



T.C.
AKDENİZ UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT

MA
THESIS

**THE MOST PREFERRED LANGUAGE LEARNING
STRATEGIES OF BILINGUAL AND MONOLINGUAL
STUDENTS**

Esra KAHRAMAN

**ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
MASTER'S PROGRAM**

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T.C.
AKDENİZ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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ABSTRACT

THE MOST PREFERRED LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES OF BILINGUAL AND MONOLINGUAL STUDENTS

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The current study intends to investigate the most preferred language learning strategies of bilingual and monolingual students. It intends to find out the difference between their LLS use. This study also aims to find out their strategy use in terms of gender, grade level, father's and mother's educational level. Lastly, it sheds light on the reasons of students' most preferred language learning strategies. Besides, this research was carried out as a mixed method study on two campuses of a private secondary school based in Antalya. This study analyzed the data gathered through three stages. Firstly, the adapted version of SILL (Oxford, 1990) was used. The data were collected through the inventory adapted by Cesur and Fer (2007), which was applied to 150 students. At the same time, semi-structured interviews were conducted separately with both students (10 students) and their teachers. 150 secondary-school students (71 female, 79 male) from the 6th, 7th and 8th grades were the participants of this study. Out of 150 students, 91 are monolingual and 59 are bilingual. In addition to student interviews, semi-structured interviews were conducted with five English teachers from that secondary school. The aim was to gain an insight into their teaching approaches and their students' LLS use. The adapted version of Oxford's (1990) inventory created by Cesur and Fer (2007) was given to the students. Furthermore, in order to gain a deeper understanding and confirmation about their strategy use, some semi-structured interview questions were asked related to the inventory. For this qualitative study, 10 students were chosen randomly and surprisingly, the numbers of bilingual (5) and monolingual (5) participants were equal. The quantitative and the qualitative studies aimed to present a connection between the findings and provide a direct comparison. The adapted version of Oxford's (1990) inventory contains 50 items under six subscales. For the analysis of the quantitative data, the descriptive statistics with the SPSS was used, and the qualitative data were analyzed through the content analysis. The results of this current study asserted that there was a significant difference

between bilingual and monolingual students' language learning strategies. Moreover, the results of quantitative analysis showed that bilingual students use cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies significantly more than monolingual students. In terms of gender, female students use more compensation strategies than male students. Furthermore, in respect of grade level, a significant difference was found in the use of affective strategies. To investigate the source of this result, Tukey test was applied. The Tukey test results showed a difference between eighth and sixth grade students' LLS use. The research also revealed that their mothers' educational level affects their LLS use. There was a significant difference between students' use of compensation strategies in terms of mothers' educational level. To find out the source of this result, the Tukey test was applied. The Tukey test results showed a different score among students whose mothers graduated from primary school / secondary school and high school and students whose mothers graduated from a college/university and mothers who are postgraduates. However, there was not any significant difference about students' LLS use in terms of their fathers' educational level.

Keywords: *Language learning, language learning strategy use, monolingualism, bilingualism, bilingual education.*

ÖZET

ÇİFT DİLLİ VE TEK DİLLİ ÖĞRENCİLERİN EN ÇOK TERCİH ETTİKLERİ DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ

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Bu çalışma, çift dilli ve tek dilli öğrencilerin en çok tercih ettikleri dil öğrenme stratejilerini araştırmayı hedeflemektedir. Dil öğrenme stratejileri kullanımındaki farklılıkları bulmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bundan başka, öğrencilerin strateji kullanımlarının da cinsiyet, sınıf düzeyi, baba eğitim düzeyi ve anne eğitim düzeyi açısından incelenmektedir. Bu çalışma için karma yöntem seçilmiştir ve çalışma Antalya’da bulunan özel bir okulun iki kampüsünde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ayrıca, veriler üç aşamada elde edilmiştir. Birincisi, Oxford (1990) tarafından geliştirilen Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanterinin (SILL) Türkçeye uyarlanmış versiyonu kullanılmıştır. Cesur ve Fer (2007) tarafından uyarlanan envanter 150 öğrenciye uygulanmıştır ve nicel araştırmanın verileri toplanmıştır. Bu esnada hem öğrenciler (10) hem de öğretmenleriyle yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu çalışmaya altıncı, yedinci ve sekizinci sınıflardan 150 (71 kız, 79 erkek) ortaokul öğrencisi katılmıştır. 150 öğrenciden 91’i tek dilli ve 59’u çift dillidir. Öğrenciler ile gerçekleştirilen yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmelere ek olarak ortaokuldan beş İngilizce öğretmeniyle de yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Bunun nedeni öğretmenlerin öğretim yöntemlerini ve öğrencilerinin dil öğrenme stratejilerini derinlemesine anlamaktır. Oxford (1990) tarafından geliştirilen ve Cesur ve Fer (2007) tarafından Türkçeye uyarlanan Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri öğrencilere uygulanmıştır ve öğrencilerin strateji kullanımlarını daha derin anlamak amacıyla yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Bu envanter altı alt başlıktan olmak üzere toplamda 50 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Nitel araştırmaya rastgele seçilmiş 10 öğrenci katılmıştır ve şaşırtıcı bir şekilde çift dilli (5) ve tek dilli (5) katılımcı sayısı birbirine eşittir. Nicel ve nitel araştırmalar ile bulgular arasında bir bağlantı bulmak ve direkt karşılaştırmalar sağlamak hedeflenmiştir. Nicel veriler SPSS programı aracılığıyla betimleyici istatistik yöntemi ile nitel veriler ise içerik analizi yöntemi ile analiz edilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, çift dilli ve tek dilli öğrencilerin tercih ettikleri dil öğrenme stratejileri arasında fark olduğunu

tespit etmiştir. Ayrıca, nicel araştırmanın sonuçları çift dilli öğrencilerin tek dilli öğrencilere göre daha fazla bilişsel, üst bilişsel ve sosyal stratejiler kullandıklarını göstermiştir. Cinsiyet açısından araştırıldığında, kız öğrencilerin erkek öğrencilere göre telafi stratejilerini daha fazla kullandıkları belirlenmiştir. Sınıf düzeyi bakımından duyuşsal stratejilerde farklılık olduğu görülmüştür. Farklılığın kaynağını tespit etmek için Tukey test uygulanmış ve sekizinci ve altıncı sınıflar arasında bir fark olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca Araştırma'da öğrencilerin strateji kullanımının anne eğitim seviyesine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı belirlenmiştir. Anne eğitim düzeyi ve telafi stratejisi kullanımı arasında anlamlı bir fark olduğu görülmüştür. Farklılığın kaynağını tespit edebilmek için Tukey testi uygulanmış ve test sonuçlarına göre ilkokul/ortaokul mezunu ve lise mezunu annelerin çocukları ile yüksekokul/üniversite mezunu ile lisansüstü mezun annelerin çocuklarının puanlarının farklılaştığı belirlenmiştir. Sonuç olarak, yüksekokul/üniversite mezunu annelerin çocuklarının ve lisansüstü mezuniyeti olan annelerin çocuklarının telafi stratejilerini ilkokul/ortaokul mezunu ve lise mezunu annelerin çocuklarından daha fazla kullandıkları bulunmuştur. Bununla birlikte öğrencilerin strateji kullanımlarının baba eğitim düzeyine göre anlamlı şekilde farklılaşmadığı belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Dil öğrenimi, dil öğrenme stratejileri, tek dillilik, çift dillilik, ikidilli eğitim.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

%	: Percent
\bar{X}	: Mean
ANOVA	: Analysis of Variance
DÖSE	: Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ESL	: English as a Second Language
FL	: Foreign Language
L1	: First Language / Mother Tongue
L2	: Second language / Foreign Language
LLS	: Language Learning Strategies
M	: Mean
SILL	: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
SPSS	: The Statistical Package for the Social Science

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Communication is one of the important necessities of human beings. Nothing is possible without communication. Human beings use languages as a communication tool. “Language separates us from animals and makes us human” (Nishanthi, 2018, p.871). Without sufficient and qualified language skills, people won’t understand each other properly. When people are not proficient in terms of language use, it is possible to misunderstand each other which might cause a large extent of complications.

Nowadays, people are urged to acquire the worldwide used languages such as the most important and popular language, the English language. Initially, the English language was England’s language but afterwards, it became the first or second language of United States, Canada, Australia, Sri Lanka and India etc. This phenomenon happened due to the countless former colonies of England (Nishanthi, 2018). A wide range of the world population from lots of countries speak the English language as their mother tongue (Kedia & Reddy, 2016). It is the most used language in countries which are influenced by the British imperialism as well as in their fields of business and culture. If one knows English, he or she can have a better life. For instance, human beings are interested in learning the English language because in today’s global world, it is a crucial language in all diverse sectors such as medicine, engineering and education. In fact, nearly 1 billion of the world population speak English as well as 67 countries’ official language is the English language (Nishanthi, 2018). However, two things are important in order to learn English: firstly, patience and secondly, continual practice. During my teaching experience of three years as an English Language Teacher at two different private schools, I came across many questions from my parents and students about learning the English language. They asked how they can make their English better. Further, most of them were curious about the following questions: “How did you learn English? What should I do to improve my English?”. It is difficult to find the correct answers to these questions because of the fact that each human – being has different and unique way(s) of learning new information. After encountering such questions, the topic about ‘Language Learning Strategies’ aroused my interest. Indeed, I desired to make learners aware of their strategies.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

A wide range of studies have been conducted involving English language learning and the ways that are used during this process. Especially, some studies have focused on language acquisition methodologies. Although there are lots of researches based on strategy use of learners, there have not been many researches based on this framework about monolingual and bilingual secondary-school students' strategy use in Turkey. By virtue of this, it was necessary to investigate and gain a deep insight involving the differences between those learners. Apart from this, there have not been many researches about teachers' viewpoints involving their students' LLS use. It is also important to gather some information from the learners' instructors to gain a deep understanding and confirmation about the findings. There seems to be a need for a study to investigate the reasons behind it.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

This thesis presents a study of monolingual and bilingual pupils' LLS use while learning the English language in secondary school, using the adapted version (Cesur & Fer, 2007) of Oxford's (1990) SILL for language learning and the language learning methodologies which were categorized by her. In addition to the inventory, semi-structured interviews have been done to acquire insight into the students' strategy utilization and to confirm the quantitative study's findings. The current study also aimed to examine the students' LLS use from their English teachers' points of view.

1.4. Scope of the Study

The limitation and population of the present research will be discussed in this section. In the proposed study, the main data were collected through the quantitative instrument, which was the adapted version 7.0 (Cesur & Fer, 2007) of the SILL (Oxford, 1990) and the qualitative instrument, which was the semi-structured interview. The 7.0 version of the SILL was chosen because it is translated from English into Turkish, which is the official and school language of Turkey and its reliability and validity were significantly confirmed. Furthermore, the Turkish version was used to ensure that the students fully comprehend the inventory items.

The population of this study include monolingual and bilingual secondary-school students of 6th, 7th and 8th grades during the academic year of 2020-2021. The research was

conducted on two campuses of a private school located in Antalya. At the beginning, the researcher adapted the Turkish version of SILL into an online inventory on Google Forms because of the Covid-19 pandemic. The students of 6th grades and 7th grades could not come to school because of the restrictions. Therefore, the inventory was administered online to 150 participants (71 female and 79 male students). All of the participants were volunteers. On the other hand, this study has some limitations in terms of the school type because not all the schools have both monolingual and bilingual students. This particular school was chosen because in Antalya, it is one of the schools which have a high number of bilingual students.

To gain a deeper understanding and confirmation about the responses of students, five English teachers took part voluntarily in the semi-structured interview sessions. Only the English teachers of 6th, 7th and 8th grades at the selected private school were chosen and interviewed.

1.5. Significance of the Study

There have been numerous researches conducted to determine the variations in LLS used by monolingual and bilingual students during their English learning process. Therefore, the focus on LLS use of monolingual and bilingual students is not a new subject in the framework of language learning. Additionally, not many studies have been conducted to show the differences between monolingual and bilingual students LLS preferences in Turkey. In this point, it is necessary to gain an insight into students' strategy use and the reasons why they prefer them, and this can be confirmed when their teachers also state their points of view about the students' LLS use. Because of this, the present study aims to show and confirm the data gathered from students by taking their teachers' viewpoints into consideration. As a result, researchers interested in this topic can profit from the current research and undertake additional studies on monolingual and bilingual language learning.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The review of the literature of the current study will be presented in this section. Firstly, the issues about monolingualism, bilingualism and language learning strategies will be explained based on the literature. The present study sets out to investigate monolingual and bilingual EFL students' language learning strategies. It also intends to develop our current knowledge in the field of LLS use of bilingual and monolingual students. Moreover, the intention of this study is to add to our understanding the relationship between the use of the strategies and bilingualism and monolingualism. In this section, the previously mentioned issues, relevant studies, some classifications of LLS by a few researchers will be presented.

2.2. Monolingualism

The term “monolingualism” is seldomly mentioned in academic issues. The reason is that this expression might be believed to be normal in terms of linguistic aspects, so it might be seen as an unremarkable term (Pavlenko, 2000; Romaine, 1995).

The general definition of Monolingualism is the following: being able to speak only one language (Macquarie Dictionary). According to Crystal (1987), it is the “said of a person/community with only one language, also unilingual” (p. 425). However, Richards' and Schmidt's (2002) definition claims that a person can be seen as a monolingual even though s/he doesn't use other languages actively. Besides, a monolingual person is limited to use only one linguistic code in order to communicate socially. Further, Ellis (2006) points out that bilingualism became popular in the field of linguistic theories. However, monolingualism shouldn't be invisible.

2.3. Bilingualism

We not only use languages to express our feelings and ideas, we also use them to socialize and share our cultural identity and know what is happening in the world (Marian and Shook, 2012). People who are fluent in speaking two languages, are called ‘bilinguals’ and the ones who are fluent in more than two languages are called ‘multilinguals’.

Indeed, most of the world population are bilingual (Marian & Shook, 2012; Ansaldo et al., 2008; Abutalebi & Green, 2008). Nowadays, regarding to the facts mentioned above, the term ‘bilingualism’ became popular. In fact, the word ‘bilingualism’ is based on the Latin word ‘bi’ an ‘lingualism’. Bilingualism is the ability of commanding two languages or applying two languages in everyday life which might be a result of the speed up of global movements and emigration of human beings (Elçin, 2014).

2.3.1. Definitions of Bilingualism

Several linguistic scientists describe the term ‘bilingualism’ with different types of definitions. Multiple elements influence the concept of bilingualism, including the age of second language acquisition, exposure to the first language (L1) on a regular basis, relative ability in each language, and the conditions under which each language is learned (Gottardo & Grant, 2008). Mostly, its definition depends on two concepts of language knowledge classification – whether one has learned two languages or not (Brutt-Griffler & Varghese, 2004). From a broad overview, Wada (1999) identifies bilingualism considering the competence and function.

2.3.1.1. Bilingualism in terms of Competence

Bilingualism in terms of competence refers to one’s language control (Wada, 1999). Two linguists’ most popular definitions are written below:

1. Bloomfield (1933): Control of two languages in a native-like way
2. Haugen (1953): A speaker of one language who is capable of producing fully meaningful utterances in another language.

Unfortunately, it is very often the inherent semantics some people and even some scientists bear in mind, when they talk about bilingualism. In general, bilingualism is described as integrating a developmental view, putting the entire process of learning a second language into the domain of bilingualism (Hakuta, 1986). Briefly, any more skill of L2 and additionally L1 during the learning period refers to bilingualism. As claimed by Marha & Yashiro in (1991), Haugen's (1953) description might be the basic principle of being labelled as bilingual (as “Hello! How are you?” might be a “meaningful utterance”). He describes bilingualism by more lenient definitions than other scholars. According to Hall (1952), knowing some information and having some system and structure knowledge of a second language are fulfilled criteria for being counted as a bilingual individual. In contrast to Hall’s (1952) and Haugen’s (1953) definitions, Bloomfield’s (1933) “native like control” definition

of being bilingual has been criticized by some scholars. Some factors such as individual's age, gender, education and social position should be regarded in order to put a person in the category (Wada, 2006). It wouldn't be easy to decide about someone's "native-like" competence even though s/he can control two languages expertly (Azuma, 2000). A good and purposive behavior using complex and mental processes and cognitive abilities (executive control skills) is related to the amount of a balanced use and a balanced level of competence in two languages (Yow & Li, 2015).

However, being equivalently talented in two languages in each circumstance is a rare case (Fishman, 1971; Hakuta, 1986; Azuma, 2000). Further, three terms are used to describe one who has completely equal mastery of two languages: Firstly, 'equilingual' (Baker, 2001); secondly, 'ambilingual' (Halliday, Macintosh & Strevens, 1964); thirdly and most commonly, 'a balanced bilingual' (Baker, 2001). The three terms are usually used to describe someone who is fluent in two languages in diverse circumstances. Further, it is almost difficult to identify the necessary language in a certain setting, which is named as an 'ambilingual area'. Luxembourg, with multiple heritages is one of the small ambilingual regions. It has a combination of Franco-Germanic heritage (Herrman, 2009). Some scholars also claimed that 'true' ambilingualism is infrequent. Third and most commonly term called 'balanced bilingual' refers to a "balanced usage of and balanced proficiency in two languages" (Yow & Li, 2015, p.1).

2.3.1.2. Bilingualism in terms of Function

Aforementioned, bilingualism was mainly defined in terms of competence in the past. Indeed, later researchers started to discuss more about the functions of languages. It was not considered until the 1950s. The 'purity' in language rules and the standards of bilingualists were not considered before (Wada, 1999). The definitions involving the functions of languages are quite close to each other. One of them was formed by one scholar: The simultaneous use of two or more languages by the same person (Mackey, 1970). Further, according to Oksaar (1971), it is also required to have automatic code-switching ability for being defined as bilingual. To sum up, the bilingualism related to function is not a language fact but it is a typical quality of its use. It is not a linguistic issue, but rather a parole issue (Mackey, 1970).

2.3.2. Different Categories of Bilingualism

Three categories of bilingualism are identified by Skutnabb-Kangas (1981): natural bilingualism, school bilingualism, and cultural bilingualism. First of all, the term natural bilingual refers someone who has learnt two languages without formal education and uses them as a way of communication in their daily lives. In fact, the person who is natural bilingual may naturally gather utterances at home or externally which means that the society's language is dissimilar to the family's language (Wada, 1999).

Secondly, the learner might learn a foreign language at school, which is called school bilingualism. However, s/he might not make use of language as a communication tool by virtue of limited possibilities. Another type of bilingualism which is similar to school bilingualism involves people who need the language for working, travelling and suchlike reasons. Further reason might be the goal of becoming an "educated person" who has a mastery of the most preferred European languages termed as "languages of culture" (Wada, 1999). This kind of bilingualism might not be essential but it can provide people to communicate with natives of the languages. Malmberg (1977) claims the following definition: "A bilingual is an individual who, in addition to his mother tongue, has acquired from childhood onwards or from an early age a second language by natural means (in principle not by formal instruction), so that he has become a fully competent member of the other linguistic community within the sphere, the occupational or social group, to which he naturally belongs" (Malmberg, 1977, p.134-135). The researcher also adds that second language knowledge can't be acquired in a way that takes considerable time and effort.

2.3.3. Bilingual Education

Bilingual education is a framework which contains an education in two languages (a common language and a language of a small group of a population). In times past, the UK policy disregarded the practice and provision for bilingual children. However, there seems to be a reform made by the policy initiatives which focuses on children learning English as an additional language (Drury, 2007). The researchers such as Cummins (2000), Cenoz (2012), Lasagabaster (1998), Genesee and Gandara (1999) support the idea of bilingual education. They claimed that it helps to develop one's language competence. Further, this phenomenon might influence the society positively, help in the field of occupation and enhance students' success in the field of education. In addition to the positive aspects, bilingual education might develop a peaceful environment among societies, provide equal chances for students and help to "resolve social conflicts among ethnic groups and benefiting students from ethnic

minorities” (Wada, 1999, p.175). However, this kind of education doesn’t accept the education which excludes bilingual teaching. Those programs which only provide instructions in the major language, disregard learners’ native language (May, 2016). As claimed by Drury (2007), bilingual childrens’ specific stage of development begins in the kindergarten while getting educated formally and switching from home to school instantly. This switching has two important elements: Firstly, the requirement of switching from the mother tongue to the school language – English and secondly, the switch from home to school socialisation (Drury, 2007). A bilingual education should contain two languages as a medium of instruction, so there might be a submitted curriculum content. As two experts conclude: If there is a relevant line to draw, bilingual education begins when more than one language is utilized to teach content (e.g., Science, Mathematics, Social Sciences, or Humanities) rather than being taught as a separate subject (Baker & Prys-Jones, 1998). The supporters (e.g., Fillmore, 1991) of first – language teaching for learners who have a different mother tongue than English speakers, point out the significance and the need of first language progress for their following academic achievement (in terms of literacy and educational success). It is also worrisome for these supporters that the possible loss of young children’s first language might become fact without their qualified first language development during their period of early childhood. Further, they emphasize that young learners may acquire their first language before a second language in the pre – school (Tabors, 2008). Besides, according to the *Curriculum Guidance for the Foundation Stage* (2000), all children should be included in education in spite of different ethnicity, culture, religion, mother tongue, social and racial origins, special educational needs, handicap, gender or talent. It accepts children with all diverse differences and contains certain categories such as “meeting the diverse needs of children” and “children with English as an additional language”(Drury, 2007, p.95). The key factors of a highly motivated and active learning during the early stage of English learning are the following elements: “Developing home school understandings”, “making the rules and routines explicit”, “supporting mother tongue development”, “providing opportunities for one-to-one interaction with adults”, “providing opportunities for language learning in teacher-led small group work”, “seeking ways of supporting social interaction” (Drury, 2007, p.102-105).

2.3.3.1. Importance and Beneficiary of Bilingual Education

Students will be provided with knowledge and literacy when schools support their first language development properly. As stated by Drury (2007), the late recognition of young

bilingual children's learning in the nursery may affect their educational progress. In terms of the nursery education, the predetermined education structure designed by early years policy and practice with regards to the structure of sessions, the content of learning and the resources provided by nursery educators may be ineffective for young bilingual children. Besides, "the lack of training and guidance for early year staff working with young children learning English as an additional language has at least been recognised" (Drury, 2007, p.94). Further, students' English comprehension in terms of reading and listening will be better after being taught in their first language. Hence, students' knowledge developed in their native language can help them to transfer to the second language. The reason is simple: Because we learn to read by reading that is, by making sense of what is on the page (Smith, 1994), it is easier to learn to read in a language we understand. Once we can read in one language, we can read in general (Krashen, 1996). This approach is promoted by some studies which have shown the effectiveness of students' first language – usage. When children use their mother tongue, their switch to school language can be supported, as well as their interpersonal relations and learning experiences can be improved (Chang et al., 2007).

According to Rossell and Baker (1996), the bilingual education might be more qualitative than all English programs. Further, the effectiveness of bilingual education was proved by a large amount of studies. Those studies state that the learners in well-designed programs acquired at least and showed even better results than learners in all-English programs (Cummins, 1989; Krashen, 1996; Willig, 1985). Willig concluded that the better the experimental design of the study, the more positive were the effects of bilingual education.

In fact, a number of researchers (see reviews in Baker, 2001; Cummins, 2000; Dutcher, 1995) argue that bilingual programs provide a number of benefits in terms of pedagogy. First of all, the content area instruction (math, for example) in a language can be provided. Therefore, learners will understand, and their learning won't be put off till later time until they learn the L2. The education programs which focus on teaching in L1 promote the natural interaction among teachers and students and the negotiation of meanings together. Thus, they enhance both the learning process and affective considerations (Baker, 2001, p.238). In fact, educators might have the chance to follow the learning process of their students and both teachers and students can speak a language they understand. This may have real benefits for students from marginalized groups and especially for girls, who have been discriminated against in a variety of ways in traditional classrooms (Benson, 2002).

