaching language learning strategies in detail are necessary components of foreign language learning classrooms that encourage young learners to become autonomous. The notion of being autonomous is, therefore, directly related to the topic of this research, since one way to make it possible is to identify young learners' language learning strategies and establish strategy training.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY:

The methodology chapter of this thesis consists of three parts since the study consists of two different phases, each of which has its own methodologies, as well as a pilot study that was conducted to investigate the most efficient way(s) of data collection from children and to identify the language learning strategies of fifth grade children. The results of the pilot study enabled the researcher to design the methodology of the first phase of the study. Thus, the reader will find three individual methodologies in this section.

Though it will be dealt with in more detail in the following pages, the pilot study aimed to identify efficient data collection techniques from children as well as language learning strategies of children at the fifth grade to develop a general understanding before conducting the first phase of the study. In accordance with the pilot study, the first phase aimed to identify language learning strategies of children at third, fourth and fifth grades by using the data collection techniques that are identified as more effective during the pilot study. The results of the first phase of the study were used to form the items of the children's inventory for language learning strategies (CHILLS). Thus, the second phase aimed to find out the validity and the reliability of the instrument.

There are various research perspectives and the current research uses all, either during the first phase or the second phase or both. According to Marton (1981), a distinction needs to be made when researching "what people do" and "what people

perceive what they do". This distinction points out the possible difference between what people actually do and what they think they are doing. This distinction emphasizes a variety in research perspectives. Marton calls the former as "first-order research" and the latter as "second-order research". He defines these two research perspectives as follows:

In the first, and by far most commonly adopted perspective, we orient ourselves towards the world and make statements about it. In the second perspective, we orient ourselves towards people's ideas about the world (or their experience of it). Let us call the former first-order and the latter second-order perspectives" (Marton, 1981, p. 178).

However, one shouldn't get the idea that the first-order equates being objective and the second-order being subjective since they "are based on assigning meanings to what is observed and experienced" (Freeman, 1998, p. 66). These two orientations enable the researcher to organize his/her research questions and decide ways to collect data to answer them. The pilot study used both first-order and second-order perspectives, in other words, the research is concerned with what children actually do when learning a foreign language and what they think they do.

Freeman (1998), states that data is information the researcher gathers from a source. Data, itself, is not the answer to the question, but it provides the raw material where one might find responses to research questions. Ways to collect data are determined by the researcher's question.

In order to get reliable results, the researcher may choose to use triangulation. "In research, triangulation means including multiple sources of information or points of

view on the phenomenon or question you are investigating” (Freeman, 1998, p. 96).

According to Freeman, there are five different types of triangulation:

1. Data triangulation: Several sources of data are used. Ex: Samples of students’ writing and both the researcher’s and the students’ views can be used.
2. Investigator triangulation: More than one researcher collects data.
3. Methodological triangulation: More than one method of data collection is used.
4. Triangulation in time and/or location: Collecting the same form of data at various time and locations.
5. Theoretical triangulation: More than one perspective is used to analyze the data.
Ex: analyzing the same recording for student participation, topic, gender differences in language use and so on.

The current research used methodological triangulation in addition to triangulation in location.

Three points are essential in triangulation:

1. Triangulation is important when interpreting the data. It enables the researcher to be more stable and confident during the interpretation process.
2. It highlights problems and anomalies.
3. It is not linear but recursive. It can be done during the planning of the research, while conducting the research and when analyzing the data. The researcher needs to think about how to collect more and/or different data and find ways to look the data differently (Freeman, 1998).

3.1. First Phase

3.1.1. The Pilot Study:

3.1.1.1. Purpose of the Pilot Study:

It is a recent endeavor for many countries such as Turkey to teach English as a foreign language to primary school children. Therefore, the subject of teaching a foreign/second language to children requires knowledge of many areas such as methods of second/foreign language teaching, the way children learn, developmental characteristics of children, both physical and psychological, and so on. A limited amount of research on children makes it necessary for language teachers to inquire about their learner group and combine existing theory to new findings about children. Although it seems necessary to learn about their student's learning needs, characteristics, and likes and dislikes, teachers might hesitate to collect such information from children. This might be due to several reasons:

1. Children may react differently to various data collection methods due to their age when compared with adults.
2. They can get bored easily and lose concentration during the data collection process.
3. If they are not interested in what the researcher is doing and why they have to be a part of it, they might refuse to contribute to the process.
4. Although it is a serious process, children may not think the same way or may not be aware of its seriousness, and they might respond in ways other than the researcher has expected.

These and other possible drawbacks might cause teachers and researchers to hesitate to collect data from children. Yet, it is essential to find out the efficient methods of data collection and to elicit necessary information on the language learning strategies of children.

Hence, the pilot study is conducted to test the feasibility of data collection methods, and to decide on the most effective ones to be used in the data collection process of the first phase of the study. In addition, it aimed to identify the learning strategies of 5th grade children in a private school in Bursa while learning a foreign language.

3.1.1.1. Methodology of the Pilot Study:

The pilot study uses a methodological triangulation in order to get rich results. As mentioned before, the purpose was to determine appropriate data collection techniques that can be used with children and to identify the language learning strategies of a specific group of children. Hence, it was necessary to collect detailed information about how these children learn a foreign language. Since there was no single method that proved to be useful when collecting data from children, it was decided to use various data collection methods. Data for the pilot study of the first phase was collected through language learner diaries, task-based interviews, a questionnaire and classroom observations. The variety in data collection methods enables one to receive both first-order and second-order perspectives. Through observation, it was possible to see what children actually do while learning. Of course, the results of this method are limited to only those strategies that are observable. Other data collection methods such as diaries,

task-based interviews and semi-controlled, open-ended questionnaire were used to elicit non-observable strategies.

Collecting data from verbal reports, such as diaries and interviews, is said to be beneficial since they provide direct evidence about invisible processes. In addition, they provide rich data and enable the researcher to explore and identify cognitive processes. However, they also have a disadvantage in that they provide information about strategies that learners' are cognitively aware of (Hayes and Flower, 1983).

Unlike through observation, through interviews it is possible to gather information from personal insights. Yet, the disadvantage of interviews is that a considerable amount of time is needed on the part of teachers and students.

Similar to interviews, diaries also provide the researcher with rich data, yet, they also require a lot of time for the researcher. In addition, due to their open-ended nature, direct comparisons between students are not possible (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995).

Verbal reports can also be gathered by retrospective methods. Retrospection is done after the investigated event has taken place. This type of data collection also has its drawbacks. First, the fact that there is a certain amount of time between the event and the reporting may result in unreliable data. Second, it is also possible that if subjects are informed that they are going to provide a retrospective account, their task performance might be influenced (Nunan, 1986). Reliability of retrospective data collection can be enhanced if retrospection is done right after the event has occurred. In addition, it is also beneficial not to inform the subjects that they will be asked to retrospect afterwards. Other crucial points are to prevent researcher bias and to ensure subjects do not to make inferences. It is also argued that if sufficient contextual information is given to the subjects, the reliability of the research will also increase (Nunan, 1986).

In the pilot study, task-based interviews are conducted retrospectively. Students were asked to report immediately after they finished the task. Thus, they did not have to recall what they had done by listening to a tape, which is why task-based interviews in this study were not stimulated recalls. As Nunan suggested, these interviews were conducted right after the students finished the task without a break. By doing this, the reliability of the method should be greater.

Observations are also a frequently used technique in identifying strategies. However, they have more important drawbacks than verbal learner reports. Firstly, it is difficult to gather accurate insights on learners' conscious thought processes. Secondly, and maybe most importantly, one can only gather data on the visible aspects of learning strategies. Observations do not provide information about the feelings of learners, their thinking or mental strategies (Cohen, 1987; Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995). Also, according to Oxford (1990), "Classroom observations proved to be the least useful of these methods [interviews, diaries, observations] for identifying strategies" (p.3).

In this study, the observation technique was also used to support the written data gathered from children through diary keeping. Since the selected group of learners is young, it is possible that they might be unaware or not conscious about the strategies they use while learning English. However, it is known that through observation observable features, that is the visible movements such as speaking, asking questions, cooperating with peers, etc, can be noted. This technique is used to see if any additional strategies are being used by children that they are not cognitively aware of and hence do not mention in their diaries.

3.1.1.2.1. Subjects:

The study is conducted in a private primary school in Bursa. Fortyone, 5th grade children, in two different classes, participated in the study.

3.1.1.2.2. Instruments:

Methodological triangulation is used in the study. That is, multiple methods were used to gather information. To collect data, students were handed out semi-guided sheets for diary keeping (see Appendix 7). In order to get appropriate answers, some questions written on these sheets attempted to focus students. In this way learners were guided to write about specific issues that might direct them to use strategies.

The second instrument was a checklist that was used during classroom observations (see Appendix 5) and prepared by the researcher. This checklist was developed by investigating the observable strategies that are found in Oxford's taxonomy (1990) and listing them. Also, a space is provided for the observer, in this case the researcher herself, to note down any additional strategies that are observed, but not found among the items.

Thirdly, a semi-guided questionnaire (see Appendix 6) was developed and used by the researcher that aims to collect information about strategies that learners use during all four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) as well as vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar. Without giving out strategies it is tried to get answers to specific questions for each skill were elicited. The questions asked about tactics that children use before, during, and after they perform a skill. In addition to questions such as "What do you do before reading a passage in English?" or "What do

you do while you are reading a passage in English?”, there were also two general questions such as “What do you do, in general, to learn and understand English?”

Lastly, task-based interviews (see Appendices 1A, 1B, and 1C) were conducted directly after students completed a task, prepared by the researcher. Students were asked about their tactics during a reading, listening, writing, and speaking task.

3.1.1.2.3. Procedure:

The initial group of data was gathered through diary keeping. Only one class (21 students) participated in the diary keeping. At the beginning, the researcher discussed and shared opinions with children about the meaning and content of scientific research. At the end of the discussion, children were asked if they would like to participate in scientific research project. Upon agreeing to do the research, they were asked what they knew about diary keeping, and if they were keeping one. When a common understanding was reached on keeping diaries, children were told to keep a special diary for their language learning experience. The diaries were collected every week for a period of eight weeks. For the purposes of practicality, diaries were not kept in notebooks. The researcher gave two separate sheets, one green and one pink, in a transparent file. These files were kept by the children in a larger file. Each week, new, blank files were given, and written ones were collected. To enable the children to write information related to the research purposes, simple reminders were written on each sheet. On the green sheet, children were asked to write about what they did in their English class and what they themselves did to better learn and understand what was taught in the lesson. On the front side of the pink sheet, children were asked to write

about what they did for their English homework and what they did to complete and understand the homework. On the back of the page, children were asked to write in general about what they do to learn and improve their English both inside and outside the classroom. Since these students' proficiency levels were very low (lower intermediate) they were told to keep the diaries in their native language, Turkish. For the same purposes, all instructions were given in their mother tongue.

Children were enthusiastic about being a part of a research project and writing diaries. However, after three weeks, some started to show boredom, and after four weeks, some started to complain about doing it every week. Nonetheless, for research purposes data collection continued for eight weeks. Although some never lost enthusiasm and continued to keep diaries, a few of them returned empty diaries, or just wrote what they wrote the previous week. Yet, during this period, lots of valuable, and detailed information was gathered.

The second group of data was gathered through classroom observations. Two classrooms (41 students) were observed during a total of nine classroom hours. Each class had a different English teacher. Hence, it was hoped that different strategies might be observed due to different classroom atmospheres. The researcher developed an observation checklist (see Appendix 5) by using Oxford's strategy classification. The checklist constituted only observable strategies and an additional space is left for the researcher to note any different strategies not found in the checklist. Since both classroom members were familiar with the researcher, children showed no uncomfortable or restless behavior due to her presence.

The third group of data was gathered through a questionnaire (see Appendix 6). When designing the questionnaire, special attention was given in order not to give out

strategies or tell too much about what the students should write. The statements were designed so that they would enable the children to talk about what they do and how they do it according to each skill (reading, writing, speaking, and listening). Furthermore, language areas like grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation were also integrated into the questions. Before administering the questionnaire for the pilot study it was pre-piloted. First, a fifth grader answered the questions and gave the researcher feedback about what was comprehensible and what needed more information. After making necessary changes, the questionnaire was used with a similar group to those chosen for the pilot study. This group was also fifth grade students at a private primary school in Istanbul. The teacher of this class was asked to note any questions concerning the structure and comprehensibility of the questionnaire. As a result of this feedback, necessary alterations were made in the questionnaire. Finally, it was administered to the subjects of the pilot study.

Lastly, for the interview six students were chosen from the class, which kept diaries and answered the questionnaire. These students were chosen after consulting the classroom teacher. Among the 21, students it was decided to choose the talkative students and the ones who gave more detailed information about their strategies in their diaries. Since the purpose was to identify as many strategies as possible, these students were chosen for the interview. It was hoped that talkative students might give more information since they are willing to talk most of the time, and that the students who gave more and detailed information in their diaries would do so when being interviewed. The interview was 'structured' and also it was designed with different tasks. The interview was done retrospectively. According to Nunan (1986), "...

retrospective data are collected some time after the event under investigation has taken place". The interviews were tape-recorded to be used for data analysis.

For the reading skill, they were given a reading passage, which was selected with the students' English teacher. Each student was interviewed individually during this task. It was selected from a unit in their textbook, which was going to be dealt with in two weeks time, according to their syllabus. Hence, it was appropriate for the children's language level. Firstly, they were given the passage and asked to tell the interlocutor, who was the researcher herself, what the passage might be about. Then, they were asked how they gathered the information and they were told to read the passage. Later, they were asked if there were any unknown vocabulary words, and what they did with those words to understand them. Next, they were asked if there was a new structure, that they did not know, and if there was, what they did to understand or learn that structure. Lastly, they were asked what they did after finishing reading the passage.

For the listening skill, a listening passage was chosen with the teacher from their textbook's tape, which was planned to be listened to after the completion of the following two units, by the teacher. So, it was appropriate for the students' level. Again, the interviewees were taken one at a time. First, the interviewee listened to the tape without seeing the picture. During this time the interviewer, observed the interviewee before, during and after listening to the tape. After, s/he was asked if s/he understood the passage and to explain to the interviewer what it was about. Later, the interviewer asked if there was anything that s/he did not understand, and what s/he did to understand. They were also asked to talk about any tactics that they applied to understand better. The interviewees listened to the tape a second time, and this time

they were given the picture. They were asked if they understood better the second time, and if they did why.

While interviewing their speaking skills, children were taken in pairs. Each of them was given a picture strip story, composed of four pictures. Each of the interviewee received a different story. They were told to explain the picture to their friend. They were also told that they could do anything but show the picture to explain it. At the same time if the listening partner wished, s/he could ask her/his friend questions. While they were speaking, the interviewer observed what they were doing. After they finished, they were asked what they did to tell the story.

For the writing skill all children were taken at the same time. They were given two topics to write about (writing about their favourite animal or describing their room). After finishing writing, the interviewer asked which topic they chose and why they chose it. Then, they were asked if there was anything that they wanted to write but did not know its English equivalent. They were told to talk about what they did in such circumstances. The interviewer also asked how they wrote, what they were thinking while writing, and why they did what they did.

3.1.1.2.4. Results of the Pilot Study:

Analysis and categorization of the strategies are made according to Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies. First of all, each strategy was written down to form a list. After the completion of the list each strategy was written under a strategy set previously developed by Oxford. Next, the strategies that were not covered by the strategy sets were noted as independent sets and written under

appropriate strategy groups such as memory, cognitive, metacognitive and so on. Analysis of the results showed that 5th grade students who participated in the study are using 48 language learning strategies. 18 of these strategies were not identified by Oxford or not included in her strategy descriptions. Accordingly, 5 new strategy sets were also identified. The frequency of occurrence of a specific strategy was not taken into consideration, because different types and sets of strategies, but not their frequencies, was the purpose of the pilot study.

All types of direct strategies and indirect strategies (direct: memory, cognitive, and compensation; indirect: metacognitive, affective, and social strategies) were present. However, not all strategy sets were used by children. According to the analysis, strategies used by children that are in Oxford's classification as well as newly identified strategies are given below. New strategy sets and strategies are written in bold letters.

Direct Strategies

1. Memory Strategies : According to Oxford (1990), memory strategies have to do with simple principles all of which involve "meaning" such as putting things in an order, associating things with each other, using keywords and reviewing.
 - a) creating mental linkages – placing new words into a context
 - b) applying images and sounds – using imagery
2. Cognitive Strategies: The main characteristics of cognitive strategies are learners' attempts to manipulate or transformate the target language (Oxford, 1990).
 - a) analyzing and reasoning
 - translating
 - reasoning deductively

b) practicing

- practicing naturalistically
- repeating
- formally practicing with sound and writing systems
- **working on and learning from mistakes:** Some children indicated that after the exam they study their mistakes so as not to make the same mistake again. Therefore, they practice certain language points and try to learn from their mistakes.

c) creating structure for input and output

- taking notes
- highlighting
- **retelling:** Here the learner tells the new language item, paragraph, or topic to somebody else, such as to his/her friend, mother, or teacher
- **keeping records of the unknown information or vocabulary:** Some children said that they keep notes of the parts that they don't understand in class and later ask to their friends or some other proficient user.

d) receiving and sending messages

- getting the idea quickly

e) developing study skills

- **learning by writing:** Some children indicated that they learn better if they study by writing.

3. Compensation Strategies: Despite the learners' language limitations, this group of strategies enables the learner to use the second language for the purposes of comprehension or production (Oxford, 1990).

a) overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

- switching to mother tongue
- using mime or gesture
- getting help
- using a circumlocution or synonym
- selecting the topic
- avoiding communication partially or totally
- adjusting or approximating the message
- **selecting already known vocabulary**: Some of the subjects said that if they don't know how to say the word in English, they make sentences with the words that they know. Therefore, this is not a circumlocution or a synonym, but preferring to use something one is sure of.
- **drawing the picture of unknown vocabulary**: Some of the children also said that if they don't know the English word for a certain Turkish word they draw its picture instead.

- b) **overcoming limitations in reading and listening**: Oxford's classification only covers overcoming limitations in writing and speaking. However, some of the subjects indicated that they also use a similar strategy for reading and listening too.

- **Ignoring unknown vocabulary:** Some children indicated that if they did not know a certain vocabulary word, they preferred not to use it when writing, and when reading if they came across an unknown vocabulary word they skipped it and continued reading.

c) guessing intelligently

- using linguistic clues
- using other clues

Indirect Strategies

1. Metacognitive Strategies: Oxford (1990) defines metacognitive as “beyond/beside/or with the cognitive” (p.136). Metacognitive strategies are related to a learner’s own coordination of his/her learning. These strategies involve three strategy sets: arranging and planning your learning, centering your learning, and evaluating your learning.

a) centering your learning: Learners use these strategies to focus their attention on “specific tasks, activities, skills or materials” (Oxford, 1990, p.138).

- paying attention
- overviewing and linking with already known material

b) **Thinking about and working on newly learned material:** According to the research results, a few children indicated that they think about and work on newly learned material, but they did not mention whether they link it with already known materials. Yet, they still center their learning on

specific issues. In addition, studying at home, highlights the fact that they did not understand certain things at school, which involves being aware of the fact that they need to learn those problematic areas. Hence, this strategy can be included under this strategy set by expanding the definition.

c) **Developing Comprehension:** This group involves strategies that enable the learner to develop their understanding either by asking others to question or by questioning themselves by writing down comprehension questions and answering them ...

- **Self-checking comprehension:** Here the aim of the students is to have others question themselves to check their own comprehension.

d) arranging and planning your learning

- finding out about language learning
- planning for a language task
- seeking practice opportunities
- **seeking assistance of more proficient users:** Asking more knowledgeable people (mother, father, sister etc.) to help them or study with them.
- **asking for proficient help:** This strategy is different from “finding out about language learning” since what the participants meant was getting private lessons at home, whereas the other involves reading books or talking to people “to find out how language learning works ... and then using this

information to help improve one's own language learning.”
(Oxford, 1990, p.139). Children seem not to be interested in finding out how language learning works but how they can learn a language.

- **speaking to oneself using L2:** Although it looks similar, this strategy is different from “seeking practice opportunities”, since the latter involves creating and/or seeking out opportunities in naturalistic situations. Speaking involves more than just thinking but also production and practice. Therefore, this strategy might be involved in “Seeking practice opportunities” by expanding its definition.
- **doing homework regularly:** Oxford (1990) states that strategies related to this category help learners to organize and plan so as to get the most out of language learning. Young learners’ finding the need to do homework regularly signals metacognitive awareness that s/he has to learn more and practice more. Thus, one of the easiest but effective strategies “doing homework” is used.

e) evaluating your learning

- self monitoring

2. Affective Strategies: Oxford’s classification of affective strategies includes three sets of strategies: encouraging yourself, lowering your anxiety, taking your emotional temperature. Research results show that children use two of these strategy sets.

a) encouraging yourself

- taking risks wisely
- making positive statements

b) lowering your anxiety

3. Social Strategies

a) cooperating with others: encourages team working and discourages competition. Its aim is to improve language skills.

- cooperating with peers
- cooperating with proficient users of the language

b) asking questions

- asking for clarification or verification

d) interacting with others

- **playing games:** Most of the games are competitive in nature therefore, it is not discussed under the “cooperating with peers” strategy.
- **making jokes in L2:** It is observed that some children use English to tease their friends in the classroom.
- **designing and making competitions:** Although competitions are said to exist among peers, this strategy is different since Oxford’s (1990) cooperating with peers strategy does not involve anything related to competition. Though not effective as cooperative activities, the fun nature of competitions might help children to use and learn the language more.

- **asking more knowledgeable persons to question oneself:** As opposed to “cooperating with proficient users of the language” strategy, children are not engaged in a conversation, and they are not attentive to their conversational roles. It’s more like checking ones own comprehension by having others question themselves. Yet, this can still be considered as a social strategy since children need some kind of interaction.
- **questioning and answering peers:** This is again different from “working cooperatively with peers”, because in the latter competitiveness is discouraged. The former is more like, again, checking comprehension of others and ones self. Thus, it can sometimes be competitive.

When the number of strategies gathered from different data collection methods were counted, it was found that the results of the questionnaire revealed the highest number of strategies (33), diary results gave the second highest number (29), interview gave the third highest (23) and with 7 strategies, observation resulted in the least. These results support literature that observation is the least efficient technique to collect data on language learning strategies. Verbal reports seem to provide rich data, as suggested in the literature. Yet, through observation, different strategies such as, ‘switching to mother tongue, translating, and asking for clarification or verification were identified’. These were also noted in interviews. Thus, observation supported the findings of other methods.

3.1.1.2. Conclusions from and Implications of the Pilot Study:

As mentioned before, strategy research on children is very limited. It is especially essential to conduct studies in EFL settings, where students do not have much opportunity to practice the new language. This alone signals that children in such settings might use different strategies than the ones in ESL environments.

Analysis of the data from different methods indicates that the questionnaire is the best data collection method. One reason is because the questions give children only a little guidance to give appropriate answers. Special attention was given in order not to reveal too much by the questions.

Having students keep diaries has some drawbacks, yet, it is found to be the second most efficient method. One of the drawbacks is that children can get bored and lose interest more quickly than adults. Therefore, rather than collecting diaries from the same group over an extended period of time, it might be better to increase the number of respondents and collect data for shorter periods of time. This way, it is also possible to reach a larger variety of strategies. Another drawback is that children might forget why they are writing or what they are asked to write, though the guidance might have been given in the diaries. Thus, analysis of the diaries may take long periods of time to distinguish the necessary information from the unnecessary. One suggestion is that students frequently need to be reminded of the purpose of diary keeping, by the classroom teacher if s/he is not the researcher.

Though, done only with six students, the task-based interview proved to be a very good data collection method. For further research, it is suggested that as well as increasing the number of the interviewees it is also necessary to select students with different characteristics and success levels. It can be argued that the way the interview is

designed is especially important in the results. Since these students are 11 years old, they are better with concrete things, although a few might have entered the period of formal operations, when their understanding is expected to grow to cover more abstract issues. Thus, giving students the material and telling them to work on it, might cause better results than asking them to imagine what they would have done in such and such situations.

3.1.2. The Study:

3.1.2.1. Purpose of the 1st Phase of the Study:

The first phase of the study aims to identify the language learning strategies of children at third, fourth and fifth grades in two private schools. In addition, it aims to develop a taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies for this group of learners by using Oxford's extensive classification as a basis. The reason to conduct this study in private schools is because in such schools all language skills are taught at the same time. For instance, unlike government schools, students have the opportunity to learn reading, listening, speaking and writing all at the same time without singling out any one or two of the skills. Thus, they see and try to understand the language as a whole. Whereas in government schools, foreign language teaching is limited to only one or two skills and/or language areas such as grammar. Usually, in government schools, receptive skills such as reading and writing are taught. Students rarely, and in some schools, never, find an opportunity to speak or listen in the target language.

3.1.2.2. Research Questions for the 1st Phase:

The first phase of the study tries to find answers to the first three research questions that are previously mentioned in Chapter I. The last question will be addressed in the second phase of the study. Consequently, the following questions are dealt with in this section.

1. What are the language learning strategies of children at third, fourth and fifth grades?
2. Does the LLS taxonomy for children differ from the one that was developed for adults?
3. Do children use all strategy sets and groups mentioned in the literature?

3.1.2.3. Subjects:

For this research, a total of 54 students from third, fourth and fifth grades, in two private schools, were selected for investigation. Both the schools and the classes were randomly selected. 17 third grade, 14 fourth grade and 23 fifth grade students participated in the study. One of the reasons to conduct this study only in private schools is due to the fact that the language learning curriculum in private and government schools differ in Turkey. For instance, foreign language education in government schools starts at fourth grade, whereas, in private schools it starts at first grade if not, at pre-school. In addition, the amount of time spent on language instruction in most private schools is 10 hours a week or more, however, in government schools it is only two hours a week. Another reason is the language learning opportunities that these two types of schools provide their students. Private schools have more

opportunities when compared to government schools such as having a fewer number of students in the classroom, the use of technological equipment such as a cassette recorder, video, computer etc. These enable students to use and practice the target language more often than their peers in government schools. In most of the government schools, students lack the opportunity to develop listening and speaking skills due to few hours of English lessons, crowded classrooms and the absence of cassette recorders or similar equipment. When language learning strategies are concerned, one cannot limit a study only to one or two skills. Hence, it becomes essential to investigate the use of language learning strategies among those who have more or less equal opportunities to develop all four skills.

Third, fourth and fifth grade students are selected for investigation because these learners are in the concrete operations period, according to Piaget's developmental stages. Dworetzky (1993) defines operations as logical rules. According to Piaget, children between 7 - 11 form their conclusions by depending on logic or logical rules. Although Piaget's developmental stages follow a certain order, one must also acknowledge that the beginning and end of Piaget's stages of development may not be the same for each child. It is possible that some individuals might pass into the next stage earlier than others and some later. Thus, children before the age of seven are said to not have passed to the period of concrete operations and are not able to use logical operations to form their conclusions. However, although these children are at the period of concrete operations, (children ages 7 - 11 are considered to be at the period of concrete operations) they are able to do logical reasoning and apply rules of logic. However, they are not yet ready to understand hypothetical and abstract concepts. Reasoning and understanding the hypothetical are the main characteristics of Piaget's

next developmental stage: The Period of Formal Operations (+ 11). The main difference between the period of concrete operations and formal operations is the child's ability to understand the concrete or the abstract. On the contrary to children at concrete operations (7-11), children at the preoperational period (2-7) rely on their intuitions. Hence, the main difference in children in preoperational and concrete operation periods is, respectively, using intuition or logic.

Since the period of concrete operations starts at the age of seven and continues until approximately age 11, it is pretty certain that these age groups, selected for investigation, have mastered concrete thinking and are able to understand task directives. In addition, the characteristics of first and second grade students, who are between 7-8, are different from third, fourth and fifth grade students, which would require the use of different data collection techniques. It is the natural outcome of human development that as age increases cognitive development increases with it. For instance, the attention spans of third, fourth and fifth graders are longer when compared to first and second graders. While first and second grade students are developing their reading ability, third, fourth and fifth grade students have developed reading as well as writing ability. Affectively, fear and anxiety are the dominant feelings of the younger children, whereas third, fourth and fifth grade students have low amounts of fear and/or anxiety (Gürkan & Gökçe, 1999). The affective development of children is very important when collecting data. If children become too anxious or afraid about the process or during the process, the validity of the results will be negatively affected. Similarly, cognitive development is also crucial. According to the research methodology, these children will be given an open-ended questionnaire, which requires a certain amount of attention. In addition, task-based interviews also require attention

and cognitive ability as well as more developed reading and writing skills. Although first and second graders try to develop reading and writing skills, third, fourth, and fifth graders have already developed them.

All in all, this identification is made to set a criterion for choosing this age group and grade level. Thus, the data collection process, did not change due to the fact that all children participated in the study were in the period of concrete operations, and they hadmastered certain cognitive processes and abilities.

3.1.2.4. Instruments:

The instruments for this research differ in both phases of the study. The instruments used in the first phase are used to gather data about the language learning strategies of children and to construct an item pool for the second phase of the study. Since the main purpose of this thesis is to develop an inventory to learn children's language learning strategies, the data collected in the first phase enabled the researcher to form her item pool that is used in the inventory.

Oxford and Crookall (1989) argue that multiple methods, both qualitative and quantitative, need to be used to validate the data. Thus, data is collected by using five different methods. First, an open-ended and semi-guided questionnaire; second, task-based interviews (where students were asked questions such as what they did while performing the reading, writing, listening and/or speaking tasks; what they did to understand the text or certain unknown vocabulary items etc.; or what kinds of tactics they used for comprehension etc.); third, observations during task-based interviews; fourth, general interviews designed according to the results of the questionnaire, and

finally, classroom observations are used to gather information about the subjects' language learning strategies.

According to the results of the pilot study, an open-ended, semi-guided questionnaire (Appendix 6) proved to be the most efficient method in eliciting strategies, since the highest number of strategies (33) was gathered as a result of this technique (diary study: 29, interview: 23 and observation: 7 strategies). This might be because the questionnaire was semi-structured in nature. Thus, it directed students to write strategies according to the question. For instance, for a question such as: 'What do you do if you come across an unknown vocabulary word while reading?' students were asked to write what they usually do in such a condition. The questions were designed so that they did not direct students to answer in a certain way or give out some strategies. The questions did not point out strategies, but enabled learners' to focus their attention on what they do, and the tactics they use when they have some trouble either in reading, speaking, writing, listening, pronunciation or vocabulary learning (see Appendix 5 for the type of questions that were asked). As a result, showing students what to write about, facilitated the process and enabled them to focus on a specific issue (such as coping with unknown vocabulary while reading, and/or overcoming difficulties while speaking, etc. ...) rather than thinking about what they do while learning a foreign language in general. Therefore, the same data collection method is used in this study. Unlike the pilot study, this time the questionnaire is given to all students participating in the study.

Although collecting diaries proved to be the second most efficient method in the pilot study, due to its drawbacks and also to the fact that the same strategies were also elicited through the questionnaire and the interviews, it is excluded from the study (see

Appendix 8 for examples of the diaries). Some of the drawbacks of collecting data through diaries, which were identified during the pilot study can be listed as follows: first, the students easily got bored during such a long process; second, they also reported redundant information along with few important information; third, they lost concentration easily and forgot why they were doing it, no matter how frequently one reminded them, and thus they stopped or resisted writing. Therefore, the amount of time spent to gather information may be useless through diaries.

The task-based interviews, revealed quite a large number of strategies although done with only six students in the pilot study. In the main study, 15 students (five from each grade level) were randomly selected for the interviews. Unlike the pilot study, for the writing skill, students are interviewed alone, since it is going to be conducted as a think aloud process, which is an introspective method. Reading and writing skills are interviewed after a think-aloud process such that students were overtly asked about what they did before they started doing the task (like, examining the picture of the text, preparing a dictionary, looking at comprehension questions if any etc), while performing the task (how they overcame the difficulties faced in comprehending the passage ...) and after they completed the task (such as checking understanding, looking up the meanings of unknown vocabulary words, reading notes taken while listening to the text etc.). During a think-aloud process, participants are asked to verbalize what they do and why they do it while performing a task (Nunan, 1986), therefore, this technique provides the most detailed information when compared to other techniques (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). As different from the stimulated recall, they do not have to reflect on what they have done previously, but they verbalize what they are doing at the moment of the task. According to Nunan (1986) "Introspection is the process of

observing and reflecting on one's own thoughts, feelings, motives, reasoning processes, and mental states with a view to determining the ways in which these processes and states determine our behavior" (p. 115). A disadvantage of the technique is due to its application. Since think-aloud protocols are done on a one-to-one basis they require a lot of time and results are not summative (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). In other words, since they can be done with a limited number of subjects due to time restraints, the results are not generalizable. Yet, they can be a great support to data gathered via other techniques since they provide more in depth information. One advantage that this method provides is a limited chance that students forget what they do during a task. Another reason why the think aloud is chosen for reading and writing is because it may be easier for this age group to think aloud when working with a written material, which is concrete.

For the speaking and listening skills, students are interviewed right after they finished the task, so that they did not have time to forget what they did. Students are interviewed about what they did during the task and why they did it. All interviews are also tape-recorded. In addition, the interviewees are observed before, during and after they perform the tasks, and field notes are kept during observation. Before students started listening, the interviewer informed them about the process. They were told that they were going to listen to a passage. After listening the first time they would be asked comprehension questions and then questioned about how they understood what they listened to. Then, they would listen again and be asked if they understood more the second time and why/why not? After the introduction, and before starting the listening task, students were observed to see if they were in any way preparing for the task such as taking out paper or a pen to take notes while listening.

For the speaking skill of third grade students, they were given a picture to talk about. They were observed before the task in order to see if they attempted to write the names of the objects seen in the picture to facilitate oral production, etc.

Students were also observed during the tasks, observable tactics that they used such as taking notes, using mime or gesture, using circumlocution, synonyms, translation, switching to their mother tongue, were noted.

Similarly, after they performed the tasks, student behavior such as summarizing what they heard, reading, reviewing or correcting the notes that they kept while listening were observed and kept as field notes.

An additional interview was also conducted with the learners according to the answers gathered via the questionnaire. The purpose was to learn more about students' responses and clarify fuzzy descriptions and responses written in the questionnaire. Interviewees for this interview are determined according to the results of the questionnaire. Thus, a total of 45 students were interviewed to investigate certain issues that were not clear in their answers to the questionnaire.

Although limited results are gathered from classroom observations, this data collection technique is used again in this study to support data gathered by other techniques and for data triangulation. Observations are made by using a checklist (see Appendix 5) that is used in the pilot study. Each classroom at each grade is observed for six classroom hours. A total of 18 classroom hours are spent for observation.

As it can be seen from the methodology the current research takes both a first-order and second-order perspective. Through the questionnaire and the interviews, a second-order perspective will be gained and observations of the interviewees during the

task-based interviews and think-aloud process as well as the classroom observations by the researcher will provide a first-order perspective.