"Another pedagogical advantage of bilingual programs is that they use the L1 to teach beginning reading and writing, which facilitates understanding both of sound-symbol

correspondence, at least in the case of phonetic languages, and of the connection between spoken and written communication” (Benson, 2002, p.4).

A further advantage of bilingual programs is the teaching of a second language in an explicit way. Krashen (1999) and Swain (1993) claim that a new language is learned in the best manner by the learners after an early focus on oral communication skills in the second language. It is widely discussed that students who have basic language skills in the second language, can begin reading and writing the L2 by transmitting their skills they have learned through the mother tongue (see reviews in Baker, 2001; Cummins, 2000).

2.4. Language Learning Strategies

“Although provision for all the children was broadly the same and the nursery environment was viewed as a good context for learning English”, a study showed that the early years policy and practice was insufficient to provide bilingual children’s requirements. In fact, L2 learners have to study properly in order to become fluent in speaking English. Hard studying, repeatedly deep practice and strategy usage are necessary aspects of the learning process.

In 1960, it was the first time when researchers started to explore language learning strategies (Hişmanoğlu, 2000). Further, plentiful studies concerning language learning strategies were affected by the evolution of cognitive psychology (Williams and Burden, 1997). Primarily, most of the studies have investigated the strategies used by good second or foreign language learners or some of them have observed learners during the while – phase of learning a second or foreign language (Rubin and Wenden, 1987, p.19).

In 1966, the first attempt on learner strategies was made by Carton who published his study entitled *The Method of Inference in Foreign Language Study*. “After Carton, in 1971, Rubin started doing research focussing on the strategies of successful learners and stated that, once identified, such strategies could be made available to less successful learners” (Mayew, 2007, p.7). Rubin (1975) classified strategies in terms of processes contributing directly or indirectly to language learning. Many scholars investigated the ways of language learning which were used by learners during their language learning period (Fillmore, 1976, Tarone, 1977, Naiman et al., 1978, Bialystok, 1979, Cohen and Aphek, 1981, Wenden, 1981, Politzer and McGroarty, 1985, Chamot and O'Malley, 1987).

In particular, a learning strategy which is a technique or tool helps learners to understand a specific context and develop their knowledge and skills (Oxford, 1990). Cohen

(1998) mentioned that strategies aim to promote learners' ideas and attitudes. These learning tactics are chosen consciously by the learners.

Further, it is claimed that a successful early education depends on children's planning of their own learning strategies (Drury, 2007, p.97). According to Oxford (1990), learning strategies are the ways decided by the learners for making the information understandable and for forming more pleasing and simpler learning methods. Learning strategies are purposeful attitudes and views used by learners while studying in furtherance of better understanding, learning and recalling new knowledge (Richards et al., 1992; Zare, 2012). When students start to recognize something, they have the ability to respond appropriately to the learning setting and manage their learning. Learners employ learning strategies in order to gain a better understanding of a subject (Lee, 2010). The knowledge which students have about their own learning ways will give them the only opportunity to reveal their own methods for learning (Chamot, 2004).

There are some definitions made by many researchers and one of them is "... any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (Wenden and Rubin, 1987, p.19). Faerch and Kasper (1983, p. 67) defines LLS as the process of establishing linguistic and sociolinguistic proficiency in the target language. Every learning process aims to fulfil its main purpose and for this reason, learners need to adjust a manner or a strategy (Hardan, 2013). One of the most important parts of this process are the action and the way of applying it (Hardan, 2013). The definition of language learning strategies is described by several scholars, among them Brown (1980) emphasized that learning strategies regarded as processes may be partly responsible for learning. While being in a language learning process, learners are required with diverse strategies. However, not all of them are beneficial for them (Hardan, 2013).

Many studies related to language learning have aimed to enlighten various approaches, techniques, and methods that can help to learn foreign languages more successfully. In particular, language learners who experience difficulties or failures in learning may have them because of insufficient methodological or pedagogical practices. Some difficulties or failures might occur as a result of students' prior knowledge gaps, cultural adaptation problems, insufficient manipulation of learning styles and strategies, personal traits, study habits, problematic classroom setting (lacking safe and bias-free learning environment), insufficient teaching and learning materials, etc. (Souriyavongsa, T. et al., 2013).

2.4.1. The Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Although language learning strategies are almost classified unvaryingly, many scholars have categorized them.

The research studies related to language learning strategies were greatly affected by the development in cognitive psychology (Williams and Burden, 1997). Mostly in research studies, the focus has been on the preferred language learning strategies of good second or foreign language learners.

The taxonomies of language learning strategies will be shown in the following parts:

2.4.1.1. O'Malley and Chamot's Classification of Language Learning Strategies

As stated by O'Malley and Chamot in 1990, language learning strategies are categorized into the following groups: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/ affective strategies. These scholars identify metacognitive strategies as skills involving planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity. Further, cognitive strategies are defined as tasks learners use to obtain, store, retrieve, and use language information. "The last, socio-affective strategies are defined as activities that involve either interaction with another person or ideational control over affectation" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, as cited in Ghufron, 2018, p. 188-189).

Table 2.1. O'Malley & Chamot's Classification of Language Learning Strategies

<i>Generic strategy classification</i>	<i>Representative strategies</i>	<i>Definitions</i>
Metacognitive strategies	Selective attention	Focusing on special aspects of learning tasks, as in planning to listen for key words or phrases.
	Planning	Planning for the organization of either written or spoken discourse.
	Monitoring	Reviewing attention to a task, comprehension of information that should be remembered, or production while it is occurring.
Cognitive strategies	Evaluation	Checking comprehension after completion of a receptive language activity, or evaluating language production after it has taken place.
	Rehearsal	Repeating the names of items or objects to be remembered.
	Organization	Grouping and classifying words, terminology, or concepts according to their semantic or syntactic attributes.
	Inferencing	Using information in text to guess meanings of new linguistic items, predict outcomes, or complete missing parts.
	Summarizing	Intermittently synthesizing what one has heard to ensure the information has been retained.
	Deducing	Applying rules to the understanding of language.
	Imagery	Using visual images (either generated or actual) to understand and remember new verbal information.
Social/affective strategies	Transfer	Using known linguistic information to facilitate a new learning task.
	Elaboration	Linking ideas contained in new information, or integrating new ideas with known information.
	Cooperation	Working with peers to solve a problem, pool information, check notes, or get feedback on a learning activity.
	Questioning for clarification	Eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanation, rephrasing, or examples.
	Self-talk	Using mental redirection of thinking to assure oneself that a learning activity will be successful or to reduce anxiety about a task.

Source: J. Michael O'Malley – Anna Uhl Chamot, *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990, p. 46.

2.4.1.1.1. Metacognitive Strategies

O'Malley et al. (1985) define the functions of metacognitive strategies as making plans for learning, thinking about the learning period, noticing of one's development or understanding, self-correcting and self-evaluating. The most important functions of metacognitive strategies are "advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, functional planning, self-monitoring, delayed production, and self-evaluation are included among the major metacognitive strategies" (O'Malley et al., 1985, as cited in Zare, 2012, p. 164).

2.4.1.1.2. Cognitive Strategies

Brown (2007) identifies cognitive strategies as limited and explicit functions which are related to direct managing of the learning resources itself (p.134). "Repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, and inferencing are among the most important cognitive strategies" (O'Malley et al., 1985, as cited in Zare, 2012, p. 164).

2.4.1.1.3. Socioaffective Strategies

These strategies are associated with social-mediating activity and communicating interacting with others. The major functions of these strategies involve teamwork and question for understanding (Brown, 2007).

2.4.1.2. Rubin's (1987) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Rubin (1987), who investigated greatly in researches involving language learning strategies, distinguishes between direct strategies and indirect strategies. Metacognitive and cognitive strategies belong to direct strategies and communicative and social strategies belong to indirect strategies. However, there are three strategies which guide learners either directly or indirectly to language learning:

- Learning Strategies
- Communication Strategies
- Social Strategies

2.4.1.2.1. Learning Strategies

Learning strategies involve directly in the learning process formed by the learner. As mentioned before, these strategies contain two main types (Cognitive Learning Strategies and Metacognitive Learning Strategies. Rubin (1987) defines cognitive strategies as functions which are related to learning or problem-solving. These functions help learners to analyse directly, transform or synthesize the learning contents. According to Rubin (1987), there are six main strategies which directly promote the language learning:

- Clarification / Verification,
- Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
- Deductive Reasoning
- Practice
- Memorization
- Monitoring

Metacognitive strategies help learners to guide, control or self-rule their language learning. These strategies include the following functions:

- Planning
- Prioritizing
- Setting goals
- Self-management

2.4.1.2.2. Communication Strategies

Communication strategies have a minor and direct relationship to language learning. However, their focus is on the communication period in terms of conversation and acquiring the content or explaining one's intention. Speakers benefit from communication strategies when they get into trouble while communicating or while being misunderstood by the co-speaker (Rubin, 1987).

2.4.1.2.3. Social Strategies

Social strategies provide learners possibilities in order to make them exposed to and practice the contents they've learned. As clarified by Rubin and Wenden (1987), these strategies help to make the learners exposed to the target language but they don't help directly to obtain, store, retrieve and use the language.

2.4.1.3. Oxford's (1990) Classification of Language Learning Strategies

According to Oxford (1990), language learning strategies are categorized into two main types: direct and indirect. These two types have been separated into six groups.

2.4.1.3.1. Memory Strategies

The learners who prefer direct strategies use the following actions: estimating meaning of the target language and producing sentences using the target language, etc. These methods are based on mental functions of the language such as memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies. Memory-related strategies provide learners the connection between a second language item or concept and another without any required deep knowledge. However, L2 competence might not have any positive concern with memory-related strategies. Indeed, learner's test competence in terms of grammar and vocabulary was affected negatively by the use of memory strategies in a test-taking situation (Purpura, 1997). This situation might be caused by the memory strategies which refer to vocabulary memorization and structures in the first stages of studying language. However, when learners own a large storage of vocabulary and structures, they might not require such strategies (Oxford, 2001). These strategies include four functions:

1. Creating mental linkages
2. Applying images and sounds
3. Reviewing well
4. Employing action

Table 2.2. Oxford's (1990) Memory Strategies

Category	Strategy	Examples
	Applying images and sounds	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Using imagery ➤ Semantic mapping ➤ Using keywords ➤ Representing sounds in memory
Memory Strategies	Creating mental linkages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grouping • Associating/elaborating • Placing new words into a context
	Reviewing well	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Structure viewing
	Employing Action	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Using physical response or sensation ▪ Using mechanical techniques

Source: Dilek Ateş, "A Longitudinal Study of Language learning Strategy Use by Prep Year EFL Students", Unpublished MA Thesis Pamukkale University, Turkey, 2019, p. 23.

2.4.1.3.2. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies include conscious tactics for conducting the target language. These strategies have four functions:

1. Practicing
2. Receiving and sending messages
3. Analyzing and reasoning
4. Creating structure for input and output

As Oxford and Burry-Stock stated “cognitive strategies process the greatest variety of items covering strategies related to practice and to the all-important ‘deep processing’ in which the learners analyze, synthesize and transform new information” (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995, p. 5). According to Oxford (1990), those strategies enable the learner to facilitate the process of language input and output. The learners can generate messages in the target language. Furthermore, a variety of studies showed that selecting and applying certain cognitive strategies improves learners’ educational success (Anderson, 1991; Chamot, 2004; Oxford, 2001; Zhang, 2002).

Table 2.3. Oxford's Cognitive Strategies

Category	Strategy	Examples
Cognitive Strategies	Practicing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Repeating ➤ Formally practicing with sounds and writing systems ➤ Recognizing and using formulas and patterns ➤ Recombining ➤ Practicing naturalistically
	Receiving and sending messages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Getting the idea quickly • Using resources for receiving and sending messages
	Analyzing and reasoning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Reasoning deductively ➤ Analyzing expressions ➤ Analyzing contrastively ➤ Translating ➤ Transferring
	Creating structure for input and output	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taking notes • Summarizing • Highlighting

Source: Dilek Ateş, “A Longitudinal Study of Language learning Strategy Use by Prep Year EFL Students”, Unpublished MA Thesis Pamukkale University, Turkey, 2019, p. 24.

2.4.1.3.3. Compensation Strategies

Compensation techniques help learners practice the language in both skills, speaking and writing even though due to a lack of information. These strategies include two functions:

1. Guessing intelligently
2. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

The indirect strategies such as metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies are responsible for assisting and guiding language learning. Indeed, these strategies help learners indirectly during the language learning period. According to Oxford (1990), learners can use the following functions:

- Focusing
- Arranging
- Evaluating
- Seeking opportunities
- Lowering anxiety

Table 2.4. Oxford's (1990) Compensation Strategies

Category	Strategy	Examples
	Guessing intelligently	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Using linguistic clues ➤ Using other clues
Compensatory Strategies	Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Switching to the mother tongue • Getting help • Using mime or gesture • Avoiding communication partially or totally • Selecting the topic • Adjusting or approximating the message • Coining words • Using a circumlocution or synonym

Source: Dilek Ateş, “A Longitudinal Study of Language learning Strategy Use by Prep Year EFL Students”, Unpublished MA Thesis Pamukkale University, Turkey, 2019, p. 24.

2.4.1.3.4. Metacognitive Strategies

These strategies facilitate learners’ monitoring of their own understanding. As stated by Oxford (1990), metacognitive strategies provide monitoring and associating with the gained information by using the following functions:

- Paying attention
- Delaying speech production
- Organizing
- Setting goals and objectives
- Planning for a language task
- Looking for practice opportunities
- Self-monitoring and self-evaluating

The learners who use these strategies do the following action: “Thinking about thinking” (Harputlu & Ceylan, 2014, p.125). Those students can manage their own learning process. These strategies facilitate students’ cognitive connection between the previous learned content and the current knowledge because they have a better meta-cognitive awareness. Therefore, they select the appropriate learning strategies for themselves while being aware of what it takes to succeed (Paris & Winograd, 1990). Moreover, these language learning techniques have a strong, positive, direct influence on cognitive strategy use,

demonstrating that meta-cognitive strategy use has control over the employment of cognitive strategies in task completion (Purpura, 1999).

Table 2.5. Oxford's (1990) Metacognitive Strategies

Category	Strategy	Examples
Metacognitive Strategies	Centering your learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Overview and linking with already known material ➤ Paying attention ➤ Delaying speech production to focus on listening
	Arranging and planning your learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finding out about language learning • Organizing • Setting goals and objectives • Identifying the purpose of a language task (purposeful listening/reading/writing /speaking) • Planning for a language task • Seeking practice opportunities
	Evaluating your learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Self-monitoring ➤ Self-evaluating

Source: Dilek Ateş, “A Longitudinal Study of Language learning Strategy Use by Prep Year EFL Students”, Unpublished MA Thesis Pamukkale University, Turkey, 2019, p. 26.

2.4.1.3.5. Affective Strategies

Affective strategies promote students’ control of their emotions, motivation, and attitudes related to learning. These can be gained through lowering anxiety, encouraging oneself, and taking emotional temperature (Oxford, 1990). The learners who use those strategies mostly produce a sense of relaxation and tranquillity and motivate themselves. These strategies enable learners to encourage themselves and to have the control over their emotions. Therefore, while learning a target language, they make learners aware of their motivations, feelings, and strategies while learning a target language (Oxford, 1990). As a positive result of using those strategies, a positive feeling can be developed towards the target language and this can facilitate students’ learning process in order to become successful.

Table 2.6. Oxford's (1990) Affective Strategies

Category	Strategy	Examples
Affective Strategies	Lowering your anxiety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Using progressive relaxation and meditation ➤ Using music ➤ Using laughter
	Encouraging yourself	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making positive statements • Taking risks wisely • Rewarding yourself
	Taking your emotional temperature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Listening to your body ➤ Using a checklist ➤ Writing a language learning diary ➤ Discussing your feeling with somebody else

Source: Dilek Ateş, “A Longitudinal Study of Language learning Strategy Use by Prep Year EFL Students”, Unpublished MA Thesis Pamukkale University, Turkey, 2019, p. 27.

2.4.1.3.6. Social Strategies

These strategies enable students to learn the language by communicating with others. Language needs society and for this reason, it is related to interaction with other people. During the language learning process, it is crucial to use the suitable social strategies (Oxford, 1990). Social strategies include the following three functions: asking questions, cooperating, and empathizing with others. “Sixty-two strategies have been illustrated which include every strategy that is referred to in previous studies conducted in language learning strategies” (Zare, 2012, p.166). Indeed, the SILL is based on these works. This inventory enables scholars to find out the information about learners’ language learning strategy usage in terms of second language learning.

Table 2.7. Oxford's (1990) Social Strategies

Category	Strategy	Examples
Social Strategies	Asking questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Asking for clarification or verification ➤ Asking for correction
	Cooperating with others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cooperating with others • Cooperating with proficient users of the new language
	Empathizing with others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Developing cultural understanding ➤ Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

Source: Dilek Ateş, "A Longitudinal Study of Language Learning Strategy Use by Prep Year EFL Students", Unpublished MA Thesis Pamukkale University, Turkey, 2019, p. 28.

2.4.1.4. Stern's Classification of Language Learning Strategies (1992)

Further, ten strategies defining good language learners have been described by Stern (1975). These strategies emphasize "positive learning attitude, active involvement to the task, welcoming the challenges of target language and its speakers, planning the learning process and constructing the new language forms into a system, continually searching for better comprehension, desire to practice the newly presented information, eagerness to practice the language in genuine interactive settings, self-monitoring, and the last one is managing the target language as a respective reference system and trying to generate in it" (Stern, 1975, as cited in Kondal, 2019, p.38-39).

In 1992, Stern divided the language learning strategies into five main categories:

1. Management and Planning Strategies
2. Cognitive Strategies
3. Communicative - Experiential Strategies
4. Interpersonal Strategies
5. Affective Strategies

2.4.1.4.1. Management and Planning Strategies

These strategies refer to the learner's aim to guide himself while learning. When a teacher helps learners as an adviser or a resource person, the learner can take the responsibility of his own learning progress. Besides, the learner has to complete the following tasks:

- Choosing the responsibilities for language learning

- Setting possible objectives
- Choosing reasonable methodology, resources and monitor progress
- Assessing success according to his own determined aims and intentions

2.4.1.4.2. Cognitive Strategies

Another main category called cognitive strategies are related to the ways of learning or problem solving such as “direct analysis, transformation or synthesis of learning materials” (Stern, 1992, as cited in Hardan, 2013, p.1721). The cognitive strategies are mentioned below:

- Clarification / Verification
- Guessing / Inductive Inferencing
- Deductive Reasoning
- Practice
- Memorization
- Monitoring

2.4.1.4.3. Communication – Experiential Strategies

The next main category, communication strategies, refer to some techniques such as “circumlocution, gesturing, paraphrase, or asking for repetition and explanation” (Stern, 1992, as cited in Hardan, 2013, p.1721). These techniques enable learners to keep the communication flow going. Further, communication strategies provide the connection for information through the verbal or nonverbal tool use. Indeed, it is aimed to prevent the interruption while communicating.

2.4.1.4.4. Interpersonal Strategies

Interpersonal strategies refer to one’s own progress monitoring and production evaluating. It is also mentioned that learners have to keep in touch with natives, work together with them as well as gain information about the target culture.

2.4.1.4.5. Affective Strategies

In fact, the affective strategies are associated with explicit efficient techniques and actions chosen by good learners. According to Stern (1975), good language learners might or might not face negative sentiments with regards to learning a foreign language. They are engaged in developing positive connections with regard to the foreign language and native speakers of that language.

2.4.2. The Classification Choice in the Present Study

Hsiao and Oxford (2002) conducted a research on the comparison of the classifiers preferred in this framework (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1981). The participants in the study were 517 undergraduate students from 12 classes at a Taiwanese Institution. The students had an experience of six-year English education. In the first year of their learning process, the English classes were mostly based on developing the abilities in reading and listening. The study found that Oxford's method was more extensive than the other two when it came to accounting for the variety of techniques (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002). Moreover, in Oxford's (1990) system, the techniques are linked to abilities in the target language whereas O'Malley et al.'s (1990) and Rubin's (1981), Oxford's systems do not relate to them. For this reason, the researcher preferred Oxford's classification system which is in parallel to SILL. Further, it is widely acknowledged to be more thorough, systematic and understandable (Ateş, 2019).

2.4.3. Relevant Studies in Turkey

Many research studies focused on EFL learners' (both monolingual and bilingual) language acquisition techniques. During the 1980s, various scholars such as O'Malley et al. (1985) investigated the different ways of English language learning. According to the findings, using strategies are considered as influential learning tools (Kondal, 2019). In 1999, Chamot and some other scholars discovered that weak learners use language learning strategies almost as frequent as successful learners. However, findings showed that the use of strategies were different because of learners' varied language goals (Şahin, 2016).

In Turkey, most of the research based on techniques for language learning aim to reveal the connection between LLS and basic skills and they also try to investigate the effects of success on LLS. The participants were chosen usually from various grades. In fact, the number of research consisting of bilingual participants is quite limited. The reason could be the disregard or obscurity of the terms 'bilingualism and multilingualism'. Arslan's (2014) and Tuncer's (2009) studies can be seen as one of the relevant researches. In both studies, a comparative method was used in order to investigate bilingual and monolingual learners' use of language learning strategies. According to Wharton (2000), most of the research involving the language learning strategies were carried out on two groups of learners with certain goals: Native speakers of English who learn a foreign language (FL) or learners of mixed nationalities who learn English as a second language (ESL).

Şahin (2016) carried out some investigations about bilingual and monolingual students' LLS usage during their learning period. This research was conducted for her M.A. thesis. Several variables were analyzed in order to reveal the relationships among them and students' use of LLS. The variables are as follows: gender, school and academic success. The data were gathered from 991 (493 female and 498 male) high school students who were living in Siirt and İzmir. As a data gathering tool, the Turkish version of SILL (adapted by Cesur and Fer, 2007) was employed. Several parametric tests such as t-test, One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's multiple comparison test were applied in order to compare the results. The sub-problems were analyzed through Pearson's correlation coefficient. In contrast to earlier findings (Tuncer, 2009; Yayla et al., 2016; Arslan, 2014; Yüksek, 2013; Wharton, 2000), the analysis did not reveal any significant differences between monolingual and bilingual students' language learning strategy use. However, a closer inspection revealed a significant difference between five out of six categories of the SILL used by monolingual and bilingual participants. The majority of monolingual learners stated a higher rate of using methods for metacognition than bilingual learners. Further analysis highlighted a significant correlation between the variables, gender, school and academic success, and language strategy usage. In terms of gender, female students showed a higher rate in use of LLS than male students during the language learning period. Moreover, the analyses indicated a significant relationship between students' academic success and their use of language learning strategies.

Oxford (1990) stated some elements which may affect learners' use of language learning strategies. The factors such as learners' awareness level, extent of learning, mission statement, teachers' expectations, age, gender, nationality/ethnic background, learning style, personality traits, motivation level and aim of learning may have impacts on using language learning strategies.

Yayla et al., (2016) conducted a comparative study on language learning strategies of monolingual and bilingual university students. The participants were 524 students of one university and one vocational school of an university located in Turkey. It aimed to investigate the alteration of participants' level of language learning strategies while learning a foreign language with regards to gender, department and school type. The adapted version of SILL which was created by Cesur and Fer (2007) was chosen as one of the instruments for the study. One of the findings showed that during learning a new language, the rate of language learning strategy use was higher for bilinguals than for monolinguals. Further, LLS are used at an intermediate stage by university students. The majority of the students use metacognitive strategies and the minority of them use affective strategies. The results in terms of gender

showed a higher rate in LLS use by female students than by male students apart from cognitive and affective strategies. In terms of department, students of English language and literature and English language teaching department use LLS more frequently than students of translation department. It was also found that the majority of LLS users were 4-year-faculty students in comparison to vocational school students.

Another relevant study which was conducted by Arslan (2014) aimed to find out if multilingualism has an impact on the language learning techniques and if the instructor's native language affects the strategy use of preparatory students. The participants were 70 students of a similar English competence level from Abant İzzet Baysal University. The data were gathered through the SILL which was translated by Demirel (2009). Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed in order to analyze the quantitative data. The findings showed that multilingualism has a significant impact on the use of language learning strategies especially memory and cognitive strategies. Arslan states that the use of language learning strategies varies by the number of languages known. Additionally, he also emphasizes the high frequency rate of multilingual students' strategy use in comparison to bilingual student's strategy use.

Yüksek (2013) conducted a descriptive study for his M.A. thesis on monolingual and bilingual EFL students' attitudes while learning a foreign language. The Language Attitude Questionnaire which was developed by Cook was employed in order to find out the difference between the two groups of participants' attitudes. The data collection tool contains six clusters of social, psychological and personal monolingualism and social, psychological and personal bilingualism. The survey was based on 80 Preparatory School students of Çağ University who were studying English. The result significantly showed that bilingual individuals have a more favorable attitude about learning a foreign language than monolinguals (Yüksek, 2013). The study also indicated the following belief of both participant groups, monolingual and bilingual students: Knowing more than one language will increase one's knowledge and intelligence. In fact, it was affirmed that multilingualism has a positive effect on language learning.

Another relevant research which was carried out by Yazıcı et al., (2010) explored Russian-Turkish bilingual children's Turkish learning process. To achieve the objectives, 5 and 6-year-old bilingual children from Antalya took part in this study. There were Russian-Turkish multilingual children that took part in the study, 20 in the control group and 20 in the experiment group. The data were gathered through Descoedres Dictionary Test (DDT) and Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT). For 16 weeks, the experiment group received Language-Focused Curriculum (LFC) (Yazıcı et al., 2010). The findings indicated that LFC

improved the participants' Turkish receptive and expressive language. Therefore, bilingual children of the experiment group became better than bilingual children of the control group in Turkish receptive and expressive language.

The next study which was based on monolingual and bilingual individuals' LLS was conducted by Tuncer (2009). The researcher investigated the language learning techniques of 246 Mersin University EFL students who received education from the ELT department. The research also analyses the following variables: acquired languages, gender and proficiency. One of the findings indicated that bilingual EFL students make use of strategies with a higher frequency rate than monolingual EFL students. The achievement of previous acquired languages and the learning experience of two or more languages might be the reasons for the finding mentioned before. Further, it is stated that bilingual individuals are advantageous because of the fact that they use cognitive and metacognitive skills in the language learning process. For this reason, they are advantaged in the language learning phase. In comparison to worldwide known research studies which state the dominance of female language learners, Tuncer (2009) didn't find any difference between monolingual and bilingual individuals' use of learning strategies in terms of gender. Furthermore, the next variable involving the proficiency level indicated the following result: The more proficient a pupil is, the more he employs learning tactics. Although there is a relationship between strategy use and proficiency, there might be reasons such as conditions, culture or previous language learning experience influencing the learners' proficiency.

Sevinç and Lemis Önkol (2009) analyzed 5 and 6-year-old preschool students' language processing skills. 90 preschool students were chosen as participants. Half of the participants were provided with monolingual and the other half of them were provided with bilingual preschool education. The Language Processing Scale and Parent Questionnaire Form was employed as a data collection tool. The study also analyzed the following variables: gender, father's and mother's educational level, birth order, father and mother's language besides Turkish, number of siblings and children's preschool education duration. According to the results, monolingual pre-schoolers performed better in language processing skills than pre-schoolers who attend bilingual education. When explored whether the gender of children has any effect on their language processing skills, no difference was found between female and male children receiving Turkish and bilingual preschool education. For the purpose of identifying whether there is any connection between children's abilities in language processing and the variables such as mother's educational level, father's educational level, number of siblings and extent of preschool education, no significant relationships were found.

Further, the extent of pre-schoolers' education and parents' languages besides Turkish have a significant relationship with children's language processing skills.

2.4.4. Relevant Studies outside the Turkey

Qasimnejad and Hemmati (2014) conducted a research on monolingual (Persian) and bilingual (Turkish and Persian) EFL students' language learning strategies. In total, 160 EFL students participated, some of whom were Bilinguals at Urmia Payam Noor University and some of whom were Monolinguals at Tehran Payam Noor University. As a data gathering instrument, Oxford's SILL was employed. The scholars indicated a significant difference between the bilinguals and monolinguals involving their LLS use. The results of different t-tests significantly revealed a higher rate of bilingual individuals' strategy use in comparison with monolingual individuals' strategy use. The most remarkable finding from the data is that monolinguals and bilinguals differ significantly in using the following five out of six categories of the SILL: Memory, Cognitive, Compensatory, Metacognitive, Affective strategies. The result for only one strategy category called Social strategy showed no difference in both groups. The majority of Turkish-Persian participants stated that they use Metacognitive strategies in order to control their learning by thinking about how far they've come in learning English, looking for ways to enhance their skills, defining specific learning goals and making a study timetable for English (Qasimnejad and Hemmati, 2014). The conspicuous observation to emerge from the data comparison was that bilingual (Turkish-Persian) individuals are better in realizing their mistakes and learning from them than monolingual (Persian) individuals. According to Denckla (1996), proficient learners have the command-and-control function which is called "executive functioning" and that represents the metacognitive skills such as self-assessment and self-management.

Kostić-Bobanović and Bobanović (2011) carried out a study about LLS used by monolingual and bilingual EFL learners. Both of the participant groups, monolingual Croats and bilinguals at the University of Pula, were attempting to learn English as a foreign language. The information were collected through a questionnaire involving oral communication developed by Kostić-Bobanović in 2004 which contained 41 items. The questionnaire was based on six groups of LLS such as memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies. The majority of the bilingual respondents reported higher frequency of language learning strategy usage than the monolingual individuals especially involving metacognitive and memory strategies. The researchers suppose that the reason for this result might be bilingual individuals' developed high skill and

dual language status. It is also assumed that bilingual individuals' success might be the result of their high rate of strategy use.

Another relevant research involving language learning strategies was investigated by Wharton (2000). The participants were from a Singaporean university who were learning Japanese and French as foreign languages. Oxford's 80-item SILL was applied to 678 university students to assess their techniques when learning the target language. The participants in this study were bilingual and came from a multilingual environment, which set it apart from earlier SILL investigations (Wharton, 2000). In addition to the SILL, a background survey was accompanied. Two of the variables were gender and proficiency self-ratings. The results showed a significant relationship between students' self-rated proficiency and their LLS. According to the findings, the more proficient a student is, the more LLS he or she employs. Unlike other research carried out in this area, male participants reported significantly higher frequency of use of language learning strategies than female participants. According to Wharton, the reason might be that monolingual students were not included in this research and that could influence the results.

Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) conducted a comparative study on monolingual Korean and bilingual Korean-Chinese students' use of LLS. The participants were 428 monolingual and 420 bilingual university students. To collect the data, two instruments were administered. Firstly, the original SILL was employed to the participants in order to report their attitudes towards language learning and cognitive process. Secondly, two Individual Background Questionnaires (IBQ), one for monolingual and one for bilingual individuals, were applied to obtain the information about demographics and additional information. The questionnaires were translated into their mother language, Korean, to avoid a failure to understand something correctly and to enhance the understanding of its content. The majority of monolingual respondents commented that they mostly use compensation strategies and rarely use affective strategies. Interestingly, it was reported that bilingual students mostly employ metacognitive, compensation and cognitive strategies. However, bilingual individuals reported higher strategy use than monolingual individuals during the English learning process. The results of bilingual students' high strategy use correlate favorably well with previous studies conducted in this field (Tuncer, 2009; Yayla et al., 2016; Arslan, 2014; Yükses, 2013; Kostić-Bobanović & Bobanović, 2011; Wharton, 2000). According to some experts (Nation & McLaughlin, 1986; Nayak et al., 1990; Lerea & Kohut, 1961; Thomas, 1988), it is assumed that students' bilingual status might positively influence them when learning a new language. In comparison to monolingual individuals, further analysis showed that bilingual individuals have stronger

beliefs towards learning English as an official language and relatively lower anxiety while talking to native English speakers. Moreover, there is no discernible change variation between male and female students in terms of strategy use and beliefs about language learning.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter includes the research methodology of the study investigating monolingual and bilingual language learners' most preferred language learning strategies. The details of the research method involving the study, participants, data gathering instruments, the process and data analysis are presented. The main question of this study is as follows:

What are monolingual and bilingual foreign language learners' most preferred language learning strategies?

The research sub – questions of the study are as follows:

1. What are the levels of students' language learning strategies?
2. Is there any significant difference between bilingual and monolingual students' most preferred language learning strategies?
3. Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of gender?
4. Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of grade level?
5. Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of mother's educational level?
6. Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of father's educational level?

3.2. Research Method

3.2.1. Mixed Method

Learners often experience difficulties in their language learning periods. In some instances, learners struggle with the ways of learning a new language. For this reason, this issue has been an interesting research topic for many scholars in the field of educational practices. Therefore, the endeavour in this study was to find out learners' most preferred learning strategies through a mixed method which includes qualitative and quantitative aspects. Researchers from a variety of disciplines can use mixed method approaches to solve research issues with rigor (Aramo-Immonen, 2011). Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) described mixed methods research as a type of investigation enabling the scholars to

accumulate and investigate information, integrate and infer from the conclusions. In one single study, these functions can be carried out by means of both qualitative and quantitative approaches and methods. Mixed methods research is a variety which enables the researcher or the team of researchers to create the components of the mixed methods such as the quantitative and qualitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis and inference techniques for aims of a large field and deep understanding and confirmation (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007). Further, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) imply that some research questions are impossible to answer by a single quantitative or qualitative method. However, mixed methods research enables a wide range of instruments which can direct to the purpose and objectives of a study. Therefore, two of the data gathering instruments were chosen for the present study: Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Indeed, qualitative and quantitative research types are different from each other because of induction and deduction (Morgan, 2007). According to Schoonenboom and Johnson (2017), mixed methods research involves deep information and validity. For this reason, the present study is based on the mixed method considering the aim in order to obtain valid and reliable results from both qualitative and quantitative dimensions. As mentioned before, the present study employs data collection through questionnaires as a quantitative method and semi-structured interviews as a qualitative tool in order to conduct in depth analysis. The basic distinction between them is that quantitative research refers to an impartial continuum of deduction but the qualitative method enables a subjective way which is a continuum of induction “that can only be viewed in context” (Morgan, 2007, as cited in Doyle et al., 2009, p.177). Therefore, the semi – structured interviews as a qualitative method enable the researcher to gain a broad view about the findings of the quantitative data.

Greene et al. defined mixed methods research aims for the first time in 1989, based on an examination of mixed methods studies. Indeed, five aims were identified by Greene et al. in 1989 for mixing in mixed methods research (p. 259):

1. Convergence, confirmation, and correlation of results from several methods are sought through triangulation.
2. Complementarity aims to improve, enrich, illustrate, and clarify the results of one approach by combining them with the results of another approach.
3. The goal of development is to use the results of one method to assist develop or inform the development of another technique, with development encompassing sampling, implementation and measurement decisions.

4. The finding of paradox and contradiction, fresh framework perspectives, and the recasting of questions or results from one technique with questions or outcomes from the other technique are all goals of initiation.
5. Expansion aims to broaden the scope and range of inquiry by employing a variety of strategies for various inquiry components.

Further, the following four types of mixed method approaches were defined by Creswell & Plano Clark (2011):

- Embedded Design
- Triangulation Design
- Explanatory Design
- Exploratory Design

3.2.1.1. The Triangulation Design

The current study tries to find out the data through the Triangulation Design. This design is among the commonly used approaches (Creswell, Plano Clark, et al., 2003). It enables the researcher different and complementary viewpoints about an issue (Morse, 1991). According to Patton (1990), this design provides a connection between quantitative and qualitative method's various but weak and unconnected data. This design is employed for direct comparison and discrepancy between statistical and qualitative findings. It is also used in order to support the gathered results of the quantitative instrument with qualitative data. The Triangulation Design has the following four types: The convergence model, the data transformation model, the validating quantitative data model, and the multilevel model (Creswell, 1999). The current study employs the convergence model. When using this traditional model of a mixed methods triangulation design, both quantitative and qualitative data are gathered and investigated separately. In the interpretation process, the researcher compares the results and exhibits a convergence between them.

3.3. The Design of the Study

The goal of this research was to investigate the possible relationships among bilingual and monolingual students' strategy use and the significant differences among those two participant groups. A convergent parallel design was applied to analyze the quantitative and qualitative data during the same stage of the research. It was selected in order to make an

equal evaluation, an independent analysis of two components and interpreting them together (Creswell & Pablo-Clark, 2011).

The research process in this study is given in *Figure 1*.

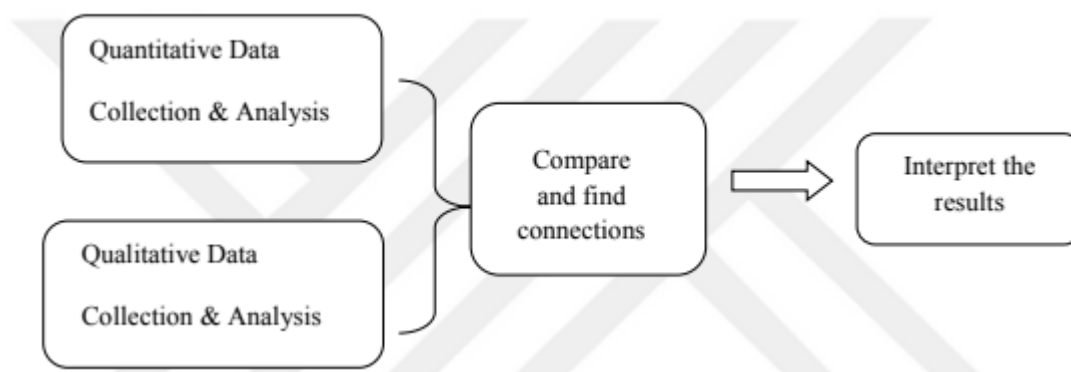


Figure 3.1 The Research Design of this Study (Ateş, 2019, p.50)

The quantitative study was conducted using Cesur and Fer's (2007) adaptation of Oxford's (1990) SILL in Turkish. The data gathered from that part were analyzed through SPSS 20.0. The other part of the present study includes the qualitative study which was focused on semi-structured interviews of 10 randomly selected students and 5 of their English teachers. The teachers' and students' questions were almost similar with each other. The interviews with students were carried out face to face at school and were recorded via smartphone whereas the interviews with their teachers were on a digital platform for video audio conferencing namely Zoom.

3.4. The Setting

The presented study was done at a private school's two campuses in Antalya during the 2020-2021 academic year. Only the secondary school students and their English teachers attended the study. That private school was chosen because of its reputation for having lots of students with different cultural backgrounds and from different countries such as Russia, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Germany, Palestine and England.

3.5. Participants of the Study

Secondary school students of fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grades of a private school located in Antalya took part in the current research during the 2020-2021 academic year. They were monolingual and bilingual students who were from different cultural backgrounds. For a

reason of COVID - 19 pandemic, students had to have distance education for a long period. During this period, only 150 students accepted to participate in the present study. Among all of the students, their grade levels were nearly the same ranging from 6th grade to 8th grade. Therefore, the information about the participants' ages was not necessary while trying to explore their most preferred language learning strategies. The participants' 5 English teachers were also included in this study to support the data collected from the students.

3.6. The Data Gathering Instruments

Two data gathering instruments were utilized in this study to collect data. Firstly, the SILL was chosen and then, to gain a deeper understanding the semi-structured interview was selected. According to some LLS experts (Cohen, 2011; Wenden, 1991, O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Rubin, 1975), it is possible to say that LLS use cannot be identified without any observation.

3.6.1. The Adapted Version of SILL by Cesur and Fer (2007)

Firstly, the version 7.0 of the SILL, was used to find out the information from language learners about their most preferred language learning strategies. Before using the instrument, the appropriate permission was taken from the developers of the inventory. The SILL was originally created by Oxford (1989) and then, it was converted to a Turkish version by Cesur and Fer (2007). The Turkish version of the instrument was chosen because of participants' limited English level. It is used by non-English speakers who are learning English as a second or foreign language. At the beginning of the inventory, some demographic questions about participants' grade level, gender, language(s) spoken at home, parents' educational level and parents' nationalities were added by the researcher. The version 7.0 contains 50 questions about language learning strategies. The Appendix A contains this version of the questionnaire.

The place of second language learning is showed as an area where conflicts between instructor's teaching styles and student's learning styles are expectative (Felder & Henriques, 1995). A quantitative analysis of language learning strategies which can be applied to learners can mediate these discrepancies (Oxford & Lavine, 1992). Learning styles are related to personality types and there are differences between second language learning preferences and personality types as shown in learning styles (Russell, 2010). Learning styles have also been investigated to see how personal interaction preferences of students influence their interactions with the learning environment.

Learning styles have also been studied to evaluate the way that student personal interaction preferences impact their interactions with the learning environment. In 1987, the instrument, SILL, for second language analysis was designed (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Nyikos and Oxford, 1993). SILL, developed by Oxford (1990), is one of the most preferred data – collecting instruments used in lots of different countries in this field of studies. It has two versions. The version 5.1 of the SILL (Oxford, 1990) was developed for native English speakers learning a new language. This questionnaire version involves 80 items, which provides students to respond the questions using a five point Likert scale. In contrast with the primary version of the inventory, the version 7.0 containing 50 items was created for students who learn English as a Second Language (ESL) or as a Foreign Language (EFL) (Oxford, 1990, p. 293-300). Further, the current research employs the version 7.0 because of the fact that the students learn the English language as a foreign language in Turkey. This tool allows students and teachers to assess the particular LLS that are used by the students while learning a foreign or second language. Conducting the SILL enables students to evaluate their strategy use reports (Russell, 2010). Students need to rate the frequency of their certain language learning style usage by giving answers to the Likert scale. The participants are asked to respond in terms of how well the item describes them.

The rating system that uses five-point is as noted below:

- 1 – Never true of me
- 2 – Usually not true of me
- 3 – Somewhat true of me
- 4 – Usually true of me
- 5 – Almost true of me

Table 8 illustrates the information about the groups of strategies in SILL.

Table 3.1. Distribution of the Strategy Groups in SILL (Oxford, 1990)

Direct Strategies	(29)	Part I	(9)	Memory Strategies
		Part II	(14)	Cognitive Strategies
		Part III	(6)	Compensation Strategies
Indirect Strategies	(21)	Part IV	(9)	Metacognitive Strategies
		Part V	(6)	Affective Strategies
		Part VI	(6)	Social Strategies

Source: Dilek Ateş, “A Longitudinal Study of Language learning Strategy Use by Prep Year EFL Students”, Unpublished MA Thesis Pamukkale University, Turkey, 2019, p. 58.

The components of the SILL are grouped into the following 6 categories (Oxford, 1990, p.290):

1. Remembering more effectively (Memory Strategies)
2. Using your mental processes (Cognitive Strategies)
3. Compensating for missing knowledge (Compensatory Strategies)
4. Organizing and evaluating your learning (Metacognitive Strategies)
5. Managing your emotions (Affective Strategies)
6. Learning with others (Social Strategies)

Cesur and Fer (2007) found out the following results involving the validity and reliability of the Turkish version of SILL in their research: According to Pearson's correlations between the Turkish and English versions of the inventory (excluding the items 5., 12. and 29., .38 to .91 among the 6 categories), were accepted as reliable. The significance of the correlations were at the .00 and .01 level. Further, “the construct validity of the questionnaire addressed six dimensional constructs with 47 items as the results of factor analysis” (Cesur and Fer, 2007, as cited in Özyılmaz, 2012). The result of the internal reliability of scale was .92 alpha coefficients. The findings showed that the subscales had internal consistency reliabilities, item total correlation, ranged from .27 to .62, and the results of test re-test reliability for external reliability of subscales was between .67-.82 (Cesur and Fer, 2007, p. 49).

The scale reliability of this instrument was calculated through Cronbach α internal consistency coefficient:

- Memory Strategies-0.803
- Cognitive Strategies-0.839
- Compensation Strategies-0.710
- Metacognitive Strategies-0.890
- Affective Strategies-0.690
- Social Strategies-0.765

3.6.2. Semi-structured Interview

The information was gathered by the second instrument, the semi-structured interview, which enabled the researcher a deeper understanding of participants' answers. Therefore, the qualitative findings were analysed in order to support the quantitative results. The semi – structured interview contains 2 questions about students' demographic information and 13 questions which provide the researcher to find out students' most preferred LLS. The questions were selected from Yu and Wang's article about LLS use which was published in 2009. The questions were created as semi – structured and some of them were designed open

– ended in nature. Further, they were translated from English to Turkish because of participants' limited English language knowledge. After that, the Turkish questions were sent to researcher's thesis supervisor through e-mail in order to receive the approval for the accurate translation of the questions. Ten of the participants were selected randomly for the qualitative part of the present research. Eight of them wanted to answer the interview questions in Turkish and two of them answered in English. Their answers were translated from Turkish into English by the researcher and got approved for being correct by her supervisor.

Besides, in order to corroborate the qualitative data gathered from students, their teachers were interviewed. The interview questions were almost similar to the questions of students. The English teachers were asked to discover a deeper understanding of the participants' English learning strategies. Some questions (see Appendix D) about teachers' teaching methods were included to find out the source of students' preferred language learning strategies.

3.7. The Data Gathering Process

In the first step, after getting confirmation from the supervisor concerning the instrument, Cesur and Fer (2007) who adapted the SILL into the Turkish version (DÖSE), gave the permission to use it for the researcher. Then, the permission was obtained from the Ministry of Education. The administration of the private school in Antalya, where the researcher works as an English teacher, granted the permission and after that, the permission was also taken from the parents of the students. The current study's intention was announced by the researcher to the participants' parents beforehand. The quantitative data was collected in the first term of the 2020-2021 Academic Year at a private school in Antalya. Then, the administration of the private school in Antalya, where the researcher works as an English teacher, granted the permission. After the official approvals were taken for the present study, secondary school students of fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth grades were chosen as participants. As the study is based on bilingual and monolingual secondary school students, the participants were chosen from four grades because of the limited number of bilingual students. The researcher intended to keep the number of bilingual and monolingual participants balanced. At the beginning, the researcher adapted the SILL into an online questionnaire on Google Forms because of the Covid-19 pandemic. Most of the students did not come to school. Therefore, the online link of the online questionnaire was sent through k12NET - a student information management system – which was used by the school's

administration, teachers and parents. It was sent to all of the volunteer students by the administration of the school. The students could answer the questionnaire at home. The application of the inventory was planned to last not more than 15 minutes.