In addition, the research uses a methodological triangulation, that is multiple techniques will be used for data collection. Also, there is a triangulation in location, collecting data from various locations such as four different private schools. Thus, data for the study is collected by using five methods (a questionnaire, task-based interviews and think aloud processes, which also include the observations of individual students during the interviews, classroom observations and finally interviews conducted according to the results of the questionnaire). Moreover, data is gathered from two different locations: two different private schools.

3.1.2.5. Procedure:

All students contributing to the study are informed about the study to raise their awareness of the concept of research, the data collection process and to provide familiarity with the researcher, which was necessary during the interviews. Information is given by the researcher herself to provide appropriate and necessary answers to students' questions about the research process.

The first group of data is gathered through semi-guided, open-ended questionnaire. Next, the task-based interviews are conducted with fifteen students who are randomly selected (five from each grade level). Subjects were also observed during the interviews. Lastly, according to the results gathered from the questionnaire a second interview is conducted with 45 students who have given vague responses in the

questionnaire. 18 hours of observation are completed throughout the data collection process. All the data is collected in almost two months.

Open-ended Questionnaire: The questionnaire, consisting of 20 questions, is developed by taking into consideration the four skills and language areas such as vocabulary and grammar and pronunciation, where students might use language learning strategies. Questions elicited what students do before, during and after an activity, since the types of strategies and mental processes might change according to what the learner is engaged in. As mentioned earlier, the questions were prepared so that they did not give out certain strategies and not encourage students to write what should be done in certain situations.

When considering the fact that the questionnaire would be used for third, fourth and fifth graders for the current study, it was tested again on five students in the third grade to see if there was any cause of incomprehensibility in the questionnaire for younger learners. After completing a few final arrangements, such as increasing comprehensibility by replacing a few vocabulary items with the ones suggested by these five third grade students, it was administered to 54 students. The students were not given any time limitation to finish the questionnaire (see Appendix 6), since what they wrote was the main concern not how fast they wrote. Yet, all students completed the questionnaire in one classroom hour, some even earlier. The researcher was present during all applications to guide and help students during the process.

Task-based Interviews: For the interviews, five students from each grade level were chosen randomly. Before the interviews, students were given a task to complete and as

soon as they finished the task they were interviewed about what they did while performing the task. Only during the reading and writing skills were students asked to think aloud. The reason why these two skills were chosen for the think-aloud process was due to the cognitive capabilities of this age group. As mentioned before, children between 7 - 11 are considered to be in Piaget's concrete operations period. Since, during the reading and writing tasks, the product was concrete and accessible to them, (the written material) it was thought that it would be easier to work with this kind of material. For the speaking and listening skills, the students would have to keep in mind what they heard or said and comment on it, which required higher order skills and cognitive abilities.

Since it is sometimes difficult for even some adults to "think aloud", the students were given a training session before they did the real task. In addition to describing what they needed to do, the researcher also exemplified a think-aloud process herself and asked the subjects to try it themselves. By making all the necessary clarifications, students were prepared for the real task. After the students finished thinking aloud, during the real task, they were interviewed about what they did, how they did it, and why they did certain things while performing the task.

For the speaking and listening skills, students were interviewed as soon as they finished the task to prevent them from forgetting what they did. Moreover, all sessions were tape-recorded. All information for the tasks was given in the native language, in order not to cause any misunderstandings or lack of understanding due to the limited knowledge of the foreign language.

All tasks were chosen according to students' language abilities and in consultation with their language teacher. Reading and listening activities for all grades

were supported by pictures. All task material for third graders was chosen from “Skills Builder for Young Learners 1: Starters Student’s Book” (Gray, 2000). This book is developed to prepare young learners for Cambridge’s Young Learner’s Examination. The language teacher indicated that they were often using activities from this book and it was appropriate for their level. As third graders are the least proficient group, they were not asked to read long passages or write paragraphs. Their writing experience in the foreign language is limited to writing words and sometimes sentences. The writing activities in this book were designed as a joint activity with reading (see Appendix 2E). Only with this grade level, reading and writing tasks were not done separately. This is because third grade students have a very elementary level of English and need to be supported by visual stimuli. Upon talking with third grade language teachers and examining the books for this grade level, the activities were decided. For the training of the think-aloud process (see Appendix 2C & 2D) a similar task was chosen and modeled by the researcher.

For the speaking task for the third graders, two pictures from the same book (see Appendix 2A), which were not used in their classrooms before, were chosen. Students were taken in pairs. Each student was given a different picture and told to describe what they saw happening in the picture. They were also told that they could do anything to talk about the picture but show it. As the students started talking about the pictures some partners tried to elicit more information from their peers, which naturally created a genuine interaction.

For the listening activity, students were accepted individually and were given a picture. The picture showed a kitchen and the pictures of six objects were shown in square boxes (see Appendix 2B). They were told to listen to the tape and draw lines

when they heard the name of the object and its place in the kitchen. One of the objects was done as an example. Students heard the tape twice. At this grade level, students were only able to do word production and identification. The activities for all tasks were chosen after consulting with third grade language teachers.

Similarly, task materials for fourth grade students were chosen with the language teacher. Reading texts for the training and real task were chosen from "Apple Pie Student's Book" (Littlewood, Garden & Fein, 1997), which the teacher uses for some extra texts and activities. Thus, the level of the book and the texts were appropriate for the level of students.

The listening activity was chosen from their classroom textbook (see Appendix 3C) named "Junior's Club B" (Cant, Charrington & Villarroel 2001) in consultation with their language teacher, hence it was appropriate for their level. The activity was one they had not studied yet. As assured by the language teacher, the passage was within the limits of their linguistic ability.

Slightly different from the third graders, the speaking tasks for fourth and fifth graders involved two activities. In the first activity, students were taken in pairs, each was given a strip story consisting of four pictures where a story is told. By looking at the pictures, each student tried to tell the story to their peers. At the same time, the peer was told to learn as much as s/he can from her/his partner and compare the picture and what s/he understood from her/his friend at the end. The aim was to create a real communicative purpose by providing students with some information gaps in the activity (see Appendix 3A). In the second activity, the students were given two pictures with few differences between them (see Appendix 3B). This time, individually, they were told to describe the pictures and find the differences. The strip stories and the

similar pictures for the task were chosen from “Cambridge Movers 1: Cambridge Young Learners English Tests” (1999).

For the writing skill, fourth and fifth grade teachers indicated that students could describe things and people, talk about their favorite animal, car, music group or singer etc. Thus, for this task students were given two topics to choose from. The topics were the same for fourth and fifth grade students. Students either described their room or wrote about their favorite animal. The reason why they preferred one topic over the other was also asked.

Tasks were similar for fifth graders. The training activity was the same as that of the fourth graders. For the real task, a reading passage in the book titled “Shine” (Garton-Sprenger & Prowse, 2000) was used (see Appendix 4C & 4D). Their strip stories for the speaking skill (see Appendix 4A) were chosen from “Progressive Picture Compositions: Pupil’s Book” (Byrne, 1987). The other speaking activity, which was finding the differences between two similar pictures, was the same as with the fourth graders (see Appendix 3B). Their listening activity was chosen from their classroom textbook, which was the next unit they were going to learn (see Appendix 4B). Thus, the passage was appropriate for their age and language level. As third grader, they either described their room or wrote about their favorite animal for the writing skill.

Observations during the Task-based Interviews: The researcher observed students while they were engaged in their tasks. As mentioned earlier, the observations were conducted before students started the task, while they were doing it and after they finished it, since strategy use differs at these times. The purpose was to identify any untold strategies by the students and those that are done unconsciously by the learners. As mentioned in the

literature, although verbal reports provide rich data they can give information only about learners' strategies that they are cognitively aware of. Field notes were also kept during observations.

General Interviews: These were conducted after the questionnaires were analyzed. Accordingly, students who gave vague or inconsistent answers or no answers to some questions were chosen for the interview. As a result, 45 students were identified with such answers and interviewed about their answers.

Observations: A total of 18 classroom hours was spent for observation. Each grade level was observed for six hours. During observations, a checklist, formerly developed by the researcher for the pilot study (see Appendix 5), was used. If any additional strategies were observed they were noted in the space provided on the instrument. During observations, students did not show any restlessness or disturbing behavior. This may be because during the information given to the students, that they would be a part of a research project, they became familiar with the researcher. Moreover, their consent was also taken about the processes that were going to be done. Before observations started, they knew they were going to be observed. In each classroom an appropriate place for the researcher to observe was determined by the language teacher and the researcher.

3.1.2.6. Data Analysis:

Data gathered through these methods was analyzed by listing down all the found strategies as a result of each method and then categorizing the found strategies. Most of

the strategies fell under Oxford's strategy taxonomy. However, as it is argued by Oxford & Crookall (1989) there is not consensus on a LLS taxonomy or on the definition of strategies. Thus, for some strategies that learners use, the researcher added a new strategy set or an individual strategy to Oxford's taxonomy. In addition, some of Oxford's definitions needed to be expanded for some strategies that looked similar. In a similar study by O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzares, Russo and Küpper (1985), where they tried to investigate language learning strategies of ESL learners through the use of observations and interview, they indicated that some strategies used by students did not match the strategy definitions found in the literature. Thus, O'Malley et al. developed new names for strategies they identified during the data collection process that match descriptions.

According to the results of the data analysis, it appeared that children use only three memory strategies, all being the members of one set (creating mental linkages), and only one affective strategy. Oxford's Memory Strategies mostly correspond to Weinstein and Mayer's (1986) Elaboration Strategies for Basic Learning Tasks, which include strategies such as forming mental images. These strategies aim to build internal associations, which require higher cognitive abilities. According to Piaget, abstract thinking develops after the age of 11 (Period of Formal Operations). However, not every child passes to the next stage at the same time. In other words, it would be misleading to assume all children that are at the age of 11 have passed into the period of formal operations. However, it would be safe to say that they are in the period of concrete operations since the period covers the ages of 7 and 11. Thus, the subjects of the first phase of the current study are third, fourth, and fifth graders (9, 10 and 11 year-olds) who are in the Period of Concrete Operations and have developed reasonable

thinking. Although some might have passed to the next stage, where abstract thinking develops, it is highly possible that most of them are still at the period of concrete operations, since their ages vary between nine and eleven. Therefore, this might be the reason why most of the memory strategies, which require higher order cognitive skills, did not appear in the data. Also, Weinstein and Mayer (1986) support this claim by saying that “younger children are not able to effectively generate images but are able to use imagery that is provided by a teacher” (p. 319). In addition, they also argue by referring to the literature that basic rehearsal strategies such as repeating certain items to memorize new information are used more by students at fourth grade and lower grades. Thus, the results of the current study support this argument and the literature.

Yet, there is a possibility that some strategies might not be gathered during data collection, but could be used by children. Therefore, when preparing the inventory, items are added to these strategy groups by using the strategies defined in Oxford's taxonomy. There is also another possibility that these strategy groups require higher order cognitive and personal skills, which this age group does not possess. The subjects of the current study are at the period of concrete operations according to Piaget's developmental stages. Thus, abstract thinking at this age group is said not to be developed. Oxford's memory strategies involve higher order cognitive skills such as creating mental linkages and applying images and sounds. The learner needs to make some kind of abstract connection between the newly learned material and what s/he has in mind for the storage and the retrieval of the information. For the data collection process no such behavior was observed or stated by the children. However, there is also a possibility that some of these strategies were used by children, but not identified due to the data collection methods used in the study. Hence, it was decided to add the items

that are in Oxford's taxonomy but not expressed by the subjects, to the item pool of the inventory. Thus, the students would have an opportunity to indicate their use of these sets of strategies.

3.2. Second Phase:

3.2.1. The Study:

3.2.1.1. Purpose of the 2nd Phase of the Study:

The second phase of the study aims to develop a language learning strategy inventory for children, by using data gathered from the first phase.

3.2.1.2. Research Problem for the Second Phase of the Study:

The second phase of the study tries to find out if it is possible to develop a language learning strategy inventory for children.

3.2.1.3. Subjects:

The research is conducted on 402 fourth and fifth grade students in four private primary schools (Özel İnal Ertekin İ.Ö.O, Özel Namık Sözeri İ.Ö.O., TED Bursa Koleji İ.Ö.O., and Melike Pınar İ.Ö.O.) in Bursa during the spring semester of the 2002-2003 academic year. The subjects used in the second phase were different from the ones used

in the first phase of the study as well as as the pilot study of the first phase. Incomplete data from 19 students was excluded from the study and data gathered from the remaining 383 students was used to gather the results.

Although in the first phase of the study, the initial data to prepare the item pool was gathered from third, fourth and fifth graders, it was decided not to involve third graders in the second phase of the study while conducting the inventory. Third grade students were used in the first phase to enrich data, and thus, the item pool. Yet, the final product, the inventory, may not be appropriate for this age group (9 year olds), since the number of the items were 108, which might be too many for 9 year-olds. In addition, the length of some of the items was too long for this age group, which could have affected their comprehension. Moreover, since their reading speed is comparatively slower than fourth and fifth grade children, answering the whole instrument might have taken a much longer time and caused boredom, thus affecting the reliability of the results.

3.2.1.4. Instrument:

As a result of the data analysis of the first phase, strategies that are going to form the item pool of the inventory are determined. Each strategy is put under a certain strategy group such as memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social, since it is argued by Hsiao & Oxford (2002) that six-factor strategy classification is more consistent with language learners' strategy use. Though, it is also possible to find earlier counter arguments, which propose five or nine factor classifications (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Oxford & Crookall, 1989). Afterwards,

the strategy sets that these strategies belong to are decided. However, although all items are put under one of the strategy sets, it is unavoidable that there might be intercorrelations among strategies (Oxford, 1990; Hsiao & Oxford, 2002). That is, some strategies placed under a certain set may also be placed under another. As a result, 293 items are written. When looking at the strategies under the strategy groups, it is seen that there are three strategies under memory strategies and one strategy under affective strategies that children said they are using while learning a foreign language. Although these might be the only strategies that children are actually using, there is also some possibility that other memory and affective strategies could not be identified during the data collection process. Thus, by using Oxford's strategy taxonomy, the researcher added items that are considered to be memory and affective strategies and not indicated by the students. In sum, nine memory and seven affective strategies are added and a total of 309 strategies are listed.

All items were written as they were stated by children. Statements were kept in their original form as much as possible, unless there were any incomprehensibilities. It is thought that it would be much easier for children to understand sentences if they are written in their own expressions. As a result, the aim was to avoid misunderstandings and incomprehensibilities caused by an adult's way of expressing the same idea.

Since the number of the items are too much for the age group of the subjects, similar strategies under the same strategy set are identified and combined to form one item. This resulted in 109 items.

In order not to affect the reliability of the instrument, none of the strategies were excluded. If done otherwise, the decision to take out some strategies and leave others would be a subjective opinion that would conflict with the idea of data collection. If

such a subjective judgment is given on deciding which is an important strategy and which is not, one could write all the items by her/himself by looking at the literature. However, it is thought that it would not be appropriate to make such judgments on children's LLS.

3.2.1.5. Procedure:

As a result of the first phase of the study, a 109-item instrument was given to 10 experts (see Appendix 9) for their opinion to test the face-validity of the instrument. Experts from the English Language Teaching Department and Educational Sciences Department were consulted. Consequently, the inventory, which was initially designed as a 5-point likert scale as "I strongly disagree, I disagree, I somewhat agree, I agree, I strongly agree" was reduced to a 3-point likert scale, and the responses were changed and shortened as "yes, sometimes and no". This change was made due to the fact that slight differences in meaning could confuse children whose ages are between 10-11 and affect the reliability of their answers. Therefore, the researcher chose simple responses, which are much easier to comprehend (see Appendix 11 for the original form).

Secondly, in the initial form, the answer sheet was given at the end of the inventory and answers were written once at the beginning of each section as;

- 1 I strongly disagree
- 2 I disagree
- 3 I somewhat agree
- 4 I agree
- 5 I strongly agree

Students were then asked to write the number of the answer they decided to give (either 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) next to the item number on the answer sheet (see Appendix 9).

Experts also suggested that turning pages and giving answers might be confusing and mind boggling, which may result in a lot of time consumption due to its impracticality. In addition, the students would have to read the responses and the numbers they referred to every time they had to give an answer. As a result, the researcher gave the responses next to each item and asked the students to put an "X" sign on the box that has an appropriate answer for them:

İngilizce’ni iletmek için İngilizce film ya da başka programlar izlerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
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This way, the student did not have to look up and down, back and forth, but only read the sentence and mark his/her response in the boxes that were next to the items.

Third, some statements were changed according to the experts’ advice, and an item was removed from the instrument due to redundancy. The final version of the instrument constituted of 108 items.

Lastly, some changes were made in the instructions that resulted in shorter and simpler sentences for better understanding.

The instrument was also tested for content validity. Content validity shows how well test scores, and the items of a questionnaire represent the subject matter content. It focuses on the adequacy of the sample not the test’s appearance (Hatch & Farhardy, 1982). Three experts, all of which are English Language Teaching (ELT) Department professors, were asked to rate each item as appropriate or inappropriate for its strategy group (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social, and affective). They were asked to write “1” if they thought the item was inappropriate or did not belong to its strategy group or write “2” if it was appropriate or it belonged to its strategy group

(see Appendix 10). Each item’s percentage of appropriateness was measured according to the experts’ ratings. The percentages show how appropriately an item reflected its strategy group. Thus, content validity was measured. The results of the experts’ opinion are shown in table 1.

Table 1: Percentages taken according to expert opinion for content validity.

Questions	Not Appropriate	Appropriate	Total
1	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
2	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
3	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
4	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
5	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
6	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
7	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
8	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
9	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
10	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
11	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
12	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
13	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
14	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
15	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
16	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
17	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
18	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
19	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
20	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
21	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
22	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
23	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
24	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
25	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
26	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
27	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
28	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
29	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
30	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
31	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
32	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%

33	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
34	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
35	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
36	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
37	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
38	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
39	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
40	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
41	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
42	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
43	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
44	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
45	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
46	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
47	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
48	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
49	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
50	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
51	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
52	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
53	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
54	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
55	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
56	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
57	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
58*	33,33%	66,67%	100,00%
59	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
60	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
61	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
62	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
63	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
64	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
65	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
66	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
67	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
68	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
69	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
70	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
71	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
72	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
73	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
74	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
75	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
76	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
77	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
78	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
79	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
80	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%

81	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
82	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
83	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
84	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
85	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
86*	33,33%	66,67%	100,00%
87	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
88	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
89	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
90	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
91	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
92	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
93	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
94	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
95	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
96	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
97	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
98	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
99	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
100	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
101	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
102	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
103*	33,33%	66,67%	100,00%
104	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
105	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
106	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
107*	33,33%	66,67%	100,00%
108	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
109	0,00%	100,00%	100,00%
Total	1,22%	98,78%	100,00%

All items are rated as appropriate for their strategy group. These results show that the instrument has content validity. As the table indicates the items on the inventory were found to be appropriate for a total of 98.78%. Only on four items (58, 86, 103, 107) did one out of three expert say that they were not appropriate for their strategy groups. However, since the percentage for their appropriateness was above 50%, these items were not excluded from the inventory.

Before conducting the instrument, it was pre-piloted on three students from fourth (2) and fifth (1) grades going to different private schools that have similar

characteristics as the sample schools selected for the study, in order to check the comprehensibility of the items, the length of time to finish the instrument, and to take students' emotional temperature such as boredom, confusion etc. As a result, some statements were either changed or reorganized according to these students' suggestions. It took these 25-35 minutes to finish the entire instrument. Considering the fact that they were not in a classroom environment and that they were alone while completing the inventory the researcher decided to implement the inventory at two different times by dividing the instrument into two parts, Direct Strategies (Part A) and Indirect Strategies (Part B). Part A consists of 59 items and Part B consist of 49 items. In a classroom full of fourth or fifth graders, instructions and questions about the instrument could take more time and children could distract themselves and their peers and lose concentration. Moreover, there would always be slower students who would need more time. In addition, it was possible that this age group could get bored easily if they were not given any break. For fear that they might lose concentration and get bored, the inventory was conducted in two sessions.

Secondly, the inventory was also given to an adult to compare time management and get a second view on the comprehensibility of the items. It took 12 minutes for the adult to finish the instrument, less than half the time that it took children to complete the inventory, which also indicated that these three children took their time to read and answer each item.

Lastly, after making necessary changes as a result of the feedback gained in these two pre-pilot trials, the instrument was piloted on a class of 4th grade students in a private primary school in Eskişehir. It was thought that if fourth graders could comprehend and complete the inventory, it would be even more possible for fifth

graders to do so. In addition, since they are a year younger and their cognitive capabilities are considerably smaller than fifth grade children it is thought that feedback gathered from this group would be valuable in two ways: First, it was possible that they would ask more questions to clarify their comprehension, which would enable the researcher to make appropriate changes and improvements on the inventory. Second, it would be a good indicator for the researcher that if this age group (10 years old) could complete and comprehend the instrument, it was more likely for an older age group (11 year-olds) to understand and finish the inventory.

3.2.1.6. Data Analysis:

A series of statistical analyses was performed on the data. To determine the structure of the instrument the "Principle Component Analysis" was made, and for this, the varimax rotation technique was used. The reliability of the inventory was tested by using the test- retest method. 10 days were given between the first and second applications. The relationship between the two applications was calculated by using the "Pearson r Product-Moments Correlation" coefficient for each strategy set (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social, and affective) and for the whole instrument. The reliability of the items was tested according to a .05 significance level.

Certain criteria were used to determine the items in the instrument such as item-total correlation coefficients being above 0.20 and factorial load being 0.40 or higher. Moreover, differences in a single factor needed to be carried at least at a .1 level.

Internal consistency, for all sub-groups and the whole instrument, that appeared as a result of construct validity analysis (factor analysis), was calculated by using Cronbach's Alpha formula.

The significance level is considered as .05 for all analyses used in the study, others above this level are indicated. Analyses were made by using the SPSS 11.0 (Statistical Programming for Social Sciences 11.0) program.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

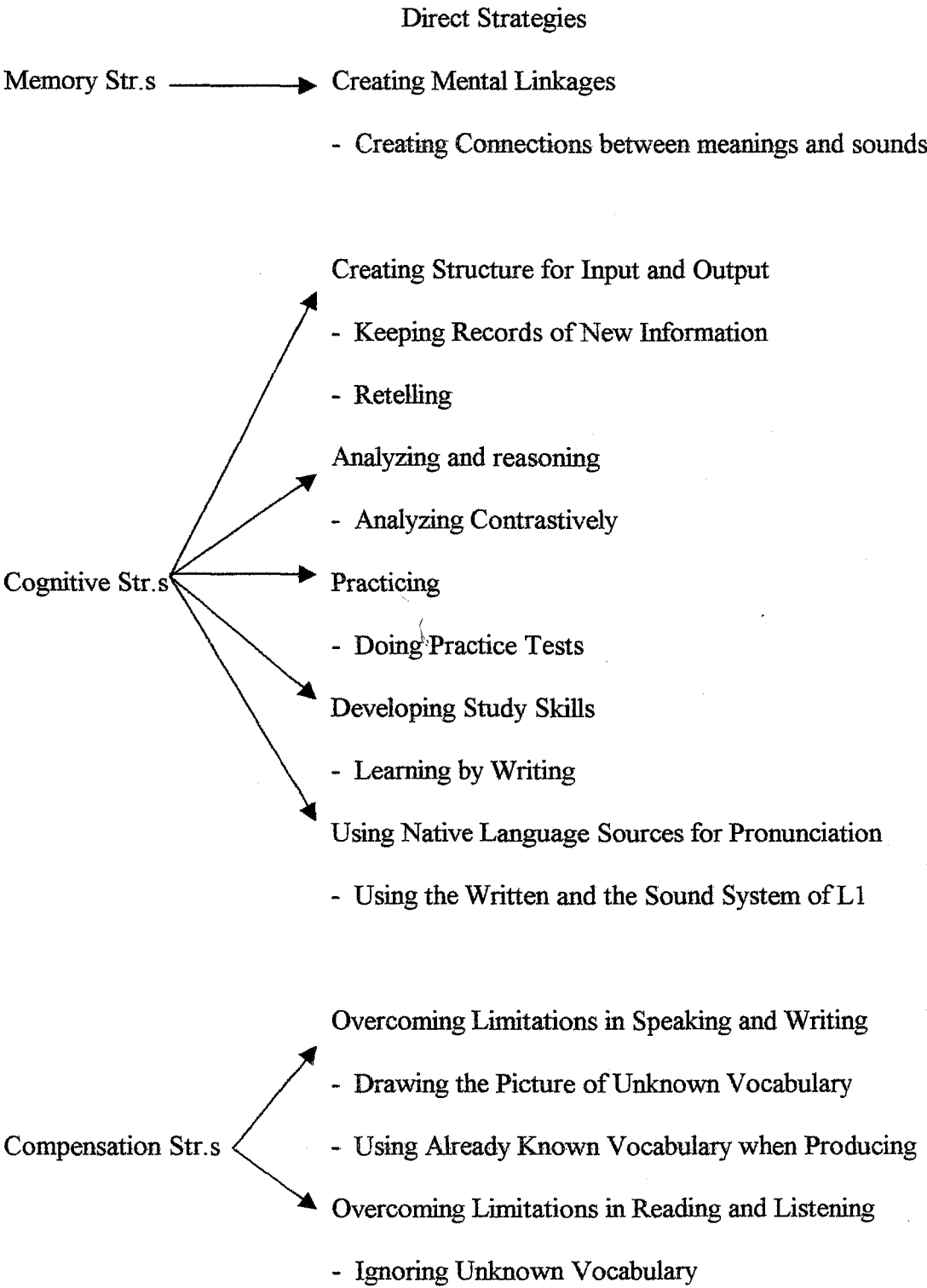
Since the present study consists of two phases, which have different purposes, and thus, methodologies, the results of each phase will be given and discussed separately. Each phase of the study served a different purpose and can be considered single studies themselves. Therefore, it would be more appropriate to talk about the results of each phase and discuss the results within the frame of the purpose of each of these studies.

4.1. Results and Discussion of the 1st Phase:

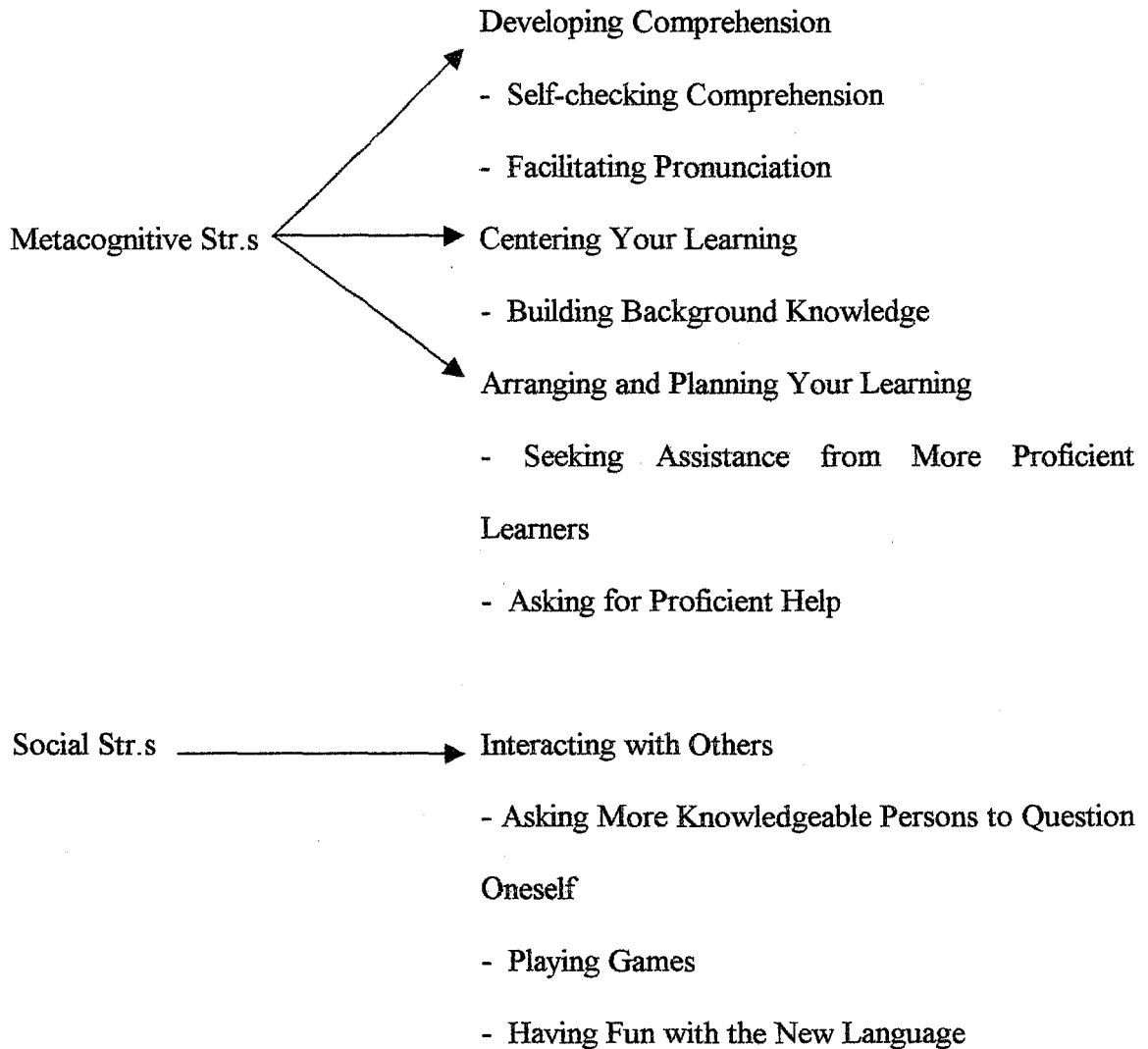
As a result of the data analysis of the first phase of the study, the strategies that were used by the subject group were identified. As mentioned earlier (p. 113), the data analysis indicated that there were some strategies as well as strategy sets that were not present in Oxford's taxonomy. The new strategies that deserves specific attention are those related to pronunciation. In Oxford's taxonomy, pronunciation related strategies are limited to practicing, but current research shows that children's strategies for pronunciation are not restricted to practicing only. For instance, they try to use native language sources to develop pronunciation, they focus on how a word is said when

watching a film or listening to a passage from the tape, they try to create some connections between the meaning of the word and its pronunciation. This variety signals that it is an important aspect of language for children to pronounce the target language words correctly. Newly identified strategies or strategy sets that are found as result of the current study, as well as those that are in Oxford's taxonomy, that need expansion in their definitions are shown on the next page. The variety of children's strategies and their various strategy preferences will be discussed one at a time by referring to the following chart.

Chart 1: Strategies and Strategy Sets Used by Children that are Discovered within the
Scope of the Current Study



Indirect Strategies



The above strategies and five strategy sets are not found in Oxford's extensive taxonomy. Therefore, it could be assumed that these strategies are specific to children. There is, of course, some possibility that some of these strategies are used by adults, but not identified by prior research. In addition, since most of the strategy research has been conducted in ESL contexts, some of these strategy sets such as 'interacting with others' could be specific to EFL contexts. Moreover, some others could be specific to the subject groups' culture and language such as 'using native language sources for pronunciation'. For example, by using this strategy a child tries to write the pronunciation of an English word by using sounds found in Turkish (for instance, for refrigerator the child writes 'refricıreytır').

Aside from new strategies, results indicated that there is a need to expand some of Oxford's definitions. These are as follows:

- 1) Structured Reviewing under Memory strategies
- 2) Analyzing Contrastively under Cognitive strategies
- 3) Practicing Naturalistically under Cognitive Strategies
- 4) Seeking Practice Opprotunities under Metacognitive Strategies
- 5) Planning for a Language Task under Metacognitive Strategies
- 6) Definition of Social Strategies

The new strategies and those that need expansion will be dealt with one by one.

- 1) In memory strategies, a new strategy named as "Creating connections between meanings and sounds" was added under the "Creating mental linkages" strategy set. Item 2 of Part A (memory strategies) of the inventory (also see Appendix 11) "Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için o kelimenin anlamını düşünürüm" (I think of the meaning of the new word in

order to pronounce it correctly) refers to this strategy. Some students indicated that they need to think about the meaning of a new vocabulary item to remember how it is pronounced. Similarly, other students said that they need to learn the meaning of the new vocabulary item to pronounce it correctly. These examples of strategies show that students try to make some kind of mental connection between the meaning of a particular word and its pronunciation to learn or keep it in mind. In this manner this strategy is different from other strategies under the “Creating Mental Linkages” strategy set. It is also different from the “Applying Images and Sounds” strategy set where learners use other mental sources such as imagery, semantic mapping, using keywords, and representing sounds in memory. Here, the connection is with the word’s meaning itself.

- 2) Item 3 of Part A (memory strategies) in the inventory “Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için yaza yaza çalışırım” (In order to pronounce a new word correctly I study by writing it down.) is another example of this new strategy (Creating connections between meanings and sounds). Learners use written forms to remember pronunciation by making a connection between the sound and the written system.
- 3) Item 9 of Part A (memory strategies) of the inventory “Yeni öğrendiklerimi düzenli aralıklarla tekrar ederim” (I review the newly learned material regularly) is not a new strategy according to Oxford’s (1990) taxonomy. The strategy requires “reviewing in carefully spaced intervals” (p. 42) such as starting reviewing as soon as 10 minutes after the learning, the next after 20 minutes, in half an hour and this goes on by widening the intervals to a day,

two days, a week, a month ... etc. However, none of the children indicated such review in any part of the data collection process in the first phase of the study. Most of the subjects mentioned revision of the new material and/or repeating it regularly. Therefore, from what the children understand and actually practice, this is not a memory strategy, but more like a cognitive strategy. However, this and other items under memory strategies [except the new strategies and item 1 “Yeni öğrendiğim kelimelerle cümle kurarım” (I make up sentences with the new vocabulary), which were identified during data collection process] are added to the inventory for fear that these strategies may not be reported due to data collection methods. Despite methodological triangulation, there is a possibility that some strategies that are in children’s use would not be identified during data collection. Therefore, these items were added to represent memory strategies that are previously identified and defined by Oxford (1990). It is also kept in mind that the reason for not detecting these strategies is might be that they are not actually used by children for they require higher order cognitive skills and capabilities.

- 4) Another new strategy, ‘Keeping records of the new information’ was added to the strategy taxonomy of children. Item 15 in Part B (cognitive strategies) “İngilizce’sini bilmediğim kelimeleri, canlandırma aktivitelerinden sonra aklımda kalanları ve arkadaşlarımdan sorularımı defterime not ederim.” (I write down unknown vocabulary, what is left in my mind after the role plays and my peers’ questions to my notebook) is an example of this strategy. It is different from Oxford’s ‘taking notes’ strategy, where she mentions systematic forms such as the outline form, shopping list format, T-formation or the semantic

map format. Rather, the students keep record of the new information learned after a task or an activity. Also, this is not summarizing. They record or write down what is left after learning such as vocabulary or questions asked by peers etc.