At the same time, the questions for the semi-structured interview were decided on by the researcher and confirmed by her supervisor. 13 semi – structured questions were selected from an article written by Yu and Wang in 2009 about language learning strategies. As stated before, the questions were created as semi – structured and some of them were designed open – ended in nature. After getting confirmation, 10 randomly selected students were interviewed for the qualitative part of the study. The interviewees were three male and seven female participants and among them, five of them were bilingual and the other five were monolingual students. The researcher intended to keep the number of bilingual and monolingual participants balanced. Seven of the randomly selected participants came to school and the researcher took the interviews at school and recorded via smartphone. For a reason of the Covid-19 pandemic, the other three participants who did not come to school and were at home, took the interview on Zoom; a platform for video and audio conferencing and were recorded via Zoom. 2 questions were about participants’ demographic information and 13 about students’ English learning. Additionally, the researcher asked for some details in order to get more information about the answers of the interviewee. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher asked the participants in which language they feel comfortable to answer to obtain correct information from pupils. Eight of the participants wanted to be asked in Turkish and two participants in English. Following the interview process, the contents were transcribed and translated into English and finally, the translations were confirmed by the researcher’s supervisor. The duration of each interview was between five to ten minutes. The questions about English language learning were chosen so that they give a detailed overview of participants’ preferred language learning strategies and correspond to the questions of the SILL.

Meanwhile, participants’ English teachers also took the semi-structured interview in order to provide a deep understanding and confirmation of participants’ strategy use. Further, some questions were based on teachers’ teaching methods to discover the possible reasons of students’ strategy use. They were 14 semi-structured interview questions were similar to the students’ interview questions. They aimed to gather information about students’ English learning inside and outside of the class. Five English teacher at the private secondary school were contacted for the semi-structured interview via Zoom. Firstly, official permissions were taken, and the questions were confirmed by the researcher’s supervisor. At the beginning of

the interview, teachers were informed about the present study and its aim. The researcher orally gave some detailed information in terms of the six language learning strategies (Memory, Cognitive, Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective and Social Strategies) of Oxford (1990) in order to give a point of view about the research's content and aim. The researcher recorded and saved the interviews via Zoom. The teachers wanted to be asked in English, so the questions were asked in English. The 14 interview questions consist of 2 (Questions 1, 2) general questions about their student's English use inside and outside of the class, and their aims of learning English. Out of the 14 questions, 7 (Questions 3, 4, 5, 10, 11, 13, 14) are based on students' strategy use. Most of the information about students' LLS use were gathered by means of those questions. Further, the researcher also aimed to find out the reasons about students' preferred LLS use. Therefore, she formed 5 questions (Questions 6, 7, 8, 9, 12) to investigate if there is a possible relationship between students' strategy use and their teachers' attitudes and teaching style.

3.8. The Data Analysis Process

In the procedure for data analysis, three separate sets of data were examined. Firstly, the quantitative data was collected from the secondary-school students. To support the data, 10 participants were chosen randomly for semi-structured interviews. To confirm and get a deep understanding of the students' answers, semi-structured interviews were administered with 5 English teachers of the private secondary-school.

3.8.1. Quantitative Analysis

Before the data were analyzed, the Univariate Outlier was applied and the cut-off point was determined as ± 3 (Raykov and Marcoulides, 2008). The analyses were carried out without 3 values that were out of the cut-off point. The normal distribution of the data were checked by means of the coefficients of skewness and kurtosis for each group. The cut-off point was accepted as 1 for the coefficients of skewness and kurtosis. The data which showed a normal distribution, were analyzed with the help of parametric methods whereas the data which did not illustrate any normal distribution, were examined by means of non-parametric approaches. The results of the demographic variables of 150 participants such as gender, grade level, mother's educational level, father's educational level and language(s) spoken at home are presented in table 9.

Table 3.2. Distribution of SILL Participants' Demographic Variables

	Group	N	%
Gender	Female	71	47.9
	Male	79	52.7
Grade Level	6 th Grade	25	16.7
	7 th Grade	14	9.3
	8 th Grade	111	74
Mother's Educational Level	Primary/Secondary	18	12
	High School	41	27.3
	College/University	72	48
	Postgraduate	19	12.7
Father's Educational Level	Primary/Secondary	8	5.3
	High School	40	26.7
	College/University	79	52.7
	Postgraduate	23	15.3
Monolingualism/Bilingualism	Monolingual	91	60.7
	Bilingual	59	39.3
Language(s) spoken at Home	German and Turkish	7	4.67
	German and English	2	1.33
	Arabic and Turkish	2	1.33
	Arabic and English	2	1.33
	Arabic and French	1	0.67
	Farsi and Turkish	1	0.67
	English and Turkish	22	14.67
	English and Farsi	2	1.33
	Kirghiz and Turkish	1	0.67
	Uzbek and Turkish	1	0.67
	Russian and Uzbek	1	0.67
	Russian and Turkish	15	10.00
	Russian and English	2	1.33
	Turkish	91	60.67

As illustrated in table 9, it is possible to say that there is a balanced distribution of participants in terms of gender. It is also seen that the majority of participants were 8th grade students and monolingual students. The students' parents are mostly graduated from university. As seen in the table above, mostly all of the monolingual students speak Turkish, whereas the bilingual students speak Turkish and English; and English and Russian.

3.8.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

For the qualitative data collection process, the number of interviewees can be from 5 to 25 (Polkinghorne, 1989) and for that reason, 10 of the students were chosen at random and interviewed about how they employ strategies and how they learn English. In this selection, bilingual – monolingual equality was also considered. Therefore, five of the pupils were

monolingual and other five of them were bilingual. The first three questions had to do with their mothers' and fathers' nationality and languages spoken at home. The students were coded as P1, P2....., P10.

The demographic data of the students in the interview including their parents' nationalities and the languages spoken at home are shown in Table 12.

Table 3.3. Students' Demographic Information

Interviewees	Mother's Nationality	Father's Nationality	Languages Spoken at Home
P1	English	Turk	English and Turkish
P2	Turk	Turk	Turkish
P3	Turk	Turk	Turkish
P4	Turk	Turk	Turkish
P5	Turk	Turk	Turkish and German
P6	Turk	Turk	Turkish
P7	Romanian	English	English and Turkish
P8	Palestinian	Palestinian	Arabic and English
P9	Palestinian	Palestinian	Arabic and English
P10	Turk	Turk	Turkish

Note: Students who speak more than one language at home are accepted as bilingual students.

As Table 3.3 shows, five students do only speak Turkish at home, so they are monolingual students whereas five students speak more than one language at home. Therefore, they were accepted as bilingual students. The table above reports that P1, P5, P7, P8, P9 are bilingual students and P2, P3, P4, P6, P10 are monolingual students. According to Hall (1952), knowing some information and having some system and structure knowledge of a second language are fulfilled criteria for being counted as a bilingual individual. The term 'Bilingualism' was also defined as the simultaneous use of two or more languages by the same person (Mackey, 1970). Further, according to Oksaar (1971), it is also required to have automatic code-switching ability for being defined as bilingual.

Before the interviews were analyzed analysis of interviews, all the data were transcribed word for word into a written document. The next phase was to follow Creswell's (2012) content analysis scheme.

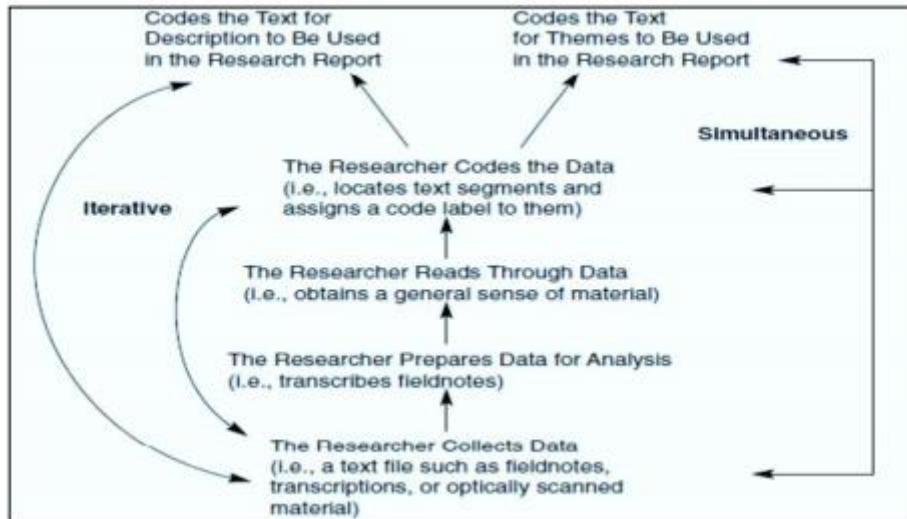


Figure 3.2. *The Qualitative Content Analysis Scheme (Creswell, 2012, p.237)*

First of all, all the transcribed data was read and a general sense of the data were gathered and then, relevant and certain text segments were chosen in order to create code labels. The grounded theory approach was used to gain a better comprehension of the information. The researcher read the data several times and then, arising categories were identified in place of a priori categories (Creswell, 2003). The content analysis was created by means of those classified categories. Further, the coding process was completed after gathering the similar information by determining certain themes. The next phase was to interpret the data through an intelligible order (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005). According to Punch (2005), the most important part of the process of the qualitative analysis which tends towards the content exploration is coding. The themes emerged during the content analysis process. The codes and themes were defined and interpreted in the final stage of the analysis. Two coders were determinant for the quality assurance. The inter-coder reliability of the analysis (Creswell, 2003), which relates to the consistency of findings by various coders, was aimed by coding data using two coders. The researcher herself and her supervisor, who is experienced in qualitative research coded the data. The transcribed data were coded independently after giving a detailed information to the second coder. Firstly, the transcriptions were read, and specific sentences and words were marked. Then, a framework was used in order to write down the significant words. At a later phase, the coding of both researcher and her supervisor were checked to find out the reliability value of those codes. For the reliability of the coding, the Cohen's kappa was applied. The reliability value of students' semi-structured interview analysis is as follows: Students' interview- 0.628 substantial agreement.

The same content analysis was made for the data gathered as a result of semistructured interviews of their teachers. The researcher intended to get a wide and deep understanding and confirmation of the students' answers about their LLS use. 5 English teachers of the private secondary school was selected and coded as T1, T2....., T5. The process of analyzing was exactly the same as students' analysis. The reliability value of teachers' semi-structured interview analysis is as follows: Teacher's interview-0.835 perfect agreement.

CHAPTER IV FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

The results of the present study will be presented in this chapter. The data were collected by two different tools like the adapted version of SILL (Cesur and Fer, 2007) and semi – structured interviews. The findings and results about the research questions will be introduced in tables. Firstly, the data of the questionnaire which was answered by the students will be reflected in detail. Secondly, the analysis of the semi – structured student interviews will be presented in order to support the data gathered from the questionnaire. Finally, the findings of the semi – structured teacher interviews which serve to obtain the information about their teaching techniques and students' English learning status will be presented.

4.2. Findings and Results of Quantitative Analysis

4.2.1. The Findings Related to the First Sub – Question

The descriptive statistics about the degrees of students' LLS were presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Language Learning Strategy Levels

	\bar{X}	Max.	Min.	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Memory Strategies	24.89	44	9	6.5	0.122	-0.149
Cognitive Strategies	38.56	65	14	10.33	0.163	-0.346
Compensation Strategies	17.26	30	6	4.84	0.270	0.010
Metacognitive Strategies	28.32	45	9	8.57	-0.247	-0.553
Affective Strategies	15.14	30	6	4.64	0.427	0.364
Social Strategies	18.58	30	6	5.46	-0.142	-0.385

The findings related to the first sub-question of the current study.

The t-test was applied for independent groups in order to investigate if there is a significant difference between students' LLS use in terms of being monolingual and bilingual. The results are presented in the table 3. It is identified that the mean of secondary school students' memory strategies is 24.89 ± 6.5 , cognitive strategies 38.56 ± 10.33 , compensation strategies 17.26 ± 4.84 , metacognitive strategies 28.32 ± 8.57 , affective strategies 15.14 ± 4.64 and social strategies 18.58 ± 5.46 . The normal distribution of the data were checked by means of the coefficients of skewness and kurtosis and the cut-off point was determined as ± 1 . The distribution of the results was accepted as normal.

4.2.2. The Findings Related to the Second Sub – Question

The independent samples t-test was used to find out whether there might be a significant difference in students' use of language learning strategies in terms of being bilingual/monolingual. The results were presented in table 4.2.

Table 4.2. T-test Results of Students' Language Learning Strategies in regard of being monolingual / bilingual

	Group	N	\bar{X}	SD	df	t	p	Cohen's d
Memory Strategies	Mono	91	24.56	7.61	148	-0.788	0.432	
	Bi	59	25.40	5.51				
Cognitive Strategies	Mono	91	36.78	10.96	148	-2.821	0.005*	0.46
	Bi	59	41.32	8.65				
Compensation Strategies	Mono	91	17.37	4.61	148	0.335	0.738	
	Bi	59	17.10	5.22				
Metacognitive Strategies	Mono	91	26.79	9.18	148	-2.784	0.006*	0.48
	Bi	59	30.69	6.96				
Affective Strategies	Mono	91	15.01	5.15	148	-0.473	0.659	
	Bi	59	15.35	3.76				
Social Strategies	Mono	91	17.01	5.33	148	-4.658	0.000**	0.80
	Bi	59	21.00	4.77				

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.001$

Note: Mono= Monolingual, Bi= Bilingual students.

According to the results as seen in table 4.2, students' use of cognitive strategies differs significantly in terms of being monolingual/bilingual ($t_{(148)} = -2.821$, $p = 0.005$). When

comparing the means, bilingual students' mean ($\bar{X}=41.32$) was found higher than monolingual students' mean ($\bar{X}=36.78$). The effect size of the discussed mean was calculated and determined that it has a small effect on that difference. As shown in the table above, it is possible to conclude that there was a distinction among bilingual and monolingual participants' use of metacognitive strategies ($t_{(148)} = -2.784$, $p=0.006$). In comparison to monolingual students' mean ($\bar{X}=26.79$), bilingual students' mean is higher ($\bar{X}=30.69$). The effect size of the discussed mean was calculated and determined that it has a small effect on the difference.

The table indicates that a significant difference existed between bilingual and monolingual participants with respect to social strategies ($t_{(148)} = -4.658$, $p=0.000$). When comparing both means, bilingual students' mean ($\bar{X}=21$) was indicated higher than monolingual students' mean ($\bar{X}=17.01$). The effect size of the discussed mean was calculated and determined that it has a large effect on that difference. When the results of memory ($t_{(148)} = -0.788$ $p=0.432$), compensation ($t_{(148)} = 0.335$ $p=0.738$) and affective strategies ($t_{(148)} = -0.473$ $p=0.659$) were analyzed, there was no statistically significant difference in the use of LLS of bilingual and monolingual participants.

4.2.3. The Findings Related to the Third Sub – Question

The independent samples t-test was used for independent groups to find out whether there might be a significant difference in bilingual and monolinguals' use of language learning strategies in terms of gender. The results were presented in table 4.3.

Table 4.3. T-test Results of Students' Language Learning Strategies in terms of Gender

	Group	N	\bar{X}	SD	df	t	p	Cohen's d
Memory Strategies	Female	71	24.97	7.19	148	0.132	0.895	-
	Male	79	24.82	6.58				
Cognitive Strategies	Female	71	39.18	10.8	148	0.691	0.490	-
	Male	79	38.01	9.89				
Compensation Strategies	Female	71	18.25	5.03	148	2.400	0.018*	0.39
	Male	79	16.37	4.52				
Metacognitive Strategies	Female	71	29.46	8.63	148	1.548	0.124	-
	Male	79	27.30	8.44				
Affective Strategies	Female	71	15.74	4.84	148	1.504	0.135	-
	Male	79	14.60	4.42				
Social Strategies	Female	71	18.54	5.29	148	-0.065	0.948	-
	Male	79	18.60	5.65				

*p<0.05, **p<0.001

As shown in table 4.3, learners' compensation strategies differ significantly in terms of gender ($t_{(148)} = 2.400$, $p = 0.018$). As the mean scores of female and male students revealed, it is possible to say that female student ($\bar{X} = 18.25$) use compensation strategies more than male students ($\bar{X} = 16.37$). The effect size of that discussed mean was calculated and determined that it has a small effect on the difference. As indicated in the table above, there were not any significant differences between learners 'memory strategies ($t_{(148)} = 0.132$ $p = 0.895$), cognitive strategies ($t_{(148)} = 0.691$ $p = 0.490$), metacognitive strategies ($t_{(148)} = 1.548$ $p = 0.124$), affective strategies ($t_{(148)} = 1.504$ $p = 0.135$) and social strategies ($t_{(148)} = -0.065$ $p = 0.948$) in terms of gender.

4.2.4. The Findings Related to the Fourth Sub – Question

The study also looked into the students' LLS in terms of their grade level and therefore, one – way ANOVA was used to calculate any differences. The results are shown in table 4.4.

Table 4.4. The One-way ANOVA Results of Students' Strategy Use in terms of their Grade Level

	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Cohen's d
Memory Strategies	Between G.	152.803	2	76.402	1.638	0.198	-
	Within G.	6857.490	147	46.650			
	Total	7010.293	149				
Cognitive Strategies	Between G.	152.519	2	76.259	0.711	0.493	-
	Within G.	15760.314	147	107.213			
	Total	15912.833	149				
Compensation Strategies	Between G.	55.700	2	27.850	1.187	0.308	-
	Within G.	3447.633	147	23.453			
	Total	3503.333	149				
Metacognitive Strategies	Between G.	174.085	2	87.043	1.186	0.308	-
	Within G.	10784.908	147	73.367			
	Total	10958.993	149				
Affective Strategies	Between G.	257.587	2	128.793	6.389	0.002*	0.30
	Within G.	2963.187	147	20.158			
	Total	3220.773	149				
Social Strategies	Between G.	145.611	2	72.806	2.484	0.087	-
	Within G.	4308.929	147	29.312			
	Total	4454.540	149				

*p<0.05

Note: Between G. = Between Groups, Within G. = Within Groups.

According to the one – way ANOVA results, there were not any significant differences between students' memory strategies ($F_{(2,149)}=1.638$, $p=0.198$), cognitive strategies ($F_{(2,149)}=0.711$, $p=0.493$), compensation strategies ($F_{(2,149)}=1.187$, $p=0.308$), metacognitive strategies ($F_{(2,149)}=1.186$, $p=0.308$) and social strategies ($F_{(2,149)}=2.484$, $p=0.087$) in terms of grade levels. However, a significant difference was found in the use of affective strategies in respect of the grade levels ($F_{(2,149)}=6.389$, $p=0.002$). In order to find out the source of that difference, one of the Post-hoc tests, namely Tukey test, was applied. The Tukey test results showed a difference between eighth and sixth grades. The means of the results showed that the sixth-grade students scores ($\bar{X}=17.96$) are higher than eighth grade students scores ($\bar{X}=14.44$). After the effect size was evaluated, it was possible to say that the effect was small.

4.2.5. The Findings Related to the Fifth Sub – Question

Another intention of the study was the students' LLS use in terms of their mothers' educational level; as a result, one – way ANOVA was used to determine any differences. The results are shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5. The One-way ANOVA Results of Students' Strategy Use in term of their of Mother's Educational Level

	Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Cohen's d
Memory Strategies	Between G.	175.932	3	58.644	1.253	0.293	
	Within G.	6834.361	146	46.811			
	Total	7010.293	149				
Cognitive Strategies	Between G.	418.898	3	139.633	1.316	0.272	
	Within G.	15493.935	146	106.123			
	Total	15912.833	149				
Compensation Strategies	Between G.	376.946	3	125.649	5.868	0.001*	0.35
	Within G.	3126.388	146	21.414			
	Total	3503.333	149				
Metacognitive Strategies	Between G.	569.397	3	189.799	2.667	0.050	
	Within G.	10389.596	146	71.162			
	Total	10958.993	149				
Affective Strategies	Between G.	71.183	3	23.728	1.100	0.351	
	Within G.	3149.590	146	21.573			
	Total	3220.773	149				
Social Strategies	Between G.	70.466	3	23.489	0.782	0.506	
	Within G.	4384.074	146	30.028			
	Total	4454.540	149				

*p<0.05

Note: Between G. = Between Groups, Within G. = Within Groups.

According to the one – way ANOVA results, there were no significant difference between students' memory strategies ($F_{(3,149)}=1.253$, $p=0.293$), cognitive strategies ($F_{(3,149)}=1.316$, $p=0.272$), metacognitive strategies ($F_{(3,149)}=2.667$, $p=0.050$), affective strategies ($F_{(3,149)}=1.100$, $p=0.351$) and social strategies ($F_{(3,149)}=0.782$, $p=0.506$) in terms of their mothers' educational level. However, a significant difference was found in the use of compensation strategies in respect of the mother's educational level ($F_{(3,149)}=5.868$, $p=0.001$).

In order to find out the source of that difference, one of the Post-hoc tests, namely Tukey test, was applied. The Tukey test results showed a different score among students whose mothers graduated from primary school / secondary school and high school and students whose mothers graduated from a college/university and mothers who are postgraduates. When the mean scores were compared, it was found that the score of students whose mothers graduated from a college/university (\bar{X} =18.25) and the score of students whose mothers that are postgraduates (\bar{X} =19.42), were higher than the students whose mothers graduated from a primary/secondary school (\bar{X} =14.83) and students whose mothers are graduated from a high school (\bar{X} =16.60 After the effect size was evaluated, it was possible to say that the effect was small.

4.2.6. The Findings Related to the Sixth Sub – Question

To determine if there were meaningful differences in the use of participants' LLS in terms of their fathers' educational levels, the Kruskal Wallis Test was applied. The results are shown in table 4.6.

Table 4.6. The Kruskal Wallis H Test Results of Students' Strategy Use in terms of Father's Educational Level

		N	Mean Rank	df	χ^2	p
Memory Strategies	Primary/Secondary	8	76.38	3	3.672	0.299
	High School	40	65.61			
	University/College	79	81.39			
	Postgraduate	23	72.17			
Cognitive Strategies	Primary/Secondary	8	71.69	3	0.469	0.926
	High School	40	72.78			
	University/College	79	75.97			
	Postgraduate	23	79.93			
Compensation Strategies	Primary/Secondary	8	79.75	3	4.282	0.233
	High School	40	74.53			
	University/College	79	70.82			
	Postgraduate	23	91.80			
Metacognitive Strategies	Primary/Secondary	8	76.63	3	1.112	0.774
	High School	40	77.59			
	University/College	79	72.31			
	Postgraduate	23	82.43			
Affective Strategies	Primary/Secondary	8	90.81	3	4.309	0.230
	High School	40	79.34			
	University/College	79	69.06			
	Postgraduate	23	85.61			
Social Strategies	Primary/Secondary	8	67.00	3	3.635	0.304
	High School	40	86.40			
	University/College	79	71.18			
	Postgraduate	23	74.33			

Note: Primary/Secondary = Primary School/Secondary School.

As reported in table 4.6 above, there were not any significant differences among memory strategies ($\chi^2_{df=3, n=150}=3.672, p=0.299$), cognitive strategies ($\chi^2_{df=3, n=150}=0.469, p=0.926$), compensation strategies ($\chi^2_{df=3, n=150}=4.282, p=0.233$), metacognitive strategies ($\chi^2_{df=3, n=150}=1.112, p=0.774$), affective strategies ($\chi^2_{df=3, n=150}=4.309, p=0.230$) and social strategies ($\chi^2_{df=3, n=150}=3.635, p=0.304$) in terms of their fathers'

4.3. Findings and Results of Qualitative Analysis of the Interviews

The semi-structured interview was used to gain a wider perspective of students' strategy use and find out the possible reasons of it. Two groups were selected: Firstly, students and secondly, teachers. The semi-structured interviews were held with ten students and five English teachers from the private secondary school. After the interview process, the recorded data were transcribed, and Turkish ones (from eight students) were translated into English by the researcher (See Appendix C for the list of interview questions). The translations were confirmed by the researcher's supervisor. The data collected from the participants and teachers were read and arising categories were identified in place of a priori categories (Creswell, 2003). The content analysis was applied for each interview script to identify the similar and different categories and codes. The categories and codes were interpreted by means of Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies which is in accordance with her SILL. After the coding process, the analyzed content would shed light on the differences and similarities between bilingual and monolingual students' strategy use. The semi-structured interview questions designed for the students will be presented by the researcher in the following section.

4.3.1. Findings and Results of Students' Interviews

4.3.1.1. Semi-Structured Interview Question 1

“Which language or languages do you speak at home?”

The table below illustrates the participants spoken languages at home. To identify if they are bilingual or monolingual, the researcher decided to ask about their home language(s) because as mentioned before, knowing some information and having some system and structure knowledge of a second language are fulfilled criteria for being counted as a bilingual individual (Hall, 1952). The term 'Bilingualism' was also defined as the simultaneous use of

two or more languages by the same person (Mackey, 1970). Further, according to Oksaar (1971), it is also required to have automatic code-switching ability for being defined as bilingual.

Table 4.7. Languages spoken at home

Category	Code	f
Only one language	Turkish	
	(P2, P3, P4, P6, P10)	5
Two languages	Turkish and English (P1, P7)	2
	Turkish and German (P5)	1
	English and Arabic (P8, P9)	2

P (1): “English and Turkish, it changes.”

P (4): “We speak only Turkish.

P (5): “German and Turkish. I was born and raised in Switzerland. My parents are also like me. Two years ago, I moved here. For a reasons of the fact that we were raised there, German is like our mother tongue.”

P (9): “We are using Arabic but with others we speak English”.

As seen in table 4.7 above, five students were monolingual and the other five bilinguals. The number of bilingual and monolingual students are balanced. Participant 5 mentioned that she was born and raised in Switzerland and for that reason, she is used to speak German in addition to Turkish. Therefore, this participant was accepted as a bilingual student. Participant 9 stated that they, probably her family and herself, speak Arabic and they use English when they communicate with others. Therefore, she is accepted as a bilingual student because of being able to communicate in more than one language.

4.3.1.2. Semi-Structured Interview Question 2

“Do you speak English in and out of the class?”

The table below demonstrates students’ responses about their English use in and out of the class.

Table 4.8. Speaking English with others in and out of class

Category	Code	f
Responses	Yes, I do. (P1, P3, P5, P8, P9, P10)	8
	No, I don't. (P2, P4)	2

P (5): “Yes, generally we speak in class. We sometimes speak outside, too ...sometimes, we speak with friends or sometimes when we message each other.”

P (7): “Yes, at home ...in classes, in English classes. “

The table 4.8 shows that the majority of the participants speak English in the classes but also out of the class. 8 students use English in their free time and 2 of them never use it out of the class. Participant 5 stated that she generally speaks English both in and out of class with her friends or when texting them. As the participant 7 stated, she uses English both in and out of class.

4.3.1.3. Semi-Structured Interview Question 3

“What do you do when you have questions in class?”

The table below illustrates the ways of asking questions in class.

Table 4.9. Asking questions in class

Category	Code	f
Asking individuals (Social strategies)	Peers (P1)	1
	English teacher (P3, P4, P9)	3
	Peers and English teacher (P5, P6)	2
Showing gesture (Social strategies)	Raising hand (P7, P8, P10)	3
Asking in native language (Compensation strategies)	In Turkish (P2)	1

P (1): “I generally ask my friends.”

P (2): “I ask in Turkish.”

P (3): “I generally ask the teacher.”

P (5): “Generally, ehh...for example, when I can't understand a word or anything, I ask my teachers or friends.”

P (8): “I raise my hand and ask.”

Regarding the ways of asking questions in class, the findings revealed that 6 students prefer to ask individuals, 3 students show gestures such as raising hand and one student asks in her native language, in Turkish. Most of the students who prefer to ask individuals, ask their English teacher. The three categories were divided into two language learning strategies. The researcher linked the categories ‘Asking individuals’ and ‘Showing gesture’ with social strategies. As mentioned in Oxford’s (1990) classification of LLS, social strategies contain the following functions: interacting with people by asking questions, cooperating, and empathizing with others. In this sense, the students who raise their hands were accepted as social strategy users because when they have a question, they probably tend to ask their English teacher. Moreover, the students who prefer to ask the individuals such as peers and English teacher, are considered to be users of social strategies.

4.3.1.4. Semi-Structured Interview Question 4

“What do you do when you have questions outside of the class?”

The table below illustrates the ways of asking questions outside of the class.

Table 4.10. Asking questions outside of the class

Category	Code	f
Asking individuals (Social strategies)	Mother (P1, P7)	2
	Friend (P8)	1
	English teacher (P9)	1
	English teacher and friend (P3)	1
Asking in native language (Compensation strategies)	In Turkish (P2)	1
Unaccompanied by others (Cognitive strategies)	Making revision (P10)	1
	Searching on the Internet (P4, P5)	2
Different ways	Asking the English teacher, searching on the internet and asking a family member (P6)	1

P (1): “I ask my mother.”

P (3): “I ask the teacher and if I can’t find him, I ask a friend.”

P (4): “...for example, if there are some unknown words, I look up the words and create small cards...there is a website called Tureng, I look up from there.”

P (5): “Outside the class, I generally search on the Internet.”

P (6): “Actually, I also ask the teacher...eehh... but if the time is not suitable and if I have to know something urgently, then I search it or eehh...for example, my father ...I generally ask my father, I also ask them, one of my family members who knows English ...this person is my father. “

Findings revealed that most of the participants prefer to ask individuals such as a family member, friend, or English teacher. Those students are categorised into the group of social strategy users. Only one student asks in her mother language, Turkish; therefore, the researcher categorized the function ‘Asking in native language’ as being a technique of compensation strategy. As stated in Oxford’s (1990) classification of LLS, compensation strategy contains the function to overcome limitation in speaking which was defined as “switching to the mother tongue” (Oxford, 1990, p.19). 3 of the participants do not ask individuals, but they prefer to find the answers of their questions by themselves. One student makes revision and two students search on the Internet to find the answers. Those students are categorised as ‘Unaccompanied by others’ and were evaluated as cognitive strategy users. The two functions ‘Making revision’ and ‘Searching on the Internet’ belong to the cognitive strategies. Only one student stated that she uses more than one way in order to find the answers to her questions. She prefers to ask her English teacher, a family member and search on the Internet. Therefore, the researcher named that category as ‘Different ways’.

4.3.1.5. Semi-Structured Interview Question 5

“Do you do any extra work after school for English?”

The next table shows students’ English learning after school.

Table 4.11. Extra work for English after school

Category	Code	f
No extra work	No, I don't. (P1, P2, P3)	3
Reviewing well (Memory strategies)	Only revision (P10)	1
Tools (Cognitive strategies)	Revision and books (P7)	1
	Books and articles (P4)	1
	Books and grammar exercises (P9)	1
	Homework and speaking practice (P8)	1
Adapting English to daily life (Cognitive strategies)	Using English for all-day activities (P6)	1
Digital Resources (Metacognitive strategies)	Videos and music (P5)	1

P (4): "I bought a book from a book fair. It's a book of Sherlock Holmes. Eehh...I read that book, if there are some unknown words, I look them up from that. Or I read articles."

P (5): "I watch English videos. I listen to music."

P (6): "I use English in my daily life."

P (8): "I do my homework, I speak English with others."

P (9): "I like reading and I also like do ...like doing grammar studies."

Table 4.11 shows the mentioned techniques of students when they do extra work for English after school. The researcher classified those three categories (Tools, Digital resources, and Adapting English to daily life) according to Oxford's (1990) classification. The first category 'Tools' contains the following functions from Oxford's Classification (1990): Formally practicing with writing systems, Practicing and Transferring. Therefore, it was associated to cognitive strategies. The second category titled as 'Adapting English to daily life' was accepted as practicing English while doing the all-day activities. The third category 'Digital resources' were linked to 'seeking for language opportunities, which is one of the metacognitive strategies. 3 students stated that they do not study anything for English at home. One student makes only revision, and that function was considered to be a function of memory strategy. The researcher decided to categorise it according to the Oxford's (1990)

classification. The function ‘Reviewing well’ is a part of the memory strategy. A large majority of participants use different tools in order to study for English at home. As seen in table ...sources such as books and articles are used, and revision, grammar exercises, speaking practice and homework are made as extra work. One student stated that he practices by watching films and videos and by listening to in English. Therefore, he seeks for language opportunities, which is one of the metacognitive strategies. Another participant asserted that she uses English in her daily life, so she practices English in all the parts of her life.

4.3.1.6. Semi-Structured Interview Question 6

“Do you like to learn by yourself, in groups or with your teacher?”

The table below illustrates participants’ learning preferences.

Table 4.12. Self-learning, group learning or teacher-based learning

Category	Code	f
Social (Social Strategies)	Group learning (P10)	1
	Teacher-based learning (P1, P4, P9, P7)	4
	Teacher-based and self-learning (P2)	1
Controlling own cognition (Metacognitive strategies)	Self-learning (P3, P5, P6, P8)	4

P (2): “I learn better with my teacher or by myself.”

P (5): “I like to learn by myself, in other words, I feel more comfortable.”

P (8): “I like to learn with my teacher.”

P (10): “Generally, it is better in a group.”

The responses of the participants to the question if they prefer self-, group-, or teacher-based learning show that most of them like to learn socially. Participant 10 reported that it is better to learn in groups. 4 participants stated that they like to learn with their English teacher whereas one participant reported that he prefers both with the teacher and by himself. The

students who like to work with an individual, in groups or with their English teacher, are accepted as social strategy users. 4 participants prefer self-learning which was categorized as ‘Controlling own cognition’, which is a function classified as metacognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990). It is possible to say that the students who prefer learning socially can be regarded as users of social strategies and participants who learn by their own, like to control their own cognition during the process of English learning.

4.3.1.7. Semi-Structured Interview Question 7

“What do you think can facilitate the development and use of affective and social strategies?”

The table below illustrates participants’ mentioned techniques which facilitate the development and use of affective and social strategies.

Table 4.13. Techniques that facilitate the development and use of affective and social strategies

Category	Code	f
Controlling emotions (Affective strategies)	Reducing stress through music (P1)	1
	Being stressed and disciplined (P2)	1
	Expressing yourself well (P4)	1
Interaction (Social strategies)	Speaking English with others (P3, P6, P8, P9, P10)	5
	Feedback from advanced individuals (P5)	1
Digital applications (Cognitive strategies)	Mobile phone applications (P7)	1

P (1): “Sometimes, eeh...when I do my homework and feel stressed...sometimes I listen to music. I relax. There is nothing more.”

P (2): “I think they’re very important...generally, I stress myself out. I don’t motivate myself. Instead of it, I think that it’s better to learn English disciplined by putting pressure on yourself.”

P (4): “We can express ourselves better. “

P (5): “I think ...someone...I think that it is something good that someone who has a good level of English language proficiency can correct your mistakes. Therefore, if I don’t learn my mistakes, I can’t use it (English) accurately.”

P (8): “Because when you practice English with others for example, you might know English better because you are socializing with everyone.”

P10: “For example ...when I speak with my friends or someone, I develop myself in practice.”

As seen in table 4.13, the responses were divided into the following three categories: Controlling emotions; Interaction; and Digital applications. In terms of strategies, the researcher associated the first category ‘Controlling emotions’ to Oxford’s affective strategies which is based on regulating emotions. The second category ‘Interaction’ was associated to social strategies which mainly focuses on cooperation and socializing with others. The third category ‘Digital applications’ was labelled as cognitive strategies because they are resources which are used for receiving and sending messages. Most of the participants asserted that interaction is important to facilitate the development and the use of affective and social strategies. 5 participants reported that speaking English with others, and one participant mentioned that feedback from advanced individuals would facilitate the development and use of those strategies. Moreover, participant 8 emphasized the importance of speaking practice and socializing. Participant 5 stated that feedback from advanced learners is important in order to learn English properly and that would facilitate the development and usage of those strategies. Besides, 3 participants reported that controlling emotions would help to make the development and use of those strategies possible. Among them, participant 1 stated that reducing stress through music, participant 2 mentioned being stressed and disciplined, and participant 4 reported expressing yourself well could facilitate them. Only one student stated that mobile phone applications, which was categorised as ‘Digital resources’, facilitate the process of developing and using those strategies.

4.3.1.8. Semi-Structured Interview Question 8

“What do you think can prevent you from developing and using affective and social strategies?”

The intention of this question was to investigate their personal thoughts about factors that prevent them by developing and using the affective and social strategies. The researcher’s aim was to gain a clear understanding of the elements that inhibit students’ use of

those LLS. For this reason, the answers were not associated with any language learning strategy. The table below reports participants mentioned factors that prevent them from developing and using affective and social strategies.

Table 4.14. Factors that prevent developing and using affective and social strategies

Category	Code	f
Distraction	Noise (P1)	1
	Indiscipline (P2)	1
Emotions	Preconception (P4)	1
	Anxiety (P5, P6)	2
	Unwillingness (P10)	1
No factor	No preventing factor (P3, P8, P9)	3
No opinion	No opinion (P7)	1

P (1): “Eehh...noise.”

P (2): “Indiscipline.”

P (4): “If we have a prejudice against English, it can prevent us. In other words, if we think that it will be difficult.”

P (5): “The things that prevent ...I think that some people refrain from...sometimes, they are afraid of being not able to speak or making mistakes. That can prevent.”

P (6): “If you think that your English isn’t good and if you’re anxious.”

P (8): “I don’t think that there is anything that can prevent you from learning English if you work hard, you can learn any language. “

P (10): “I think that mostly, people are unwilling, not eager to learn ...in other words, unwilling.”

In terms of category, the researcher named the factors ‘Noise’ and ‘Indiscipline’ as distraction. The answers of participants 1 and 2 were classified in this category. The next category called ‘Emotions’ contain the following factors: preconception, anxiety and unwillingness. 4 participants; P4, P5, P6 and P10 reported that emotions would prevent them from developing and using those strategies. 4 participants stated that nothing can prevent them while developing and using those strategies. Only one student didn’t have any opinion about the present question.

4.3.1.9. Semi-Structured Interview Question 9

“What is your own way of learning English at school?”

This question aims to identify students’ LLS when learning English at school. The table below illustrates participants’ LLS during the English learning process at school.

Table 4.15. Own ways of learning English at school

Category	Code	f
Cognitive strategies	Dictionary (P1)	1
	Revision and practice (P4, P5, P10, P7,	4
	Books and writing exercises (P8, P9)	2
Memory strategies	Memorising (P2)	1
	Creating mental linkages (P6)	1
Social Strategies	Cooperating with others (P3)	1

P (1): “For example, if I don’t understand a word, I look up from a dictionary.”

P (2): “Generally, memorizing.”

P (3): “I am social.”

P (4): “Every day, I revise the words which I wrote in my notebook.”

P (6): “I listen to the teacher very carefully. Therefore, I get almost everything. In my mind, I always revise. If you do questions from the book, you reinforce the topics. “

P (7): “At school, I listen to my teacher. When I come home, I read and write with my mum.”

P (9): “Probably, reading and writing...I read phantasy books.”

First of all, the researcher’s classification of participants’ answers is as follows: Cognitive strategies, Memory strategies and Social strategies. As the table above shows, the techniques such as using a dictionary; making revision and practice, and reading books and doing writing exercises were categorised in cognitive strategies. According to Oxford’s (1990) classification of language learning strategies, understanding and producing new language by different means are the main functions of cognitive strategies.

The next category called memory strategies, include the following functions: memorising and creating mental linkages. The last category, social strategies, includes the function about cooperation.

Most of the participants (7) reported that they use cognitive strategies while learning English at school. As stated by the participants 4 and 6, revision plays an important role when learning English. 2 participants mentioned the functions ‘memorising’ and ‘creating mental linkages’, which belong to cognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990). Only one student stated that she learns by cooperating with others, which is one of the social strategies.

4.3.1.10.Semi-Structured Interview Question 10

“What is your aim of learning English?”

The purpose of this question was to identify the students’ objectives of learning English. The researcher wanted to gain a deep insight and make a connection between their aims and strategy use. The table below demonstrates participants’ aims of learning English.

Table 4.16. Aims of learning English

Category	Code	f
Qualified communication skills	Contact with foreigners (P1, P5, P8)	3
Intercultural awareness	Acculturation (P2)	1
Future plans	Studying abroad (P4, P10, P3)	3
	Travelling abroad (P9)	1
	Living broad (P7, P6)	2

P (1): “...if tourists come and ask for directions and you can’t speak English. You can’t help. You feel bad. For that reason, it is better.”

P (2): “Acculturation, in terms of culture, it is good and almost all over the world, English is learned. “

P (3): “To develop myself and to be able to communicate with others when I travel to other countries.”

P (4): “Hopefully, I want to study abroad when I grow up,”

P (7): “I want to live abroad.”

P (9): “Therefore, I can become better in English. If I want to travel to an English city, I can speak fluently.”

3 categories were formed according to participants’ responses. The categories are as follows: Qualified communication skills, Intercultural awareness, and Future plans. 3 participants reported that their aim is to feel comfortable when contacting with foreigners. Participant 1 mentioned that you can feel bad if you cannot help tourists when they ask for directions. Only the participant 2 stated that her aim of learning English is to become a sophisticated person. Her response was classified as ‘Intercultural awareness’ because the researcher defined her response as being willing to understand both your own and other cultures. More than half of the participants (6) learn English in order to realize their aim of studying abroad (3 participants), travelling abroad (1 participant) and living abroad (2 participants). Finally, the researcher couldn’t identify any relationship between students’ strategy use and their aim of learning English.

4.3.1.11.Semi-Structured Interview Question 11

“ What do you do concretely for mastering the four skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing?”

This question aims to identify students’ strategy use in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Firstly, the researcher associated the responses to the language learning strategies defined by Oxford (1990). The types of strategies are given next to the codes in parenthesis. The table below shows the techniques for mastering the four basic language skills.

Table 4.17. Techniques for mastering the four basic language skills

Category	Code	f
Listening skill	Listening to English music (Metacognitive strategies; P1, P2, P5, P8, P9, P10)	6
	Listen to the teacher (Metacognitive strategies; P3)	1
	Using digital resources (Metacognitive strategies; P4, P7)	2
	Watching influential videos (Metacognitive strategies; P6)	1
Speaking skill	Practicing (Cognitive strategies; P1, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8, P9, P10)	9
	Translating (Cognitive strategies; P2)	1
Reading skill	Reading English books (Metacognitive strategies; P1, P2, P3, P5, P6, P7, P8, P9,10)	9
	Reading English books and articles (Metacognitive strategies; P4)	1
Writing skill	Nothing (P1, P2)	2
	Writing exercises through repetition (Cognitive strategies; P3, P7, P6, P8)	4
	Translating (Cognitive strategies; P4, P5)	2
	Writing stories (Cognitive strategies; P9)	1
	Doing homework (Cognitive strategies; P10)	1

Listening skill:

P (1): "I listen to music."

P (3): Firstly, I stay focused in classes. I listen to my teacher. Then, I usually ask questions. If I don't understand something, I ask the teacher.

P (6): “There are TED talks... I often listen to them...they really give talks about my interests.”

P (7): I play videos on YouTube and listen to them. Then, I tell the content of them to my mother.

P (10): “I mostly listen to music. I love music. When I listen to music and songs in English, my capacity becomes developed.”

Speaking skill:

P (2): “For my speaking skill, when I am curious about a word, I translate it and there is something that enables you to hear the pronunciation... I use that. I usually translate.”

P (8): “By interacting with others and speaking with others.”

Reading skill:

P (1). “I read books.”

P (4): “I read English books and articles.”

P (8): “Reading books.”

Writing skill:

P (2): “Actually, I don’t do anything.”

P (3): “Eeh... mostly, I study by writing.”

P (4): “...sometimes, when some ideas come up to my mind, I write them in Turkish. Then, I translate them to English.”

P (9): “I write stories. “

P (10): “...I usually do my homework and it develops.”

As seen in the table, 4 codes were associated to metacognitive strategies for the listening skill. The researcher identified the following function of this strategy related to the answers given by the participants: Seeking language opportunities, which provide the learners to control their own cognition (Oxford, 1990). The 4 codes were associated to this function. According to the results, all of the participants (10) use metacognitive strategies when they master for their listening skill. 6 out of 10 participants stated that they listen to English music. As the participant 10 mentioned, she masters her listening skills while listening to English music and she believes that it develops her capacity. 2 participants mentioned that digital resources such as videos and films help to improve their listening skill. Participant 6 stated

that she watches TED talks, which are influential videos, and emphasizes that she is interested in them. However, participant 3 stated that he doesn't use any resources, but he stays focused in classes, so he develops his listening skill by listening to the teacher.

The table above also reports that 2 codes were created for the speaking skill, which were associated to the cognitive strategies. The codes 'Practicing' and 'Translating' were labelled as cognitive strategies according to Oxford's classification (1990). The function of this strategy is to understand and produce the target language by different means. As showed in the table above, almost all participants (9 participants) prefer practicing in order to master their speaking skill. In order to develop her speaking skill, the participant 8 emphasizes that speaking with others, in other words interaction, is used as a technique. However, participant 2 stated that he prefers translating when he is curious about a word and then, finds out the pronunciation of that word.

In terms of reading skill, the researcher associated 2 codes which represent the metacognitive strategies. The codes 'Reading English books' and 'Reading English books and articles' are considered as the function that is focused on seeking language opportunities. This function is described as an element of metacognitive strategies according to Oxford's (1990) classification of LLS. As seen in the table above, most of the participants (9 participants) prefer reading English books in order to master their reading skill. Only one student said that she read English book and articles.

In terms of writing skill, 4 codes were defined by the researcher, which were linked to cognitive strategies except one code. The codes that are associated to cognitive strategies are as follows: Writing exercises through repetition; Translating; Writing stories; Doing homework. The code 'Nothing' could not be associated to any of the language learning strategies. 'Writing exercises through repetition' was accepted as repetition and this action is an element of cognitive strategies. 'Translating' is also demonstrated as an action of cognitive strategies which provides analyzing and reasoning (Oxford, 1990). Moreover, the code 'Writing stories' is an action of cognitive strategies which provides creating structures for input and output. The last code 'Doing homework' can be seen as repetition of the previously learned content. Therefore, it is also considered as one of the cognitive strategies. As reported in the table above, almost all of the participants (8 participants), use cognitive strategies in order to develop their writing skill. 4 participants stated that they do writing exercises through repetition. 2 students master their reading skill by translating words. Only participant 1 mentioned that she develops her reading skill by writing stories. Besides, participant 10 does his homework to master this skill.

4.3.1.12.Semi-Structured Interview Question 12

“What is the most helpful or important thing in learning English?”

This question aims to give information about participants’ viewpoint regarding the helpful or important techniques for English learning. The researcher sought to make a confirmation about students’ strategy use by supporting the data with their mentioned answers. Furthermore, the researcher associated the responses to the language learning strategies defined by Oxford (1990). The types of strategies are given next to the codes in parenthesis. The table below illustrates the helpful or important techniques in learning English mentioned by students.

Table 4.18. Helpful or important techniques for English learning

Category	Code	f
Practice (Cognitive strategies)	Speaking practice (P3, P6, P7, P9, P10)	5
	Doing reading exercise (P1)	1
	Grammar knowledge (P2)	1
	Vocabulary knowledge (P5)	1
Creating structure (Cognitive strategies)	Note taking (P4)	1
Seeking language opportunities (Metacognitive strategies)	Interaction, reading and writing (P8)	1

P (1): “Reading.”

P (2): “Only grammar.”

P (3): “I think speaking.”

P (4): “Note taking.”