- 5) Item 17 of Part B “İngilizce bir şey okurken daha önceden bilmediğim bir dilbilgisi kuralı (gramer, yapı) ile karşılaşırsam onu öğrendiğim benzer bir kuralla karşılaştırıp tahmin etmeye çalışırım” (While reading a passage in English, if I come across a grammar rule that I don’t know, to understand it, I contrast it with a similar rule I know) is a cognitive strategy that the child contrasts with the new and the old rule. However, the strategy differs a little from Oxford’s definition of “Analyzing Contrastively”. She refers to the comparison of one’s native language and the target language to determine the similarities and differences between the two. This might be a more frequently used strategy for ESL students, where they have more opportunities to be exposed to the SL and thus, compare the two languages. Yet, in EFL contexts learners’ opportunities to hear the target language is mostly restricted to classrooms. Therefore, opportunities to compare L1 and L2 are very limited. Subjects of the current study mentioned comparison, but within the target language. Mostly, they compare what they have learned previously with the newly learned information. In that sense, they are using a similar strategy. For this strategy, for the subjects and the context of the current study, the definition requires an expansion. Consequently, in order for the strategy to be applicable to both ESL and EFL contexts the definition needs such an addition.

- 6) Another expansion in the definition needs to be done for the “Practicing naturalistically” strategy. Item 37 of Part B (cognitive strategies) “İngilizce bir parça dinledikten sonra benzer bir parçayı da kendim uydurup söylerim” (After listening to a passage in English, I make up a similar passage and talk about it) indicates such expansion. According to Oxford’s definition, this strategy needs to be used in natural, realistic settings. Such activities can be “participating in a conversation, reading a book or an article, listening to a lecture ...” (p. 45), most of which require an ESL context. However, subjects of the current study do not have opportunities such as talking with native speakers. Yet, they find other ways to practice the new language creatively such as creating a similar passage to the one that was listened to and then producing it orally. It is natural in that it is not mimicry or repetition of the exact same material. Children create their own contexts and do it alone without any native speakers. For EFL contexts, creating natural-like situations to practice the target language can be added to the definition.
- 7) Taking practice tests to improve one’s English is a new strategy that was indicated by the subject group. This was shown by item 38 of Part B (cognitive strategies) of the inventory. It is thought that this item is culture-specific. Turkish children, starting from primary school, take practice tests to get prepared for various exams. Even at lower grade levels there are general examinations that, for instance, all third year students take as city-wide or at least school-wide tests. Therefore, children get used to doing practice tests and taking test-type examinations, and they may think of doing them as a key to success. For language learning, the subjects apply a strategy that is mostly

used for other subject areas for the purpose of practicing. This strategy or similar ones might be applicable to other students in other countries having similar education systems.

- 8) Item 39 in Part B “Yeni öğrendiğim kelimelerle şiir yazmaya çalışırım” (I try to write poems with the new vocabulary I learned) is considered a practicing strategy and placed under “Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems”. Although the strategy set is not new, the strategy itself is worth discussion. This strategy was identified in the pilot study as well as the main study. Writing poems, even rhymes, is a complex skill, even a talent for poets. It is quite surprising that members of such a young age group tried to write “poems” in the target language. The purpose was being to learn the new vocabulary by creating contexts and using other rhyming vocabulary with the new ones. In addition to its being a creative and a productive strategy, it is also pleasurable and enjoyable. This strategy is in line with children’s characteristics mentioned by Halliwell (1992), who claims that children like to create fun and enjoy when they are learning and they are in general creative. Trying to use the knowledge in the target language, almost naturally, is a considerable attempt to learn the language. This suggests that, encouraging the use and writing of poetry in children’s FL classrooms might have positive effects on their learning.
- 9) “Retelling” is a new strategy under the “Creating structure for input and output” strategy set, which was also identified in the pilot study. It is represented by item 40 under cognitive strategies: “İngilizce bir şey okuduktan sonra kendi kendime anlatırım.” (I retell the passage that I read in English). In

this strategy, after reading or listening to a new text in English, children tell it to themselves either aloud or silently. For example, one fifth grade student said that: “Bir okuma parçası okuduğumda kendi kendime anlatırım.” (When I read a passage I retell it to myself). Retelling is like summarizing what is read, however, it is in oral form. It has a dual purpose. First, students aim to enhance comprehension by telling what they read outloud, second, they also practice the spoken form of the foreign language. As Oxford states for strategies under the “Creating structure for input and output” strategy set, this strategy is also used for comprehension and production and can be unique to children.

- 10) In addition to these new strategies, two strategy sets were added under cognitive strategies. The first of these is “Developing study skills” and under this set a new strategy, “Learning by writing”, was included. This strategy was shown in item 21 of Part B: “Yeni öğrendiklerimi daha iyi öğrenmek ve önceden bildiklerimi unutmamak için yazarak çalışırım.” (I study by writing in order to learn what I learned better and not forget what I previously know.). “Learning by Writing” is a frequently mentioned study skill that children use to learn or keep in mind the new information or vocabulary they learned in the foreign language. As an example, some fourth and fifth grade students said that: “Bir şey söylemeden önce söyleyeceğim şeyi yazarak çalışırım.” It is new in that it is different from repeating, doing something again and again. It is more like a study skill, in that the learner uses writing to store and recall information. This may include various strategies, such as writing exactly as it is learned, taking short notes to enable them to remember later, summarizing the material or using a combination of these strategies. Subjects who used this

strategy preferred writing over reading. Studying by writing also triggers thinking about the material. That may be why children think that they learn by writing. This is something that they do regularly to keep and remember new information.

- 11) Another strategy set that is added to cognitive strategies is “Using native language sources for pronunciation”. The individual strategy that is related to this set is “Using written and sound system of L1”. This strategy is located in the inventory as item 41: “Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için okunuşunu yazıp birkaç kez okurum.” (In order to pronounce a word correctly I write it as if it is read in Turkish and read it several times.). Under this strategy some students said that they are using either the sound or the written system of the native language to learn the pronunciation of a new word. This strategy might be an L1 specific strategy that children use. The Turkish writing system being a nearly phonetic language, enables the learners to write the pronunciation of an English word in Turkish letters. In order to overcome difficulties that might appear because of the different sound combinations of the target language, Turkish children preferred to write the pronunciation of a word by using Turkish letters and sounds as if it is a phonetic alphabet. For example, they wrote ‘televijın’ instead of ‘television’.

- 12) In addition to memory and cognitive strategies, some strategies were also added to compensation strategies, which constitutes Part C of the inventory. One of these is shown in item 50 “Yazarken yada konuşurken bilmediğim bir kelimeyi onun resmini çizerek anlatmaya çalışırım.” (I draw the picture of a

word when writing or speaking, if I don't know its English). "Drawing the picture of unknown vocabulary" is a new strategy under "Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing". This strategy is frequently observed during task-based interviews. When writing or speaking in English some children said that whenever they don't know the English of some word or when they can't remember it, they draw its picture to make the reader or the listener comprehend what they are saying. The reason why this strategy is not found in Oxford's taxonomy might be because that this is a children-specific strategy. It is not feasible to strongly argue that this is so, yet, among the literature reviewed on this point, no empirical data is found. However, considering the fact that Oxford's taxonomy is the most extensive one in the literature and developed by using data gathered from adolescents and adults, it can be assumed to be so. This strategy is in accordance with the children's characteristics mentioned in the literature. As stated by Halliwell (1992) children are creative and they use this skill to use their limited knowledge in a second/foreign language in many creative ways. This strategy is one way that they show their creativity.

- 13) The compensation strategy, "Using already known vocabulary when producing", is a new strategy in item 57: "İngilizce bir cümleyi veya paragrafı sadece bildiğim kelimelerle yazarım." (I write a sentence or a paragraph in English only with vocabulary I know.). This strategy looks similar to Oxford's "Selecting the topic strategy". In the former, when writing something in the foreign language, some children said that they only use the vocabulary that they already know. This is why the strategy is different from "Selecting the

Topic". In the latter, students choose, change or convert the topic of conversation, either written or spoken, whereas, in the former they limit their conversation to the known words only.

- 14) As well as the "Overcoming Limitations in Speaking and Writing" strategy set under compensation strategies, there is a need to add a new one named "Overcoming Limitations in Reading and Listening" since some students use compensation strategies for these skills too. Item 52 of compensation strategies indicates that children need to compensate for reading and listening skills too: "İngilizce bir parça okurken bilmediğim kelimelerle karşılaştığımda onları atlayıp okumaya devam ederim." (I keep on reading when I come across unfamiliar vocabulary.). During the interviews some students indicated that they skip a word if they don't know its meaning, and they keep on listening or reading. They said that they do not bother about one word and waste time, "Bilmediğim bir kelime ile karşılaştığımda onunla vakit kaybetmem. Okumaya devam ederim." So a new strategy named "Ignoring Unknown Vocabulary" is included in this new set. This is one of the strategies that FL teachers in Turkey teach a lot. From my own learning experience, I remember my language teachers telling us to ignore unknown vocabulary and keep on reading to try to understand from context. This strategy might be learnt and appreciated by children. This is mostly used when reading or listening in the target language. Oxford's compensation strategies on reading and listening are limited to guessing strategies by using linguistic clues or non-linguistic clues. However, it is thought that rather than being a guessing strategy this is an

avoidance strategy. Therefore, it suggests the need to develop another strategy set.

- 15) A new strategy set and related strategies are added under metacognitive strategies (Part D of the inventory) (also see Appendix 11). “Developing Comprehension” is the new set that children indicated several strategies related to it. The first of these is Self-Checking Comprehension”. Data analysis of the first phase indicated that children use various self-checking strategies. Item 5 of metacognitive strategies is the first one: “İngilizce’mi ilerletmek için kendi kendimi sınav yaparım.” (I assess myself in order to improve my English.). This strategy may seem identical to “Self-Monitoring” and/or “Self-Evaluating” strategies in Oxford’s classification, however, they are different. Self-Monitoring requires the learner to “identify the errors in understanding or producing the new language” (p. 140). This strategy is mostly used to find the source of errors and to try to eliminate them. Self-evaluating, on the other hand, is “evaluating one’s own progress” (p. 140) such as comparing one’s success in one area by looking at past and present accomplishments. The current strategy is different from both of these. The former is related to error identification and deciding the most important ones in general. The latter requires comparison of previous and current success. However, this new strategy (self-checking comprehension) requires the learner to check his/her comprehension at any time, not necessarily focusing on errors or progress as the item states, by questioning or testing oneself, to improve language success. Another example of such a strategy is given in item 6 of Part D: “Okuduğum bir kitabı, dinlediğim İngilizce bir parçayı ve/veya

izlediğim bir filmi onu anlayan birine anlatırım.” (I explain a book I read, a passage I listened to or a film I watched to someone who comprehends it.) Here, the aim of the learner is to check his/her comprehension by explaining what s/he understood to someone who actually did. This way s/he will have an opportunity to compare his/her understanding with others. Item 8 is another related strategy: “İngilizce dinlediğim bir parçayı anlayıp anlamadığımı kontrol etmek için arkadaşşıma veya öğretmenime sorarım.” (In order to check whether I understood a listening passage I ask to my friend or teacher.). This is a strategy similar to the previous one. Instead of telling, the learner prefers asking questions to test if s/he understood. Item 14 is another example of developing comprehension: “İngilizce bir film izlerken alt yazılardan anlayıp anlamadığımı kontrol ederim.” (I check my comprehension from the subtitles while watching a film.). The learner aims to test his/her listening comprehension through reading subtitles. This, again, isn’t as complex as finding out the source of errors nor is it a long process to evaluate past and present progress. Another item related to self-checking comprehension is item 17: “İngilizce bir okuma parçasını okuyup bitirdiğimde parçayla ilgili sorular çıkartırım.” (I write out questions when I finish reading a passage.). As with preparing a test for oneself, which is more general, this similar strategy involves preparing comprehension questions about a passage, which is more focused. Yet, both are used to develop comprehension. Item 21 is related to the issue: “İngilizce bir parça okuduktan yada dinledikten sonra varsa parçayla ilgili soruları cevaplarım.” (If there are any, I answer the questions related to a reading or listening passage.). In contrast with preparing questions about a

passage to check comprehension, the learner prefers answering already present questions to develop his/her comprehension. It is possible that this strategy was developed through teacher advice and automatized for the learners.

- 16) Facilitating Pronunciation is another strategy type under the “Developing Comprehension” set under metacognitive strategies. Item 16 is an example: “Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için cümle içinde kullanırım.” (I make up a sentence with the new vocabulary item to pronounce it correctly.). This strategy looks like the memory strategy “placing new words into context”. However, the memory strategy aims to keep the meaning of the word in mind. In this strategy the learner aims to facilitate the pronunciation of the new word by using it in a sentence. This enables the learner not only to develop his/her comprehension of the meaning of the new vocabulary but also his/her pronunciation. Practicing the new vocabulary by using contextual clues enables the learner to develop comprehension of the sound system as well as the meaning.
- 17) “Building Background Knowledge” is a new strategy under the “Centering your learning” set within metacognitive strategies. The reason why this strategy is included under the “Centering your learning” set is because children using this strategy are trying to drive their attention to a certain activity or a task as other strategies under this set and as identified by Oxford. Item 9 exemplifies such background building: “İngilizce bir şey yazmadan ve dinlemeden önce o konuyla ilgili okurum, üniteyi tekrarlarım, benzer bir paragrafı okurum, örnek bulmaya çalışırım, müsvetde hazırlarım veya o konuyla ilgili cümleler kurarım.” (Before writing or listening to something in

English, I read about the topic, review the unit, read a similar paragraph, try to find an example, prepare a draft or make up sentences about the topic.). Subjects of the current study indicated that they make some preparations before they write, listen, etc. in the target language. The purpose is to prepare themselves, and activate their background knowledge to focus on the coming task or activity. Hence, this strategy is placed under the “Centering your Learning” strategy set. Item 20 is a similar one. The former is related to writing and listening, yet, this one is used for the speaking skill: “İngilizce bir şey söylemeden önce defterden, kitaptan, vs. konuyla ilgili neler yaptığımıza bakalım.” (Before saying something in English I look at the book and the notebook to see what we have done on the topic.). Before speaking in the target language the learners seem to get prepared for the task by activating their knowledge. Item 28 shows another way to build background knowledge: “İngilizce bir metin dinlemeden önce resmi varsa iyice incelerim ve gördüklerimin İngilizce’sini düşünürüm.” (Before listening to a passage in English, I examine the picture and think about the English equivalents of the objects I see.).

- 18) Other additions to metacognitive strategies are two new strategies under the ‘Arranging and planning your learning’ set. The first of these is “Seeking the assistance of more proficient learners”. This strategy is different from “Cooperating with proficient users of the new language”, which is a social strategy. According to Oxford, the latter involves cooperation with native or native-like speakers to attend to conversational roles. However, the new strategy involves working with other people who are not necessarily native or

proficient speakers of the target language. According to children, these people are more knowledgeable than themselves and apparently it seems to be enough. Children said that they study with their mother, father, sister, brother, or neighbor or ask their help to do their homework or an activity. The reason why these children do not or cannot cooperate with native speakers is that they are in an EFL environment, where there are few opportunities to interact with native speakers. Thus, Oxford's strategy named "Cooperating with proficient users of the new language" does not work or is not feasible for EFL children. "İngilizce çalışırken annemle, babamla, yada başka bir büyükle çalışırım ya da ihtiyacım olduğunda yardım alırım." (When I study English I study with my father, mother or another grown-up or I ask for their help when I need.) is a strategy in item 32 of metacognitive strategies. The ability to recognize one's need for help is considered a metacognitive ability. Therefore, rather than being social, due to cooperation with others, this strategy is considered as a metacognitive strategy.

- 19) The second strategy under 'Arranging and planning your learning' strategy set in metacognitive strategies is "Asking for proficient help". Similar to the first strategy above, the child feels the need to ask for help from a professional such as a teacher for private lessons. The difference between the two is that the first requires help from someone who is more knowledgeable than the learner, but the second signals the need for a professional, this could be a teacher or if in ESL setting it could be a native speaker. Due to the need for help, this strategy was also considered to be metacognitive. Item 33 is a good example of this strategy: "Öğrenemediğimi yada eksikliklerim olduğunu düşünürsem aileme

yardıma ihtiyacım olduğunu söylerim. Örneğin; özel ders almak istemek gibi.”
 (If I think that I cannot learn or I have deficiencies in learning, I tell my family that I need help. For ex: wanting to have private English lessons.).

20) The definition of “Seeking practice opportunities” under “Arranging and planning your learning” strategy set in the metacognitive strategy group needs expansion due to contextual differences. Item 15: “İngilizce’mi geliştirmek için kendi kendime İngilizce konuşurum.” (I speak English to myself to improve my English.) is a strategy that is thought to develop due to such differences. “Seeking practice opportunities” are learners’ attempts to create and seek out naturalistic language practice such as going to movies in which the L2 is spoken, joining international clubs, etc. Moreover, she adds that “consciously thinking in the new language also provides practice opportunities (p. 139). This strategy involves not only conscious thinking, but also oral production. Therefore, it is thought that this strategy also needs to be considered as seeking opportunities to practice.

21) The definition of “Planning for a language task” under “Arranging and planning your learning” also needs some changes. According to Oxford such planning requires four steps: “describing the task or situation, determining its requirements, checking one’s own linguistic resources, and determining additional language elements or functions necessary for the task or situation” (p. 139). However, the data analysis showed that though children do some planning before a language task, it is not as sophisticated and complicated as indicated by Oxford. This planning is usually finding out linguistic resources such as “İngilizce bir şey yazmadan önce kullanacağım kelimeleri ve kalıpları

belirlerim ve kitap ve defterimden bulurum.” (Before writing something in English, I determine the vocabulary and the structures that I will use and find them from my book and notebook.) (item 19 in Part D). Additionally, “İngilizce bir cümle yada paragraf yazmadan önce yazacaklarımın önce Türkçe’sini düşünürüm.” (Before I write a sentence or paragraph in English I think about what to write in Turkish.) In item 12 in Part D, there is some kind of planning done in the native language. It is clear from the statements that children are engaged in some kind of planning though not as complicated as in Oxford’s definition. Therefore, the planning process does not develop as a four-step activity. Rather, for children it is more simple including one or two of the steps. Thus, it can be argued that the definition of the strategy “Planning for a language task” can be simplified so that it includes children.

22) Apart from the “Taking risks wisely” (part E of the inventory: affective strategies) strategy, none of the other strategies that are considered affective in the literature were identified through data collection. As with the memory strategies, this may be because affective strategies require higher cognitive abilities. Moreover, for the same reason as the memory strategies (that there might be a possibility that children actually possess and use affective strategies, but these strategies are not identified due to data collection methods) affective strategies previously identified by Oxford were included in the inventory.

23) Social strategies (part F in the inventory) in general need to be expanded so that they not only involve cooperation with native or proficient speakers, but also with other people in EFL contexts who are more knowledgeable than the

learner. Oxford argues that language is a social behavior and it is used through communication with other people. However, the social strategies listed in her classification involve peers and native or proficient speakers of the target language. Others that learners interact with to develop language skills or comprehension are not mentioned. Data analysis of the first phase of the current study indicated that children in an EFL context interact with other people, not necessarily proficient users of the target language, such as their sister, mother, father, neighbor etc... who they think are more knowledgeable than they are. Therefore, the definition of social strategies need to involve cooperation and interaction with those who are not necessarily native or proficient users of the language.

24) As a result of the analysis, a new set named "Interacting with others" was added under social strategies. One of the strategies under this set is "Asking more knowledgeable persons to question oneself". One of the examples of interacting with other people such as one's mother or father to improve one's English is exemplified in item 47 of the social strategies: "İngilizce'mi geliştirmek için anneme, babama sınav hazırlatıp çözmeye çalışırım." (To improve my English, I have my parents prepare a test for me to solve.). Such interaction with more knowledgeable people may be to learn about the language, use it or develop skills. By using this strategy the child involves his/her parents in the language development process.

25) "Playing Games" is another strategy under the "Interacting with Others" set. During data collection, children frequently mentioned playing games (word games and/or card games etc.) to improve their vocabulary or other skills for

language development or just for enjoyment. As with other strategies under this set, the current strategy requires interaction with people in addition to and other than the ones in school. Interaction is not necessarily lesson related. Item 48 of social strategies “İngilizce’mi ilerletmek için arkadaşlarımla yada ailemle oyunlar oynarım.” (I play games with my friends or family to improve my English.) shows such interaction. The occurrence of such a strategy is not surprising in that it is in accordance with children’s characteristics. Children like to create fun and enjoyment when they are learning and they need social interaction for their language development (Halliwell, 1992; Cameron, 2001). In addition, Halliwell also claims that children appreciate indirect learning and that games and activities that require real life skills support children’s indirect learning capacity.

- 26) Lastly, using English to have fun is another way that children preferred doing when learning. Item 49 in social strategies, which states that “İngilizce’yi eğlenceli olacak şekilde kullanmaktan hoşlanırım. Örneğin; Espiriler yapmaya çalışmak gibi.” (I like using English in a fun way such as making jokes in English.) is a good example. Children like to experiment with the new language, their creativity and joyfulness reflect this experimentation process. During classroom observations, a fourth grader teased her friend by saying “You look purple, your face purple” that refers to “morardın” in Turkish. She used a literal translation to continue with her joke. This strategy, again, reflects children’s characteristics.

After discussing newly identified strategies and strategy sets that were identified as a result of the data analysis, it is necessary to show children’s language learning

strategies taxonomy. The taxonomy uses Oxford's classification scheme, by adding newly discovered strategy and strategy sets. The additions are indicated in bold letters. The strategies that need expansion in their definition, due to the difference in context (EFL) and age group (children), are indicated by a star (*) in the upper right corner. The taxonomy is shown on the following page:

Chart 2: Children's Taxonomy for Language Learning Strategies

Direct Strategies

Memory Str.s → Creating Mental Linkages

- ## - Creating Connections between Meanings and Sounds

Practicing

- Repeating
- Recognizing and Using Formulas and Patterns
- Practicing Naturalistically*
- Formally Practicing with Sounds and Writing systems
- **Doing Practice Tests**

Cognitive Str.s → Receiving and Sending Messages

- ## - Using Resources for Receiving and Sending Messages

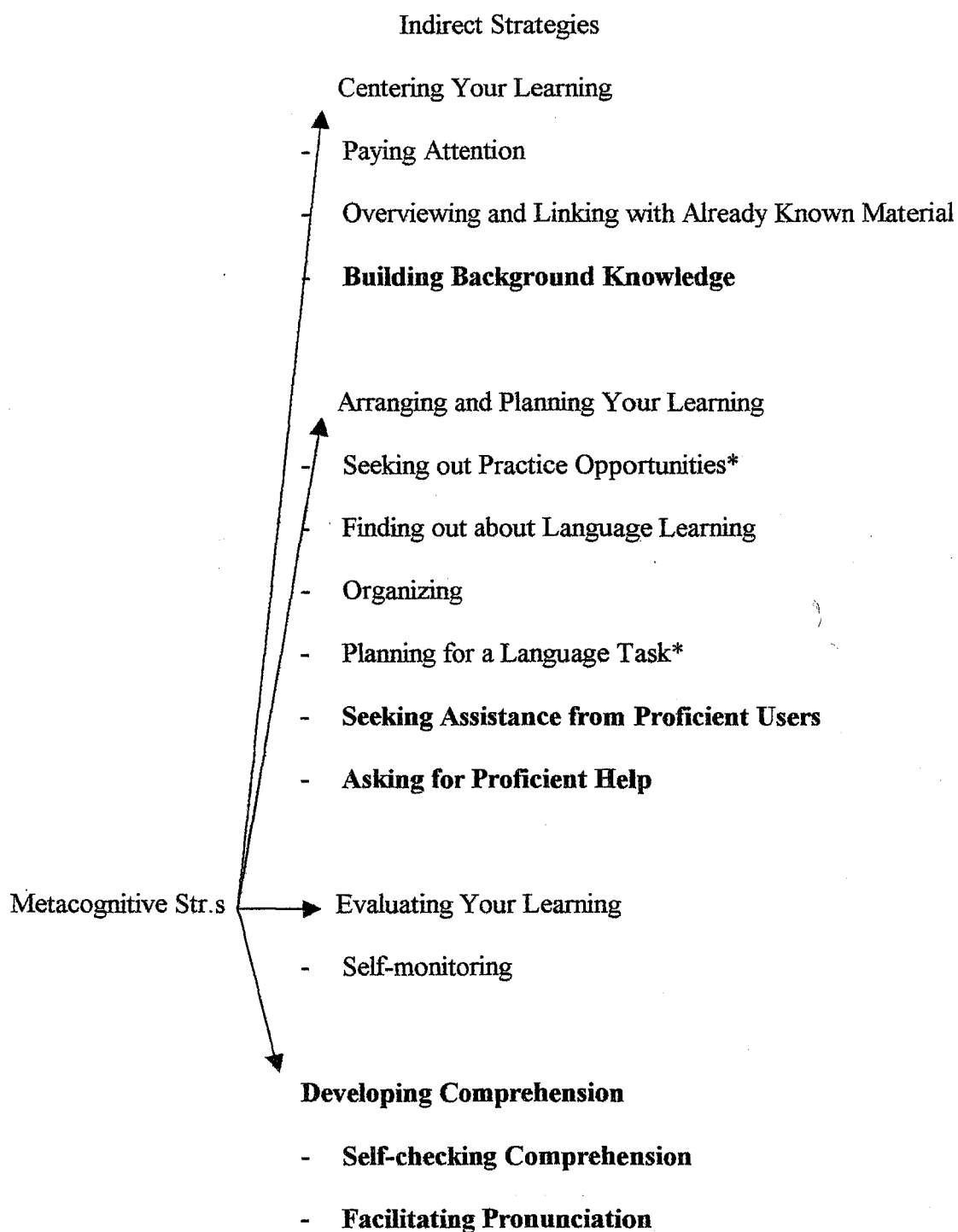
Analyzing and Reasoning

- Translating
- Analyzing Expressions
- Analyzing Contrastively*
- Transferring

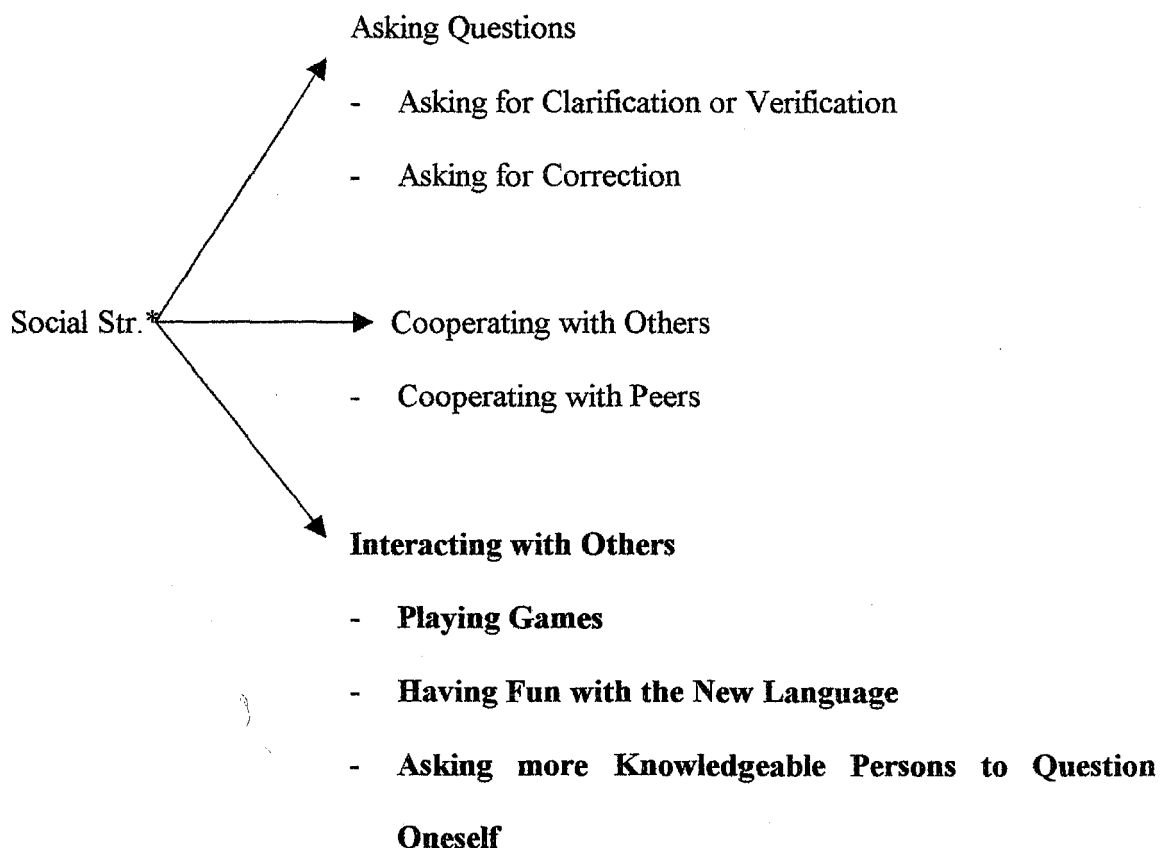
Creating Structure for Input and Output

- Summarizing
- Highlighting

- Ignoring Unknown Vocabulary



- Taking Risks Wisely



By looking at the taxonomy, the first and second research questions can be answered. The first question attempted to find out the language learning strategies of children. The taxonomy shows all strategies that the subjects of the study use. Accordingly, children use 46 strategies in 18 strategy sets, some of which are common to the strategies what adults use.

The second research question asked whether a children's taxonomy differs from an adults'. By looking at the results, it can be said that there are some differences between the two. Most of these are not major. The children's taxonomy needs some additional strategy sets and individual strategies as well as some expansion in some

definitions. The different strategy preferences mostly are due to children's cognitive abilities, characteristics and differences from adults. Therefore, it can be argued that most of the new strategies and strategy sets that appeared are children-specific.

The third question asked whether children used all strategy groups as mentioned in the literature. Results are important in this respect. Although it seems that children use all strategy groups (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social) only one memory and one affective strategy are in children's strategy repertoire. In addition, only memory strategy that is used, is a new strategy that did not appear in the literature. That is, none of the memory strategies listed in the literature was used by the subjects of the present study, which is an important point to mention.

The affective strategy "Taking Risks Wisely" is the only one used and identified through the data collection process. The reason why only this one, but not the others was identified is because children have lower affective filters than adults and adolescents, and they attempt to take risks when learning the language. Thus, children better tolerate being incorrect when compared to adults. This difference between children and adults is mentioned in the literature as Moon (2000) claims that contrary to adults, children are not inhibited when speaking in a new language.

When looked at in more detail, there are some strategy sets that none of the strategies under these sets were used:

1) Under Memory strategies

- a) Creating Mental Linkages (except the new strategy added to this set)
- b) Applying Images and Sounds
- c) Reviewing Well
- d) Employing Action

2) Under Affective Strategies

- a) Lowering Your Anxiety
- b) Taking Your Emotional Temperature

3) Under Social Strategies

- a) Empathizing with Others

As a result, it can be said as an answer to the third research question that children did not use all of the strategy sets mentioned in the literature. With an exception of the two strategy groups (memory and affective) the subjects used many of the strategies mentioned in the literature, and in fact used additional ones that were not mentioned before.

4.2. Results and Discussion of the 2nd Phase:

The second phase of the current study aimed to find out whether it was possible to develop a reliable and valid children's inventory for language learning strategies. As a result of the first phase of the study an inventory was developed and designed as a three-point likert scale, which consisted of 108 items. This initial form was tested for face and content validity and given to 402 students in four private primary schools in Bursa. A total of 45 students (one fourth grade class and one fifth grade class) were re-tested to measure the reliability of the instrument.

The second phase of the study starts at this point. The initial statistical analysis for reliability was done by using the Pearson r Product - Moments Correlation technique by using the results gathered from test and re-test. As a result, the answers to 58 items were found to be reliable and the answers to the remaining 50 items were unreliable. That

is, the answers for the 58 items were consistent in the test and the re-test. Therefore, 50 unreliable items were discarded from the rest of the statistical analysis (The list of reliable and unreliable items are given in the Appendix 12). There might be several reasons for this result. First, the subject group consisted of children who can be distracted easily and lose concentration. It is possible that some of these children might have lost concentration or been distracted for some reason either during the test or the re-test, which in turn affected their choices. Second, as it was indicated by some of the children, after the re-test their behaviors in some areas might have changed in 10 days time. It is possible that the initial application of the inventory might have raised their awareness and encouraged some children to change their behavior. For instance, one student during the re-test, said that she was not reading English books and films before, but she had started doing so, and thus changed her answer at the re-test. Third, in the initial testing, some of the children were not sure about their behaviors and gave conflicting answers in the re-test. Yet, despite these disadvantages the answers to 58 questions were consistent.

The 58-item inventory was still too long for children between 10-11 years of age, according to the experts. Thus, the scale was tested for construct validity and factor analysis, which is a data reduction technique. Construct validity is related to different traits of a scale, test, and/or questionnaire. One problem related to construct validity is whether a group of items define or comprise a construct. Different correlation techniques such as factorial analysis, or a multitrait-multidimensional matrix can be used to test the construct validity (Hatch & Farhardy, 1982).

As mentioned above, the current study examined the construct validity of the inventory with the remaining 58 items through exploratory factor analysis. Factor

analysis refers to techniques that are used to analyze test scores in terms of some constructs (factors) (Hatch & Farhardy, 1982). It is a multi-variable statistical procedure that aims to find new dimensions that are few in number, independent and conceptually meaningful by bringing up a number of dependent variables. There are two types of factor analyses: exploratory and confirmatory. Exploratory factor analysis aims to find factors by deriving from the relationship between variables, whereas, confirmatory factor analysis aims to test a pre-determined hypothesis previously derived from the relationship of variables (Büyüköztürk, 2002, p. 117).

Factor analysis is a statistical technique that intends to bring variables that measure the same construct or quality and explain these with a few number of factors. In a good factorization there must be;

- a) reduction of variables,
- b) new variables or factors that are independent,
- c) meaningful results, that is, factors (Büyüköztürk, 2002, p. 117).

There are several techniques in constructing factors. Principle axes, maximum likelihood, multiple grouping and principle component analysis (PCA) are examples of these techniques. The current study uses Principle Component Analysis (PCA). PCA is a multi-variable statistical analysis that reduces variables and aims to reach meaningful conceptual constructs. It is frequently used in practice and it is subjectively easy to interpret (Büyüköztürk, 2002, 118).