P (5): “In my opinion ...first of all, vocabulary knowledge and then knowledge about their spelling.”

P (8): “I am thinking. The same things, interacting with others, reading and writing.”

P (9): To develop your English skills because if you want to go to an English state, you can ...you can speak English fluently.”

P (10): “I think practicing as much as you can. In other words, speaking practice.”

In terms of category, the researcher defined 3 categories which were associated with language learning strategies according to Oxford (1990). The first category, titled as ‘Practice’, was marked as cognitive strategies because the practice of reading, speaking, grammar and vocabulary associate to the actions of those strategies. Most of the participants (5 participants) reported that practice is the most helpful or important thing in learning English. Participant 1 mentioned that only reading is important whereas participant 2 stated only grammar would be helpful or important. Participant 5 reported that vocabulary knowledge is necessary or useful. The second category, ‘Creating structure’ was associated to cognitive strategies due to the fact that note taking is an action of that strategy as stated by Oxford (1990). Only participant 4 reported that note taking is the most helpful or necessary in learning English. The last category called ‘Seeking language opportunities’ was marked as metacognitive strategies by virtue of being an action represented in the classification of LLS. Only participant 8 mentioned that interacting with others and additionally, reading and writing would be helpful or important in the process of English learning.

4.3.1.13.Semi-Structured Interview Question 13

“Do you make learning plans and set your learning goals usually?”

The aim of this question was to identify participants use of metacognitive strategies. The researcher sought to make a confirmation about the frequency of students who use the metacognitive strategies. The actions ‘Planning for a language task’ and ‘Setting goals and objectives’ are associated to metacognitive strategies according to Oxford’s (1990) classification. The table below illustrates students’ mentioned responses in terms of making learning plans and setting learning goals.

Table 4.19. Making learning plans and setting learning goals

Category	Code	f
Metacognitive strategies	Yes, I do. (P3, P4, P6, P9,	4
Undefined	No, I don’t.(P1, P2, P5, P7, P8, P10)	6

P (1): “No. Because the time of learning changes. For example, something comes up and then your plan will be a waste.”

P (2): “No...I can say that I don’t study so much by making plans.”

P (3): “Yes, I do according to some criteria. For example, I make plans in regard to my needs...or the requirements I will need in the future.”

P (6): “Yes. I definitely create in some way. In other words, I always make plans, set a time for doing the tasks. When I tick (a task), I feel happy. Moreover, you can see and that motivates you. For that reason, I like to make plans.”

P (8): “Yes, I make to improve my English but I don’t do daily.”

As seen in the table above, more than half of the participants (6 participants) don’t make any learning plans and set learning goals. Therefore, the researcher couldn’t classify those participants responses. Participant 1 mentioned that he doesn’t make any plans because the time of his learning changes. Participant 2 reported that he studies without any planning. 4 participants said that they make plans and set their learning goals. Therefore, the researcher accepted them as users of metacognitive strategies.

4.3.2. Summary of the Qualitative Findings and Results

The researcher identified the questions which provided to gain a deep understanding of students’ strategy use. 9 out of 13 semi-structured interview questions enabled the researcher to define participants language learning strategies. For each question, the most stated strategies by both groups; monolingual and bilingual students, are presented below. For question 11, the frequency of strategy use was evaluated separately for each skill.

Table 4.20. Summary of the Qualitative Findings and Results (Part 1)

Question	LLS	Group	f
3	Social Strategies	Bilingual	5
	Social Strategies	Monolingual	4
4	Social Strategies	Bilingual	4
	Cognitive Strategies	Monolingual	2
5	Metacognitive Strategies	Bilingual	3
	Cognitive Strategies	Monolingual	2
6	Social Strategies	Bilingual	3
	Social Strategies	Monolingual	3
7	Social Strategies	Bilingual	3
	Social Strategies	Monolingual	3
9	Cognitive Strategies	Bilingual	5
	Cognitive Strategies	Monolingual	2
	Memory Strategies	Monolingual	2

Table 4.21. Summary of the Qualitative Findings and Results (Part 2)

Question	LLS	Group	f
11			
Listening Skills	Metacognitive Strategies	Bilingual	5
	Metacognitive Strategies	Monolingual	5
Speaking Skills	Cognitive Strategies	Bilingual	5
	Cognitive Strategies	Monolingual	5
Reading Skills	Metacognitive Strategies	Bilingual	5
	Metacognitive Strategies	Monolingual	5
Writing Skills	Cognitive Strategies	Bilingual	4
	Cognitive Strategies	Monolingual	4
12			
	Cognitive Strategies	Bilingual	4
	Cognitive Strategies	Monolingual	5
13			
	Metacognitive	Bilingual	1
	Metacognitive Strategies	Monolingual	3

As seen in the table above, bilingual participants mostly mentioned the social strategies (for questions 3, 4, 6, 7). Besides, the findings about monolingual participants show that they mostly use cognitive strategies (for questions 4, 5, 9, 11, 12).

4.3.3. Findings and Results of Teachers' Semi-Structured Interviews

As mentioned before, the researcher asked 17 semi-structured interview questions to English teachers from the secondary school. The 17 interview questions consist of 3 (Questions 1, 2 and 8) general questions about their student's English use inside and outside of the class, and their aims of learning English. Out of the 17 questions, 7 (Questions 3, 4, 5, 11, 12, 16, 17) are based on students' strategy use. Most of the information about students' LLS use were gathered by means of those questions. Further, the researcher also aimed to find out the reasons about students' preferred LLS use. Therefore, she formed 7 questions (Questions 6, 7, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15) to investigate if there is a possible relationship between students' strategy use and their teachers' attitudes and teaching style.

4.3.3.1. Semi-Structured Interview Question 1 (directed to Teachers)

“Do all of your students speak English during English classes? What percentage of your students speak English approximately?”

Table 4.22. Teachers' responses about students' English use during English class

Category	Code	f
Almost half	Between 40 - 50% (T3)	1
More than half	More than 50% (T1, T4, T5)	3
Almost all	More than 90% (T2)	1

T (2): “I find that the students who aren't speaking English are the ones whose levels are basically extremely low. I would say 85-90% of the students are speaking English in the classroom. The first reason, either the previous school that they came from, they didn't work very motivated to speak English in the classroom. The other reason is for the same problem mostly teachers usually made a decision not to call on that student because it's easier to bypass and go to the student that is going to answer the questions to keep the class flowing. Third reason is, those students usually try to hide themselves within the lessons. Therefore, I usually find it's one of these reasons why students aren't speaking English in the classroom.”

T (3): “They mostly prefer talking in their mother tongue - in Turkish. They want to make sure that they really understand the topic, the meaning of the vocabulary. Approximately, 40-50% of students speak English in the English classes.”

T (4): “No, they don't. I can say 80-85% of them speak in English. The others...sometimes feel shy ...they don't know the words they want to explain. That's why they speak in Turkish but then, I warn them quickly.”

T (5): “I can say 98% of them speak English and they never integrate any Turkish in their language. The target language is our first language during the class. We try not to interfere with any Turkish in our lessons...Some students come from state schools, so they don't have much fluency while speaking and that's why they struggle while speaking and they give the answers in Turkish. They feel insecure while talking because they don't know the language well.”

As seen in table 4.22, one of the teachers (T3) stated that almost half of the students speak English in English classes. Another teacher (T5) reported that almost all students speak English and she also mentioned that the students never integrate any Turkish in their language. T1, T4 and T5 said that more than half of the learners speak English in English classes.

4.3.3.2. Semi-Structured Interview Question 2 (directed to Teachers)

“Do your students speak English outside of the classroom, too?”

The table below illustrates Teachers’ answers about students’ English use during English classes.

Table 4.23. Students' English use outside of the classroom

Category	Code	f
Half	50% (T3)	1
Less than half	Less than 50% (T2, T4, T5)	3
All	100% (T1)	1

T (1): “Yes, I think that my students speak English outside the classroom, too. Yes, because they also use English at home, in the garden, in the school garden. They use.”

T (2): “I always made a point to walk around to the different classrooms in the break times, try to pull students together, just to have a conversation with them. I always encouraged my students to speak outside of the classroom whether they were in the corridor, whether they were down in the canteen, whatever is going on. I tried to encourage them to speak at least two sentences to get some practice outside of the classroom. Therefore, I would say, yes. For the most part, students who are very interested in learning English and want to improve, they are speaking outside of the classrooms. I would say 40-45% of the students speak English outside of the classroom. And I find usually, it is those students that are participating in extra curricula activities. For example, MUN. Those students level of English tends to be higher, so they want to practice more.”

T (3): “Yes, they definitely do. About 50% of the students speak English outside of the classroom.”

T (4): “I don’t think so...maybe the percentage can be 5-10%. When they play video games, maybe they use English. I don’t think that they use and speak English because they watch some movies, some cartoons ...”

T (5): “Yes, 20% of the students practice outside of the classroom. The students see you as a role model if you’re a good teacher. They want to role model the teacher even if they’re outside of the classroom. They practice in their break time.”

According to one teacher (T3), only half of the students speak English outside of the classroom. Only one teacher (T1) reported that all students speak English. However, most of the teachers (T2, T4, T5) stated that less than half of their students speak the target language.

4.3.3.3. Semi-Structured Interview Question 3 (directed to Teachers)

“Do students ask you, their friends or try to find an answer by themselves when they have any questions?”

The table below reports the use of social strategies of students from their teachers’ point of view.

Table 4.24. Students' use of social strategies from their teachers' point of view

Category	Code	f
Asking individuals (Social strategies)	Asking the teacher (T1, T5)	2
	Asking the teacher and friends (T2, T3)	2
Asking individuals and self-answering (Social strategies)	Asking their teacher and parents, and self-answering (T4)	1

T (1): “Especially, when they have questions, they ask me. If they don’t have, let’s say if they have unknown vocabulary, they don’t use any dictionary. They ask me. They also work in teams. They ask each other. They try to do something in teams. They like studying in groups. ...When they have questions, they don’t search on the Internet. They just ask me. They don’t want to search... instead of searching, they want to play outside. They get bored with online lessons.”

T (2): “I find that my students are really using the chat box in the online courses if they have a question. They rather ask their friends. They type the question, their friends respond or they ask me. Especially, most of my students in secondary, in order for me to ...to have a close connection with them. I give my WhatsApp number, so they’re always sending me messages when they don’t understand. For the most part, they ask their friends.”

T (3): “First of all, they ask me. They directly ask me. It is approximately 90% of them... Only a few of them ask their friends.”

T (4): “Of course, they ask me...If they have questions, they ask their parents or me... they don’t use English while asking. For example, I want them to do something and they don’t understand, they ask me or just try to do it but they do it wrong...”

T (5): “Firstly, they ask me...because they trust the teacher. When they ask me, I ask the question back...I direct them to find the answers by themselves. If they still can’t find the answers, I answer their questions.”

As the table above demonstrates, all of the teachers (T1, T2, T3, T4, T5) reported that their students prefer to ask their teachers or their teacher and friends or ask their teachers, parents and try to find the answers by themselves when they have any questions. Therefore, it can be accepted that all of the students use social strategies from the point of their teachers.

4.3.3.4. Semi-Structured Interview Question 4 (directed to Teachers)

“Which learning techniques do students use after school?”

The table below shows the findings about students’ LLS use after school from their teachers’ point of view.

Table 4.25. Students' techniques for learning English after school

Category	Code	f
Applying memory based techniques (Memory strategies)	Memorization and online games (T1)	1
	Using imagery (T5)	1
Using digital resources (Metacognitive strategies)	Online games and movies (T3)	1
Using different resources (Metacognitive strategies)	English magazines, video games, music and movies (T2)	1
Applying different techniques (Metacognitive and memory strategies)	Books, movies, cartoons and memorization (T4)	1

T (1):” After school, I think they use...for example memorising. They like learning with games. I think online games, they use web2 tools and they play games. For example, as you know, there are *web2 tools*, they like playing kahoot and they like playing computer games. “

T (2): “Yes, they do. They are students who...I have students who have a subscription to those English magazines. A lot of students play video games and have the chat boxes where they can plan with someone else who speaking English. I really have students telling me that they’re practicing English while playing Minecraft. Therefore, they use a lot of different resources. Listening to music, they love telling me about their favourite Disney movie or whatever movie that they’re watching for getting their extra practice from.”

T (3): “They mostly prefer playing online games. This year, nothing so much because of their exam as I told you. I mean mostly through online games and movies. A few of them...they prefer learning, especially new vocabulary from songs and lyrics.”

T (4): “Of course, they tell me which techniques they’re using. In secondary school, they do a lot of memorization, they memorize the verbs, irregular verbs and etc...because of this habit, and they try to memorize tenses too. Therefore, they don’t want to understand the logic...the grammar. They watch some movies and cartoons. They memorize all the time. 25% of them read books. “

T (5): “Of course, they use. For example, we have a board in the classroom for the new words and we write and draw on it...for example the word ‘lamp’, I want them to write and draw it, Therefore, I want them to learn visually. They also apply the same technique as homework. They have an English wall in their room at home.”

As the findings show, 2 teachers (T1 and T5) mentioned that their students mostly use memory strategies. They learn by memorizing and by playing online games or by using imageries, which were associated to the memory strategies by Oxford (1990). Besides, 2 teachers (T2, T3) reported that their students learn by seeking language opportunities such as watching movies and videos, listening to music, playing online games and reading magazines in English. This function was stated as being one of the functions of metacognitive strategies. Only one teacher (T4) stated that her students use memorization, which is one of the techniques of memory strategies and different resources, which are accepted as ‘seeking language opportunities’ involving the metacognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990).

4.3.3.5. Semi-Structured Interview Question 5 (directed to Teachers)

“Are your students mostly social or mostly individual in English classes? Why?”

The table below demonstrates students’ strategy use from their teachers’ viewpoints.

Table 4.26. *Stundets' socialization level*

Category	Code	f
Social learning (Social strategies)	Mostly social (T1)	1
	Social (T3, T5)	2
Individual learning (Metacognitive strategies)	Mostly individual (T2)	1
Both social and individual learning (Undefined strategy)	Social and individual (T4)	1

T (1): “Some of the students are social, they like sharing with their friends. And some of them like studying individually. It changes. It depends on the character of the student. Approximately, 70% are social. 30% are individual. They want to be alone, sometimes. Yes, because they’re going to be teenagers. They don’t want to share everything with their friends. They want to be alone.”

T (2): “I think the reason is their connection from primary doing into secondary because usually you find that the class they were friends in primary. They are still in the same class, in secondary, they’re most social. But more often than not, in secondary, we get mixture of students from different schools. Therefore, usually, because they don’t have their friends from previous school ...they usually tend to be by themselves...I think usually, the students who are trying to learn or study by themselves, you usually find that their level of English is good. And for them it feel, the other students’ English is not as good as theirs. They would tend to just...you know, do the work by themselves, especially, when it comes to group work. If they feel that this person’s level of English is not as good as they would rather not work with that person. They would rather do the work just by themselves. At the beginning, I used to I believe that those because they were shy. It is simply because...they have box themselves in this situation. For this reason, they’re not shy, they have really figured out how to work well in a group because again...because, maybe at their previous school, the teacher did a lot of pair work, so they had to do the things by themselves. Maybe the teacher did the pair work and the people in the group didn’t really help. Therefore, they just...rather just do the work by themselves.”

T (3): “Social. Because this is language. Isn’t it very normal? They’re talkative anyway. They believe that English is one of the lessons in which they can talk and express their feelings and ideas easily. Therefore, they’re social.”

T (4): “It depends on the child. It depends on the culture he has or she has and it depends on their parents. They have a big role in this. If they’re pushing their kids then, the kids can be shy. 50% of them are shy and 50% of them are social... Maybe they’re not social, maybe they don’t care so much...”

T (5): “They are social because I also want them to work in pairsthe projects and everything...English is a social language and it is for socializing.”

As demonstrated in the table, the majority of teachers (T1, T3, T5) mentioned that their students are mostly social in English classes. Only T2 stated that most of her students are individual. Therefore, the researcher associated it to self-learning, which can be the function called ‘Centering your own learning’. This function is marked as an element of metacognitive strategies. Besides, T4 said that her students are both social and individual learners. Therefore, the researcher could not associate her response to any certain strategy.

4.3.3.6. Semi-Structured Interview Question 6 (directed to Teachers)

“What can facilitate the development and use of students’ learning strategies?”

The following table presents the findings about teachers’ opinions involving the techniques which can facilitate students’ development and use of strategies.

Table 4.27. Techniques that facilitate the development and use of strategies

Category	Code	f
Resources	Dictionaries (T3)	1
Teachers’ teaching methods	Digital-based materials (T1)	1
	Interactive lessons (T2)	1
	Interactive and culture - based lessons (T4)	1
	Integrated and motivational lessons (T5)	1

T (1): “To develop their learning strategies, I think that we should learn new methods, new and innovative techniques because as you know, there is corona virus, and we always have online lessons. Therefore, we need digital materials.”

T (2): “I would say, making the lessons more interactive. I think that would be a better way to facilitate all of those different strategies...If you take that topic and somehow figure out a way to put them in the middle of it to encourage them. Then, they’re able to ... you’ll see that the wheels turning and they’re trying to come up with strategies and how to do the different things...The teacher has to be willing to take a backseat, flip the classroom and then, allow the students to be able to facilitate the lessons also.”

T (3): “Dictionaries can facilitate.”

T (4): “We teachers have to make them more social because the teacher is a role model. We’re not teaching only English but we also teach them how to be social. Actually, teaching English is totally a complex thing. It’s complicated. You’re giving drama lessons, you’re giving pronunciation lessons, too. Also speaking, listening, writing and reading. It’s more than a lesson, it’s a cultural thing. And when you look at the lessons as an English teacher...we learn language but we also learn a culture. We have to combine a lot of social skills within the lessons and try to give them. This should be like the highest one should be speaking and we should reduce the percentage for example...In Turkey, they always memorize and that’s why they don’t learn. They don’t have social skills and they’re not using those skills. They just do tests. That’s it. They can’t learn by completing tests. They have to use the language, they have to use it. They have to work on their practical skills...In short, we should do a lot of activities which will make them social, also physically active and then, they will use it...the subject we try to teach them...We should teach culture, we should teach them how to mimic...Imitation...because when you want to learn a language, it’s actually an imitation...you imitate an accent.”

T (5): “Integrated classes or strategies that motivate students on speaking and reading...They don’t read. Some motivation techniques can facilitate.”

The researcher asked this question in order to find out if there is a possible relationship between students’ and teachers’ opinions involving the factors that facilitate the process of strategy use. According to the findings, 4 teachers stated that a teacher’s teaching methods would be efficient to develop and use the LLS. Only T3 mentioned that dictionaries would help to facilitate this process.

4.3.3.7. Semi-Structured Interview Question 7 (directed to Teachers)

“What can prevent them from developing and using those strategies?”

This researcher asked this question in order to find out if there is a possible relationship between students’ and teachers’ opinions involving the factors that prevent the process of strategy use. The table below presents teachers’ viewpoints involving the factors that prevent students’ from developing and using the LLS.

Table 4.28. Factors that prevent students from the development and use of those LLS

Category	Code	f
Emotions	Unwillingness (T1, T5)	2
	Discouragement (T2)	1
	Anxiety (T3)	1
The Educational System	Difficulty of the curriculum and lack of interactive learning context (T4)	1

T (1): “Sometimes, they say that “Oh teacher, you give lots of homework. I don’t want to do it. I fed up with studying. I want to go outside, play outside.” They don’t want to have any homework. That’s why, they don’t want to use any strategy and any method. They want to be alone. They want to go outside, play outside...They want to be alone. They feel alone and they’re always at home because of corona virus. That’s why, they have some problem.”

T (2): “Demotivating the students will just stop the entire learning process. Telling a student wrong answer...when the student is reading, correcting every word...that would demotivate the student. The student will shy away from whatever is happening in the classroom and then, he or she will be less willing the next time...We have to allow the student especially in secondary school, to make mistakes. “

T (3): “As you know they’re teenagers, they don’t want to make any mistake. And most of the time, they feel embarrassed. They feel embarrassed whenever they make a mistake. Anxiety can prevent them.”

T (4): “The educational system. I am sorry to say that but the Turkish educational system tests the knowledge of the students only with the tests. Therefore, we don’t test their speaking skills, listening skills...maybe we do...I don’t know but especially, in the state schools, we don’t. 50% of the test should be speaking tests and listening tests. We have to make the

curriculum a little bit easy. We have to make the students involved in the activities that we do. But if we do social and physical activities, all of them will be involved. And emotions can also prevent them...because you know that Turkish people are emotional people. We want to be connected.”

T (5): “They don’t have any motivation or any aim of becoming successful...They don’t want to read and write or make a research to find an answer.”

Regarding the findings, the majority of teachers (T1, T2, T3, T5) asserted that negative emotions such as unwillingness, anxiety and discouragement would prevent them from developing and using those strategies. Only one teacher (T4) mentioned that the educational system is the reason for that because the curriculum is difficult for the students.

4.3.3.8. Semi-Structured Interview Question 8 (directed to Teachers)

“How do you improve your students’ four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing)? Inside and outside of class?”

The researcher asked this question in order to find out if there is a possible relationship between students’ LLS use and teachers’ teaching techniques of the four basic skills. The table below presents teachers’ teaching techniques involving the listening skill.

Listening Skill

Table 4.29. Techniques to improve the listening skill of the students inside and outside of the class

Category	Code	f
Digital resources (Metacognitive Strategies)	Songs and movies (T1, T3)	2
	Online video platform (T5)	1
Resources (Metacognitives strategies)	Learner’s book and listening tracks (T2)	1
Resources and conversations (Metacognitive strategies)	Musical activites, learner’s book, dialogues (T4)	1

Listening skill:

T (1): “Outside of class, I give some advice. For example, the channel Netflix, they watch movies in English. While listening, they learn and they listen ... especially, they like to listen to pop music. And they listen to pop songs in English.”

T (2): “I am fortunate with the books that I have. I find that usually those language books when it specially comes to listening, the speaker is speaking rather slowly in an effort to enunciate every word so that you can hear everything. With the books that we use, I find that there is not often a case. They are speaking at a normal speed and in my opinion, this forces students to learn. I always send the listening audio file of any listening that we are having to students. I send it to them, I wait a day or I send the transcript of the audio that they have the listening and the audio. So the students who have troubles, now have the transcript that they can follow. This is improving their reading skills at the same time.”

T (3): “I advise them to listen to songs, to watch films, movies and they do...”

T (4): “Outside of the class, I always joke and chit chat with them. I talk and they listen to me. We make dialogues. Inside the class, in terms of listening, we listen to the listening tracks in our books. Sometimes, we do some musical activities.”

As the findings show, all of the teachers use different resources such as learners’ books and digital resources such as movies, online video platforms, music and listening tracks to develop their listening skills. Only one teacher mentioned that she uses resources and additionally, she develops their listening skill through dialogues. Therefore, in terms of improving students’ listening skill, it can be accepted that the teachers mostly direct students to seek language opportunities, which is one of the elements of metacognitive strategies.

Speaking Skill

Table 4.30. Techniques to improve the speaking skill of the students inside and outside of the classroom

Category	Code	F
Positive emotions (Affective strategies)	Motivating and encouraging (T3, T5)	2
Active learning (Metacognitive strategies)	Creating materials and scripts (T1)	1
	Creating debates (T2)	1
Daily conversations (Social strategies)	Teacher – student communication (T4)	1

T (1): “We create dialogues in the classroom, and they prepare their own materials on scenarios and then, they write some paragraphs ...and they have roles in the paragraph and then, they speak.”

T (2): “Usually, I have debates within each unit. I try to pull out a debate topic. I give them a topic before the next lesson. They have time to research, then the entire lesson becomes a debate lesson.”

T (3): “I motivate them. Because I believe that they have the capacity and they have enough knowledge, they’re really good.”

As the table above illustrates, most of the teachers improve students’ speaking skill by motivating and encouraging them. Besides, making positive statements is an action of affective strategies. Therefore, the teachers might develop students’ listening skill by directing them to use affective strategies. It cannot be defined accurately.

Reading skill

Table 4.31. Techniques to improve the reading skill of students inside and outside of the classroom

Category	Code	f
Positive emotions (Affective strategies)	Motivating and encouraging (T3)	1
Online platform (Metacognitive strategies)	Reading e-books (T1)	1
Interactive learning and providing books for students (Metacognitive strategies)	Gesturing and reading books (T2)	1
Resource books and accents (Cognitive strategies)	Reading in different accents (T4)	1
Teacher's unwillingness (Undefined strategy)	Being unwilling to read (T5)	1

As presented in the table above, most of the teachers (T1, T2) develop students' reading skill by using different resources such as e-books and books. Moreover, T2 mentioned that he also tried to make reading activities interactive. Therefore, in terms of improving students' reading skill, it can be accepted that the teachers mostly direct students to seek language opportunities, which is one of the elements of metacognitive strategies. However, T4 stated that he develops their reading skill by doing reading practices with the students and additionally, he reads with different accents. Therefore, this technique can be considered as 'formally practicing with sounds and writing systems', which is stated in Oxford's (1990) classification for cognitive strategies. T5 feels weak and willing and for that reason, she does not make any activity to develop her students' reading skill.

T (1): "We have a platform, the MyOn platform. We use the online MyOn platform. They read books and answer the questions about it. "

T (2): "...I try to make the reading activities more interactive by taking certain vocabulary words, giving a body movement or gesture that they have to do whenever they hear the word, they have to do the gesture... I often send extra reading topics or reading passages to them so

that they have that. But I find that most of my students like to read and they often ask me for different books...

T (3): “They’re lazy. They don’t want to spend time in reading, even during the lessons. If the paragraph is long, if the questions are long, they don’t prefer reading. And I always motivate them.”

T (4): “In terms of reading, we do some reading practices. We use some resource books. I also read with different accents...with French accent, Indian accent and Russian accent...because you can know English really well but if the person in front you has some accent or a poor level of English, it will be very hard for you to understand.”

T (5): “For reading...I am really weak in terms of improving their reading because I also don’t like reading. I don’t know how to improve their reading skill. I mean, I know some techniques to improve but I don’t like it. It’s one of my weaknesses.”

Writing skill

Table 4.32. Techniques to improve the writing skill of the students inside and outside of the classroom

Category	Code	f
Advice (Cognitive strategies)	Advising to take notes (T3)	1
Advice and active learning (Cognitive strategy)	Advising to create a material and giving project homework (T4)	1
International project (Cognitive strategies)	Writing to pen pals (T1)	1
Converting the content (Cognitive strategies)	Converting a book into a digital version (T2)	1
Homework (Cognitive strategies)	Giving homework (T5)	1

T (1): “They have pen friends, pen pals. We have a project, an international project. And they write letters.”

T (2): “The writing is a bit tough. The writing is hard. I find that most of my students really don’t like to write, especially in secondary, they don’t really like writing. Therefore, I try to

take the writing again and turn it into another skill, maybe PowerPoint instead of just writing in your notebook.”

T (3): “Mostly, they don’t know what to write about and they don’t know ...Therefore, I always tell them to take little notes in each paragraph about what they’re going to talk...”

T (4): “Sometimes, I advise them to make research about the topics they’re interested in. Sometimes, they prepare PowerPoint presentations, or they send the information they found to me through our online k12 platform. We also give project homework. They can draw, write and search about a certain topic.”

T (5): “In terms of writing, I give them homework in order to improve their writing skill about writing their own experiences. It gives some improvement. “

The findings showed that all teachers use cognitive based techniques in order to develop students writing skill. The techniques are associated to the function called ‘Understanding and producing new language by different means’, which is the basic function of cognitive strategies asserted by Oxford (1990).

4.3.3.9. Semi-Structured Interview Question 9 (directed to Teachers)

“What is the most helpful or important thing in learning English?”

The researcher asked this question in order to find out if there is a possible relationship between students’ LLS use and teachers’ viewpoints on the most helpful or important techniques in learning English. The table below presents teachers’ mentioned techniques.

Table 4.33. The most helpful or important techniques in English learning

Category	Code	f
Improving the skills (Cognitive strategies)	Practice (T1, T2)	2
Enhancing vocabulary knowledge and speaking skills (Cognitive Strategies)	Learning vocabulary and practicing speaking (T3)	1
Enhancing speaking skills	Practicing speaking (T4)	1
Developing social and communication skills (Social strategies)	Socializing and communicating (T5)	1

T (2): “Practicing. I think that it’s not enough to learn grammar. It’s not enough to listen. You have to put them in the real world...practice. Because if you practice...your brain is like a memory. I mean like a muscle. Everything that you do, your body remembers. The more you use a word, your brain remembers the word. I think that practice is the most important thing.”

T (3): “Learning vocabulary and speaking practice...We need to tell our students not to really worry about their mistakes or grammar things. As long as you communicate, it is okay. In order to communicate, what do you need? – Vocabulary. As long as you have vocabulary, you can communicate.”

T (4): "Speaking. Try to speak. Forcing yourself to speak. “

T (5): “Socializing and communicating.”

In the table above, the findings show that the majority of the teachers (T1, T2, T3, T4) thought of cognitive strategies as the most helpful or important techniques in English learning. Only T5 mentioned techniques about social strategies. To sum up, it can be accepted that most of the teachers think that cognitive strategies would be beneficial in learning English.

4.3.3.10.Semi-Structured Interview Question 10 (directed to Teachers)

“Do students often make translations? If therefore, how?”

The researcher aimed to find out if the students make translations, which is one of the cognitive strategies. Therefore, from teachers’ viewpoints, it was analyzed to identify the frequency about students’ use of cognitive strategies.

Table 4.34. Students' use of translation in learning English

Category	Code	f
Non-use of translation	Never translating (T1, T5)	2
Translating for unknown words	While doing homework and in the English classes (T2)	1
	Via Tureng (T3)	1
	Via Google translate or a dictionary (T4)	1

T (1): “No, they don’t do any translation. Because I don’t want them to speak Turkish in the classroom. We always speak English. “

T (2): “I find that most students whose level of English is okay, they’re starting to get it. They do make translations. Especially, if it is a project homework, they have to do at home - something that they have to present. Even though in the lesson, they may make a translation for a word...they just don’t know how to use it in the frame of a topic that we’re focusing on. Therefore, they will ask me to say it in Turkish. I allow them and after that, I ask them to tell me the meaning in English. “

T (3): “Yes, they do. Both, from Turkish into English and from English into Turkish. They feel more confident when they make translations. They mostly use Tureng.”

T (4): “They do. They use Google Translate, they do it but I recommend them just to use Google Translate or dictionaries just to understand the meaning of a word, not the whole sentence. I don’t want them to translate the whole sentence but I want them to understand the meanings. They can use Google Translate or a dictionary as a dictionary. “

T (5): “No, they don’t. My students learned not to translate from English into Turkish.”

As presented in the table above, it is obvious that most of the students do translations, which is one of the cognitive strategies. Therefore, from the teachers’ viewpoint (T2, T3, T4), it is possible to say that students mostly translate by using a dictionary or online dictionaries.

4.3.3.11.Semi-Structured Interview Question 11 (directed to Teachers)

“Do you encourage your students to make plans and set their learning goals? If so, in what way?”

The researcher aimed to find out if there is a relationship between students’ attitudes towards making plans and setting goals and their teachers’ attitudes towards encouraging them by doing those actions. The table below presents teachers’ attitudes towards encoring their students to make plans and set their learning goals.

Table 4.35. Teachers' attitudes towards encouraging students to make plans and set their learning goals

Category	Code	f
Student-centred plans and goals	Making decisions on homework and activities (T1)	1
	Directing students to make plans and set their own goals (T2, T4, T5)	3
Teacher-centred plans and goals	Giving advice (T3)	1

T (1): “We make plans together for our English learning. For example, for summer holiday, we organize what to do for summer holiday. We plan what to read ...a story book and we also prepare our homework together with students.”

T (2): “I encourage the students to make their plans. I usually do this and one of the things that I’ve done in my lesson is I have partner students whose level of English is a bit higher students with students whose level of English a bit low. Therefore, I have them partnering together. Therefore, here is what this person needs to accomplish this week. And I find that usually those students that role ...that they feel now teaching a bit themselves. Therefore, by setting goals for the weaker student I feel that I am also lifting the other student at the same time.

T (3): “In fact, I always tell them the importance of English. That’s why I advise them to read and after a while, they take notes in English as well. Some of them are really good at it. For example, they write all the things as homework...they take notes in English. This is what I tell them to do. They feel that this is a part of their life...”

As seen in the table above, most of the teachers (T2, T4, T5) direct their students to make their own plans and set their own goals, who were considered as student-centred teachers. T1 mentioned that she prefers to make the plans together with her students, which is also an student-centred action. However, T3 reported that she only gives advice how to learn English better and this action was considered named as teacher-based action.

4.3.3.12.Semi-Structured Interview Question 12 (directed to Teachers)

“Do preconception, anxiety and unwillingness prevent the students from using strategies? If so, why?”

The researcher aimed to find out if there is a relationship between the students’ responses about the factors that prevent them from using strategies for English learning, and their teachers’ responses about this issue. The table below presents teachers’ mentioned responses.

Table 4.36. Teachers' opinions whether preconception, anxiety and unwillingness prevent the students from using strategies

Category	Code	f
Parents’ high expectations	Anxiety and unwillingness (T1)	1
Being afraid of making mistakes	Preconception, anxiety and unwillingness (T2)	1
	Anxiety (T3, T5)	1
Poor relationship between a students and teacher	Preconception and anxiety (T4)	1

T (1): “Yes, some students are under stress, they’re depressed because of their families. Because their families put lots of pressure on them and they feel bored. They fed up with these. They feel anxious and unwilling to do something.”

T (2): “The preconception that students have about English...that English is a difficult language. Yes, I think that they prevent the students. I mean not only for students, I mean for myself as well, I get a bit anxious when I am trying to practice my Turkish. Therefore, I understand what the students are in their anxiety. I understand their unwillingness to say the words, to answer the question. Therefore, one of the things that I did was, especially for weaker students, I always make sure that I walk the corridors, I put my hands on their shoulders. I try to talk to them. I try to pull them out. If I give homework and I know my lesson is coming, I often say “Go get your book, let’s see what you’ve done”. I make sure the call on the students because the answer is now in their book. Therefore, they can answer that question. Therefore, I feel that by doing those things, the anxiety disappears. The unwillingness they had to do homework has now disappeared because now, they know that the answers were checked by the teacher ...by making yourself available to the students, you eliminate those things. If you try to speak a language and you make a mistake and you have

fifteen students laughing at you, making fun of what you just said...that would make anyone a bit unwilling to say anything...They are afraid of making mistakes even if it is correct.

T (3): “Yes, of course. They don’t want to make mistakes in English...If they’re exposed, then they speak in English very comfortably ...for example, when we went to England, they were speaking easily but in Turkey, they are afraid of making mistakes.”

T (4): “Of course...you know that we - Turkish people are emotional people...Therefore, if the kid has anxiety or don’t like the lesson...probably, it’s because of s/he couldn’t make any connection with the teacher. That’s why they don’t love. I think that 80-90% of the reason is because of this. As a teacher you have to touch students’ soul.”

T (5): Yes, because English is something different for them...they don’t have any idea, they don’t want to make any mistake. This is not their first language and that’s why it creates anxiety and unwillingness. "

As seen in the table above, most of the teachers think that negative feelings such as preconception, anxiety and unwillingness prevent students from developing and using strategies. Most of the teachers (T2, T3, T5) reported that students are afraid of making mistakes. For this reason, they feel anxious, unwilling and prejudiced against the English language. T1 mentioned that students feel anxious and unwilling because of their parents’ high expectations from them. T4 stated that students have anxiety and preconception against English and those factors prevent them from developing and using LLS.

4.3.3.13.Semi-Structured Interview Question 13 (directed to Teachers)

“Is there any difference between monolingual and bilingual students’ listening, speaking, writing and reading skills? Why?”

This question aims to gather information about differences of monolingual and bilingual students’ English learning strategies from the viewpoint of their teachers. The researcher could not classify the teachers’ answers into certain language learning strategies. However, their responses give an insight into the English learning process of both participant groups (monolinguals and bilinguals).

Table 4.37. Opinions and statements if there is any difference between monolingual and bilingual students' English learning skills

Category	Code	f
Good in all language skills	Bilinguals students (T1, T3, T4, T5)	4
Good in language skills except reading skill	Bilingual students (T2)	1

T (1): “Bilingual students are better than monolingual students. They are better. Especially in speaking skills, they are better than the others because the method is the same, they learned that skill and they get used to speak all day. Bilingual students are always speaking fluently. They know the strategy, method and technique that’s why they’re better. ”

T (2): “Yes, there is a difference. The difference is the training, especially the training of the ears...The bilingual students are better in listening skills than monolingual students. I am often surprised when a monolingual student whose level of English is low and when he or she is better in reading. It amazes me sometimes. They can read the words in English but they can’t understand what I say. I couldn’t figure out the connection, the correlation between these two. How is a student not able to speak English but they’re reading a passage in a book. With the reading, we can go back to primary school, maybe their parents read books or maybe they focus on reading and not so much on speaking...The bilingual students are better in writing than monolingual. One of the reason is that bilingual students, they’re more willing to write a part in any topic. They listen to more music in English, they usually write the lyrics. They are the students mostly who are keeping a better notebook. They’re the students who have an interest in writing. Therefore, they write poems, they write short stories. Therefore, all of these things play a part. When it comes to monolingual students ...because they got used to write very simple sentences, they can only write the simple sentences. They can’t go beyond that. They make the conscious decision not to go beyond that and so, they know that they make the conscious decision not to try to go beyond it.

T (5): “Of course, the bilingual students are better than the monolingual students because the bilinguals brain...intelligence and capability for understanding two languages are better. “

The table above presents that most of the teachers (T1, T3, T4, T5) reported that bilingual students are better in all language skills. T1 mentioned that they are better in speaking skills and they mostly able to speak fluently English. She also added that the reason

is the use of known strategies, methods and techniques. T2 stated that bilingual students are better in listening skills than monolingual students because they listen to English songs, so their ear is trained well. Furthermore, monolinguals are good at reading and the reason might be the education system of their previous school (primary school). However, according to her, monolinguals are not good at speaking whereas bilingual students are good at it. Further, she also asserted that bilinguals' writing skills are better than monolinguals because they like to take notes and write lyrics in English. The monolinguals are not good at writing because they only write simple sentences and avoid going beyond that. Another teacher (T5) also mentioned that bilingual students are better than monolinguals because the bilinguals' brain, intelligence and capability for understanding two language are better.

4.3.3.14.Semi-Structured Interview Question 14 (directed to Teachers)

“Is there any difference between monolingual and bilingual students' English learning strategies? Which strategies do monolingual and bilingual students prefer and why?”

Table 4.38. Monolingual and bilingual students' English learning strategies

Category	Code	f
Bilingual students' strategies	Communication based learning (Social strategies; T1,T5)	2
	Group learning (Social strategies; T3)	1
	Memory based learning (Memory strategies; T2)	1
	Linking with already known language (Memory strategies; T4)	1
Monolingual students' strategies	Self-centred learning (Metacognitive strategies; T5)	1
	Group learning (Social strategies; T3)	1
	Memorization (Memory strategies; T1)	1
	Lack of using any strategies (T2, T4)	2

T (1): “Bilingual students prefer speaking strategies. They want to talk all day. They want to have conversations. Bilinguals are more social than monolinguals because they like making dialogues, they like working in teams, they like sharing ideas and talking to each other. They’re always active in the lesson. But others like memorising ... Monolinguals don’t like reading story books and they only know one technique. They don’t want to develop their strategies.

T (2): “Bilingual students are good when it comes to memory technique. Monolingual students ... they don’t really have, for the most part, the learning strategies in place. When I look at secondary, especially in secondary, it’s difficult for them to set up those learning strategies. Maybe because of their previous school, their teacher didn’t focus on them that much...The number one reason could be that those students maybe didn’t get the chance to build those learning strategies with their teacher. I don’t think that it is only one person’s fault

when it comes to it. Another reason is...I think that monolingual students are lost in the classroom with students that are able to understand everything. If you are lost, of course...you will not have the willingness to even attempt. We (teachers) create this division that good learners are chosen for several activities whereas students who have a lower level of English are not chosen. We (teachers) have to give some basic learning strategies for the students. We have to do follow-ups to make sure that, you know those things are happening. Therefore, when it comes to bilinguals, you don't really have to because they already have their strategies in place.

T (3): "...The bilingual students are just the opposite. They don't question so much. As soon as they get the meaning, they use it... They definitely use more strategies than monolingual students. Both of the monolingual and bilingual students are good at learning in groups because this is language and language is learned in groups. They feel more relaxed...peer learning is better. "

T (4): "Bilingual students just compare English with their languages and that makes easy for them to learn English. But monolingual students can only compare with Turkish. That's why their strategies are limited. Bilingual students know already the ways of learning a language because they've experienced earlier than monolinguals."

T (5): "The bilinguals are good at communicating and talking because they know two languages. All of my bilingual students are very talkative. The monolingual students are more self-centred. "

The findings show that most of the teachers (T1, T3, T5) reported that their bilingual students are mostly communicative and social students. They mentioned that their students prefer to learn in groups or by communicating. Those two actions are elements of the social strategies. It can be associated that most of the bilingual students are social from their teachers' viewpoints. T2 and T4 mentioned the following actions, which are the elements of memory strategies (Oxford, 1990): memorization (T1) and creating mental linkages (T4). The minority of teachers asserted that the bilingual students mostly use memory strategies.

In terms of monolingual students' strategy use, the majority of teachers (T2, T4) asserted that monolingual students don't use any certain strategy. According to the teachers, monolingual students didn't develop any strategy for English learning. However, T5 mentioned that her monolingual students prefer to learn by themselves, which can be associated with 'Controlling of learner's own learning'. According to Oxford (1990), it is the function of metacognitive strategies. Besides, T3 mentioned that her monolingual students

prefer learning in groups. Therefore, this type of learning can be associated to social strategies. Moreover, T1 asserted that her monolingual students prefer only learning by memorising, which is an action of memory strategies.

The questions 3, 4, 5, 10 and 14 directly asked about students' use of strategies. Therefore, the researcher made a summary of the answers involving the most mentioned strategies. For each of the questions, the most mentioned strategy was used as base. The researcher intended to highlight the most reported strategies of students from the teachers' viewpoints.

Table 4.39. Most mentioned strategies of students from teachers' viewpoints

Question	Strategies of Students	f
Q3	Social strategies	5
Q4	Metacognitive strategies	3
Q5	Social strategies	3
Q10	Cognitive strategies	3
Q14 (Bilingual Students)	Social strategies	3
Q14 (Monolingual Students)	Metacognitive strategies	1
Q14 (Monolingual Students)	Social strategies	1
Q14 (Monolingual Students)	Memory strategies	1

As seen in the table above, teachers reported that their students mostly prefer the social strategies. In terms of bilingual students' strategy use, they mostly stated that those students use social strategies. In terms of monolingual students' strategy use, their most preferred strategies could not be defined because only one teacher mentioned metacognitive, another teacher mentioned social and the other one stated memory strategies.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study in relation with the research questions of the study. The aim of this study was to find out the difference between monolingual and bilingual students' most preferred language learning strategies. It was also aimed to investigate the differences in terms of gender, grade level and mothers' and fathers' educational level. This chapter also includes the significance and the implications of the present study. Finally, recommendations will be stated for further research considering the challenges encountered during the study. Additionally, the limitations are discussed and recommendations are given in this chapter.

5.2. Overview of the Study and the Discussion of the Findings

The current research intended to present the significant differences between monolingual and bilingual students most preferred language learning strategies in the process of English learning. The scope of this study was the two campuses of a private secondary school in Antalya. Those two campuses were chosen because they have a big number of bilingual students. 150 secondary school students of the 6th, 7th and 8th grades and 5 English teachers at secondary school participated in this study. In order to investigate the objectives and purpose of this research, the mixed method was selected to gain a deep understanding and confirmation about the data gathered from the quantitative part of the study. Two instruments were applied to the students: A quantitative instrument named Turkish version of the SILL (Cesur & Fer, 2007) and a qualitative instrument called semi-structured interview were applied. Additionally, 5 English teachers from the secondary school took part in the semi-structured interview to acquire a better understanding of how students employ strategies and how they learn English from the teachers' viewpoints. The semi-structured questions were asked in order to gather information about students' LLS use, some general questions about them and their teachers' teaching techniques. The current study's findings were discussed with the goal of answering the following sub-questions:

- A) What are the levels of students' language learning strategies?
- B) Is there any significant difference between bilingual and monolingual students' most preferred language learning strategies?

- C) Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of gender?
- D) Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of grade level?
- E) Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of mother's educational level?

Sub-Question 1: What are the levels of students' language learning strategies?

The distribution of the results was accepted as normal. Cognitive strategies' mean score is the highest and this result can be associated to the number of items included in the inventory. The inventory contains 14 items, so the most items are related to cognitive strategies. Metacognitive and memory strategies means are close to each other because the number of the items related to both memory metacognitive strategies is 9. The number of items related to compensation, social and affective strategies is 6 and for this reason, their mean scores are close to each other.

Sub-Question 2: Is there any significant difference between bilingual and monolingual students' most preferred language learning strategies?

Analysis related to the difference between bilingual and monolingual students' language learning strategies revealed that the use of cognitive strategies differs significantly in terms of being monolingual/bilingual. Further, bilingual students use the cognitive strategies more than monolingual students. As the findings of the qualitative study showed, all of the bilingual students use cognitive strategies when mastering their speaking and writing skills. In terms of speaking, they prefer to learn and generate a new language through a variety of methods, such as practicing with others and by translating vocabulary and practicing them. In terms of writing skills, bilingual students mostly prefer to create structure for input and output such as taking notes and writing stories. The findings of teachers' techniques for improving students' writing skills show that they mostly use cognitive-based techniques such as writing to pen pals, converting a book into a digital version, or giving project homework. The teachers also mentioned that they give the following advice in order to improve their writing skill: Creating a material and taking notes. Therefore, they usually use techniques which are based on creating structure for input and output.

In terms of metacognitive strategies, the results showed that bilingual students use them more than monolingual students. Other studies, such as those conducted by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), Tuncer (2009), Kostić-Bobanović and Bobanović (2011), Qasimnejad and

Hemmati (2014) and Yayla et al., (2016), illustrated also a high frequency of metacognitive strategy use. As stated in the findings of qualitative study, it was also found that bilingual students prefer metacognitive strategies when mastering their listening and reading skills. Remarkably, the results gathered from teachers' interviews revealed that they also use techniques which support students' use of metacognitive strategies in terms of listening and readings skills. All of the teachers use techniques based on the function which might provide students to control their own learning cognition. In terms of improving students' listening skill, teachers mostly use digital resources such as videos, movies and listening tracks or try to make the lessons interactive which might direct students to seek different language opportunities. In terms of improving students' reading skill, teachers use resources such as e-books and books which might direct students to seek language opportunities. Therefore, it is possible to say that in terms of listening and reading skills, students' use of metacognitive strategies and teachers' metacognitive-based techniques might have a relationship. The teachers might have a positive impact on their students.