In factor analysis, there are several criteria to take into consideration when discarding items that do not measure the same construct:

- 1) Factor loadings of items in a specific factor need to be high. If there is a cluster of items that are highly related to a factor it means that these items together

measure a concept or a construct. Büyüköztürk (2002), suggests that the minimum value for factor loadings must be 0.30 and that it is a good solution to choose items with factor loadings 0.45 or above. The bigger the variance ratios as a result of the factor analysis, the stronger its factorial structure. It has been suggested that in determining the factors, factorial loadings that are between 0.30 and 0.40 can be used as lower limit (Dunteman, 1989; Gorsuch, 1983; Coombs and Schroeder, 1988). In social sciences it is adequate to have variance ratios that are between 40% and 60% (Dunteman, 1989; Gorsuch, 1983). The current study used items with factor loadings of 0.40 and above.

- 2) Items' factor loadings need to be high for one factor and low for the others. Büyüköztürk (2002) argues that the difference between the two factor loadings must be a minimum of .10. In a multi-factorial construct an item that gives results in a high factor loading for more than one factor is referred to as a colliding item and discarded from the scale.
- 3) Communalities of items for important factors need to be high. Although Büyüköztürk (2002) claims that it would be a good solution to have communalities above 0.66, he also argues that this is difficult in practice.

Another point to realize in factor analysis is to decide the number of important factors that the variables (items of the scale or the questionnaire) measure. This problem is related to healthy factorization. Büyüköztürk lists three criteria. One criterion is to determine factors with eigenvalues of 1 or above. This minimum limit can be increased by researchers.

Another criterion is total variance. In multi-factor scales a high number of factors increases total variance, however, this time it becomes difficult to name each

factor. In single-factor scales it might be enough to have a total variance of 30% or above. In multi-factor scales higher variance is expected. The bigger the total variance as a result of the factor analysis, the stronger its factorial structure.

When total variance increases, it means that the construct is measured well. In order to increase total variance, the number of factors or items with higher factor loadings can be chosen.

The last criterion can be examining the scree plot, which is drawn according to the eigenvalues. The vertical axis shows the amount of eigenvalues and the horizontal axis shows the factors. High velocity decreases show the number of important factors.

The researcher can rotate the factors that s/he gets after factor analysis to interpret the results independently, clearly, and meaningfully. Hatch & Farhardy argue that varimax rotation is the most common method, thus, the present study used varimax rotation in the analysis. When interpreting the results the component matrix is not used since it gives less incomprehensible information than the rotated matrix.

In light of this information, 58 items were factor analyzed. The initial analysis resulted in 18 factors with eigenvalues of 1 or above. The total variance of these 18 factors was found to be 85.023%. As discussed above a high number of factors increases the total variance but makes it difficult to name each factor (Büyüköztürk, 2002). In addition to this fact, the SPSS 11.0 program was unable to make a Rotated Component Matrix, because the rotation failed to converge in 25 iterations.

Due to these results, and by examining the scree plot, it was decided to do the factor analysis for four factors, because the decrease between the fourth and fifth factors was not high. Yet, in this second analysis the program indicated, again, that the rotation failed to converge in 25 iterations. This time, the factor analysis was done again for the

third time for five factors. As a result of the third attempt, total variance was found to be 46.001%. This is an acceptable percentage for a multi-factor scale. When the rotation component matrix was examined the following items needed to be removed by taking the criteria mentioned above. Accordingly;

D 1: The item worked in factors 1 and 5, however, the difference between the factor loadings was smaller than .10 and discarded. If the difference between the two factor loadings was more than .10 the item would be accepted under the factor having the highest loading.

B 26: Factor loading of this item was below .40, which was accepted as the minimum limit for this study.

B 24; D 4; D21: Similarly, factor loadings of these items were also below .40.

E 46: The item was under factors 1 and 3. The difference between the factor loadings was less than .10. Thus, it was a colliding item that needs to be discarded.

C 52: The item was under factors 3 and 5. The difference between the factor loadings being less than .10.

C 47: The item was under factors 2 and 3. The difference between the factor loadings was less than .10.

B 31: The item was under factors 1 and 4. The difference between the factor loadings was less than .10.

C 51: The item was under factors 3 and 4. The difference between the factor loadings was less than .10.

A 11: The item was under factors 3 and 4. The difference between the factor loadings was less than .10.

D 18: The item was under factors 2 and 4. The difference between the factor loadings was less than .10.

C 48: Factor loading of this item was lower than .40.

When certain items are discarded it is necessary to continue factor analysis until all conditions are met. As a result, factor analysis is a data reduction technique.

After discarding the above items the fourth factor analysis was made with the remaining items and the total variance increased to 48.662%, and the following items were discarded for not meeting the criteria:

C 55: The item was under factors 2 and 4 and the difference between the factor loadings was less than .10.

A 4; E 34; C 57: Factor loadings of the items were lower than .40.

B 34: The item was under factors 2 and 3 and the difference between the factor loadings was less than .10.

Since there were still some items to be discarded, factor analysis was conducted again for the fifth time. This time the total variance increased to 50.644%, however, four more items did not work well with the factors:

E 47: The item was in two factors (1&5) and the difference of the factor loadings was less than .10.

A 8: Factor loading of the item was below .40.

B 23: The item was under factors 4 and 5 and the difference between the factor loadings was less than .10.

D 17: The item was under factors 2 and 5 and the difference between the factor loadings was less than .10.

Factor analysis was repeated again for the sixth time and the total variance increased to 51.894%. At the end of the sixth factor analysis, item D 25 was found to be in two factors (1&3). The difference between the factor loadings was less than .10. In the seventh analysis the item was deleted and the total variance became 51.679%. This time item A 1 was found to be under the second and third factors without the necessary difference (.10).

The eighth factor analysis was done after the item A 1 was deleted, and the total variance slightly increased to 51.864%. Item A 10 was under the second and fifth factors with a difference of less than .10. Removal of item A 10 forced the ninth factor analysis, however, this time, only two items (E 40 and D 15) were left under the fifth factor. Two items are not adequate to consider as a factor. In addition, item B 14 was under the first and fifth factors without adequate difference in the factor loadings.

Consequently, a tenth factor analysis was done for four factors and B 14 was removed. The total variance decreased to 47.393%, but it is still considered as high. Factor loadings of items E 40 and D 15 were below .40 at the end of the tenth factor analysis and thus, removed.

Finally, factor analysis was repeated for the eleventh time (see Appendix 13) and total variance increased and approached to 50% with 49.871%, which is considered high.

At the end of the factor analysis, 30 of the 58 items were left and these were distributed to the four factors (see Appendix 16 for 30-item CHILLS). The Factorial distribution of these items are given below:

Table 2: Factorial Distribution of Inventory Items

FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4
B 32	B 43	A 6	B 13
F 44	B 36	B 15	A 12
F 45	F 49	C 50	D 19
D 20	D 3	C 54	B 20
D 16	B 38	C 59	A 9
D 5	B 17	A3	
B 28	D 9	B8	
B 22	C 56		
D 30			
D33			

The items were checked for internal reliability by using Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the scale was found to be very high (.8873) (see Appendix 14 for reliability results). Then, each factor was tested for internal reliability by using the same technique. Accordingly, the reliability of each of the factors is given below:

Factor 1 = .8491

Factor 2 = .8192

Factor 3 = .7752

Factor 2 = .7852

Individual reliability results of factors are also high. Thus, the results show that the inventory is valid and reliable. Table 3 shows the items, their mean, standard deviation,

item-total correlation, factor analysis and internal reliability correlation coefficients of the factors of Children's Inventory for Language Learning Strategies (CHILLS).

Table 3: Mean, standard deviation, item-total correlation, factor analysis, and internal reliability correlation coefficients of the factors in Children's Inventory for Language Learning Strategies (CHILLS)

Items and Factors	Mean	SD	Item-total Cor.	Comp. Fact. Load.	Varimax Fact. Load.
Factor 1: Study Habits					
Alpha = ,8491					
1. Öğretmenimle, arkadaşlarımla, anne ve babamla İngilizce konuşmaya çalışırım.	2,3953	,79101	,5096	,585	,750
2. İngilizce bir aktivitede arkadaşımınla çalışırım, notlarımı paylaşıyorum ve bilmediklerimi ona sorarım.	2,3488	,65041	,4233	,497	,736
3. İngilizce bir şey yazdıktan veya söyledikten sonra öğretmenimden, arkadaşımın yada bilen başka birinden yanlışlarımı düzeltmesini isterim.	2,2791	,82594	,5191	,589	,698
4. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için cümle içinde kullanırım.	2,2326	,78185	,3582	,582	,623
5. İngilizce bir şey söylemeden önce defterden, kitaptan v.s konuyla ilgili neler yaptığımıza bakarım.	2,1860	,79450	,5092	,435	,632
6. İngilizce'ni iletirmek için kendi kendimi sınav yaparım.	2,0000	,84515	,5678	,643	,621
7. Okulda işlediğimiz dersi, eski kitap ve defterlerimi, derste aldığım notları, bilmediğim ve yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri okuyarak yada yazarak tekrar ederim.	2,3023	,70828	,4556	,688	,593
8. Konuşma aktivitelerinden önce annemle,babamla yada başka birisiyle prova yaparım.	2,0930	,86778	,6185	,526	,611
9. Konuşma aktivitelerinden sonra yanlışlarımı çalışırım.	2,1163	,79310	,3594	,432	,500
10. Öğrenemediğimi yada eksikliklerim olduğunu düşünürsem aileme yardıma ihtiyacım olduğunu söylerim. Örneğin; özel ders almak istemek gibi.	1,8605	,86138	,3299	,406	,419
Factor 2: Strategies to Improve Language Learning					
Alpha = ,8192					
11. İngilizce'ni iletirmek için daha önceden okuduğum kitapları tekrar okurum.	1,9535	,84384	,5203	,553	,743
12. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için turistlerle ve başka yabancılarla konuşurken kullanırım.	2,3256	,83726	,3459	,551	,714

13. İngilizce'yi eğlenceli olacak şekilde kullanmaktan hoşlanırım. Örneğin; İngilizce espiriler yapmaya çalışırım.	1,8837	,90526	,3414	,436	,647
14. İngilizce'ni geliştirmek için başka ders kitapları, İngilizce öğreten CD ve kasetler gibi yardımcı malzemelerle çalışırım.	2,1395	,83328	,3835	,438	,626
15. İngilizce'ni geliştirmek için test çözerim.	1,9767	,80144	,5332	,571	,621
16. İngilizce bir şey okurken daha önceden bilmediğim bir dilbilgisi kuralı (gramer, yapı) ile karşılaşsam onu öğrendiğim benzer bir kuralla karşılaştırıp tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	2,1163	,79310	,4818	,528	,606
17. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan ve dinlemeden önce o konuyla ilgili okurum, üniteyi tekrarlarım, benzer bir paragraf okurum, örnek bulmaya çalışırım, müsvedde hazırlarım veya o konuyla ilgili cümleler kurarım.	2,0465	,84384	,2952	-,576	,591
18. Konuşurken bilmediğim kelimelerin yerine aynı anlama gelebilecek bir kelime uydururum.	2,1860	,85233	,4825	,533	,552

Factor 3. Strategies to Facilitate the Reception and Production of the Target Language
Alpha = ,7752

19. Türkçe'de ve İngilizce'deki kelimelerin söylenişleri birbirine benzeterak aklımda tutmaya çalışırım. Örneğin; snake (yılan) ve sinek gibi.	2,0000	,89974	,3491	,685	,747
20. İngilizce'sini bilmediğim kelimeleri, canlandırma aktivitelerinden sonra aklımda kalanları ve arkadaşlarımdan sorularımı defterime not ederim.	1,7674	,75078	,3564	,496	,678
21. İngilizce konuşurken anlatmakta güçlük çektiğim durumlarda el-kol hareketleriyle anlatmaya çalışırım.	2,2093	,80851	,4741	,496	,614
22. Yazarken yada konuşurken bilmediğim bir kelimeyi onun resmini çizerek anlatmaya çalışırım.	2,3256	,80832	,2530	,494	,494
23. Konuşurken İngilizce'sini bilmediğim bir kelimenin yerine onun Türkçe'sini söylerim ve İngilizce konuşmaya devam ederim.	2,2558	,81920	,3349	,409	,586
24. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için yaza yaza çalışırım.	1,9302	,88359	,5378	,589	,533
25. İngilizce yazarken ve okurken anlamamı ve yazmamı kolaylaştırması için Türkçe'ye benzeyen kelimelerden yararlanırım. Örneğin; radio, television, leopard, chimpanzee.	2,2791	,76612	,4769	,519	,463

Factor 4: Strategies to Consolidate Knowledge in the Target Language
Alpha = ,7852

26. İngilizce bir cümleyi yada metni anlamama, yazmama, dinlememe yada söylememe yardımcı olabilmesi için sözlükten, kitabımdan, defterimden veya varsa İngilizce öğreten CD ve kasetlerimden yararlanırım.	2,2326	,75078	,4733	,552	,715
27. Yeni bir kelimeyi onu gördüğüm sayfadaki yeriyile hatırlarım.	2,3023	,74113	,3260	,562	,694
28. İlk kez okuduğum yada dinlediğim İngilizce bir parçayı tekrar okurum ve dinlerim.	2,0465	,81514	,5471	,595	,691
29. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan önce kullanacağım kelimeleri ve kalıpları belirlerim ve kitap ve defterimden bulurum.	2,1395	,83328	,4353	,507	,690
30. Yeni öğrendiklerimi düzenli aralıklarla tekrar ederim.	2,2791	,62965	,3185	,470	,657

The instrument that is developed is shown in Appendix 16. At a glance it is easy to say that this children's inventory for language learning strategies (CHILLS) is different from the adults' SILL. First of all, instead of six factors there are four factors in CHILLS. Moreover, the factor names are different from those of SILL's (memory, cognitive, compensation ... etc.). The researcher gave different names to these factors, because as a result of the statistical analysis the items did not group as memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and so on. The common point of these strategy groups was not dependent on their being memory, cognitive, social ... strategies. For instance, the first factor consists of strategies for general study habits; the second factor includes strategies to improve language learning. The third factor is composed of strategies to facilitate the reception and production of language. The fourth factor consists of strategies one uses to consolidate knowledge in the target language.

The first factor is mostly composed of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and two social strategies that children use. The strategies under this group mostly refer to general study habits of children, for instance, using a newly learned vocabulary word in context in order to pronounce it correctly, studying one's mistakes/errors after a speaking activity, before speaking in English, checking one's background knowledge by examining books, or asking others to correct one's mistakes.

The second group of strategies are mostly used to improve language learning. Although mostly cognitive, there are metacognitive, social and compensation strategies in this group, however, their common property is that they are used to improve learning in the target language. To give some examples; re-reading the books that were read before to improve one's English, using the newly learned vocabulary when speaking

with native speakers, using other books, educational CD's or tapes to learn more about the language, solve practice tests etc.

The third factorial group is composed of strategies that are mostly used for the facilitation of the reception and production of the target language. They are mostly compensation strategies but there are two memory strategies and two cognitive strategies. When statements under this group are examined, it can be seen that although they call for different types of strategies (cognitive, compensation or memory), they are used for the same purpose. For example, keeping new vocabulary in mind by making an association between the pronunciation of two words in English and Turkish such as snake and sinek, keeping notes of peers' questions after speaking activities, studying by writing in order to pronounce a word correctly, making use of similar words in the native and target language such as leopard and leopar, radio and radyo etc. are all strategies for reception. Using gestures and mimicry, when speaking, drawing the picture of an unknown vocabulary when speaking or writing, switching to L1 when speaking are strategies to facilitate the production of the target language.

The last group of strategies is common in that they are used for the consolidation of the target language. For example, listening to or reading a passage a second time, practicing new information regularly, using extra resources to comprehend, write, listen or speak in English etc.

When looking at the results it is clear that children use different strategy groups for their own learning needs, which makes them unique in their strategy preferences and use.

In conclusion, the results of the second phase answer the last research problem. That is, it is possible to develop a valid and reliable inventory for language learning strategies of children.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Summary of the Study:

As emphasized throughout the study, language learning strategy research is not complete unless the direction of research moves towards and deepens in the studying of language learning strategies (LLS) of children. Previous research mostly focused on adults and adolescents. Although there are some studies with children, none of these can be considered adequate to cover children's LLS. This is because of the fact that most of this research investigated a group of strategies and their effects on learning one or two language skills. In addition, most of these studies investigated the LLS of bilingual children, children in immersion classrooms and those in an ESL context. From this point, it is necessary to conduct research on children in EFL contexts. It is clear that there is a need for a more comprehensive study that investigates strategy use in general, including all strategy groups and their effects on learning all language skills.

Another issue that needs to be investigated is the inventories for LLS, since the literature signals a gap at this point also. This is because inventories and/or questionnaires have been developed so far vary. Some of them investigated strategy use while learning a skill (such as reading or listening) and, as it was mentioned in the literature, most of these lack reliability and validity data. Some others that cover all

strategies have such psychometric information (such as SILL), but none of these are developed for children nor for children in EFL contexts.

As a developing area of research, future LLS studies need to cover issues mentioned above. Thus, the current study was designed as a two-phase study to find answers to the problems mentioned above. The study was conducted in an EFL context with children between the ages of 10-11. In the first phase, with the use of different data collection techniques such as task-based and general interviews, classroom observations and observations of individual students while performing a task, think aloud protocols, and semi-guided questionnaires, children's language learning strategies were investigated. At the end of the study, a taxonomy for children's LLS was developed, and strategies that are different from those of adults' were identified. As discussed in Chapter IV, in the results, the differences were most probably due to children's characteristics, cognitive capabilities and in a few cases the education system and L1 background of the subject group.

At the end of the first phase, an inventory was prepared and in the second phase it was administered to 402 students at the same age and at fourth and fifth grades. Afterwards, the inventory was tested for reliability and validity.

5.2. Conclusions and Implications of the First Phase of the Study:

The results of the first phase of the study indicated that some of the language learning strategies that children use are similar to those of adults'. However, as it was presupposed and later became the deriving factor of the first phase, children also use different strategies and in addition, some strategy groups (memory and affective) are

rarely used. The differences in strategy use of children and adults also appeared from children's characteristics (mentioned earlier in the literature) and some from the education system (such as taking practice tests to improve language learning is something possibly reflected from other subject areas that Turkish children frequently do) or the L1 background of the subjects (such as writing the pronunciation of an English word by using the sounds and alphabet used in Turkish). To give another example, the "Playing Games" strategy is a children-specific strategy due to their characteristics, because children like to have fun and enjoy while learning (Halliwell, 1992).

The strategy "Taking Practice Tests" to improve one's English is a reflection of a behavior that is used for other subject areas. In the Turkish education system students take lots of tests for different purposes throughout their education. In order to continue education in English medium high schools, science focused high schools, military schools, or in order to determine the grade level success of students city-wide or school-wide exams or later to enter a university, students are trained to take exams and encouraged to take practice tests to become "successful" on these exams. It might be considered a natural process to take practice tests in other subject areas, such as English, to become successful. This strategy may not be applicable to children in other countries having different education systems.

Another strategy that is thought to differ according to the L1 background is writing an English word as it is spelled in Turkish in order to pronounce it correctly. To give an example, to pronounce the word "table" correctly some children spell it in Turkish as "teybıl" and learn its pronunciation by reading it several times. This is because of the fact that the writing system of the Turkish language is almost phonetic,

which enables the learners to write English words as if it is a phonetic code. Similarly, this strategy may not be used by other children having different L1 backgrounds.

Only one affective strategy “Taking risks wisely” is under children’s active use. Other affective strategies require high awareness of emotional states and finding solutions to negative ones such as using relaxation techniques, or keeping a diary to write about one’s feelings towards learning a language. The reason for using the strategy “taking risks wisely” is thought to be because children have low affective filters when compared to adolescents and adults and speak easily in front of others to learn.

Similar to the affective strategies, memory strategies were also found to be the least used strategies. Only one type of strategy, “Creating connections between meanings and sounds” under the “Creating mental linkages” set was used by children. The reason for the very limited use of memory strategies is attributed to children’s cognitive abilities. Memory strategies require high cognitive abilities such as abstract thinking. The subjects’ age group is at Piaget’s “Period of Concrete Operations” according to his developmental stages. Abstract thinking develops during the “Period of Formal Operations”, which is after the age 11. Since these children are between 10 and 11 years old, it is highly possible that they had not developed abstract thinking yet. Therefore, they use almost none of the memory strategies mentioned in the literature.

As a result, differences between children’s and adults LLS and consequently their strategy taxonomy is due to four reasons:

- 1) Children’s characteristics,
- 2) Children’s cognitive skills,
- 3) The education system that children are a part of,
- 4) Children’s L1 background.

Awareness of children's strategy use and differences between adults has many benefits and implications for classroom teaching. Knowing how children use their strategies and these types of strategies will enable teachers to organize classroom tasks and activities accordingly. For example, some children indicated during the data collection process that they like to write poems and/or rhymes with the new vocabulary. Although this strategy might not be used by the majority of the subjects possibly because of unawareness, it is a useful indication of a positive attitude towards learning through poetry. Thus, this may

- 1) encourage teachers to include such activities in the classroom ,
- 2) allow teachers to create an enjoyable environment for language learning,
- 3) encourage teachers to attract children's attention,
- 4) enable teachers to trigger learner's creativity,
- 5) allow teachers to create a more natural and purposeful learning environment and
- 6) encourage students to be an example to other students that do not use this strategy by indirectly raising their awareness.

This strategy is a good example of children's creative nature and their natural desire to enjoy and have fun. Making use of these natural characteristics will inevitably help create a comfortable learning environment. In addition, it will decrease possible barriers and negative attitudes, if any.

Knowing children's LLS will also enable teachers to distinguish between effective and ineffective strategies and direct students to use more effective ones. Although it is clear from the results of the first phase, that children use a wide range of strategies, not all of them might be appropriate for all learning situations. Therefore, knowing about children's strategies helps teachers to consciously observe children

while using them and determine effective and ineffective ones. By doing this, they will be able to direct their students to use strategies more effectively or help them use them in different situations. This way, it will be possible to increase success and raise children's awareness of strategy use.

Moreover, identification of strategies will enable teachers to add new and useful strategies to children's repertoire through strategy training. Strategy training is a key and an indispensable issue that has to be taken into consideration, to increase learners' success. One key to strategy training is teaching strategies in combination with another. It is widely argued in the literature that (Oxford, 1990) teaching individual, single strategies is less effective than teaching them in relation to each other. To give an example, one could teach a compensation strategy such as adjusting or approximating the message together with a metacognitive strategy such as self-monitoring. Strategy training inevitably encourages learners to become autonomous. Lehtonen (2000) argues that "training learners in language learning and strategy use may give them an active responsible role in their own learning, help them gain autonomy and become better learners" (p. 64). Researchers and educators developed learning strategies programs for better outcomes for various reasons. First of all, researchers developed such programs in order to investigate their effectiveness. Second, they are used to examine the training procedures, strategy transfer and generalization of strategy use. Lastly, for disadvantaged and under prepared students they are developed as a remedial program (Weinstein, 1988). Three approaches to learning strategy training at the postsecondary level is addressed by Weinstein (1988). The first is embedded instruction. In this approach, strategy training is incorporated into existing materials. Second, is the implementation of the metacurriculum. In this approach, strategy training is integrated

into all planned and unplanned classroom activities. The last one is the adjunct approach. According to this approach some kind of supplementary instruction is given. This additional instruction can be as short as a two-hour workshop or stretch over the course of a semester. Of course, all these approaches are designed and used with students at the postsecondary level. It can be suggested, for further research, to adopt these existing approaches for the primary level or develop new approaches for children. Developing an approach for strategy training is crucial. Training needs to be structured in order to be effective. The literature supports the benefit of strategy training. Chamot (1993) claims that although there have been only a limited number of LLS instruction, the results have been successful. In their study O'Malley et al (1985a) use strategy training in a natural teaching environment and with integrative language skills and conclude that learning is facilitated through classroom strategy training. Williams and Burden (1997) further claim that when strategies are explicitly taught, treatment groups performed better than the untrained control group. Yet, they also mention that such studies provide limited information about the long-term effects of strategy training or whether strategies learned after training are transferrable to other learning situations.

5.3. Conclusions and Implications of the Second Phase of the Study:

At the end of the second phase of the study a valid and reliable inventory for children's language learning strategies (CHILLS: Children's Inventory for Language Learning) was developed. The main purpose of this study was to develop a scale that could be used by primary school English language teachers, that teach all language skills and/or language areas together, in relation to each other, to identify their learners'

strategies in a much easy, reliable and practical way. Contrary to private schools, government schools mostly teach reading writing, vocabulary and grammar and tend to neglect productive skills like speaking and listening. This is firstly because in government schools English is taught for two hours a week; secondly classrooms are very crowded with 50-60 students, and lastly, most of the schools lack technological equipment as simple as a tape recorder. The inventory that is developed covers all language skills and areas. Its use in a classroom where only a few skills are taught would be misleading.

Individual attempts to learn LLS with the use of teacher observations of students are inadequate, inconclusive and not generalizable. These are usually one teacher's attempts and his/her one or two classes. As discussed earlier in the study observations provide information only on the observable aspects of strategy use such as cooperating with peers, asking questions for clarification or verification, using gestures and mimicry etc. Only teacher observations will not be adequate to see unobservable aspects. Other techniques (such as diary keeping, interviewing, think aloud protocols etc.) used to identify strategies require a lot of time to gather and analyze information. Therefore, a valid and reliable instrument would save teachers a lot of time when investigating their students' strategies.

Moreover, this scale enables the teacher to see what types of strategies are most preferred by his/her group just by looking at the points gathered at the end of each part. Thus, this information would enable a teacher to focus and train his/her students on less frequently used but effective strategies and to consequently increase their strategy repertoire.

In addition, by using such an instrument, the first steps of conducting strategy training and developing autonomous learners will have taken. Deriving from the results, appropriate strategy training can be conducted according to the learners' needs. The eventual outcome would be more successful and autonomous language learners.

In many ways the current study is unique. First of all, it is the first study to collect data from children in EFL contexts and take all language skills and strategy groups into consideration. Second, unlike others, the items of the CHILLS were gathered from subjects not through a literature review by listing down strategies mentioned so far in other studies. Third, it is the first known study that compare children's and adults' LLS and identify differences as well as to write a children's LLS taxonomy. Lastly, this is the first study to develop a valid and reliable inventory of children's language learning strategies.

It is hoped that this study filled some of the gaps of LLS research and will encourage others to conduct studies on children in other contexts with different L1 and cultural backgrounds. In addition, it is hoped that current study triggers strategy instruction with children and the development of specific approaches to train children learning English. It is also hoped that the products of this study (inventory, taxonomy) will help and guide primary language teachers when

- 1) developing their classroom methodologies,
- 2) finding ways to teach more effectively,
- 3) understanding children's choice of strategies,
- 4) designing lessons according to children's needs,
- 5) helping children learn more effective strategies than their existing ones,

- 6) implementing strategy training and helping children learn new and effective strategies,
- 7) creating autonomous learners.

5.4. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research:

Although all possible weaknesses were addressed with a very complex methodology, it was not possible to eliminate all of them that were due to the subject group of the study. To ensure that children understand the items of the inventory, data was collected from children and their own expressions were used in the statements. Thus, it was hoped that the items would be more comprehensible if children's own words are used rather than an adult's expressions. Hence, it was assumed that there was a minimum amount of incomprehensibility due to these statements. In addition, the researcher was always present in the classroom while the instrument was being administered in order to answer any questions and solve any problems related to comprehension. Yet, the age of the subject group was young (10 and 11) and there is always a possibility that some of them may have had reading comprehension difficulties.

Another weakness is related to the item-length of the instrument. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, items were written by using the data gathered directly from children. Initially, there were more than 300 items. However, since there were too many items, some of them were put together as a single item if they were representing the same strategy. For reliability and validity purposes none of the items (that proved to be a strategy) were discarded, because otherwise deciding which strategy was more

representative of a strategy group would be researcher's own subjective opinion. In that case, there would be no need to collect data from children, but use existing literature and form the inventory accordingly. As a result of this action, some items in the inventory were long. To decrease the possible negative effects, the instrument was administered in two different times by dividing it into two parts. Part A consisted of 59 items and Part B consisted of 49 items. Part A represented the direct strategies as memory, cognitive, and compensation and Part B represented the indirect strategies as metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

In addition, the instrument was piloted on other individual children, having the same characteristics of the subject group, to see if they show any signs of boredom or lack of concentration. Moreover, the approximate time to finish each part of the inventory was calculated to see if they could finish the instrument in a reasonable amount of time, which could be a sign of concentration. Yet, 402 children answered the inventory not individually as in the pilot study, but together as a whole class. Hence, it is probable that there were children who lost concentration due to boredom or a limited attention span, etc. This was also one reason that third graders were not used in the second phase. The final product, the 30-item inventory, is appropriate for third grade children since it involves items collected from this age group (9 years), and it is short enough even for their age.

These weaknesses were unpreventable due to the conditions explained above. Moreover, the current study aimed to develop an overall inventory that covers all skills, language areas and strategies. For further research, it can be suggested to develop individual inventories for each skill and or strategy group such as 'cognitive strategies inventory for the reading skill', etc. This way it will be possible to eliminate the above

weaknesses, since the number of items would naturally decrease and the length of each item would be shortened since only cognitive strategies used solely for the reading skill would be written down. Hence, it would not be necessary to combine similar strategies in one item, thus enabling the educator and/or researcher get a more specific and detailed understanding about the strategies that children use for a specific skill.

A weakness that is not due to the item length or the subject group is that the initial inventory is given as Part A and Part B in the same order. That is, all subjects received the Part A first and Part B afterwards. There is a possibility that if the two parts were given in a mixed order the weaknesses that are due to boredom could be reduced. Thus, for further research it is suggested that half of the subjects receive Part A and the other half receive Part B first, in a mixed order, to see if there will be differences in the results.

Another suggestion for further research is to conduct similar studies in other EFL contexts to see if cultural characteristics, as argued in this study and by Rees-Miller (1993), L1 background, and education systems play a role and if so, to what extent.

In addition, it is suggested that further research investigate the relationship of strategy training for children and autonomy, to see if results supports literature on adult strategy training and autonomy.

Finally, future research might investigate ways to develop appropriate training programs and methodologies designed for children.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

MATERIALS USED IN THE TASK-BASED INTERVIEWS DURING THE PILOT STUDY

APPENDIX 1A

Speaking Task of the Pilot Study

Composition 1

B



D



A



C



Composition 8

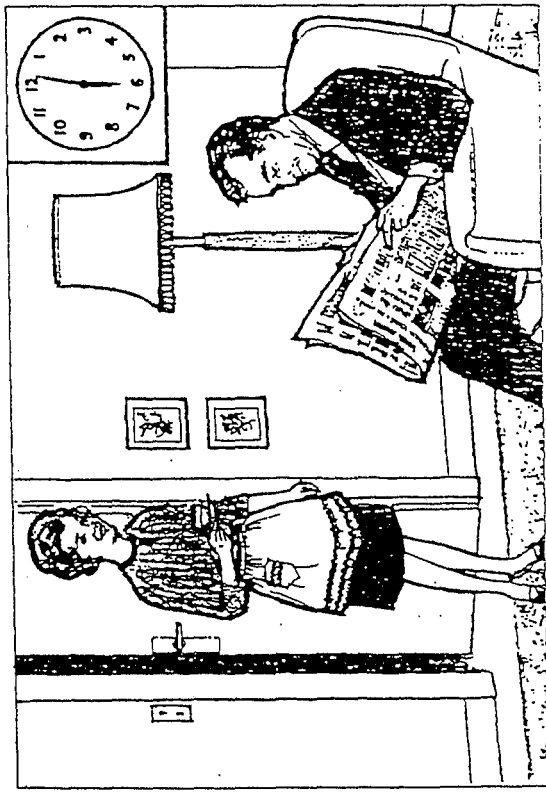
B



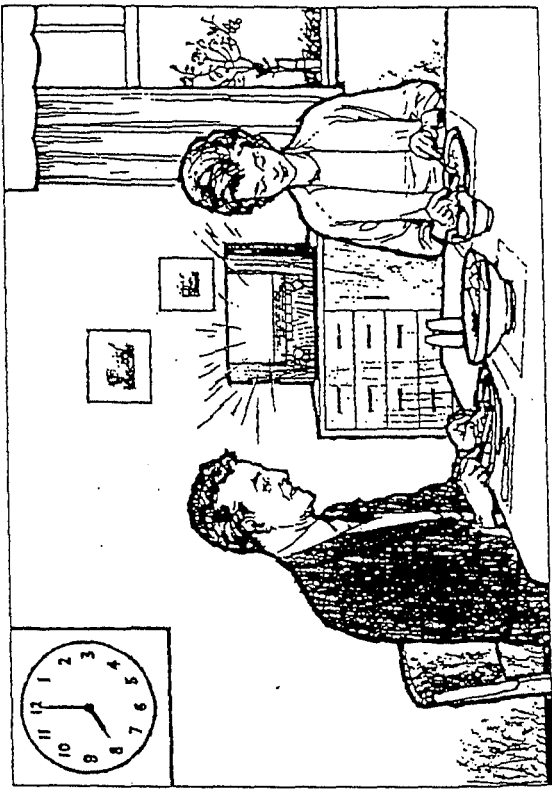
D



A



C



APPENDIX 1B

Listening Task of the Pilot Study

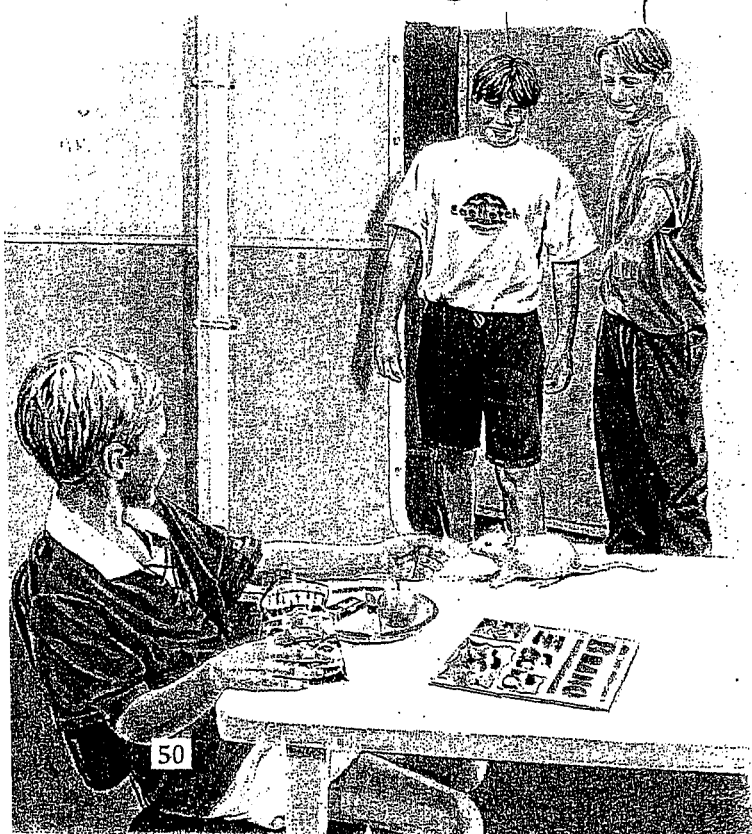
21 She doesn't like rats.

The ship is now at Tintagel. Find Tintagel on the map on page 9.

1 Listen and read.

- PATRICK: I don't like Sunday.
 SIMON: Why?
 PATRICK: Because I usually do my homework on Sunday. Wow! Look at that!
 SIMON: What's he called?
 JACK: Snowy.
 PATRICK: Give him some cheese, Jack.
 JACK: He doesn't like cheese.
 PATRICK: He's intelligent. I don't like cheese.
 SIMON: What does he like?
 JACK: He loves crisps and he likes bread, meat and sometimes fish. He doesn't like sweets or chocolate.
 PATRICK: We don't keep pets at home.
 JACK: Why?
 PATRICK: Because my mum and dad don't like pets. They don't like animals.
 JACK: Well, my sister doesn't like Snowy. She doesn't like rats or snakes. <

2 Now listen and repeat.



50

3 Find the negatives in the conversation and write them.

1 I don't like Sunday.

Look!

Present Simple - negative

I/you/we/they **don't (do not)**

I like crisps. → I **don't** like cheese.

he/she **doesn't (does not)**

He likes crisps. → He **doesn't** like cheese.

4 Write three sentences about Snowy's likes and dislikes.

1 He likes, but he doesn't like

5 Listen and repeat the days of the week.

Sunday	Wednesday	Saturday
Monday	Thursday	the weekend
Tuesday	Friday	

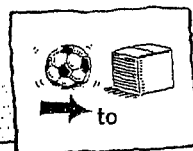
6 This is Patrick's diary. Which days does he like, and why? Write seven sentences.

He doesn't like Sunday, because he does his homework on Sunday.

He likes Monday, because he plays football on Monday.

oh no! homework

9 Sunday	school
10 Monday	great! play football
11 Tuesday	school
	tidy my room - boring!
12 Wednesday	school
	go to the computer club - fantastic!
13 Thursday	school
	go to the supermarket - yuk!
14 Friday	school
	yes! the weekend starts
15 Saturday	play football in the park



Jack

APPENDIX 1C**Reading Task of the Pilot Study**

The Sword in the Stone

There are a lot of books about King Arthur, a king of ancient Britain. One book is called 'The Sword in the Stone'. It tells the story of Arthur as a boy. It describes his life with his family and his friend Merlin, the magician.

Merlin uses magic to teach things to Arthur. He changes Arthur into different animals. Arthur becomes a fish, a squirrel and a bird. He learns a lot.

When Arthur is fifteen he pulls a magic sword from a stone and he becomes King of Britain.

In the picture you can see Arthur and his family and friends. Arthur is quite short. He's got blond hair and blue eyes. Merlin is next to Arthur. He's got white hair and a long white beard. Behind Arthur you see his father, Ector. He's short and fat and he's got brown hair. Kay, Arthur's brother, is behind Ector. He's got a long nose, long arms and brown hair. There are two animals in front of Merlin. They are squirrels. They've got red fur and long tails. There's a bird on Merlin's hat. It's his pet owl. It's got yellow eyes and it's called Archimedes.

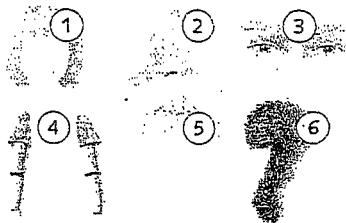
behind



in front of

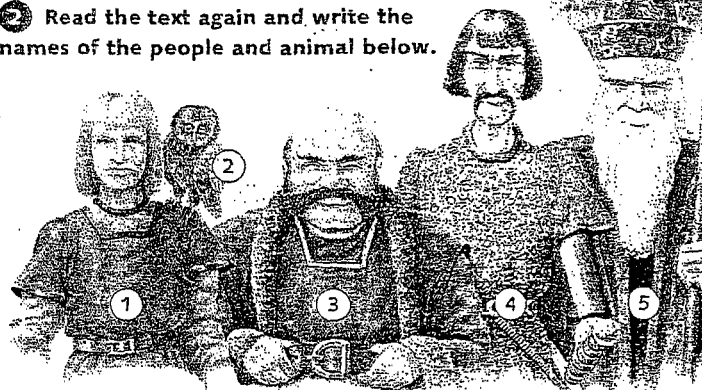


1 Read the text and find the names of these things.



54

2 Read the text again and write the names of the people and animal below.

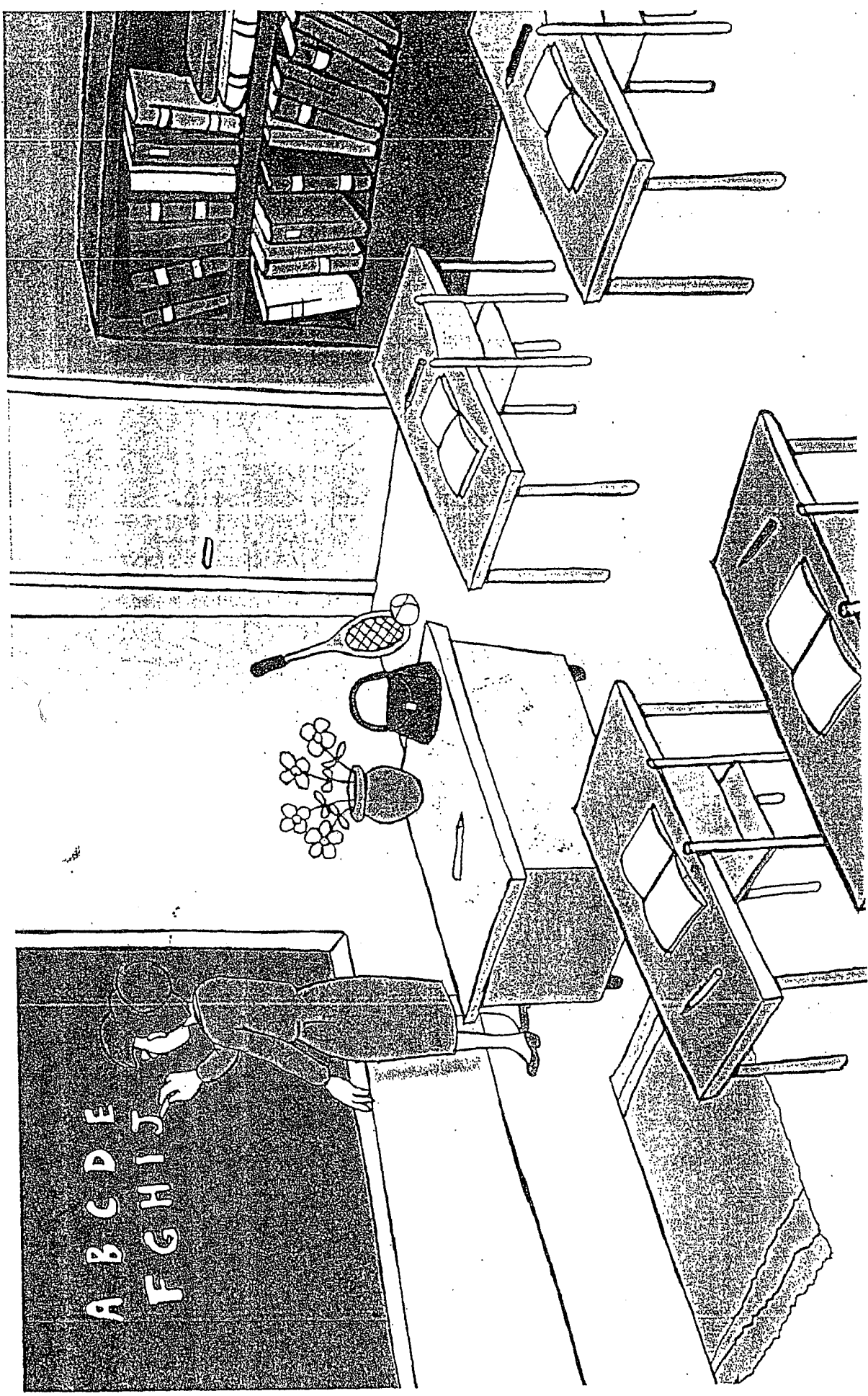


APPENDIX 2

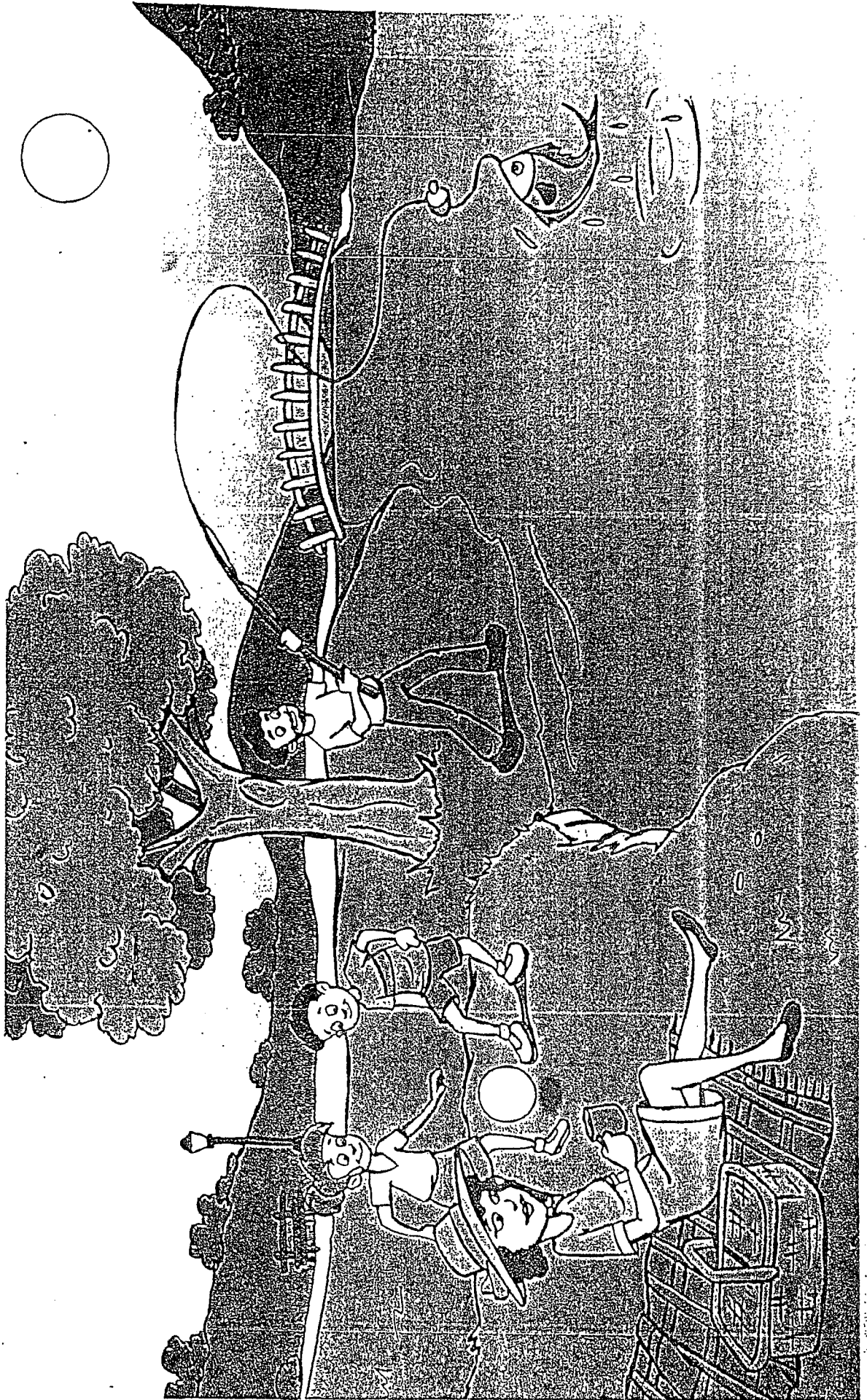
MATERIALS USED IN THE TASK-BASED INTERVIEWS OF THIRD GRADES

APPENDIX 2A
Speaking Tasks of Third Grades

SCENE CARD



SCENE CARD

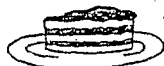
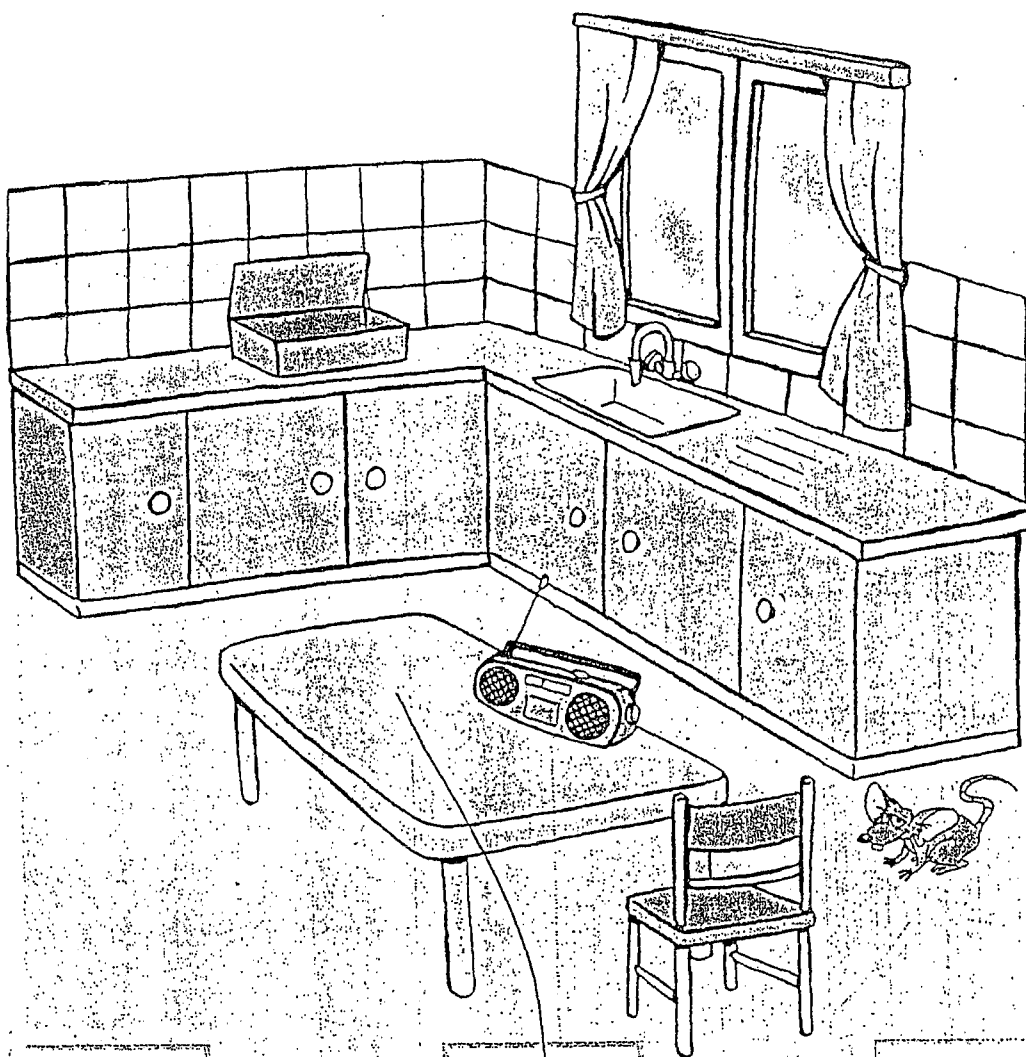


APPENDIX 2B**Listening Task of Third Grades**

Part 1

5 questions

Listen and draw lines. There is one example.



APPENDIX 2C

Think-aloud Training of Reading and Writing Skills of Third

Grades that is Exemplified by the Researcher

Part 4

5 questions

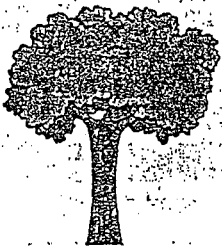
Read the story. Look at the pictures and the two examples. Write one-word answers.

This is my



garden

There is a big



tree

with



in

front of it. My brother and sister are playing

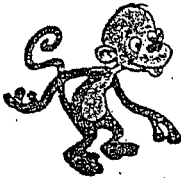


and my dad is standing next to a



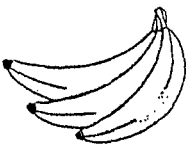
Can you

see the



in the tree? His name's Bonjo. He

loves



APPENDIX 2D

**Think-aloud Training of Reading and Writing Skills of Third
Grades that is Exemplified by the Students**

Part 4

5 questions

Read the story. Look at the pictures and the two examples. Write one-word answers.

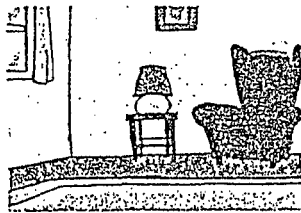
What am I?

You can find me in a

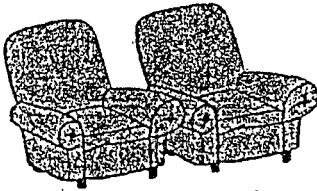


..... house People have

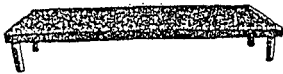
me in their



..... living room There are one or two

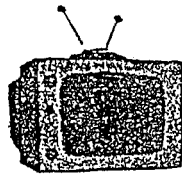


..... next to me and a small



..... in front of me. People like to sit on me

and watch



..... or drink



..... with their friends.

What am I?

I'm a _____ !

APPENDIX 2E

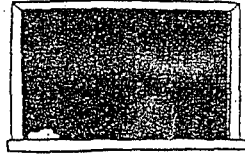
Think-aloud task of Reading and Writing Skills of Third Grades

Part 4

5 questions

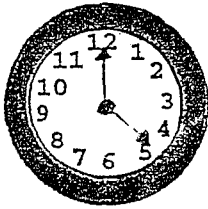
Read the story. Look at the pictures and the two examples. Write one-word answers.

This is my classroom. There is a



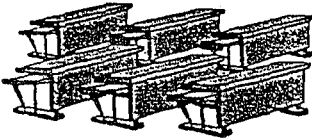
board

and a

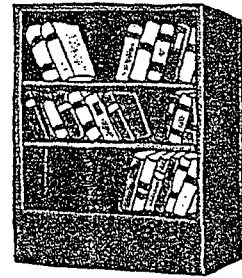


clock

on the wall. We have got six



and a



The

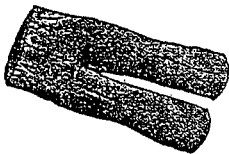


is sitting

behind his desk. He is wearing a white



and grey



APPENDIX 3

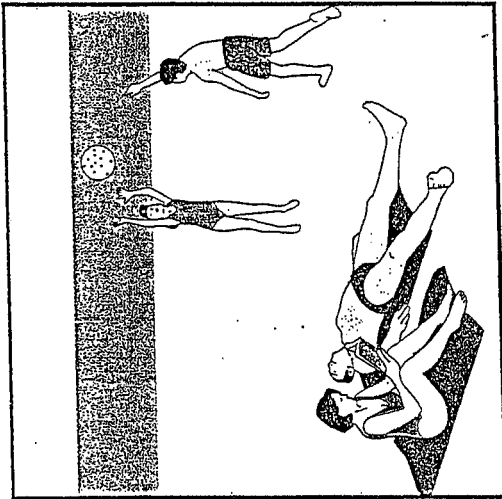
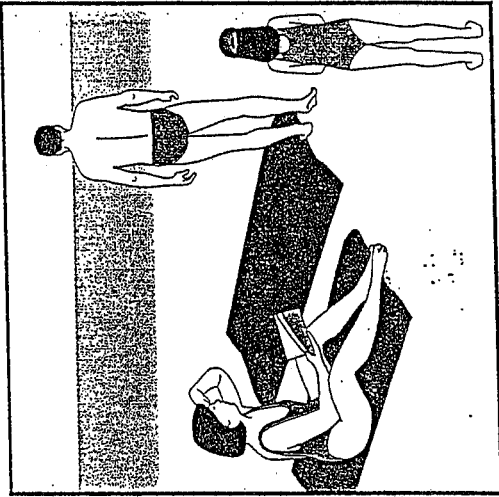
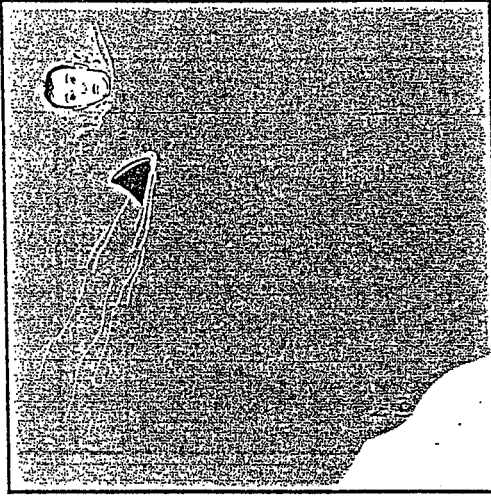
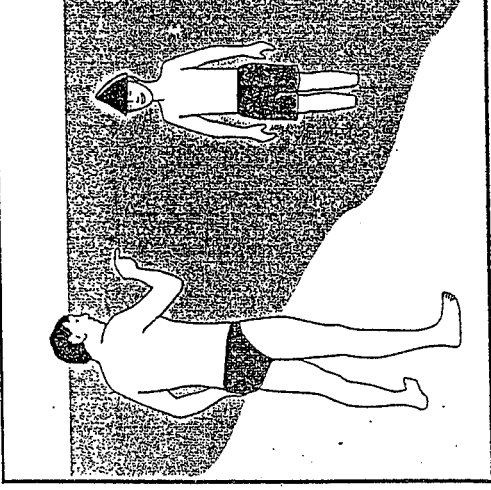
MATERIALS USED IN THE TASK-BASED INTERVIEWS OF

FOURTH GRADES

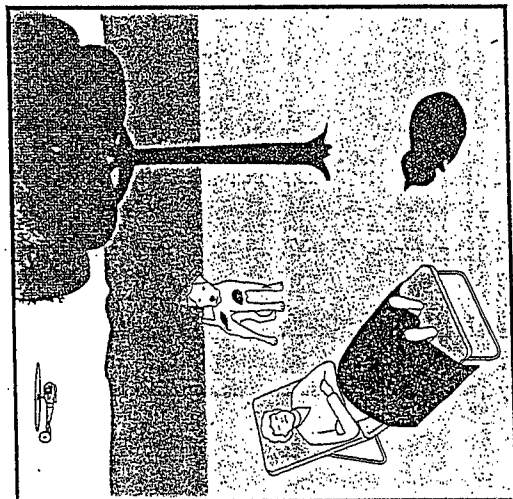
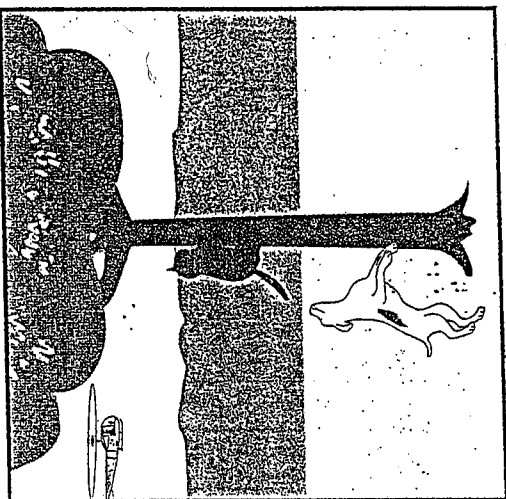
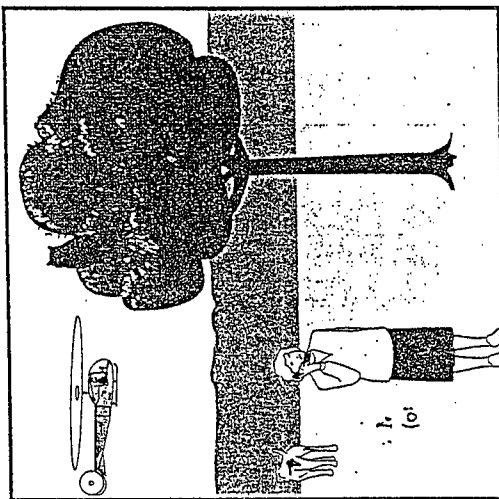
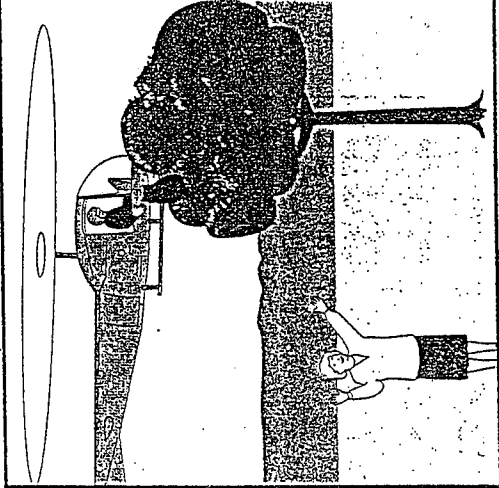
APPENDIX 3A

Speaking Tasks of Fourth Grades (Description)

Story



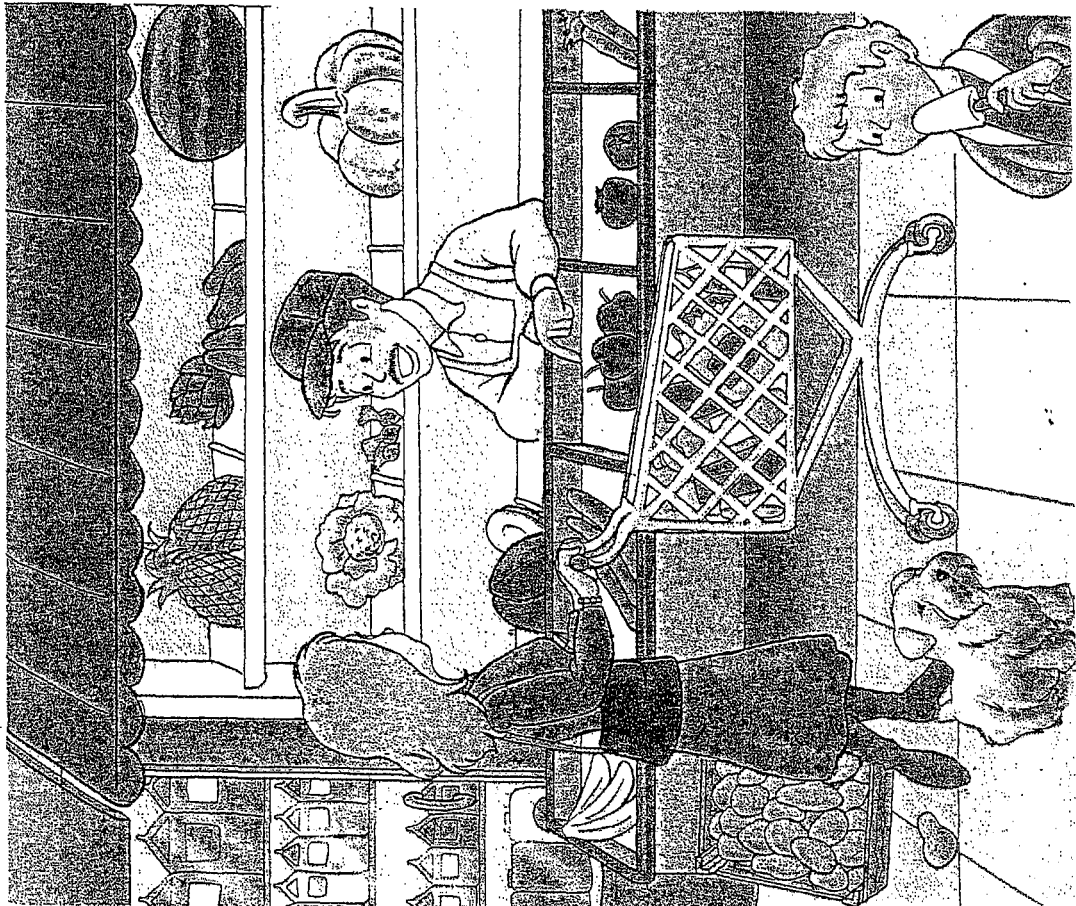
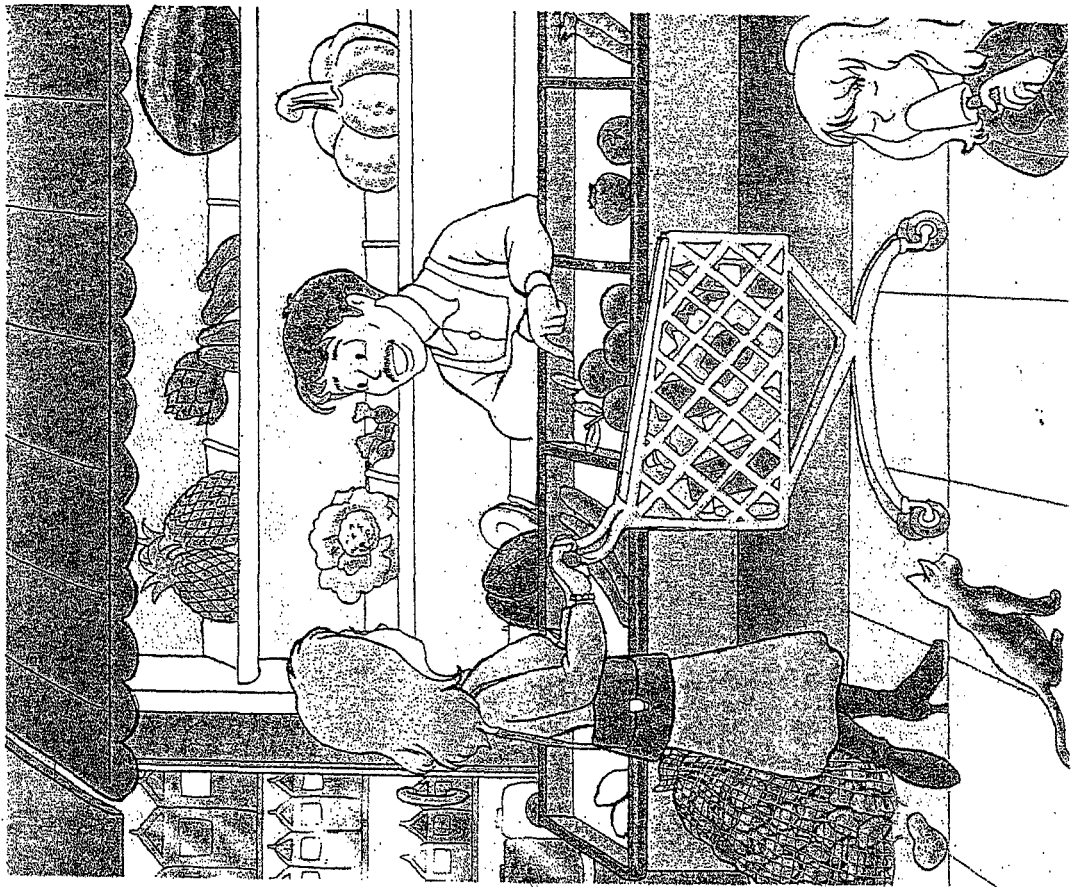
Story



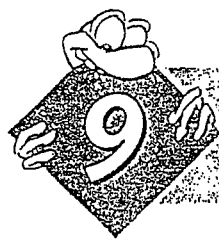
APPENDIX 3B

Speaking Tasks of Fourth and Fifth Grades (Comparison)

Find the Difference



APPENDIX 3C**Listening Task of Fourth Grades**



MAKING PLANS

Lesson

1 Answer:



Is there a supermarket near your school?

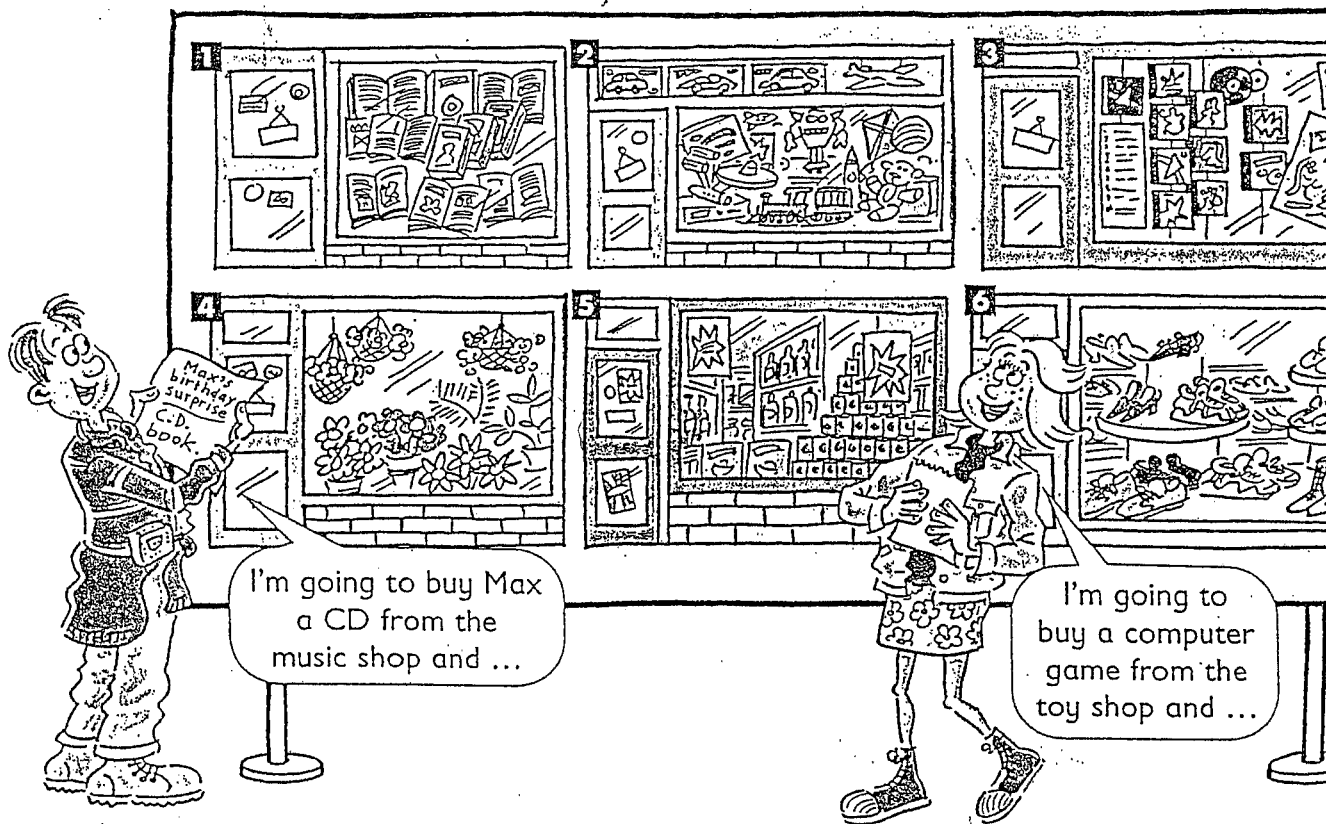
Is there a flower shop in your town?