Moreover, the results also revealed that bilingual students use social strategies more frequently than monolingual students. This confirms the findings of the qualitative study which show that bilingual learners use social strategies more than monolingual learners. In addition to students' interview data, teachers' interview results also support that their students are mostly social in English classes specially when they have any questions. They mostly prefer to ask individuals or their teacher in order to find out the answers. This result was also confirmed through the data gathered from students' semi-structured interviews. Moreover, the results of qualitative study illustrated that students' learning preferences are group-based or teacher-based. Therefore, students tend to learn through interaction with others.

Surprisingly, no significant differences were found between bilingual and monolingual participants' use of LLS in terms of memory, compensation, and affective strategies. The qualitative results of students show that monolingual students use memory strategies more often than bilingual students. However, there is a no agreement between students' and teachers' qualitative findings because teachers reported that their bilingual students use more memory strategies than monolingual students. In terms of affective strategies, no evident results were gathered from the qualitative data. In addition to the quantitative results, the qualitative data also intended to find out the factors which prevent the students' from developing and using the affective and social strategies. The learners mentioned that negative emotions and distraction factors can prevent them from developing and using those strategies. The negative emotions such as preconception, anxiety and unwillingness affect them in a

negative way during their English learning process. The preconception against the target language such as thinking that English is a very difficult language can make the students feel anxious. Likewise anxiety, which can arise from previous school's education system and pressure or high expectations from parents can cause a preconception against the target language or affect students' attitudes towards learning a new language. Moreover, both teachers and students stated that unwillingness can prevent students from developing and using those strategies. Some teachers mentioned that the current case about Covid-19 pandemic could be the reason of it. For most of the time, schools were closed, and students had to attend online classes. Therefore, some students got bored and unwilling to attend the online classes. It was also reported that students feel unwilling due to the educational system and its curriculum for English language. It was claimed that the curriculum should be based on interactive learning instead of difficult grammar topic. In addition to negative emotions, the findings of students' interviews showed that distraction could also prevent students from developing and using the affective strategies. Two distraction factors such as indiscipline and noise would prevent the students. While learning a subject, discipline should be viewed as an important part of the learning process. Therefore, learning without any discipline might slow down the path towards the learning goals.

Sub-Question 3: Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of gender?

Oxford (1990), who is one of the experts in the field of language learning strategies, asserted that gender may have an effect on the LLS use. In comparison to worldwide known research studies which state the dominance of female language learners, Tuncer (2009), Sevinç and Lemis Önkol (2009) and Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) did not find any difference between students' use of learning strategies in terms of gender. However, the findings of the current study revealed that learners' compensation strategies differ significantly in terms of gender. This result confirms with the study which was conducted by Şahin (2016), reporting that female students showed a higher rate in use of language strategies than male students when learning English. According to the quantitative analysis, it is possible to say that female students use the compensation strategies more than male students. The current research failed to give an explanation for this result. Surprisingly, no evidence was found about the use of compensation strategies in the qualitative data analysis. Moreover, as the quantitative analysis indicated, there was not any significant difference between learners 'memory strategies, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies

and social strategies in terms of gender. Therefore, it can be accepted that there is rarely a difference between female and male students while learning English.

Sub-Question 4: Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of grade level?

According to the quantitative results, there was not any significant difference between students' memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies and social strategies in terms of grade levels. However, a significant difference was found in the use of affective strategies in respect of the grade levels. Significantly, the results showed that there is a difference between eighth and sixth grades. This supports the responses of a few 8th graders who reported that this year would be their high-school entrance exam year and for that reason, some of the students avoid focusing on English. Moreover, a few of the teachers mentioned that their students are not interested in English because of their entrance exam. Therefore, the qualitative results confirm this difference.

Sub-Question 5: Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of mother's educational level?

As the quantitative results revealed, there was not any significant difference between students' memory strategies, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies in terms of their mothers' educational level. Surprisingly, a significant difference was found in the use of compensation strategies in respect of mother's educational level. The difference was among students whose mothers graduated from primary school / secondary school and high school, and students whose mothers graduated from a college/university and mothers who are postgraduates. The students, whose mothers graduated from a college/university and are postgraduates use more strategies than the students whose mothers graduated from a primary/secondary school and a high school. In terms of compensation strategies, only one participant reported that she uses one of the compensation strategies when she comes across with questions inside and outside of the class. This participant stated that she asks in Turkish when she wants to ask a question. Therefore, she switches to her mother tongue which is one of the compensation strategies mentioned in Oxford's (1990) classification of LLS. Besides, Harding et al. (2015) states that children whose mothers have higher levels of education tend to be more exposed to multiple sources. Higher-educated mothers are more likely to have a large number of educated friends and family members to act as a role model for their children (Harding et al., 2015). Moreover, this fact was also confirmed in Jalili's study conducted in 2017. He found out that mothers who

are university graduates have a positive impact on their children's English language proficiency. Gooding (2001) asserted that children whose parents have a high educational level get higher scores in standardized tests than children whose parents have a low educational level. The students, whose parents are well educated obtain the abilities from their parents (Elardo et al., 1977, as cited in Gooding, 2001). Parents have a vital role in the educational process of their children and in their lives (Jalili, 2017). Therefore, they can affect their children's education in respect to English learning process. There might be some reasons of this issue. When comparing mothers' attitudes with those of fathers, it is possible to say that mothers mostly spend more time with their children than fathers. Mothers usually help them by doing homework and try to support them in learning a subject and develop their academic skills. Moreover, it can also be accepted that mothers are emotionally closer to their children. This could affect students school success. Mothers' quality of affection might have a relationship with their children's mentality and capacity for intelligence. Moreover, the children's language skills depend mostly on their mothers' characteristics, so their ability of using a language can be affected by their mothers (Dumon, 1989, as cited in Chiswick et al., 2005). Therefore, students' attitudes and interest toward subjects and especially, English language learning might depend on their mothers' character and educational level. The mothers who have a high level of education "provide her child with more useful forms of instruction, self-perception, encouragement, interaction, and exposure, thus transmitting skills and shaping his or her psychological development in distinctive ways" (Gooding, 2001, p.22).

Sub-Question 6: Is there any significant difference between students' most preferred language learning strategies in terms of father's educational level?

There was not any significant difference between memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies in terms of father's educational level. But there is no significant difference of English language proficiency level. Jalili (2017) found that there is no substantial difference among students whose fathers have university education and those whose fathers do not have university in terms of English language proficiency level. As mentioned before, the reason could be that fathers spend less time with their children than mothers or they might have a weak relationship with their children. Therefore, it is possible to say that fathers with high level of education do not have an impact on their children's English language learning.

5.3. Implications of the Study

The findings of the current research carry a wide range of implications that might be beneficial in order to increase the awareness of LLS. Moreover, some implications might provide a deep understanding of students' most preferred LLS and the reasons for their use. Therefore, EFL teachers could be more aware of students' use or lack of their LLS use. Furthermore, it can be helpful and beneficial to think of the connection between students' LLS use and their attitudes towards English teaching and techniques which they apply during English classes. According to Macaro (2001), target languages are learned more properly if the learners are aware of applying LLS effectively. For that reason, informing and increasing awareness about language learning strategies and their use should be taken into consideration. EFL students should be directed by their English teachers in order to use the appropriate strategies while learning the target language. This can occur when teachers observe their students, especially weak students, who need to be directed according to their language learning preferences and learning styles. By means of observations, the teachers should look over the curriculum, teaching approaches, tasks, and materials they use during English classes and then, arrange them so that students can benefit from them.

Besides, the present study also implicates that EFL teachers should determine students' needs in terms of LLS and direct them how to improve their English learning. Especially, the monolingual students (Turkish students) should be definitely provided with strategy instructions because of the findings presented in this research, which showed that monolingual students have a low level of strategy use when learning English. Finally, the students will be more aware about their LLS use and so, they can increase their capacity by using their strategies more efficiently. This can be occurred through teachers' attitudes. They should integrate the training of LLS use into their lessons so that it will be a part of daily classroom activities. In order to enhance students' LLS use, productive skills and a wide range of possibilities should be integrated into English classes. The academics such as Bölükbaş (2013), Oxford (1990), O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Chamot and Kupper (1989) mentioned a wide variety of guidance about strategy instruction which can be beneficial for EFL teacher. By using those instructions, teachers can be more helpful in terms of guiding their students for a proper English learning which might bring success in it.

Furthermore, the environment in which English education takes place should have a wide range of materials which would appeal to students' interests and needs. The textbooks are mostly essentials of English lessons (Richards, 2001). However, teachers should investigate if the useful tasks include the elements of LLS and then, try to take advantage of

them. Moreover, they can transfer or adapt useful tasks from the textbooks and try to create supplementary materials in order to enhance and support students' LLS use. Moreover, there are some factors that might have both positive and negative impacts on LLS use such as emotions, student- teacher relationship, motivation, learning styles, parents' educational levels, monolingualism, bilingualism, cultural background, and teachers' teaching approaches. According to Harputlu and Ceylan (2014), the learning environment plays an important part in the process of language acquisition. For that reason, it should increase students' motivation, lower their anxiety towards the target language and support them to become self-confident. Otherwise, the students might not achieve their goals in their language learning process.

Another important aspect is bilingual students' education. The number of bilingual students is not a few in Turkey, especially in Antalya. For that reason, an appropriate education is needed for them. As mentioned before, the late recognition of young bilingual infants' nursery school education may affect their educational progress (Drury, 2007). The bilingual students whose parents are from different countries or who learned their mother tongue and a foreign language abroad, come to Turkey because of several reasons and then, struggle with learning the official language of Turkey – Turkish. Especially in Antalya, which is one of the most preferred cities for living in Turkey, most of the foreign students face with serious problems at school because of being unfamiliar with the Turkish language. This issue can affect bilingual and foreign students' motivation, school success, relationship with peers and teachers, and attitudes towards school in a negative way. It is also possible that they'll have more difficulties dealing both academically and socially (Topbaş, 2011). To provide them with a comfortable and successful learning environment, those students should be promoted in terms of bilingual education. Some scholars (Chang et al., 2007) stated that bilingual students' switching to school language can be supported and their interpersonal relations and learning experiences can be enhanced. As Cummins (2000) suggested, the bi/multilingual minority students can be supported by bi/multilingual education programmes in their mother tongue, which are the best tools providing long-term school success and achieving Bilingual development and specific language impairment in Turkey. Therefore, educational policies should support bilingual students' development of their mother tongue as well as their school language. In order to help those students, the academic content should be taught in two languages, in a mother tongue and the school language in accordance with the curriculum.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Studies

The current study examined the differences between monolingual and bilingual students most preferred LLS and tried to gain an insight into their English learning process.

First of all, this study was limited to two campuses of a private school in Antalya and therefore, the number of participants was not high. For a reason of the Covid-19 pandemic, the schools were closed for the most part of the time and for that reason, the survey was conducted online. It is suggested to increase the number of participants to improve the study's reliability and validity. Moreover, it is better to conduct a survey at school in the classroom because the participants can take it more seriously, so they can give more reliable answers to the questions.

Secondly, to make more realistic generalizations, learners and teachers can participate in focus group interviews to acquire a truer perspective and confirmation of the quantitative results. This type of interview would shed light on the reasons of students' LLS use and so, it would have high validity. Furthermore, it would give speed in the supply of the results.

Thirdly, additional research might be done with primary-school students on their LLS use. Then, feasible differences and similarities between primary-school students and secondary-school students in terms of their LLS use could also be investigated and compared.

Fourthly, students' LLS use can also be examined in terms of their English proficiency level, which might also have an effect on the implementation of those initiatives.

Finally, further studies should also examine the factors in more detail which prevent students from the use of LLS and those which develop their strategy use.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. The data collection instrument: Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri

KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

Sınıfınız : 5 () 6 () 7 () 8 ()

Cinsiyetiniz : Kız () Erkek ()

Evinizde Türkçeden başka kullanılan diller var mı? Evet () Hayır ()

Varsa belirtiniz:.....

AİLEYE AİT BİLGİLER

Annenizin eğitim durumu:

Okul bitirmemiş () İlk/Ortaokul () Lise/Meslek Lisesi mezunu ()

Yüksekokul/Üniversite mezunu () Lisansüstü derece ()

Babanızın eğitim durumu:

Okul bitirmemiş () İlk/Ortaokul () Lise/Meslek Lisesi mezunu ()

Yüksekokul/Üniversite mezunu () Lisansüstü derece ()

Annenizin uyuşuğu:

Babanızın uyuşuğu:

DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ (Oxford, 1990)

Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil olarak öğrenenler için hazırlanmıştır. Bu envanterde İngilizce öğrenmeye ilişkin ifadeler okuyacaksınız. Her ifadenin sizin için ne kadar doğru ya da geçerli olduğunu, derecelendirmeye bakarak, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5' ten birini yazınız. Verilen ifadenin, nasıl yapmanız gerektiği ya da başkalarının neler yaptığı değil, sadece sizin yaptıklarınızı ne kadar tasvir ettiğini işaretleyiniz. Maddeler üzerinde çok fazla düşünmeyiniz. Maddeleri yapabildiğiniz kadar hızlı şekilde, çok zaman harcamadan ve dikkatlice işaretleyip bir sonraki maddeye geçiniz. Anketi cevaplandırmak yaklaşık 10-15 dk. alır.	1 = Hiçbir zaman doğru değil	2 = Nadiren doğru	3 = Bazen doğru	4 = Sık sık doğru	5 = Her zaman doğru
1. İngilizcede bildiklerimle yeni öğrendiklerim arasında ilişki kurarım.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri hatırlamak için bir cümlede kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri akılda tutmak için kelimenin telaffuzuyla aklıma getirdiği bir resim ya da şekil arasında bağlantı kurarım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Yeni bir kelimeyi o sözcüğün kullanılabileceği bir sahneyi ya da durumu aklımda canlandırarak, hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Yeni kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için, onları ses benzerliği olan kelimelerle ilişkilendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için küçük kartlara yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5

Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil olarak öğrenenler için hazırlanmıştır. Bu envanterde İngilizce öğrenmeye ilişkin ifadeler okuyacaksınız. Her ifadenin sizin için ne kadar doğru ya da geçerli olduğunu, derecelendirmeye bakarak, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5’ ten birini yazınız. Verilen ifadenin, nasıl yapmanız gerektiği ya da başkalarının neler yaptığı değil, sadece sizin yaptıklarınızı ne kadar tasvir ettiğini işaretleyiniz. Maddeler üzerinde çok fazla düşünmeyiniz. Maddeleri yapabildiğiniz kadar hızlı şekilde, çok zaman harcamadan ve dikkatlice işaretleyip bir sonraki maddeye geçiniz. Anketi cevaplandırmak yaklaşık 10-15 dk. alır.	1 = Hiçbir zaman doğru değil	2 = Nadiren doğru	3 = Bazen doğru	4 = Sık sık doğru	5 = Her zaman doğru
7. Yeni kelimeleri vücut dili kullanarak zihnimde canlandırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
8. İngilizce derslerinde öğrendiklerimi sık sık tekrar ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Yeni kelime ve kelime gruplarını ilk karşılaştığım yerleri (kitap, tahta ya da herhangi bir işaret levhasını) aklıma getirerek, hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Yeni sözcükleri birkaç kez yazarak, ya da söyleyerek, tekrarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Anadili İngilizce olan kişiler gibi konuşmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Anadilimde bulunmayan İngilizcedeki “th /θ / hw ” gibi sesleri çıkararak, telaffuz alıştırmaları yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Bildiğim kelimeleri cümlelerde farklı şekillerde kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
14. İngilizce sohbetleri ben başlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
15. T.V.de İngilizce programlar ya da İngilizce filmler izlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
16. İngilizce okumaktan hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
17. İngilizce mesaj, mektup veya rapor yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
18. İngilizce bir metne ilk başta bir göz atarım, daha sonra metnin tamamını dikkatlice okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimelerin benzerlerini Türkçe’de ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
20. İngilizcede tekrarlanan kalıplar bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
21. İngilizce bir kelimenin, bildiğim kök ve eklerine ayırarak anlamını çıkarırım.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Kelimesi kelimesine çeviri yapmamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Dinlediğim ya da okuduğum metnin özetini çıkarırım.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Bilmediğim İngilizce kelimelerin anlamını, tahmin ederek bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
25. İngilizce konuşurken bir sözcük aklıma gelmediğinde, el kol hareketleriyle anlatmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Uygun ve doğru kelimeyi bilmediğim durumlarda kafamdan yeni sözcükler uydururum.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Okurken her bilmediğim kelimeye sözlükten bakmadan, okumayı sürdürürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Konuşma sırasında karşımdakinin söyleyeceği bir sonraki cümleyi tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Herhangi bir kelimeyi hatırlayamadığımda, aynı anlamı taşıyan başka bir kelime ya da ifade kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
30. İngilizcemini kullanmak için her fırsatı değerlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Yaptığım yanlışların farkına varır ve bunlardan daha doğru İngilizce kullanmak için faydalanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
32. İngilizce konuşan bir kişi duyduğumda dikkatimi ona veririm.	1	2	3	4	5
33. “İngilizceyi daha iyi nasıl öğrenirim? “ sorusunun yanıtını araştırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
34. İngilizce çalışmaya yeterli zaman ayırmak için zamanımı planlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
35. İngilizce konuşabileceğim kişilerle tanışmak için fırsat kollarım.	1	2	3	4	5

Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil olarak öğrenenler için hazırlanmıştır. Bu envantere İngilizce öğrenmeye ilişkin ifadeler okuyacaksınız. Her ifadenin sizin için ne kadar doğru ya da geçerli olduğunu, derecelendirmeye bakarak, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5' ten birini yazınız. Verilen ifadenin, nasıl yapmanız gerektiği ya da başkalarının neler yaptığı değil, sadece sizin yaptıklarınızı ne kadar tasvir ettiğini işaretleyiniz. Maddeler üzerinde çok fazla düşünmeyiniz. Maddeleri yapabildiğiniz kadar hızlı şekilde, çok zaman harcamadan ve dikkatlice işaretleyip bir sonraki maddeye geçiniz. Anketi cevaplandırmak yaklaşık 10-15 dk. alır.	1 = Hiçbir zaman doğru değil	2 = Nadiren doğru	3 = Bazen doğru	4 = Sık sık doğru	5 = Her zaman doğru
36. İngilizce okumak için, elimden geldiği kadar fırsat yaratırım.	1	2	3	4	5
37. İngilizcede becerilerimi nasıl geliştireceğim konusunda hedeflerim var.	1	2	3	4	5
38. İngilizcemi ne kadar ilerlettiğimi değerlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
39. İngilizcemi kullanırken tedirgin ve kaygılı olduğum anlar rahatlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Yanlış yaparım diye kaygılandığımda bile İngilizce konuşmaya gayret ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
41. İngilizcede başarılı olduğum zamanlar kendimi ödüllendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
42. İngilizce çalışırken ya da kullanırken gergin ve kaygılı isem, bunun farkına varırım.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Dil öğrenirken yaşadığım duyguları bir yere yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
44. İngilizce çalışırken nasıl ya da neler hissettiğimi başka birine anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Herhangi bir şeyi anlamadığımda, karşımdaki kişiden daha yavaş konuşmasını ya da söylediklerini tekrar etmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Konuşurken karşımdakinin yanlışlarımı düzeltmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Okulda arkadaşlarımla İngilizce konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5
48. İhtiyaç duyduğumda İngilizce konuşan kişilerden yardım isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Derste İngilizce sorular sormaya gayret ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
50. İngilizce konuşanların kültürü hakkında bilgi edinmeye çalışırım	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B. The Questions Directed to Students at the Semi-Structured Interview

Demographic Questions:

1. What's your mother's nationality?
2. What's your father's nationality?

Semi-structured Interview Questions:

1. Which language(s) do you speak at home?
2. Do you speak English with others in and out of class?
3. What do you do when you have any questions in class?
4. What do you do when you have any questions outside of the class?
5. Do you do any extra work for English after school?
6. Do you like to learn by yourself, in groups or with your teacher?
7. What do you think can facilitate the development and use of affective and social strategies?
8. What do you think can prevent you from developing and using affective and social strategies?
9. What is your own way of learning English at school?
10. What is your aim of learning English?
11. What do you do concretely for mastering the four skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing?
12. What is the most helpful or important thing in learning English?
13. Do you make learning plans and set your learning goals usually?

Appendix C. Öğrenciler için yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme soruları

Demografik sorular:

1. Annenin uyruğu nedir?
2. Babanın uyruğu nedir?

Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme soruları:

1. Evde hangi dili veya dilleri konuşuyorsun?
2. İngilizceyi başkalarıyla ders içinde ve dışında konuşuyor musun?
3. Dersteyken soruların olduğunda ne yapıyorsun?
4. Ders dışındayken soruların olduğunda ne yapıyorsun?
5. Okuldan sonra İngilizce için ekstra bir çalışma yapıyor musun?
6. Tek başına mı, grup içindeyken mi ya da öğretmenle birlikte mi öğrenmeyi seviyorsun?
7. Duyuşsal ve sosyal stratejilerin geliştirilmesini ve kullanılmasını senin için kolaylaştıran şeyler nedir sence?
8. Duyuşsal ve sosyal stratejilerin geliştirilmesini ve kullanılmasını engelleyen şeyler nedir sence?
9. Okulda İngilizce öğrenme yöntemin nedir?
10. İngilizce öğrenmedeki amacın nedir?
11. Dinleme, konuşma, okuma ve yazma becerilerini tam öğrenmek için tam olarak neler yapıyorsun?
12. İngilizce öğrenmede en faydalı ve önemli şey nedir?
13. Genelde öğrenme planları ve öğrenme amaçlarını belirler misin?

Appendix D. The Questions Directed to Teachers at the Semi-Structured Interview

1. Do all of your students speak English during English classes? What percentage of your students speak English approximately?
2. Do your students speak English outside the classroom too?
3. Do students ask you, their friends or try to find an answer by themselves when they have any questions?
4. Have your students ever shared the techniques they use for their English learning? Which learning techniques do students use after school?
5. Are your students mostly social or mostly individual in English classes? Why?
6. What can facilitate developing and using learning strategies of students?
7. What can prevent them from developing and using those strategies?
8. How do you improve your students' four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing)? Inside and outside of class?
9. What is the most helpful or important thing that you think in learning English?
10. Do students often make translations? If so, how?
11. Do you encourage your students to make plans and set their learning goals? If so, in what way?
12. Do preconception, anxiety and unwillingness prevent the students from using strategies? If so, why?
13. Is there any difference between monolingual and bilingual students' listening, speaking, writing and reading skills? Why?
14. Is there any difference between monolingual and bilingual students' English learning strategies? Which strategies do monolingual and bilingual students prefer and why?

ÖZGEÇMİŞ

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Antalya, 2015-2018

İletişim

e-posta

Tarih : 07.06.2021

THE MOST PREFERRED LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES OF BILINGUAL AND MONOLINGUAL STUDENTS

ORIJİNALLIK RAPORU

% **14**
BENZERLİK ENDEKSİ

% **12**
İNTERNET KAYNAKLARI

% **8**
YAYINLAR

%
ÖĞRENCİ ÖDEVLERİ

BİRİNCİL KAYNAKLAR

1 acikerisim.pau.edu.tr:8080
İnternet Kaynağı % **1**

2 mjltm.org
İnternet Kaynağı % **1**

3 sutir.sut.ac.th:8080
İnternet Kaynağı % **1**

4 mafiadoc.com
İnternet Kaynağı <% **1**

5 www.jstage.jst.go.jp
İnternet Kaynağı <% **1**

6 www.tandfonline.com
İnternet Kaynağı <% **1**

7 scholar.utc.edu
İnternet Kaynağı <% **1**

8 Hanoi University
Yayın <% **1**

9 research.gold.ac.uk
İnternet Kaynağı <% **1**