2 Listen and find.

It's Max's birthday next Saturday.
Daniel and Anna are planning a surprise party.

- 1 bookshop
- 2 toy shop
- 3 music shop
- 4 flower shop
- 5 supermarket
- 6 shoe shop



I'm going to buy Max a CD from the music shop and ...

I'm going to buy a computer game from the toy shop and ...



3 Listen and match.

1 Is Daniel going to go to the music shop?

2 Is Anna going to buy a book?

3 Is Anna going to buy a CD?

4 Is Daniel going to buy a CD?

5 Is Anna going to buy food?

Yes, he is.

Yes, she is.

No, he isn't.

No, she isn't.

4 Now ask a friend.

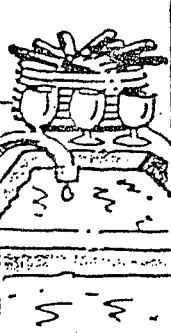
Is Daniel going to ...?

APPENDIX 3D

Think-aloud Training of Reading Skill of Fourth Grades that is Exemplified by the Researcher

LESSON

CHORES

0 never 1 rarely 2 sometimes 3 usually 4 often 5 always						
	5	5	3	4	0	0
	5	5	0	4	2	0
	0	1	0	2	5	3

1 LISTEN

Listen and underline the frequency adverbs.

Mrs Turner Children! Time to wash up!

Vanessa Yes, Mum! Do you wash up at home, Walter?

Walter No. Never. We've got a dishwasher, you see.

Dave You're lucky. How often do you help your mum?

Walter Well, I sometimes help.

Vanessa What do you do? Do you make your bed?

Walter Well, I rarely do that.

Dave Do you sometimes help with the housework?

Walter Oh no. I never clean the house.

Vanessa What do you do, then?

Walter I sometimes go shopping with Mum. I usually carry her bags. And I always wash Dad's car. He gives me five dollars for it. I usually cut the grass.

Vanessa Is that all you do? We always make our beds and we do the washing up every day.

Dave We often do the shopping but we don't get any pocket money for it!

Mrs Turner Poor darlings!

REMEMBER

Chores

- I wash up.
(I do the washing up.)
- I make my bed.
- I clean the house.
(I do the cleaning.)
- I cook.
(I do the cooking.)
- I go shopping.
(I do the shopping.)

Frequency

I never	do the
rarely	washing
sometimes	up
usually	
often	
always	

How often do you ...?

Do you sometimes ...?

much = a lot

♪ Who does the washing up? ... I do it, I always do it ... Who does the washing up? ... I do it, ...

APPENDIX 3E

Think-aloud Training of Reading Skill of Fourth Grades that
is Exemplified by the Students

READING TIME

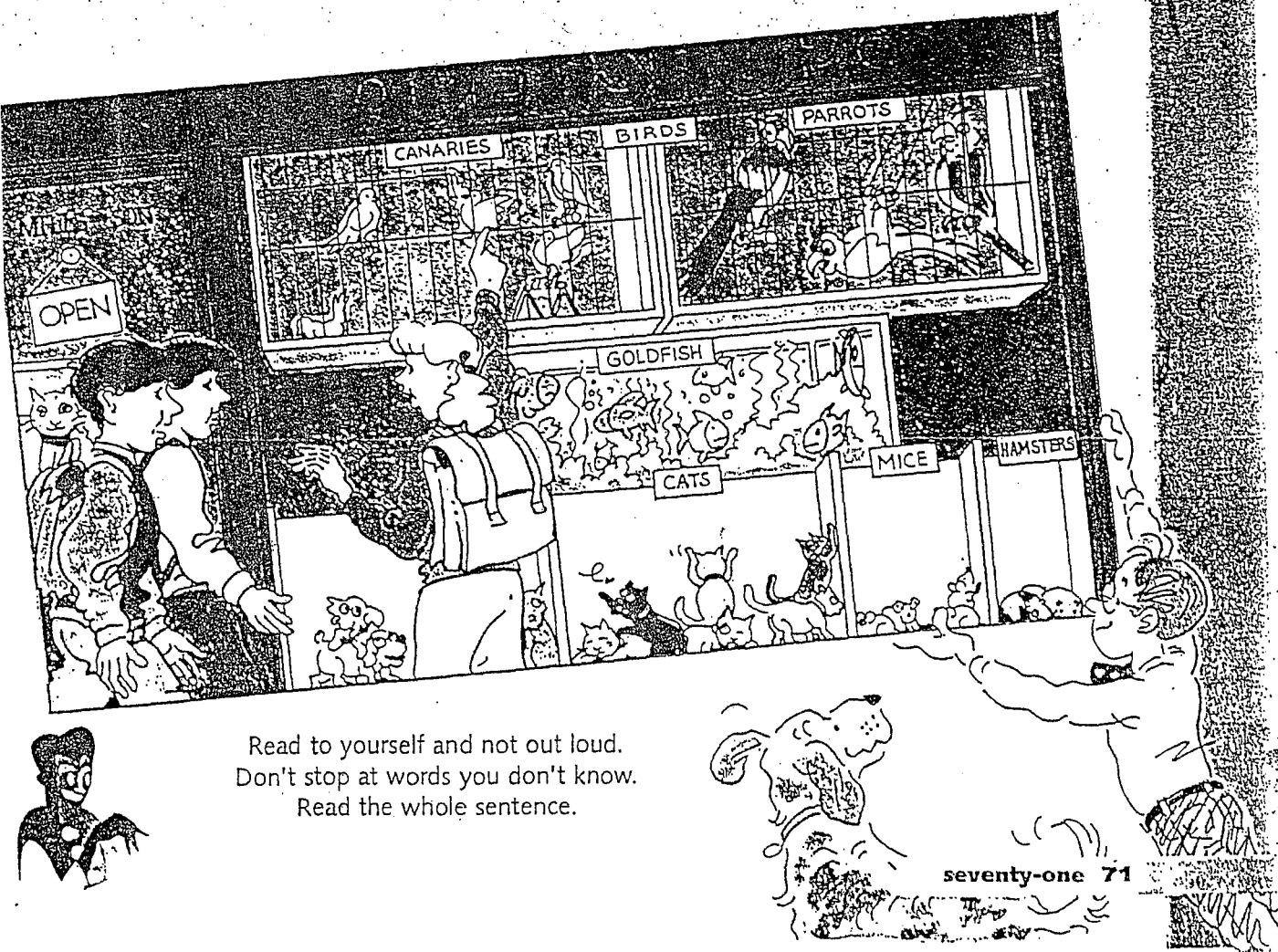
When you read, it is not necessary to stop at every word you don't know. Read the whole sentence and then the next sentence. You will know some words, and these will help you find out the meaning of the words that you do not know. Pictures, photographs and titles can also help.

Don't look in your bilingual dictionary first. Try to guess the meaning of a word from its context.

THE PET SHOP

Read the text and try to guess the meaning of the words in *italics*.

John, Katia and Vanessa are *outside* a pet shop. They like animals a lot. Vanessa *would like* a canary but her mother is not *keen* on the idea. In the shop window there are also *some* parrots in a *cage* and some goldfish in a *tank*. The parrots are *very colourful*. There are some *puppies* and some *kittens*. They are so *adorable*. Vanessa thinks they are lovely *when* they are little but when they *grow up* they *can* be a problem, *especially* if you *live* in a flat. Next to the kittens there is a cage *full* of mice. There are some hamsters, too. The shop is *open* from nine o'clock in the morning until half past five in the afternoon.



Read to yourself and not out loud.
Don't stop at words you don't know.
Read the whole sentence.

APPENDIX 3F

Think-aloud task of the Reading Skill of Fourth Grades

READING TIME

London Zoo

Read the text and look at the pictures.
Guess the meaning of the underlined words.

There are many animals in London zoo.

There are elephants with long trunks.

And giraffes with long necks.

There are chimpanzees with arms longer than their bodies.

There are zebras with black and white stripes.

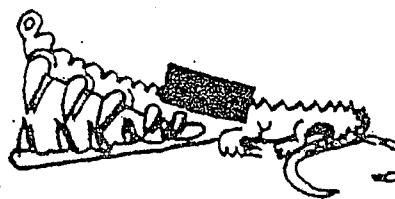
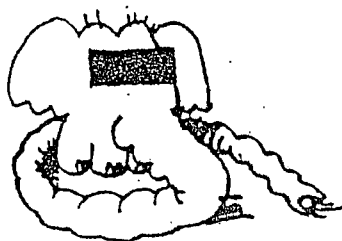
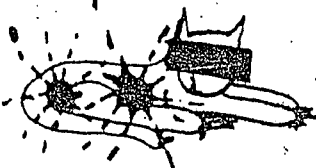
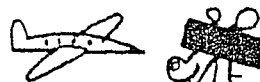
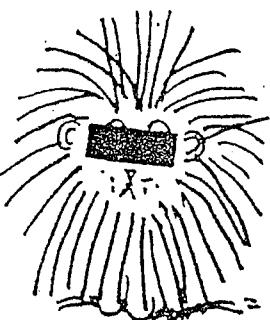
There are kangaroos with pouches for their babies.

There are bears with white fur and others with brown fur.

There are leopards with black spots.

There are crocodiles with big white teeth and dromedaries with big humps for you to sit on.

And there are many visitors to look at them.



APPENDIX 4

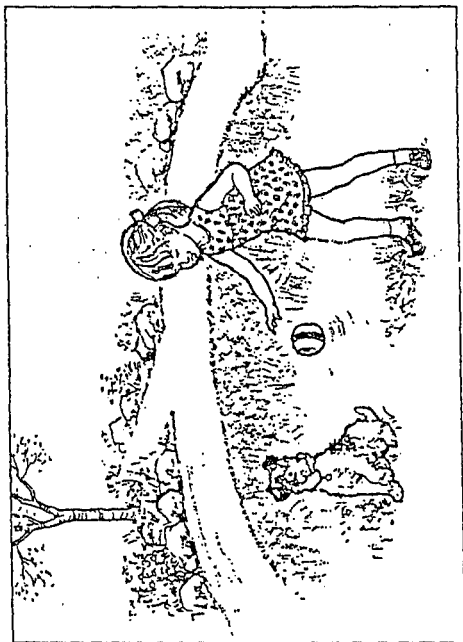
MATERIALS USED IN THE TASK-BASED INTERVIEWS OF FIFTH GRADES

APPENDIX 4A

Speaking Tasks of Fifth Grades

Composition 1

A



B



C

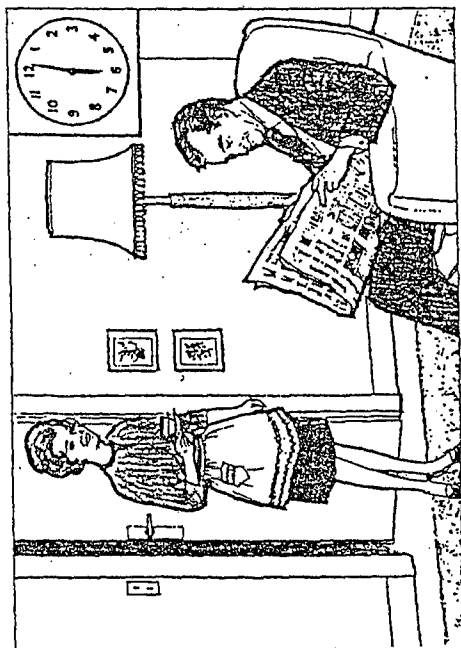


D



Composition 8

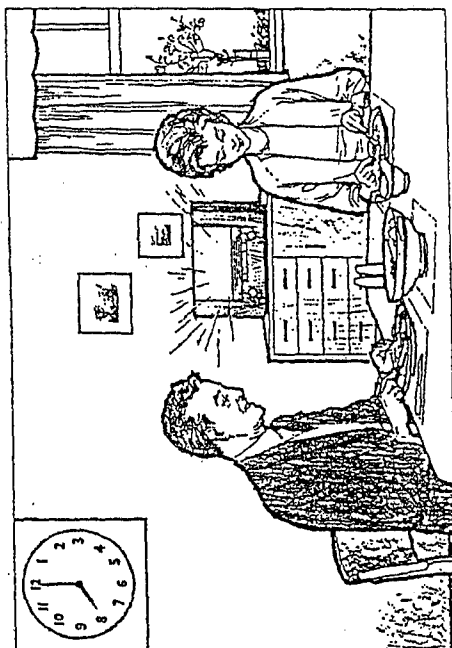
A



B



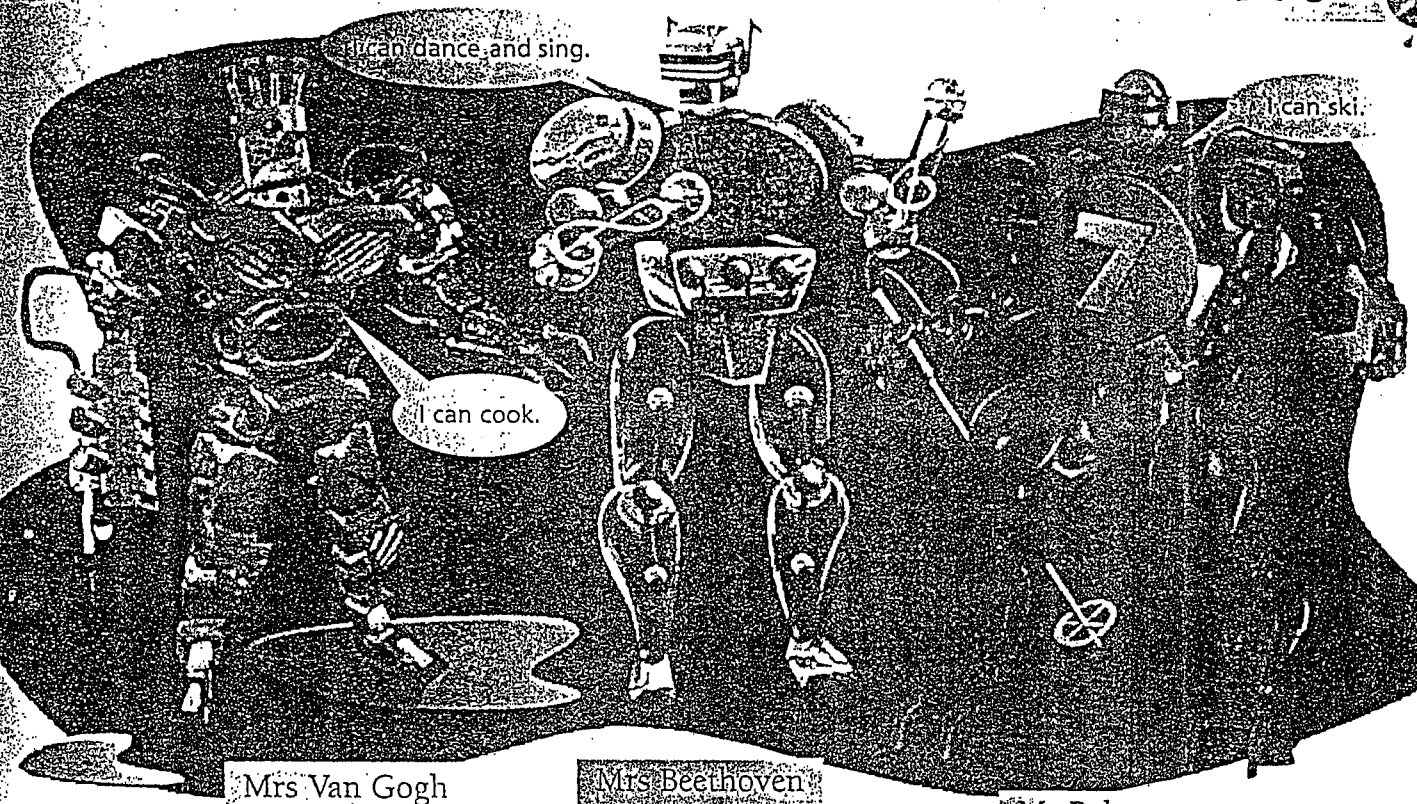
C



D



APPENDIX 4B**Listening Task of Fifth Grades**



Mrs Van Gogh

Mrs Beethoven

Mr. Pele

- 5a Look and listen.
Which cybnaut is speaking?

- 5b Listen again. Copy and tick (✓) the correct column for the cybnaut.

The cybnaut	/ə/ can	/ɑ/ can't
spek French		
play the piano		
make the beds		
cook		
dance the tango		
sing		
ski		

- 6b Write about your partner.

Peter can't cook, but he can speak French.

- 7a Look at Planet Grammar and do activities 7b and 7c.

Planet Grammar

can (abilities)

affirmative

I/You/He/She/It/We/You/They can dance.

negative

I/You/He/She/It/We/You/They cannot (can't) dance.

questions

		short answers	
I/you		Yes, I/you	can.
Can he/she/it	dance?	No, he/she/it	can't.
we/you/they		we/you/they	

- 7b Complete the sentences.

- Can she speak Chinese? – Yes, she ...
- ... you play the piano? – Yes, I can.
- I ... (not) use a computer.
- ... they dance salsa? – No, they can't.
- We ... ski, but they ... (not) ski.
- You ... speak English, but you ... (not) speak French.

- 5c Listen and check.
Now repeat.

- 6a Ask your partner. Which things in the chart can s/he do?

A: Can you speak French?

B: Yes, I can. / No, I can't.

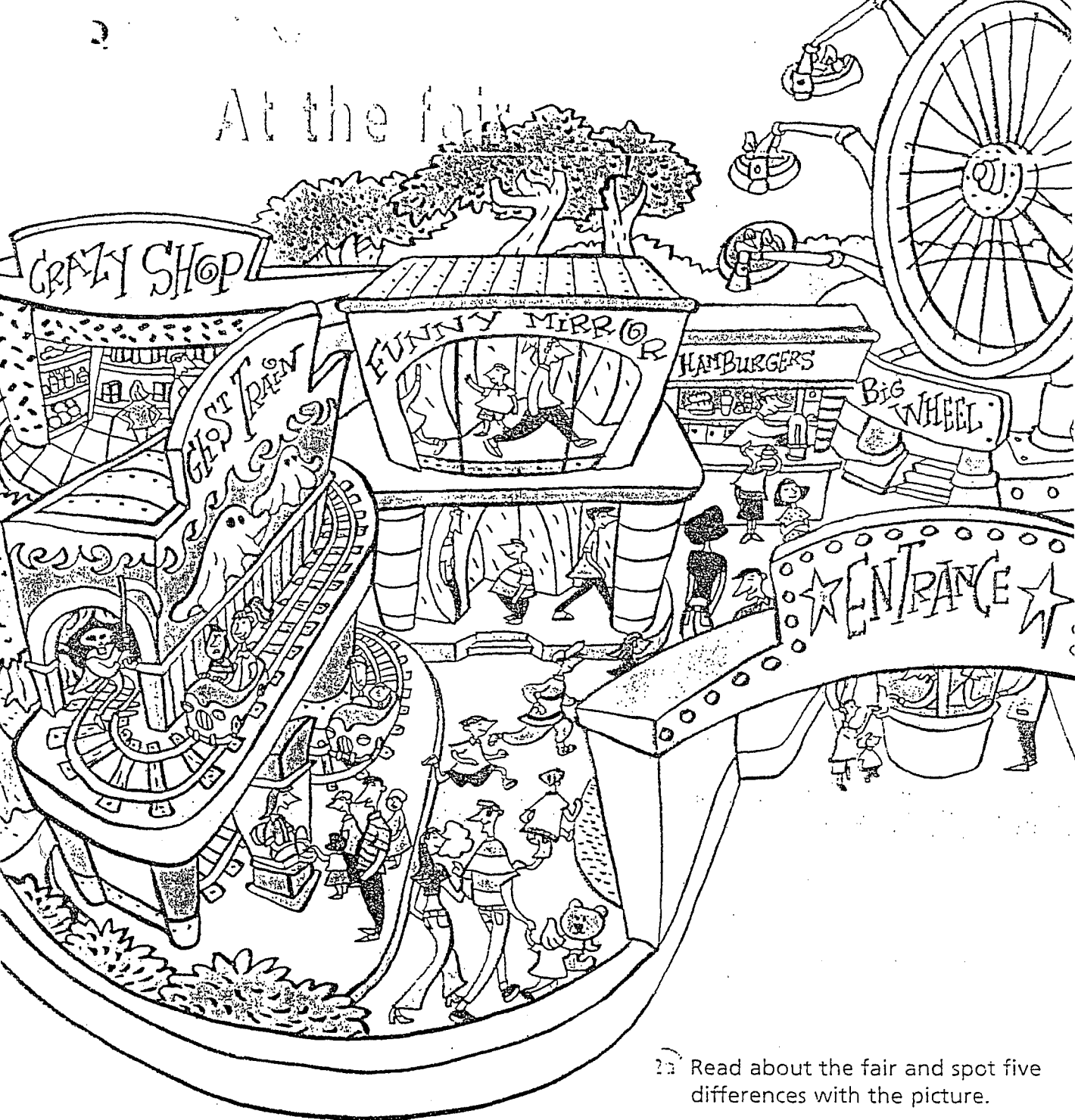
- 7c Are these sentences true or false?

- We use *can* + infinitive with *to*.
- We use *can* for all persons.

APPENDIX 4C

Think-aloud Training of Reading Skill of Fifth Grades that is Exemplified the Researcher

At the fair



1. Look at the picture of the fair, minutes before the power cut last night. Are the sentences true or false?

- 1 Three children were on the rollercoaster.
- 2 One boy was at the hamburger stall.
- 3 Twenty children were at the entrance.
- 4 No children were on the ghost train.
- 5 One girl was at the shop.
- 6 Fifteen children were at the funny mirrors.

2. Listen and check.

3. Listen again and repeat. How do you pronounce *was* and *were*?

2. Read about the fair and spot five differences with the picture.

*There weren't hundreds of teenagers.
There were about thirty.*

Panic at the Fair

Yesterday there was a power cut at the fair. There were hundreds of teenagers there. It was foggy. 'We were terrified,' said Jim Clayton and Katy Stanhope. 'We were on the ghost train and there weren't any guards. Fortunately, there was no big wheel!'

There was a girl at the hamburger stall. There were lots of telephone boxes but the telephones were broken. So there was panic at the fair.

APPENDIX 4D

**Think-aloud Training of Reading Skill of Fifth Grades that
is Exemplified by the Students**

READING TIME

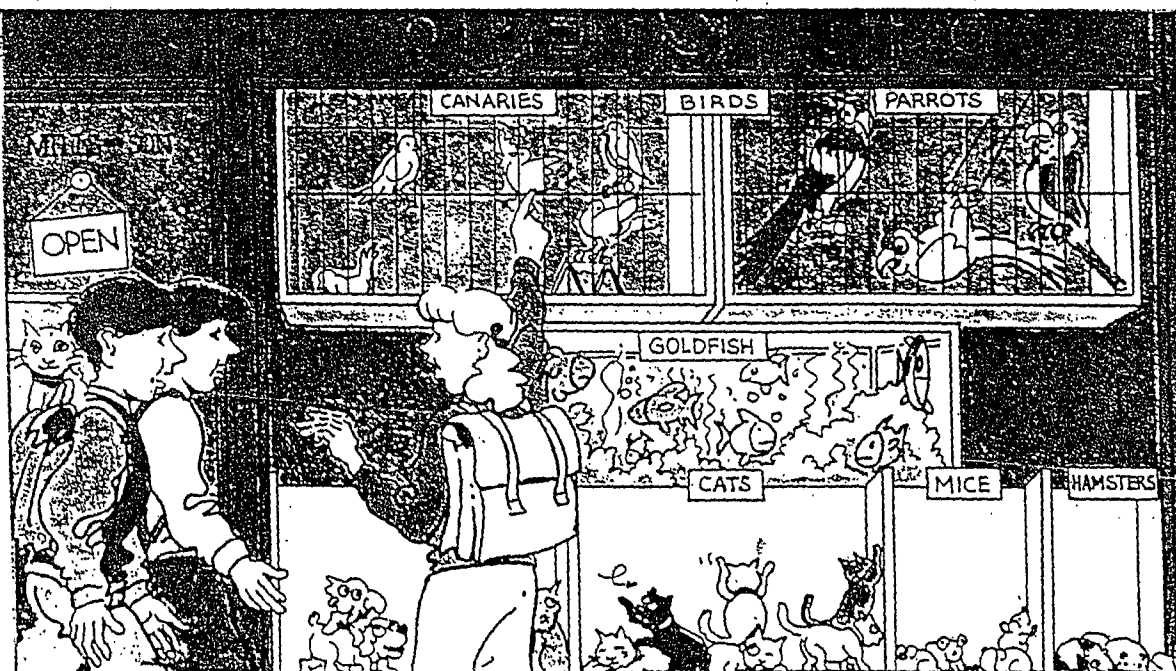
When you read, it is not necessary to stop at every word you don't know. Read the whole sentence and then the next sentence. You will know some words, and these will help you find out the meaning of the words that you do not know. Pictures, photographs and titles can also help.

Don't look in your bilingual dictionary first. Try to guess the meaning of a word from its context.

THE PET SHOP

~~Read the text and try to guess the meaning of the words in italics.~~

Paolo, Katia and Vanessa are *outside* a pet shop. They like animals a lot. Vanessa *would like* a canary but her mother is not *keen* on the idea. In the shop window there are also some parrots in a *cage* and some goldfish in a *tank*. The parrots are very *colourful*. There are some *puppies* and some *kittens*. They are so *adorable*. Dave thinks they are lovely *when* they are little but when they *grow up* they can be a problem, *especially* if you *live* in a flat. Next to the kittens there is a cage *full* of mice. There are some hamsters, too. The shop is *open* from nine o'clock in the morning until half past five in the afternoon.



Read to yourself and not out loud.
Don't stop at words you don't know.
Read the whole sentence.

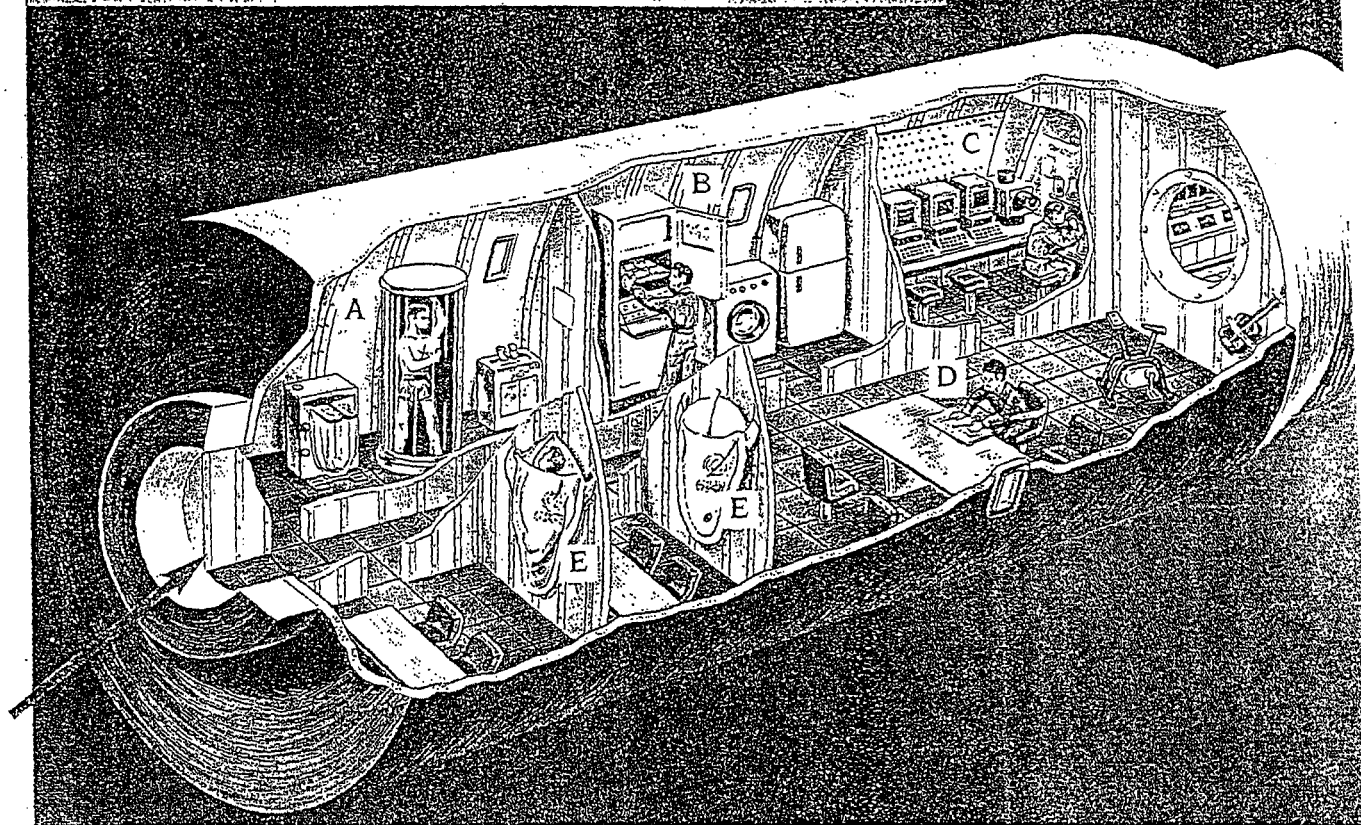
APPENDIX 4E

Think-aloud task of the Reading Skill of Fifth Grades

LESSON 3

Are there any computers.

Is/Are there...? and short answers • Question: How many?
Prepositions of place: next to, near, opposite



1 READ

When you come into the space station, on the right, there are two bedrooms. There aren't any beds but there are some sleeping bags. Opposite the bedrooms, on the left, there's a small bathroom, with a special shower, a wash basin and a toilet. No, there isn't a bath!

Next to the bathroom, there's a kitchen, where we can cook food. There's an oven and a fridge, and we can wash our clothes in the washing machine. And there's a laboratory next to the kitchen, where we do experiments. It's got a big camera and three computers. We can't watch TV but we can play computer games.

On the right, in the living room, there's a table and chairs. There's a guitar and an exercise bike near the table. We take lots of exercise!



Now match these rooms with the letters A-E in the space station.

kitchen bedrooms living room
bathroom laboratory

2 SPEAK

Ask and answer.

Where do the astronauts ...

sleep? take exercise? cook food?
eat? have a shower? relax?
do experiments?

Where do the astronauts sleep?

in the bedroom

APPENDIX 5 - CHECKLIST

Açıklama

Bu tarama listesi ilkökul çocuklarının gözlemlenebilen yabancı dil öğrenme stratejilerini ve bunların sıklıklarını belirlemek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Gözlemlenen davranış gözlemlenilen her defada EVET kutusunun altına işaretlenecektir. Form sınıftaki tüm öğrencileri gözlerken kullanılacaktır. Her ders saatinde ayrı bir form kullanılması gerekmektedir. Gözlem sonunda belirtmek istenilen, gözlemlenen, ek stratejiler olduysa bunlar bu sayfadaki “Gözlemcinin Notu” bölümüne yazılmalıdır.

TARİH:

GÖZLEMÇİ:

GÖZLENEN SINIF:

SAAT:

DERSİN KONUSU:

YAPILAN AKTİVİTELER:

.....

.....

GÖZLEMCİNİN NOTU:

[illegible]

APPENDIX 6 – SEMI-GUIDED QUESTIONNAIRE

Sevgili Öğrenci,

Bu anket sizlerin İngilizce öğrenirken ne tür davranışlar içinde bulunduğunuzu öğrenmek ve İngilizce'yi nasıl öğrendiğiniz konusunda bilgi edinmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Anketin doğru yada yanlış cevabı yoktur. Bu yüzden, lütfen sizin için doğru ve uygun olan cevabı verin. Bu araştırma bilimsel bir çalışmanın bir parçasıdır. Bu ankete vereceğiniz cevaplarla sizde bu araştırmaya katkıda bulunmuş olacaksınız.

Yardımlarınız için teşekkür ederim.



Uludağ Üniversitesi
İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Araş. Gör. Esim GÜRSOY

ANKET

İngilizce bir okuma parçasını okurken;

1. Parçanın ne hakkında olduğunu anlamak için ne yaparsın?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

2. Parçayı okurken anlamadığın kelimelerle karşılaştığında ne yaparsın?

.....

.....

.....

.....

3. Parçayı okurken daha önce bilmediğin bir gramer kuralıyla karşılaştığında ne yaparsın?

.....

.....

4. Parçayı bitirdikten sonra ne yaparsın?

5. İngilizce paragraf yazıyor musun?

6. Bir konuda İngilizce bir paragraf yazmadan önce ne yaparsın?

7. Yazarken İngilizce'sini bilmediğin şeyleri anlatmak için ne yaparsın?

8. Yazınızı bitirdiğinizde ne yaparsın?

9. Canlandırma, diyalog v.b. konuşma aktivitelerinden önce nasıl hazırlanırsın?

10. Konuşurken anlatmakta güçlük çektiğin durumlarda ne yaparsın?

11. Konuşma aktiviteniz (canlandırma veya diyalog gibi) bittiğinde ne yaparsın?

12. İngilizce bir şey söylemeden önce ne yaparsın?

13. Yeni öğrendiğin bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için ne yaparsın?

14. Sınıfta bir konuşma parçasını kasetten veya videodan dinlemeden önce nasıl hazırlanırsın?

15. Kasetten veya videodan bir konuşma parçasını dinlerken neler yaparsın?

16. Dinleme parçası bittiğinde neler yaparsın?

17. Sınıf dışında TV veya sinemada İngilizce film yada program izler misin?

18. Eğer izliyorsan izlerken neler yaptığını düşünüp yazar mısın?

19. Sınıf dışında İngilizce'ni geliřtirmek ve daha iyi öğrenmek için neler yaptığını sıralar mısın?

20. Bu ankette yazdıklarının haricinde, İngilizce öğrenirken yada onu geliştirirken

yaptığın ve eklemek istediğin şeyler varsa buraya yazar mısın?





APPENDIX 7 – DIARY FORMAT

Ad/Takma Ad:

Tarih:

Bu hafta işlediğiniz konular:

Derste işlediğiniz konuyu daha iyi ve kolay öğrenebilmek için neler yaptınız?

(Öğretmeninizin yapmanızı istediği şeylerden değil kendi kendinize uyguladığınız yöntemlerden bahsedin.)

Tarih:

Ev ödeviniz nedir?

Ev ödevinizi yaparken anlamınızı ve öğrenmenizi kolaylaştırmak için neler yaptınız?

(Unutmayın size göre uygun olan ve gerçekten uyguladığınız yöntemlerden bahsedeceksiniz.)

Genel olarak İngilizce'yi daha iyi öğrenmek ve geliştirmek için neler yaparsınız?

APPENDIX 8

Examples from the Diaries

Ad / Takma Ad: Yağız Sencer ÖZAYCI

Tarih: 7. Hafta

Bu hafta işlediğiniz konu-yada konular 

Parçaları işleyip sorunlarını cevapladık

Derste işlediğiniz konuyu daha iyi ve kolay öğrenebilmek için neler yaptınız?

(Öğretmeninizin yapmanızı istediği şeylerden değil kendi kendinize uyguladığınız

yöntemlerden bahsedin).

- İyiye dikkatimi verdim, öğretmenim söylediklerini dikkatle dinlerim.
- Kitabımdan bakarım.
- Defterimden bakarım.
- Sözlükten bakarım.
- Bilmediğim kelimeleri eve gidiince komşularıma ve aileme sorarım. Ayrıca İngilizce öğrenen ders kasetleri dinleyip buradan bilmediğim kelimeleri bulurum.
- Öğretmene sorarım.
- Arkadaşlarımla birbirimizin bildiğim kelime ve sözleri sorarız.
- Abi, ablalara sorarım.
- Arkadaşlarımla ve öğretmenimle resimli canlandırmalar yaparım.
- Arkadaşlarımla ve öğretmenimle resimli canlandırmalar yaparım.
- Konu ile ilgili masallar, kitaplar okurum.
- Cümlelerin gelişinden anlamaya çalışırım.
- Dersten sonra konumuz ile ilgili kaset dinlerim.
- Öğretmenin söylediklerinden anlamadığım kelimeleri bir yere yazıyorum öğretmenime sorarım. Eve gidiince komşulara, aileme, ablalara, arkadaşlarıma sorarım.
- Birbirimizin bilmediği kelimeleri sorup ve cevapları defterime yazıyorum. Aynı zamanda tekrar ederim, öğretmene anlatırım ve aileme anlatırım.

Genel olarak İngilizce'yi daha iyi öğrenmek ve geliştirmek için neler yaparsınız? 

İngilizce'de geçen kelimelerin İngilizcesini bulurum.

Konuşmamda geçen kelimeleri sorarım.

Aileme " " "

Bilene, Abime " " "

Kaset dinlerim.

İngilizce arkadaşlarımla oyunlar oynarım.

Arayışmalar yaparım.

İngilizce kelimeleri sorular sorarım ve anlamını bulurum. Anlamını
nediklerini sözlükten bakarım.

Kitabımı baştan tekrar okurum.

Bu ana kadar yaptığımız ödevleri tekrarlarım.

Defterimi baştan aşağıya oku tekrar ederim.

Sonra ailede veya konşuların bana soru sorabilmeleri isterim.

İngilizce çalışırım.

İlgili ayda İngilizce oyunlar oynarım. Örneğin adam osmanca
birbirimizin bilmediği kelimeleri sorup ve cevaplandırırız.

Tarih: 7. Hafta

Ev ödeviniz  nedir?

Kağıttaki soruları cevaplama ve kitaptaki örneğin kendine olanını yapma.

Ev ödevinizi yaparken anlamamanızı ve öğrenmenizi kolaylaştırmak için neler

yaptınız? (Unutmayın size göre uygun olan ve gerçekten uyguladığınız yöntemlerden

bahsedeceksiniz.)

- Sözlükten bulurum.
- Anne me sorarım. (Aileme)
- Dictionaryden bulurum.
- İlk önce sözlükten Türkçesini bulurum ve anlarım. Sonra İngilizce sözlüğünden bulurum.
- Komşu muza sorarım.
- Abilere, ablolara sorarım.
- Ödevle ilgili çeşitli İngilizce oyunları oynarım.
- Evden arkadaşlarıma bilmediğim kelimeleri sorarım.
- Çeşitli canlandırma lar yaparım.
- Konu ile ilgili masallar, kitap lar okurum.
- Arkadaşlarımla birbirimizin ödevlerini okuyup ödevleri bitire yapmamak için yaparım ve ödevde anlamadığımı birbirimizle soruz.

Ad / Takma Ad: Ridymordin

Tarih: 5 hafta

Bu hafta işlediğiniz konu yada konular :

Unit 15 EX 1 EX2 EX3 EX4 EX5 EX6 EX7

Derste işlediğiniz konuyu daha iyi ve kolay öğrenebilmek için neler yaptınız?

(Öğretmeninizin yapmanızı istediği şeylerden değil kendi kendinize uyguladığınız

yöntemlerden bahsedin). ~~EX~~ sonun getmedim,

Ad / Takma Ad: Anıl Goglayon

Tarih: 1. hafta

Bu hafta işlediğiniz konu yada konular :

Derste işlediğiniz konuyu daha iyi ve kolay öğrenebilmek için neler yaptınız?

(Öğretmeninizin yapmamızı istediği şeylerden değil kendi kendinize uyguladığınız yöntemlerden bahsedin). ✖

???

Bunları yazmayı hiç sevmiyorum

Tarih: Rıza

Ev ödeviniz  nedir?

Her kış

Ev ödevinizi yaparken anlamınızı ve öğrenmenizi kolaylaştırmak için neler yaptınız? (Unutmayın size göre uygun olan ve gerçekten uyguladığınız yöntemlerden bahsedebilirsiniz.) Anladım mı? Ne il?

Yılbaşı kutla olsunnnnn!

Sen de ---

Genel olarak İngilizce'yi daha iyi öğrenmek ve geliştirmek için neler yaparsınız? 

le konuşuyoruz. Tatilde yabancılarla konuşuyoruz. Anlamadıkla
lükten bakıyorum ama bazen sözlükte birşey anlamıyorum o
baba, abla ve öğretmene soruyorum.

~~Super~~! Gabalarn için seni tebrik ediyorum!
♡



esim
7

Tarih: 6-Kasım-2004 1.Hafta

Ev ödeviniz  nedir? 6-Kasım-2004'de wordbooktan bir sayfa. 7-Kasım-2004'de Haritası çizmek. 8-Kasım-2004'de kuizi yaz student booktan verilen sayfa

Ev ödevinizi yaparken anlamınızı ve öğrenmenizi kolaylaştırmak için neler

yaptınız? (Unutmayın size göre uygun olan ve gerçekten uyguladığınız yöntemlerden

bahsedeceksiniz.) 6-Kasım-2004 Bugün dersteki kâğıtlardan çıktı yapamadıklarım
aslarımdan yardım aldım. 7-Kasım-2004 Bugün ödevimde coğrafya atlasında
landım. 10-Kasım-2004 Kuizden yararlandım.

nasil yararlandin?

...gitar



... ...

Ad / Takma Ad: Örmcek Jale

Tarih: 3. Hafta

Bu hafta işlediğiniz konu yada konular : 12. ünite kiti 736

Derste işlediğiniz konuyu daha iyi ve kolay öğrenebilmek için neler yaptınız?

(Öğretmeninizin yapmanızı istediği şeylerden değil kendi kendinize uyguladığınız yöntemlerden bahsedin). 

18-01-2002

Ev ödeviniz **is** nedir? Present simple negative Units 24-25
len telâfı vardı. Ve diğer ödevlerim.

Ev ödevinizi yaparken anlamınızı ve öğrenmenizi kolaylaştırmak için neler
yaptınız? (Unutmayın size göre uygun olan ve gerçekten uyguladığınız yöntemlerden
bahsedeceksiniz.)

İngilizce ödevimi yaparken bazı yerleri
anlamadım o yerleri boş bıraktım. Ve diğer yerleri
örneklerle bakarak yaptım. Yaparken fazla zorlanmadım
sonra İngilizce ödevimi Okulda kontrol ettirdim.

Reket Dragon

Genel olarak İngilizce'yi daha iyi öğrenmek ve geliştirmek için neler yaparsınız? 

Tarih: 10-11-2004 Kasım Cumartesi

Ev ödeviniz  nedir? İngilizce Look Boks. Ve diğer ödevlerim

Ev ödevinizi yaparken anlamanızı ve öğrenmenizi kolaylaştırmak için neler yaptınız? (Unutmayın size göre uygun olan ve gerçekten uyguladığınız yöntemlerden bahsedeceksiniz.)

Ev ödevim İngilizceden Look Boks yazma. Ve diğer etkinliklerim. 10 Kasım olduğu için okulda tören vardı ve toplantı İngilizce öğretmenim konuşuyordu bu ay içinde neler yaptığımızı mesela Exercise, Quizler yaptık habersiz ve daha bir çok aktiviteler yaptık. Ve bu hafta çok zevkli geçti. İngilizceyi seviyorum sınav olduktan sonra ne yanlısam var onlara bakıyorum olmadan önce 1 hafta önce çalışıyorum ki daha iyi pekiştireyim diye çalışıyorum ve sınavda biraz başarılı oluyorum bu beni eziyor ama 1 haftadan az oluyor bu çalışmam galiba onun için daha önceden çalışmam gerekiyor öğretmenim çok güzel anlatıyor İngilizcede çok güzel aktiviteler yapıyoruz. Ve bugünlük bu kadar Sınavdan sonra yanlıklarını gözde geçirmen süper! Bana sınavla hazırlanırken neler yaptığını da anlatır mısın?  esim  Petek Dıngöz

Rebekah Dmair

Genel olarak İngilizce'yi daha iyi öğrenmek ve geliştirmek için neler yaparsınız? 

İngilizce'ni ödevlerin ve sınıf haricinde geliştirmek için neler yaptığımı anlatırsan çok sevinirim. 

CHILDREN'S INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES (CHILLS)

DEVELOPED FOR TURKISH CHILDREN LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

© E. Gürsoy, 2003

Directions for the Instructor:

This strategy inventory is developed for children in order for them and their instructors to learn about their choice of language learning strategies while learning a foreign language. In the following pages there are 109 statements about learning a new language. Please ask your students to read each statement carefully and write the number of the statement next to the item number the response they feel that is correct for them. As indicated below there are five different choice of responses;

1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum (I totally don't agree)
2. katılmıyorum (I don't agree)
3. biraz katılıyorum (I somewhat agree)
4. katılıyorum (I agree)
5. tamamen katılıyorum (I totally agree)

kesinlikle katılmıyorum (I totally don't agree): This means that the item is never or almost never true for the student. The number in front of this option (1) should be marked if the student definitely does not agree with the statement.

katılmıyorum (I totally don't agree): This option (2) should be selected if the statement is generally not true for the respondent or if s/he doesn't agree with the behavior described.

Biraz katılıyorum (I somewhat agree): This means that the student agrees with the item half of the time (50%) or it is somewhat true for the student. If the student feels this way the number in front of this option (3) should be marked.

Katılıyorum (I agree): This indicates that the statement is generally true for the respondent. If the student feels that s/he agree with the statement most of the time the number in front of this this option (4) needs to be chosen.

Tamamen katılıyorum (I totally agree): This means that the statement is always or almost always true for the respondent. If the student thinks that s/he agrees with the statement almost all the time number 5 should be chosen.

Students need to be informed that the answers should be marked on a separate sheet. The answers should be given according to how well a statement describes the person answering. Decisions shouldn't be given according to what seems to be true or what somebody else would say true.

ÇOCUKLAR İÇİN GELİŞTİRİLMİŞ YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ (YÖSE)

YABANCI BİR DİL ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÇOCUKLARI İÇİN

© E. Gürsoy, 2003

Açıklamalar:

Bu envanter sizlerin yabancı bir dil öğrenirken hangi stratejileri kullandığınızı tespit etmek amacıyla düzenlenmiştir. 109 maddeden oluşan envanterde yabancı bir dil öğrenirken kullanılabilecek davranışlar ifade edilmiştir. Her cümleyi okuyun ve cevaplarken hiç boş bırakmayın. Aşağıda 5 tane seçenek verilmiştir. Her cümleyi okuduktan sonra size uygunluğuna yada sizin için doğruluğuna göre bu seçeneklerin başındaki sayıyı cevap kağıdına işaretleyin.

1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
2. katılmıyorum
3. biraz katılıyorum
4. katılıyorum
5. tamamen katılıyorum

Kesinlikle katılmıyorum: Eğer okuduğunuz cümle sizin için hiç yada hemen hemen hiç doğru değilse, sizin yaptıklarınızı tanımlamıyorsa bu seçeneğin başındaki “1” sayısını cevap anahtarına işaretleyin.

Katılmıyorum: Okuduğunuz ifade sizin yaptığınız bir davranışı genel olarak tanımlamıyorsa yada anlatılmıyorsa bu seçeneğin başındaki “2” sayısını cevap anahtarına işaretleyin.

Biraz katılıyorum: Eğer okuduğunuz ifade sizin için orta derecede (%50) doğru yada o ifadeye katılıyorsanız “3” rakamını cevap anahtarına işaretleyin.

Katılıyorum: Eğer okuduğunuz cümledeki davranış sizin için çoğunlukla doğru yada siz söylenene çoğunlukla katılıyor yani aynı fikirdeyseniz bu seçeneğin başındaki “4” rakamını cevap anahtarına işaretleyin.

Tamamen katılıyorum: Eğer ifade sizin her zaman yaptığınız bir davranışı tanımlıyor yada söylenen davranışa hemen hemen her zaman katılıyorsanız “5” rakamını cevap anahtarına işaretleyin.

Örnek:

1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
2. katılmıyorum
3. biraz katılıyorum
4. katılıyorum
5. tamamen katılıyorum

Aşağıdaki maddeyi okuyun ve sizin için doğru olan cevabı altı çizili olan boşluğa yazın.

İngilizce’mi ilerletmek için İngilizce film, çizgi film yada başka programlar izlerim. _____

Örnek maddeyi cevapladıktan sonra diğer cevaplarınızı ayrı bir cevap kağıdına işaretleyiniz.

ÇOCUKLAR İÇİN GELİŞTİRİLMİŞ YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ (YÖSE)

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6. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
7. katılmıyorum
8. biraz katılıyorum
9. katılıyorum
10. tamamen katılıyorum

A Bölümü

1. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri cümle içinde kullanırım.
2. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için o kelimenin anlamını düşünürüm.
3. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için yaza yaza çalışırım.
4. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri birbiriyle ilişkili kelimelerden oluşan bir gruba koyarım.
Örneğin; yüzümüzde bulunan organlar, meyveler ...
5. Daha önceden bildiklerimle yeni öğrendiğim kelimelerin birbirleriyle ilişkilerini kurmaya çalışırım.
6. Türkçe’de ve İngilizce’de söylenişleri birbirine benzeyen kelimeleri ilişkilendiririm.
Örneğin; snake (yılan) ve sinek gibi
7. Bir kelimeyi hatırlayabilmek için kafamda o kelimenin resmini çizerim.
8. Kelimeleri aklımda tutabilmek için birbiriyle ilişkili olanları aralarına çizgiler çizerek gösteririm.
9. Düzenli aralıklarla tekrar yaparım.
10. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri ezberleyebilmek için kartların bir tarafına İngilizce’sini diğer tarafına Türkçe’sini yazarım.
11. Yeni bir kelimeyi yada ifadeyi hareketlerle göstererek aklımda tutarım. Örneğin; “Opening the window” ifadesini kalkıp pencereyi açarak öğrenirim.
12. Yeni bir kelimeyi onu gördüğüm sayfadaki yeriyile hatırlarım.

1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
2. katılmıyorum
3. biraz katılıyorum
4. katılıyorum
5. tamamen katılıyorum

B Bölümü

13. İngilizce bir cümleyi yada metni anlamama, yazmama, dinlememe yada söylememe yardımcı olabilmesi için sözlükten, kitabımdan, defterimden ve/veya varsa İngilizce öğreten CD ve kasetlerimden yararlanırım.
14. İngilizce bir cümle yada metni okuduğumda yada duyduğumda anlayabilmek için, yazarken ve konuşurken düzgün ifade edebilmek için ve/veya İngilizce’ni ilerletmek amacıyla çeviri yaparım.

15. İngilizce bir metni okurken, dinlerken yada izlerken karşıma çıkan bilmediğim kelimeleri ve/veya canlandırma yada diyalog aktivitelerinden sonra aklımda kalanları ve arkadaşlarımla sorularını defterime (bazen kitabımın üzerine) not ederim.
16. Tam olarak anlamadığım İngilizce bir kelime yada cümleyi parçalara ayırarak ve parçalarından anlam çıkartmaya çalışarak tahmin etmeye çalışırım. Örneğin; unhappy kelimesinde “happy”i biliyorsam “un” önekinden onun “happy” (mutlu) kelimesinin karşıtı olduğunu (mutsuz) tahmin ederim.
17. İngilizce yazarken ve okurken anlamamı ve yazmamı kolaylaştırması için Türkçe’ye benzeyen kelimelerden yararlanırım. Örneğin; radio, television, leopard, chimpanzee.
18. Okuduğum, dinlediğim yada söylediğim İngilizce bir cümle yada metni olduğu gibi bir de ben yazarım.
19. İlk kez okuduğum yada dinlediğim İngilizce bir parçayı tekrar okurum ve dinlerim.
20. Yeni öğrendiklerimi daha iyi öğrenmek ve önceden bildiklerimi unutmamak için yazarak çalışırım.
21. Okulda işlediğimiz dersi, eski kitap ve defterlerimi, derste aldığım notları, bilmediğim ve yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri okuyarak yada yazarak tekrar ederim.
22. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi yada metni düzgün söyleyebilmek için kendi kendime, öğretmenimin arkasından yada teybin arkasından tekrar ederim.
23. Okuduğum yada dinlediğim İngilizce bir parçanın özetini çıkartırım.
24. İngilizce bir cümle yada metin yazarken önceden öğrendiğim kalıpları kullanırım.
25. İngilizce bir şey yazdıktan sonra Türkçe’siyle karşılaştırırım.
26. Canlandırma, diyalog ve bunun gibi konuşma aktivitelerinden ve İngilizce bir şey söylemeden önce söyleyeceklerimi yada İngilizce bir parça dinledikten sonra parçayı ezberlerim.
27. Konuşma aktivitelerinden önce annemle, babamla yada başka birisiyle prova yaparım.
28. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için sözlükten yazılışına ve okunuşuna bakarım.
29. İngilizce bir şey okurken daha önceden bilmediğim bir dilbilgisi kuralı (gramer, yapı) ile karşılaşırsam onu daha önceden bildiklerimi gözden geçirerek tahmin etmeye çalışırım.
30. İngilizce konuşurken anlatmakta güçlük çektiğim durumlarda nasıl söyleyeceğimden emin değilsem Türkçe’deki gibi söylerim.
31. İngilizce kitap/dergi okurum.
32. Öğretmenimle, arkadaşlarımla, annemle, babamla v.s İngilizce konuşmaya çalışırım.
33. İngilizce bir şey okuduktan sonra bilmediğim kelimelerin altını çizerim.
34. İngilizce kompozisyon yazarım.
35. Kasetten veya videodan bir konuşma parçasını dinlerken eğer kitaptan takip ediyorsam anlamadıklarımı kitabıma işaretlerim.
36. Bir şey söylerken İngilizce bilgim yetmediğinde Türkçe söylerim.
37. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için turistlerle ve başka yabancılarla konuşurken kullanırım.
38. İngilizce bir parça dinledikten sonra benzer bir parçayı da kendim uydurup söylerim.
39. İngilizce’mi geliştirmek için test çözerim.
40. İngilizce bir şey okuduktan sonra parçayı kendi kendime anlatırım.
41. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için okunuşunu yazıp birkaç kez okurum.
42. Okuduğum bir parçada anlamını bulduğum kelimeleri ezberlerim.
43. İngilizce’mi geliştirmek için İngilizce şarkı dinleyip içinde geçen bilmediğim kelimeleri sözlükten bulurum.
44. İngilizce’mi ilerletmek için daha önceden okuduğum kitapları tekrar okurum.

45. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimelerin yazılışını çalışırım.

1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
2. katılmıyorum
3. biraz katılıyorum
4. katılıyorum
5. tamamen katılıyorum

C Bölümü

46. İngilizce bir okuma parçasını yada cümleyi okurken yada kasetten veya videodan dinlerken parçanın ne hakkında olduğunu anlamak ve bilmediğim kelimeleri tahmin etmek için resimden faydalanırım.
47. İngilizce bir okuma parçasını okurken onun ne hakkında olduğunu anlamak için başlığına bakarım.
48. İngilizce bir metin yada cümlelerin bütünü, yada bilmediğim kelime ve yapıları tahmin etmek için bildiğim kelimelerden ve anladığım diğer cümlelerden yararlanırım.
49. İngilizce bir şey yazarken yada konuşurken bilmediğim yada o an aklıma gelmeyen bir kelime kullanmam gerekiyorsa onu yazmaktan ve söylemekten vazgeçerim.
50. Yazarken yada konuşurken bilmediğim bir kelimeyi anlatmak için onun resmini çizip karşımdakinin anlamasını sağlarım.
51. Yazarken yada konuşurken söylemek istediğim kelimenin İngilizce' sini bilmiyorsa tarif ederim yada başka yoldan anlatırım.
52. İngilizce bir parça okurken bilmediğim kelimelerle karşılaştığımda onları atlayıp okumaya devam ederim.
53. İngilizce bir cümle yada paragraf yazmadan önce bildiğim kelimelerin çok olduğu bir konu seçerim.
54. İngilizce konuşurken anlatmakta güçlük çektiğim durumlarda el-kol hareketleriyle anlatmaya çalışırım.
55. İngilizce bir şey yazarken bilmediğim bir kelimenin yerine benzer başka bir kelime kullanırım.
56. Konuşurken bilmediğim kelimelerin yerine aynı anlama gelebilecek bir kelime uydururum.
57. İngilizce bir cümleyi yada paragrafı sadece bildiğim kelimelerle yazarım.
58. İngilizce konuşurken anlatmakta güçlük çektiğim durumlarda konuyu değiştirip başka şeylerden bahsederim.
59. Konuşurken İngilizce' sini söyleyemediğim durumlarda onun Türkçe' sini söylerim.

1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
2. katılmıyorum
3. biraz katılıyorum
4. katılıyorum
5. tamamen katılıyorum

D Bölümü

60. İngilizce film, çizgi film yada başka programlar izlerim.
61. İngilizce bir şey okurken, yazarken, söylerken, dinlerken, film, çizgi film izlerken konsantre olup çok dikkatli olmaya çalışırım.

62. İngilizce’ mi geliştirmek için başka ders kitapları, İngilizce öğreten CD ve kasetler gibi yardımcı malzemelerle çalışırım.
63. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan, dinlemeden ve/veya izlemeden önce sözlük, kitap, defter, kalem gibi malzemelerimi hazırlarım. Sınıfın sessizliğini sağlamaya çalışıp bende sessizce beklerim.
64. İngilizce’ mi ilerletmek için kendi kendimi sınav yaparım.
65. Okuduğum bir kitabı, dinlediğim İngilizce bir parçayı ve/veya izlediğim bir filmi onu anlayan bir arkadaşına yada başka birine anlatırım.
66. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan ve söylemeden önce düşünüp planlarım.
67. İngilizce dinlediğim bir parçayı anlayıp anlamadığımı kontrol etmek için arkadaşına yada öğretmenime sorarım.
68. İngilizce bir şey okurken daha önceden bilmediğim bir dilbilgisi kuralı (gramer, yapı) ile karşılaşsam onu öğrendiğim benzer bir kuralla karşılaştırıp tahmin etmeye çalışırım.
69. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan ve dinlemeden önce o konuyla ilgili okurum, üniteyi tekrarlarım, benzer bir paragraf okurum, örnek bulmaya çalışırım, müsvedde hazırlarım ve/veya o konuyla ilgili cümleler kurarım.
70. İngilizce bir şey yazdıktan, söyledikten yada dinledikten sonra neleri yanlış yaptığımı, neleri anladığımı ve dinlerken aldığım notları kontrol ederim. Hatalarım var mı diye düşünürüm.
71. Parçayı yada cümleyi okuyup bitirdiğimde yeni kelimelerin parçada nasıl kullanıldığına bakarım.
72. İngilizce bir cümle yada paragraf yazmadan önce yazacaklarımın önce Türkçe’ sini düşünürüm.
73. İngilizce bir şey söylemeden önce kullanacağım kelimeyi doğru söyleyip söylemediğimi sözlükten kontrol ederim.
74. İngilizce bir film izlerken alt yazılardan anlayıp anlamadığımı kontrol ederim.
75. İngilizce’ mi geliştirmek için kendi kendime İngilizce konuşurum.
76. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için cümle içinde kullanırım.
77. İngilizce bir okuma parçasını okuyup bitirdiğimde parçayla ilgili sorular çıkarırım.
78. Bilmediğim bir gramer (dilbilgisi) kuralıyla karşılaştığımda ders kitabımdan araştırırım.
79. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan önce kullanacağım kelimeleri ve kalıpları belirlerim ve kitap ve defterimden bulurum.
80. İngilizce bir şey söylemeden önce defterden, kitaptan v.s konuyla ilgili neler yaptığımıza bakarım.
81. İngilizce bir parça okuduktan yada dinledikten sonra varsa parçayla ilgili soruları cevaplarım.
82. Konuşma aktivitelerinden sonra (canlandırma ve diyalog gibi) yanlış söylediğim kelimenin doğru okunuşuna sözlükten bakarım.
83. İngilizce’ mi ilerletmek için merak ettiğim kelimeleri sözlükten (resimli sözlük, bilgisayar sözlüğü v.s) okurum.
84. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için televizyonda, radyoda yada başka bir yerde dinlerken söylenişine dikkat ederim.
85. İngilizce bir parça dinledikten sonra neler anladığımı ve öğrendiğimi hatırlamaya çalışırım.
86. İngilizce’ mi geliştirmek için turistlerle konuşmaya çalışırım.
87. İngilizce bir film çizgi film v.s izlerken bildiğim kelimelerin anlamlarına ve kullanılışlarına dikkat ederim.

88. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için söyleyenlerin ağız hareketlerine dikkat ederim.
89. İngilizce bir metin dinlemeden önce resmi varsa iyice incelerim ve gördüklerimin İngilizce'sini düşünürüm.
90. Bildiklerimle yeni öğrendiklerimi birleştirip çalışırım.
91. Konuşma aktivitelerinden sonra yanlışlarımı çalışırım.
92. Dinleme aktivitesi bittikten sonra parçada hangi kelimelerin geçtiğini düşünürüm.
93. İngilizce çalışırken annemle, babamla, yada başka bir büyükle çalışırım yada ihtiyacım olduğunda yardım alırım.
94. Öğrenemediğimi yada eksikliklerim olduğunu düşünürsem aileme yardıma ihtiyacım olduğunu söylerim. Örneğin; özel ders almak istemek gibi.

1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
2. katılmıyorum
3. biraz katılıyorum
4. katılıyorum
5. tamamen katılıyorum

E Bölümü

95. Öğrenebilmek amacıyla kesin emin olmadığım kelimeyi kullanırım yada dinleme parçasının ne hakkında olduğunu tahmin etmeye çalışırım.
96. Heyecanlandığımda yada endişelendiğimde kendimi rahatlatmaya çalışırım. Örneğin; derin derin nefes almak.
97. Müzik dinleyerek, komik bir film seyrederek yada fıkra anlatarak sakinleşmeye çalışırım.
98. İngilizce öğrenirken hissettiklerimi yazdığım bir günlük tutarım.
99. Kendimi cesaretlendirmek için kendime olumlu sözler söylerim. Örneğin; "Aferin iyi gidiyorsun." yada "Başaracağıma inanıyorum." gibi.
100. Bir şey başardığımda kendimi ödüllendiririm. Örneğin; Sınavda iyi bir not alırsam sinemaya giderim, gibi.
101. Güvendiğim bir kişiye yabancı dil öğrenme sürecinde hissettiklerimi anlatırım.
102. Yabancı dil öğrenmemi engelleyebilecek olumsuz duygularıma yada stres belirtilerine dikkat ederim.

1. kesinlikle katılmıyorum
2. katılmıyorum
3. biraz katılıyorum
4. katılıyorum
5. tamamen katılıyorum

F Bölümü

103. Karşıma çıkan yeni bir kelimeyi, kelimenin telaffuzunu yada dilbilgisi kuralını öğretmenime, anneme, babama yada başka bilen birine sorarım.
104. İngilizce bir aktivitede arkadaşımınla çalışırım, notlarımı paylaşıyorum ve bilmediklerimi ona sorarım.
105. İngilizce bir şey yazdıktan ve/veya söyledikten sonra öğretmenimden, arkadaşımından yada bilen başka birinden yanlışlarımı düzeltmesini isterim.

106. İngilizce bir metin dinledikten sonra arkadaşım ile konuyu tartışırım ve neler anladığımı karşılaştırırım.
107. İngilizce’yi geliştirmek için anneme, babama sınav hazırlatıp çözmeye çalışırım.
108. İngilizce’yi ilerletmek için arkadaşlarımla yada ailemle oyunlar oynarım.
109. İngilizce’yi eğlenceli olacak şekilde kullanmaktan hoşlanırım. Örneğin; İngilizce espiriler yapmaya çalışmak yada yeni öğrendiğim kelimelerle şiir yazmaya çalışmak ve bunun gibi.

Cevap Kağıdı

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<u>A Bölümü</u>	<u>B Bölümü</u>	<u>C Bölümü</u>	<u>D Bölümü</u>	<u>E Bölümü</u>	<u>F Bölümü</u>	<u>Toplam</u>
1. _____	13. _____	46. _____	60. _____	95. _____	103. _____	A _____
2. _____	14. _____	47. _____	61. _____	96. _____	104. _____	B _____
3. _____	15. _____	48. _____	62. _____	97. _____	105. _____	C _____
4. _____	16. _____	49. _____	63. _____	98. _____	106. _____	D _____
5. _____	17. _____	50. _____	64. _____	99. _____	107. _____	E _____
6. _____	18. _____	51. _____	65. _____	100. _____	108. _____	F _____
7. _____	19. _____	52. _____	66. _____	101. _____	109. _____	
8. _____	20. _____	53. _____	67. _____	102. _____		
9. _____	21. _____	54. _____	68. _____			
10. _____	22. _____	55. _____	69. _____			
11. _____	23. _____	56. _____	70. _____			
12. _____	24. _____	57. _____	71. _____			
	25. _____	58. _____	72. _____			
	26. _____	59. _____	73. _____			
	27. _____		74. _____			
	28. _____		75. _____			
	29. _____		76. _____			
	30. _____		77. _____			
	31. _____		78. _____			
	32. _____		79. _____			
	33. _____		80. _____			
	34. _____		81. _____			
	35. _____		82. _____			
	36. _____		83. _____			
	37. _____		84. _____			
	38. _____		85. _____			
	39. _____		86. _____			
	40. _____		87. _____			
	41. _____		88. _____			
	42. _____		89. _____			
	43. _____		90. _____			
	44. _____		91. _____			
	45. _____		92. _____			
			93. _____			
			94. _____			

Cevap Anahtarına İşaretleme

1. YÖSE'deki her maddeye denk düşen numaraların yanındaki boşluğa sizin için uygun olan cevabı (1, 2, 3, 4 ve 5) girin.
2. Her bölümdeki toplam puanı bulup o bölümdeki madde sayısına bölün.
3. Her bölümden elde ettiğiniz toplam puanları toplayıp 129'a bölün. Bu envanterdeki toplam madde sayısıdır. Küsürlü sayıları en yakın tam sayıya tamamlayın. Böylelikle 1.0 ile 5.0 arasında bir sayı elde etmiş olacaksınız

Sayın Uzman,

İlişikteki envanter yabancı bir dil olarak İngilizce'yi öğrenen Türk çocuklarının kullandıkları yabancı dil öğrenme stratejilerini tespit etmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Envanterin A Bölümü Bellek Stratejilerini (Memory Strategies), B Bölümü Bilişsel Stratejileri (Cognitive Strategies), C Bölümü Telafi Stratejilerini (Compensation Strategies), D Bölümü Bilişötesi Stratejileri (Metacognitive Strategies), E Bölümü Duyuşsal Stratejileri (Affective Strategies) ve F Bölümü ise Sosyal Stratejileri (Social Strategies) gösteren ifadeler içermektedir.

Envanter 3, 4 ve 5 inci sınıf çocuklarından toplanan veriler doğrultusunda hazırlanmıştır. Ancak bellek stratejilerinden üç ve duyuşsal stratejilerden bir strateji veri toplama süreci içerisinde tespit edilmiştir. Bu süreç içerisinde kaydedilemeyen stratejilerin varlığının olabileceğinden yola çıkarak bu bölümlere Oxford'un (1990) strateji taksonomisinde bellek ve duyuşsal stratejiler içerisinde bulunan stratejileri içeren birer ifade eklenmiştir.

Bu envanteri görüşlerinize sunmamın sebebi bir tür geçerlik testi olan görünüş geçerliliğinin uzman kanısına başvurularak tespit edilmeye çalışılmasıdır. Bu anlamda görüşleriniz çok değerlidir. Yardım ve önemli görüşleriniz için çok teşekkür ederim.

Saygılarımla,
Araş. Gör. Esim GÜRSOY

Sayın Uzman,

İlişikteki envanter yabancı bir dil olarak İngilizce'yi öğrenen Türk çocuklarının kullandıkları yabancı dil öğrenme stratejilerini tespit etmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Envanterin A Bölümü Bellek Stratejilerini (Memory Strategies), B Bölümü Bilişsel Stratejileri (Cognitive Strategies), C Bölümü Telafi Stratejilerini (Compensation Strategies), D Bölümü Bilişötesi Stratejileri (Metacognitive Strategies), E Bölümü Duyuşsal Stratejileri (Affective Strategies) ve F Bölümü ise Sosyal Stratejileri (Social Strategies) gösteren ifadeler içermektedir.

Lütfen aşağıdaki envanteri okuyarak maddelerin gösterildikleri strateji kategorisine uygunluğunu 1 “Uygun” veya 2 “Uygun Değil” olarak işaretleyiniz. En son sayfada verilen ve madde numaralarını içeren boşluklara o maddenin kategorisine uygunluğuna ne ölçüde katıldığınızı gösteren düşüncenizi ifade eden sayıyı yazınız. Buna göre;

- 1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
- 2 Katılmıyorum
- 3 Biraz katılıyorum
- 4 Katılıyorum
- 5 Tamamen Katılıyorum

Bu envanteri görüşlerinize sunmamın sebebi bir tür geçerlik testi olan kapsam geçerliliğinin uzman kanısına başvurularak tespit edilmeye çalışılmasıdır. Bu anlamda görüşleriniz çok değerlidir. Yardım ve önemli görüşleriniz için çok teşekkür ederim.

Saygılarımla,
Araş. Gör. Esim GÜRSOY

- 1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
 2 Katılmıyorum
 3 Biraz katılıyorum
 4 Katılıyorum
 5 Tamamen Katılıyorum

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<u>A Bölümü</u>	<u>B Bölümü</u>	<u>C Bölümü</u>	<u>D Bölümü</u>	<u>E Bölümü</u>	<u>F Bölümü</u>
1. _____	13. _____	46. _____	60. _____	95. _____	103. _____
2. _____	14. _____	47. _____	61. _____	96. _____	104. _____
3. _____	15. _____	48. _____	62. _____	97. _____	105. _____
4. _____	16. _____	49. _____	63. _____	98. _____	106. _____
5. _____	17. _____	50. _____	64. _____	99. _____	107. _____
6. _____	18. _____	51. _____	65. _____	100. _____	108. _____
7. _____	19. _____	52. _____	66. _____	101. _____	109. _____
8. _____	20. _____	53. _____	67. _____	102. _____	
9. _____	21. _____	54. _____	68. _____		
10. _____	22. _____	55. _____	69. _____		
11. _____	23. _____	56. _____	70. _____		
12. _____	24. _____	57. _____	71. _____		
	25. _____	58. _____	72. _____		
	26. _____	59. _____	73. _____		
	27. _____		74. _____		
	28. _____		75. _____		
	29. _____		76. _____		
	30. _____		77. _____		
	31. _____		78. _____		
	32. _____		79. _____		
	33. _____		80. _____		
	34. _____		81. _____		
	35. _____		82. _____		
	36. _____		83. _____		
	37. _____		84. _____		
	38. _____		85. _____		
	39. _____		86. _____		
	40. _____		87. _____		
	41. _____		88. _____		
	42. _____		89. _____		
	43. _____		90. _____		
	44. _____		91. _____		
	45. _____		92. _____		
			93. _____		
			94. _____		

**ÇOCUKLAR İÇİN GELİŞTİRİLMİŞ YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ
ENVANTERİ (YÖSE)
1. BÖLÜM**

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Ad-Soyad:
Doğum yılı:
Cinsiyeti: Kız/Erkek

Okulu ve Şubesi:
İngilizce dersinden en son aldığı karne notu:
İngilizce sınavından aldığı en son not:

Açıklama:

Sevgili öğrenciler,

Yabancı bir dil öğrenirken ne yaparsınız? (Nasıl okuduğunuzu anlamaya çalışırsınız? Yeni sözcükleri nasıl öğrenirsiniz? Dinlediğinizi anlamak için neler yaparsınız? ve bunun gibi). Şimdi okuyacağınız cümlelere bakarak nasıl İngilizce öğrendiğinizi anlayabileceğiz. Eğer ifadelerde belirtilen davranışları yapıyorsanız “Evet” cevabının, ara sıra yapıyorsanız “Bazen” cevabının, yapmıyorsanız “Hayır” cevabının üzerine “X” işareti koyun. Hiçbir ifadeyi boş bırakmayın.

Örnek:

Aşağıdaki maddeyi okuyun ve sizin için doğru olan cevabın üzerine “X” işareti koyun.

İngilizce’mi iletirmek için İngilizce film yada başka programlar izlerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
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Örnek maddeyi cevapladıktan sonra diğerlerine geçebilirsiniz.

A Bölümü			
1. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeyle cümle kurarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
2. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için o kelimenin anlamını düşünürüm.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
3. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için yaza yaza çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
4. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri birbiriyle ilişkili kelimelerden oluşan bir gruba koyarım. Örneğin; Yeni öğrendiğim elma (apple) kelimesini portakal (orange) kelimesi ile birlikte meyve grubuna koyarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
5. Daha önceden bildiklerimin yeni öğrendiklerimi hatırlatması için eski ve yeni bilgi arasında ilişki kurmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
6. Türkçe’de ve İngilizce’deki kelimelerin söylenişleri birbirine benzeterak aklımda tutmaya çalışırım. Örneğin; snake (yılan) ve sinek gibi	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
7. Bir kelimeyi hatırlayabilmek için kafamda o kelimenin resmini çizerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
8. Kelimeleri aklımda tutabilmek için birbiriyle ilgili olanların arasına çizgiler çizerek yazarım. Örneğin; okul kelimesi ile ilgili kelimeleri (tahta, öğrenci, sıra, öğretmen gibi) oklar çizerek onun etrafına yazarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
9. Yeni öğrendiklerimi düzenli aralıklarla tekrar ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
10. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri ezberleyebilmek için kartların bir tarafına İngilizce’sini diğer tarafına Türkçe’sini yazarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
11. Yeni bir kelimeyi yada ifadeyi hareketlerle göstererek aklımda tutarım. Örneğin; “Opening the window” ifadesini kalkıp pencereyi açarak öğrenirim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
12. Yeni bir kelimeyi onu gördüğüm sayfadaki yeriyle hatırlarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

B Bölümü

13. İngilizce bir cümleyi yada metni anlamama, yazmama, dinlememe yada söylememe yardımcı olabilmesi için sözlükten, kitabımdan, defterimden veya varsa İngilizce öğreten CD ve kasetlerimden yararlanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
14. İngilizce bir cümle yada metni anlayabilmek, sonra düzgün ifade edebilmek veya İngilizce’ mi ilerletmek için çeviri yaparım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
15. İngilizce’ sini bilmediğim kelimeleri, canlandırma aktivitelerinden sonra aklımda kalanları ve arkadaşlarımdan sorularımı defterime not ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
16. Tam olarak anlamadığım İngilizce bir kelime yada cümleyi parçalara ayırarak ve parçalarından anlam çıkartmaya çalışarak tahmin etmeye çalışırım. Örneğin; unhappy kelimesinde “happy” i biliyorsam “un” öncesinden onun “happy” (mutlu) kelimesinin karşıtı olduğunu (mutsuz) tahmin ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
17. İngilizce bir şey okurken daha önceden bilmediğim bir dilbilgisi kuralı (gramer, yapı) ile karşılaşsam onu öğrendiğim benzer bir kuralla karşılaştırıp tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
18. İngilizce yazarken ve okurken anlamamı ve yazmamı kolaylaştırması için Türkçe’ ye benzeyen kelimelerden yararlanırım. Örneğin; radio, television, leopard, chimpanzee.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
19. Okuduğum, dinlediğim yada söylediğim İngilizce bir cümle yada metni olduğu gibi bir de ben yazarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
20. İlk kez okuduğum yada dinlediğim İngilizce bir parçayı tekrar okurum ve dinlerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
21. Yeni öğrendiklerimi daha iyi öğrenmek ve önceden bildiklerimi unutmamak için yazarak çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
22. Okulda işlediğimiz dersi, eski kitap ve defterlerimi, derste aldığım notları, bilmediğim ve yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri okuyarak yada yazarak tekrar ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
23. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi yada metni düzgün söyleyebilmek için kendi kendime, öğretmenimin arkasından yada teybin arkasından tekrar ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
24. Okuduğum yada dinlediğim İngilizce bir parçanın özetini çıkartırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
25. İngilizce bir cümle yada metin yazarken önceden öğrendiğim kalıpları kullanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
26. İngilizce bir şey yazdıktan sonra Türkçe’ siyle karşılaştırırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
27. İngilizce konuşmadan önce söyleyeceklerimi, İngilizce bir parça dinledikten sonra duyduklarımı veya anlamamı yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri ezberlerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
28. Konuşma aktivitelerinden önce annemle, babamla yada başka birisiyle prova yaparım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
29. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için sözlükten yazılışına ve okunuşuna bakarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
30. İngilizce konuşurken anlatmakta güçlük çektiğim durumlarda nasıl söyleyeceğimden emin değilsem Türkçe’ de nasıl söylüyorsam öyle söylerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
31. İngilizce kitap/dergi okurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
32. Öğretmenimle, arkadaşlarımla, anne ve babamla İngilizce konuşmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
33. İngilizce bir şey okuduktan sonra bilmediğim kelimelerin altını çizerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
34. İngilizce kompozisyon yazarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
35. Kasetten veya videodan bir konuşma parçasını dinlerken eğer kitaptan takip ediyorsam anlamadıklarımı kitabıma işaretlerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

36. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için turistlerle ve başka yabancılarla konuşurken kullanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
37. İngilizce bir parça dinledikten sonra benzer bir parçayı da kendim uydurup söylerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
38. İngilizce'mi geliştirmek için test çözerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
39. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimelerle şiir yazmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
40. İngilizce bir şey okuduktan sonra parçayı kendi kendime anlatırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
41. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için okunuşunu yazıp birkaç kez okurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
42. İngilizce'mi geliştirmek için İngilizce şarkı dinleyip içinde geçen bilmediğim kelimeleri sözlükten bulurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
43. İngilizce'mi ilerletmek için daha önceden okuduğum kitapları tekrar okurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
44. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimelerin yazılışını çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
45. İngilizce'mi geliştirmek için turistlerle konuşmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

C Bölümü

46. İngilizce bir okuma parçasını yada cümleyi okurken yada dinlerken parçanın ne hakkında olduğunu anlamak veya bilmediğim kelimeleri tahmin etmek için resimden faydalanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
47. İngilizce bir okuma parçasını okurken onun ne hakkında olduğunu anlamak için başlığına bakarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
48. İngilizce bir metni yada cümleyi, yada bilmediğim kelime ve yapıları tahmin etmek için bildiğim kelimelerden ve anladığım diğer cümlelerden yararlanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
49. İngilizce bir şey yazarken yada konuşurken bilmediğim yada o an aklıma gelmeyen bir kelime kullanmam gerekiyorsa onu yazmaktan ve söylemekten vazgeçerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
50. Yazarken yada konuşurken bilmediğim bir kelimeyi onun resmini çizerek anlatmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
51. Yazarken yada konuşurken söylemek istediğim kelimenin İngilizce'sini bilmiyorsa tarif ederim yada başka yoldan anlatırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
52. İngilizce bir parça okurken bilmediğim kelimelerle karşılaştığımda onları atlayıp okumaya devam ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
53. İngilizce bir cümle yada paragraf yazmadan önce bildiğim kelimelerin çok olduğu bir konu seçerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
54. İngilizce konuşurken anlatmakta güçlük çektiğim durumlarda el-kol hareketleriyle anlatmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
55. İngilizce bir şey yazarken bilmediğim bir kelimenin yerine benzer başka bir kelime kullanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
56. Konuşurken bilmediğim kelimelerin yerine aynı anlama gelebilecek bir kelime uydururum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
57. İngilizce bir cümleyi yada paragrafı sadece bildiğim kelimelerle yazarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
58. İngilizce konuşurken anlatmakta güçlük çektiğim durumlarda konuyu değiştirip başka şeylerden bahsederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
59. Konuşurken İngilizce'sini bilmediğim bir kelimenin yerine onun Türkçe'sini söylerim ve İngilizce konuşmaya devam ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

ÇOCUKLAR İÇİN GELİŞTİRİLMİŞ YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ (YÖSE) 2. BÖLÜM

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Ad-Soyad:
Doğum yılı:
Cinsiyeti: Kız/Erkek

Okulu ve Şubesi:
İngilizce dersinden en son aldığı karne notu:
İngilizce sınavından aldığı en son not:

Açıklama:

Sevgili öğrenciler,

Yabancı bir dil öğrenirken ne yaparsınız? (Nasıl okuduğunuzu anlamaya çalışırsınız? Yeni sözcükleri nasıl öğrenirsiniz? Dinlediğinizi anlamak için neler yaparsınız? ve bunun gibi). Şimdi okuyacağımız cümlelere bakarak nasıl İngilizce öğrendiğinizi anlayabileceğiz. Eğer ifadelerde belirtilen davranışları yapıyorsanız “Evet” cevabının, ara sıra yapıyorsanız “Bazen” cevabının, yapmıyorsanız “Hayır” cevabının üzerine “X” işareti koyun. Hiçbir ifadeyi boş bırakmayın.

Örnek:

Aşağıdaki maddeyi okuyun ve sizin için doğru olan cevabın üzerine “X” işareti koyun.

İngilizce’ mi ilerletmek için merak ettiğim kelimeleri sözlükten okurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
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Örnek maddeyi cevapladıktan sonra diğerlerine geçebilirsiniz.

D Bölümü			
1. İngilizce film, çizgi film yada başka programlar izlerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
2. İngilizce bir şey okurken, yazarken, söylerken, dinlerken ve izlerken konsantre olup çok dikkatli olmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
3. İngilizce’ mi geliştirmek için başka ders kitapları, İngilizce öğreten CD ve kasetler gibi yardımcı malzemelerle çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
4. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan, dinlemeden ve/veya izlemeden önce sözlük, kitap, defter, kalem gibi malzemelerimi hazırlarım ve sessizce beklerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
5. İngilizce’ mi ilerletmek için kendi kendimi sınav yaparım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
6. Okuduğum bir kitabı, dinlediğim İngilizce bir parçayı ve/veya izlediğim bir filmi onu anlayan birine anlatırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
7. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan ve söylemeden önce düşünüp planlarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
8. İngilizce dinlediğim bir parçayı anlayıp anlamadığımı kontrol etmek için arkadaşşıma yada öğretmenime sorarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
9. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan ve dinlemeden önce o konuyla ilgili okurum, üniteyi tekrarlarım, benzer bir paragraf okurum, örnek bulmaya çalışırım, müsvedde hazırlarım veya o konuyla ilgili cümleler kurarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
10. İngilizce bir şey yazdıktan, söyledikten yada dinledikten sonra neleri yanlış yaptığımı, neleri anladığımı ve dinlerken aldığım notları kontrol ederim. Hatalarım var mı diye düşünürüm.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

11. Parçayı yada cümleyi okuyup bitirdiğimde yeni kelimelerin parçada nasıl kullanıldığına bakarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
12. İngilizce bir cümle yada paragraf yazmadan önce yazacaklarımın önce Türkçe'sini düşünürüm.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
13. İngilizce bir şey söylemeden önce kullanacağım kelimeyi doğru söyleyip söylemediğimi sözlükten kontrol ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
14. İngilizce bir film izlerken alt yazılardan anlayıp anlamadığımı kontrol ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
15. İngilizce'yi geliştirmek için kendi kendime İngilizce konuşurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
16. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için cümle içinde kullanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
17. İngilizce bir okuma parçasını okuyup bitirdiğimde parçayla ilgili sorular çıkarırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
18. Bilmediğim bir dilbilgisi (gramer) kuralıyla karşılaştığımda ders kitabımdan araştırırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
19. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan önce kullanacağım kelimeleri ve kalıpları belirlerim ve kitap ve defterimden bulurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
20. İngilizce bir şey söylemeden önce defterden, kitaptan v.s konuyla ilgili neler yaptığımıza bakarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
21. İngilizce bir parça okuduktan yada dinledikten sonra varsa parçayla ilgili soruları cevaplarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
22. Konuşma aktivitelerinden sonra (canlandırma ve diyalog gibi) yanlış söylediğim kelimenin doğru okunuşuna sözlükten bakarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
23. İngilizce'yi iletirmek için merak ettiğim kelimeleri sözlükten okurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
24. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için televizyonda, radyoda yada başka bir yerde dinlerken söylenişine dikkat ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
25. İngilizce bir parça dinledikten sonra neler anladığımı ve öğrendiğimi hatırlamaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
26. İngilizce bir film çizgi film yada program izlerken bildiğim kelimelerin anlamlarına ve kullanılışlarına dikkat ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
27. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için söyleyenlerin ağız hareketlerine dikkat ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
28. İngilizce bir metin dinlemeden önce resmi varsa iyice incelerim ve gördüklerimin İngilizce'sini düşünürüm.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
29. Bildiklerimle yeni öğrendiklerimi birleştirip çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
30. Konuşma aktivitelerinden sonra yanlışlarımı çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
31. Dinleme aktivitesi bittikten sonra parçada hangi kelimelerin geçtiğini düşünürüm.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
32. İngilizce çalışırken annemle, babamla, yada başka bir büyükle çalışırım yada ihtiyacım olduğunda yardım alırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
33. Öğrenemediğimi yada eksikliklerim olduğunu düşünürsem aileme yardıma ihtiyacım olduğunu söylerim. Örneğin; özel ders almak istemek gibi.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

E Bölümü

34. İngilizce konuşurken ve yazarken öğrenebilmek amacıyla kesin emin olmadığım kelimeleri de kullanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
35. Heyecanlandığımda yada endişelendiğimde kendimi rahatlatmaya çalışırım. Örneğin; derin derin nefes alırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
36. Müzik dinleyerek, komik bir film seyrederek yada fıkra anlatarak sakinleşmeye çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
37. İngilizce öğrenirken hissettiklerimi yazdığım bir günlük tutarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
38. Kendimi cesaretlendirmek için kendime olumlu sözler söylerim. Örneğin; “Aferin iyi gidiyorsun.” yada “Başaracağıma inanıyorum.” gibi.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
39. Her şeyi anlamasam da dinleme parçasının ne hakkında olduğunu tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
40. Bir şey başardığımda kendimi ödüllendiririm. Örneğin; Sınavda iyi bir not alırsam çok sevdiğim bir şey yaparım (TV seyretmek, bahçede oynamak gibi).	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
41. Güvendiğim bir kişiye yabancı dil öğrenme sürecinde hissettiklerimi anlatırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
42. Başaramama endişesi ve bunun bende yarattığı sıkıntıların farkında olurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

F Bölümü

43. Karşıma çıkan yeni bir kelimeyi, kelimenin söylenişini yada dilbilgisi kuralını öğretmenime, anneme, babama yada başka bilen birine sorarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
44. İngilizce bir aktivitede arkadaşım ile çalışırım, notlarımı paylaşıyorum ve bilmediklerimi ona sorarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
45. İngilizce bir şey yazdıktan veya söyledikten sonra öğretmenimden, arkadaşımından yada bilen başka birinden yanlışlarımı düzeltmesini isterim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
46. İngilizce bir metin dinledikten sonra arkadaşım ile konuyu tartışırım ve neler anladığımızı karşılaştırırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
47. İngilizce’ mi geliştirmek için anneme, babama sınav hazırlatıp çözmeye çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
48. İngilizce’ mi ilerletmek için arkadaşlarımla yada ailemle oyunlar oynarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
49. İngilizce’ yi eğlenceli olacak şekilde kullanmaktan hoşlanırım. Örneğin; İngilizce espiriler yapmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

APPENDIX 12
LIST OF RELIABLE AND UNRELIABLE ITEMS

236

Items found Reliable as a Result of the Test-Re-test

A1	A12	B22
A3	B13	B23
A4	B14	B24
A6	B15	B26
A8	B17	B28
A9	B18	B31
A10	B20	B32
A11	B21	B34
B36	D5	F47
B38	D9	F49
B43	D15	
C47	D16	
C48	D17	
C50	D18	
C51	D19	
C52	D20	
C54	D25	
C55	D30	
C56	D33	
C57	E34	
C59	E40	
D1	F44	
D3	F45	
D4	F46	

Items found Unreliable as a Result of the Test-Re-test

A2	D6	E41
A5	D7	E42
A7	D8	F43
B16	D10	F48
B19	D11	
B25	D12	
B27	D13	
B29	D14	
B30	D21	
B33	D22	
B35	D23	
B37	D24	
B39	D26	
B40	D27	
B41	D28	
B42	D29	
B44	D31	
B45	D32	
C46	E35	
C49	E36	
C53	E37	
C58	E38	
D2	E39	

Factor Analysis

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
B32A	1.000	.591
E44A	1.000	.565
E45A	1.000	.555
D16A	1.000	.467
D20A	1.000	.443
D5A	1.000	.591
B22A	1.000	.593
B28A	1.000	.430
D30A	1.000	.334
D33A	1.000	.234
B43A	1.000	.600
B36A	1.000	.517
E49A	1.000	.450
D3A	1.000	.592
B38A	1.000	.490
B17A	1.000	.445
D9A	1.000	.541
C56A	1.000	.409
B13A	1.000	.622
A12A	1.000	.500
B20A	1.000	.575
D19A	1.000	.600
A9A	1.000	.496
A6A	1.000	.639
B15A	1.000	.494
C54A	1.000	.366
C50A	1.000	.577
C59A	1.000	.422
A3A	1.000	.456
B18A	1.000	.368

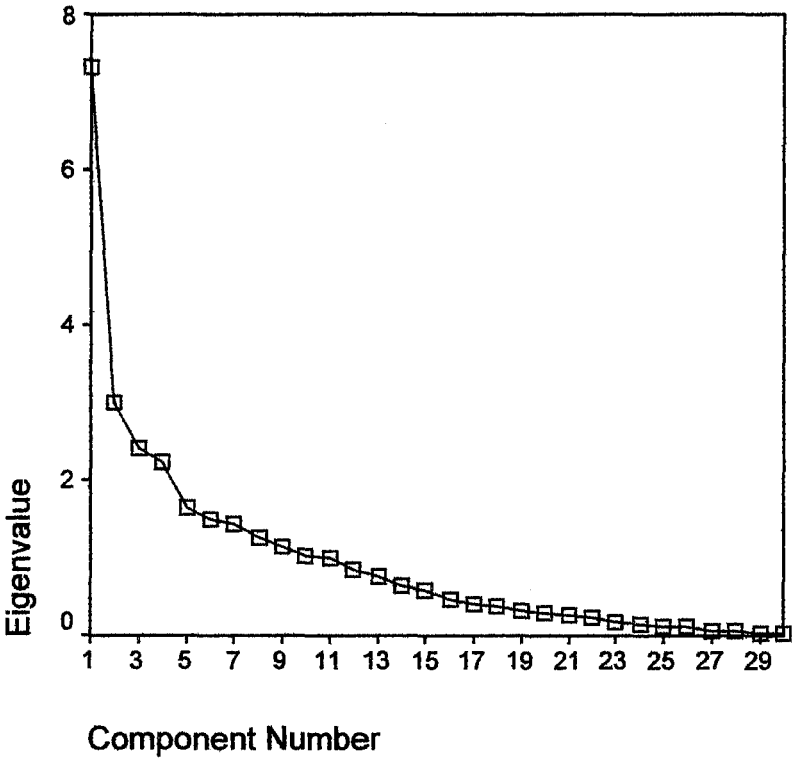
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Initial Eigenvalues				Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.324	24.415	24.415	7.324	24.415	24.415	4.483	14.944	14.944
2	2.999	9.997	34.411	2.999	9.997	34.411	3.946	13.154	28.098
3	2.404	8.013	42.425	2.404	8.013	42.425	3.269	10.897	38.996
4	2.234	7.447	49.871	2.234	7.447	49.871	3.263	10.876	49.871
5	1.660	5.534	55.405						
6	1.502	5.006	60.411						
7	1.428	4.760	65.171						
8	1.276	4.253	69.425						
9	1.161	3.872	73.296						
10	1.029	3.432	76.728						
11	.995	3.316	80.044						
12	.857	2.855	82.900						
13	.754	2.513	85.413						
14	.648	2.160	87.573						
15	.583	1.944	89.517						
16	.480	1.601	91.119						
17	.413	1.375	92.494						
18	.389	1.297	93.791						
19	.325	1.085	94.876						
20	.298	.994	95.870						
21	.262	.875	96.744						
22	.237	.791	97.535						
23	.182	.607	98.142						
24	.142	.472	98.615						
25	.125	.415	99.030						
26	.104	.348	99.378						
27	6,794E-02	.226	99.604						
28	5,821E-02	.194	99.798						
29	3,963E-02	.132	99.930						
30	2,089E-02	6.964E-02	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Scree Plot



Component Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
B32A	.585			
E44A	.497	-.505		
E45A	.589			
D16A	.582			
D20A	.435			
D5A	.643			
B22A	.688			
B28A	.526			
D30A	.432			
D33A	.406			
B43A	.553	.482		
B36A		.551		
E49A		.436		
D3A	.421	.438		
B38A	.571			
B17A	.528			
D9A			-.576	
C56A	.533			
B13A	.523			.552
A12A				.562
B20A	.507			.443
D19A	.595			.492
A9A				.470
A6A	.405		.685	
B15A			.496	
C54A			.496	
C50A	.494	.468		
C59A			.409	
A3A	.589			
B18A	.519			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
4 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
B32A	.750			
E44A	.736			
E45A	.698			
D16A	.623			
D20A	.632			
D5A	.621		.421	
B22A	.593			.451
B28A	.611			
D30A	.500			
D33A	.419			
B43A		.743		
B36A		.714		
E49A		.647		
D3A		.626		.424
B38A		.621		
B17A		.606		
D9A		.591		
C56A		.552		
B13A				.715
A12A				.694
B20A				.690
D19A				.691
A9A				.657
A6A			.747	
B15A			.678	
C54A			.595	
C50A		.444	.614	
C59A			.586	
A3A			.533	
B18A			.463	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4
1	.623	.501	.409	.440
2	-.591	.719	.277	-.239
3	-.162	-.476	.864	-.031
4	-.486	-.073	-.100	.865

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Reliability Results of the Whole document as it is Taken from the SPSS 11.0

***** Method 1 (space saver) will be used for this analysis *****

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 43.0

N of Items = 30

Alpha = .8873

Reliability Results of each Factor as it is Taken from the SPSS 11.0

Reliability of the First Factor: GENERAL STUDY HABITS

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

N of Cases = 43.0

Inter-Item Correlations	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	.3665	-.0454	.6389	.6843	-14.0757	.0158

Reliability Coefficients 10 items

Alpha = .8491

Standardized item alpha = .8526

Reliability of the Second Factor: STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE LANGUAGE
LEARNING

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

N of Cases = 43.0

Inter-Item Correlations	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	.3631	.2183	.5265	.3082	2.4121	.0072

Reliability Coefficients 8 items

Alpha = .8192

Standardized item alpha = .8202

**Reliability of the Third Factor: STRATEGIES TO FACILITATE THE RECEPTION
AND PRODUCTION OF THE LANGUAGE**

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

N of Cases = 43.0

Inter-Item Correlations	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	.3306	.0805	.4415	.3611	5.4869	.0063

Reliability Coefficients 7 items

Alpha = .7752

Standardized item alpha = .7757

**Reliability of the Third Factor: STRATEGIES TO FACILITATE THE RECEPTION
AND PRODUCTION OF THE LANGUAGE**

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

N of Cases = 43.0

Inter-Item Correlations	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	.4222	.2741	.5084	.2343	1.8547	.0046

Reliability Coefficients 5 items

Alpha = .7852

Standardized item alpha = .7851

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - SCALE (ALPHA)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
B32A	61.8140	127.4884	.5096	.8821
E44A	61.8605	130.5039	.4233	.8841
E45A	61.9302	126.8760	.5191	.8819
D20A	61.9767	130.2137	.3582	.8852
D16A	62.0233	127.4518	.5092	.8821
D5A	62.2093	125.7409	.5678	.8807
B28A	62.1163	127.5338	.4556	.8832
B22A	61.9070	126.8483	.6185	.8804
D30A	62.0930	130.0864	.3594	.8852
D33A	62.3488	129.9945	.3299	.8860
B43A	62.2558	126.6235	.5203	.8818
B36A	61.8837	129.9147	.3459	.8856
E49A	62.3256	129.3677	.3414	.8859
D3A	62.0698	129.2569	.3835	.8848
B38A	62.2326	126.9446	.5332	.8816
B17A	62.0930	127.9435	.4818	.8827
D9A	62.1628	130.8062	.2952	.8867
C56A	62.0233	127.2137	.4825	.8826
A6A	62.2093	129.2647	.3491	.8857
B15A	62.4419	130.5382	.3564	.8852
C50A	62.0000	127.9524	.4741	.8829
C54A	61.8837	131.8671	.2530	.8875
C59A	61.9535	130.2835	.3349	.8858
A3A	62.2791	125.7774	.5378	.8813
B18A	61.9302	128.3522	.4769	.8829
B13A	61.9767	128.5947	.4733	.8830
A12A	61.9070	131.1340	.3260	.8858
D19A	62.1628	126.5205	.5471	.8813
B20A	62.0698	128.3045	.4353	.8837
A9A	61.9302	132.2093	.3185	.8858

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 43.0

N of Items = 30

Alpha = .8873

CHILDREN'S INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES (CHILLS)

DEVELOPED FOR TURKISH CHILDREN LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Directions for the Instructor:

This strategy inventory is developed for children in order for them and their instructors to learn about their choice of language learning strategies while learning a foreign language. In the following pages there are 30 statements about learning a new language. Please ask your students to read each statement carefully and mark their answers on the boxes next to the statements.

Evet: This indicates that the student always or almost always does or agrees with the behavior indicated in the statement.

Hayır: This option could be selected by the student if s/he never or almost never does or agrees with the behavior indicated in the statement

Bazen: This means that the student agrees with the item half of the time (50%) or it is somewhat true for the student.

Students need to be informed that the answers should be given according to how well a statement describes the person answering. Decisions shouldn't be given according to what seems to be true or what somebody else would say true.

ÇOCUKLAR İÇİN GELİŞTİRİLMİŞ YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ (YÖSE)

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Ad-Soyad:
Doğum yılı:
Cinsiyeti: Kız/Erkek

Okulu ve Şubesi:
İngilizce dersinden en son aldığı karne notu:
İngilizce sınavından aldığı en son not:

Açıklama:

Sevgili öğrenciler,

Yabancı bir dil öğrenirken ne yaparsınız? (Nasıl okuduğunuzu anlamaya çalışırsınız? Yeni sözcükleri nasıl öğrenirsiniz? Dinlediğinizi anlamak için neler yaparsınız? ve bunun gibi). Şimdi okuyacağınız cümlelere bakarak nasıl İngilizce öğrendiğinizi anlayabileceğiz. Eğer ifadelerde belirtilen davranışları yapıyorsanız “Evet” cevabının, ara sıra yapıyorsanız “Bazen” cevabının, yapmıyorsanız “Hayır” cevabının üzerine “X” işareti koyun. Hiçbir ifadeyi boş bırakmayın.

Örnek:

Aşağıdaki maddeyi okuyun ve sizin için doğru olan cevabın üzerine “X” işareti koyun.

İngilizce’mi iletirmek için İngilizce film yada başka programlar izlerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
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Örnek maddeyi cevapladıktan sonra diğerlerine geçebilirsiniz.

A Bölümü			
1. Öğretmenimle, arkadaşlarımla, anne ve babamla İngilizce konuşmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
2. İngilizce bir aktivitede arkadaşım ile çalışırım, notlarımı paylaşıyorum ve bilmediklerimi ona sorarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
3. İngilizce bir şey yazdıktan veya söyledikten sonra öğretmenimden, arkadaşşımdan yada bilen başka birinden yanlışlarımı düzeltmesini isterim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
4. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söylemek için cümle içinde kullanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
5. İngilizce bir şey söylemeden önce defterden, kitaptan v.s konuyla ilgili neler yaptığımıza bakarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
6. İngilizce’mi iletirmek için kendi kendimi sınav yaparım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
7. Okulda işlediğimiz dersi, eski kitap ve defterlerimi, derste aldığım notları, bilmediğim ve yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri okuyarak yada yazarak tekrar ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
8. Konuşma aktivitelerinden önce annemle, babamla yada başka birisiyle prova yaparım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
9. Konuşma aktivitelerinden sonra yanlışlarımı çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
10. Öğrenemediğimi yada eksikliklerim olduğunu düşünürsem aileme yardıma ihtiyacım olduğunu söylerim. Örneğin; özel ders almak istemek gibi.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
B Bölümü			
11. İngilizce’mi iletirmek için daha önceden okuduğum kitapları tekrar okurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

12. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için turistlerle ve başka yabancılarla konuşurken kullanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
13. İngilizce'yi eğlenceli olacak şekilde kullanmaktan hoşlanırım. Örneğin; İngilizce espiriler yapmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
14. İngilizce'mi geliştirmek için başka ders kitapları, İngilizce öğreten CD ve kasetler gibi yardımcı malzemelerle çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
15. İngilizce'mi geliştirmek için test çözerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
16. İngilizce bir şey okurken daha önceden bilmediğim bir dilbilgisi kuralı (gramer, yapı) ile karşılaşsam onu öğrendiğim benzer bir kuralla karşılaştırıp tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
17. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan ve dinlemeden önce o konuyla ilgili okurum, üniteyi tekrarlarım, benzer bir paragraf okurum, örnek bulmaya çalışırım, müsvedde hazırlarım veya o konuyla ilgili cümleler kurarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
18. Konuşurken bilmediğim kelimelerin yerine aynı anlama gelebilecek bir kelime uydururum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
C Bölümü			
19. Türkçe'de ve İngilizce'deki kelimelerin söylenişleri birbirine benzeterek aklımda tutmaya çalışırım. Örneğin; snake (yılan) ve sinek gibi.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
20. İngilizce'sini bilmediğim kelimeleri, canlandırma aktivitelerinden sonra aklımda kalanları ve arkadaşlarımla sorularını defterime not ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
21. İngilizce konuşurken anlatmakta güçlük çektiğim durumlarda el-kol hareketleriyle anlatmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
22. Yazarken yada konuşurken bilmediğim bir kelimeyi onun resmini çizerek anlatmaya çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
23. Konuşurken İngilizce'sini bilmediğim bir kelimenin yerine onun Türkçe'sini söylerim ve İngilizce konuşmaya devam ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
24. Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi düzgün söyleyebilmek için yaza yaza çalışırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
25. İngilizce yazarken ve okurken anlamamı ve yazmamı kolaylaştırması için Türkçe'ye benzeyen kelimelerden yararlanırım. Örneğin; radio, television, leopard, chimpanzee.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
D Bölümü			
26. İngilizce bir cümleyi yada metni anlamama, yazmama, dinlememe yada söylememe yardımcı olabilmesi için sözlükten, kitabımdan, defterimden veya varsa İngilizce öğreten CD ve kasetlerimden yararlanırım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
27. Yeni bir kelimeyi onu gördüğüm sayfadaki yeriyle hatırlarım.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
28. İlk kez okuduğum yada dinlediğim İngilizce bir parçayı tekrar okurum ve dinlerim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
29. İngilizce bir şey yazmadan önce kullanacağım kelimeleri ve kalıpları belirlerim ve kitap ve defterimden bulurum.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır
30. Yeni öğrendiklerimi düzenli aralıklarla tekrar ederim.	Evet	Bazen	Hayır

Puanlama

Önce her bölüm için ayrı ayrı puanlar hesaplanır sonra toplam puanı bulmak için her bölümden elde edilen puan birbiriyle toplanır. Her “evet” seçeneğine “2”, her “bazen” seçeneğine “1” ve “hayır” seçeneğine “0” puan vererek her bölümden elde edilen puanlar hesaplanır. Çıkan sonuç ilgili strateji grubuna ilişkin strateji kullanımınızı gösterir. Bölüm puanlarının toplamı ise toplam strateji kullanımını gösterir. Puanlamayı yapmak için aşağıdaki cetveli kullanın.

A Bölümü

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Toplam: _____

B Bölümü

11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____
17. _____
18. _____

Toplam: _____

C Bölümü

19. _____
20. _____
21. _____
22. _____
23. _____
24. _____
25. _____

Toplam: _____

D Bölümü

26. _____
27. _____
28. _____
29. _____
30. _____

Toplam: _____

Genel Toplam: _____

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