T.C.
ISTANBUL ÜNIVERSITESI-CERRAHPAŞA
LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

# ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TURKISH PREP SCHOOL STUDENTS' TOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY LEVEL AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

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## ÖZET

Bu çalışma dil öğrenme stratejileri ve belirsizlik hoşgörüsü arasındaki ilişkiyi açıklamayı hedeflemiştir. Bu amaçla üç farklı dil yeterlilik seviyesindeki 105 kişilik öğrenci grubu Oxford (1990) tarafından geliştirilen Dil Öğrenen Öğrenciler için Strateji Envanteri ve Ely (1989) tarafından geliştirilen İkinci Dil Belirsizlik Hoşgörüsü ölçekleri ile test edilmiştir. Kullanılan ölçeklerin güvenilirlik seviyelerinin yeterli olduğu ve elde edilen verinin normal dağılıma sahip olduğu doğrulandıktan sonra, hem yeterlilik seviyeleri arasındaki ortalama skorlardaki farklılıklar hem de dil öğrenme stratejileri ile belirsizlik hoşgörüsü arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Sonuç olarak öprenciler her seviyede dil öğrenme strateji kullanımları artırmıştır. Ancak, bir seviyeden diğerine geçerken öğrenciler, sadece hafıza, bilişsel ve sosyal stratejilerde anlamlı artış göstermişlerdir. Ayrıca, belirsizlik hoşgörüsü seviyesi de alt orta grup ile orta üstü grup arasında anlamlı olarak artmıştır. Alt orta grubun dil öğrenme stratejiler kullanımı "bazen" seviyesinde kalırken, orta üstü grup tüm strateji alt gruplarında yaygın bir kullanım göstermiştir. Bunlara ek olarak, telafi stratejileri hariç diğer bütün strateji alt grupları belirsizlik hoşgörüsü ile anlamlı bir ilişki göstermiştir. Sosyal stratejiler de belirsizlik hoşgörüsü ile zayıf bir ilişki göstermiştir. Bu sonuçlar, hem araştırmacılar hem de öğretmenler için farklı çıkarımlar sağlamıştır. Sonuç olarak, bu çalışma bu alanda güncel ve derinlemesine bir analiz sağlamayı hedeflemiştir.



**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Dil öğrenme stratejileri, Belirsizlik hoşgörüsü, Yabancı dil öğrenimi

## ABSTRACT

This study aimed to explore the relationship between language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity. To this end, 105 students at three different language proficiency levels were measured via Strategy Inventory for Language Learners developed by Oxford (1990) and Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale developed by Ely (1989). After confirming that the reliability levels of the scales were acceptable and the data was tested for normal distribution, both the differences in mean scores among proficiency levels and the relationship between language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity was examined. As a result, students increased the use of language learning strategies at each level. However, students showed significant increases only in memory, cognitive and social strategies between each level. Moreover, tolerance of ambiguity level increased significantly from pre-intermediate to upper-intermediate. The pre-intermediate group's use of language learning strategies stayed at "sometimes" level whereas the upper intermediate group showed significant use of all strategy subscales. In addition, all strategy subscales had significant correlations with tolerance of ambiguity except for compensation strategies. Social strategies showed a weak correlation with tolerance of ambiguity. These results provided various implications both for researchers and teachers. Overall, this study sought to yield an up-to-date and in-depth analysis of the topic in this field.



**Keywords:** Language learning strategies, Tolerance of ambiguity, Foreign language learning

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## LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|---|---|
| CEFR | : Common European Framework of Reference |
| SILL | : Strategy Inventory for Language Learners |
| SLTAS | : Second Language Learners' Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale |
| TA | : Tolerance of Ambiguity |
| L2 | : Target Language |

# CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In 21st century's globalizing world, language learning and people who are bilinguals or multilinguals are highly valued. Although it is many people's aim to learn a language, only a limited amount can achieve their desired or aimed levels. Learning a new language not only means learning mechanical and lexical components but also requires a grasp of social, psychological and cultural aspects of that language. Therefore, language learners can find themselves in situations which they have no idea about or experience difficulty figuring out the right behavior or sentence. These kinds of situations can be considered as ambiguities. Some language learners try to come up with different ways to overcome such challenges, whereas others try to avoid unclear topics or subjects.

McLain (1993) defines ambiguity as having insufficient information in a given context. In light of this definition, learning a new language brings about many ambiguities in the process because a language learners have limited information about the language they are learning. Ambiguity can stem from many reasons: 1) multiple meanings, 2) hidden meaning, 3) possibilities, 4) disorganized information, 5) insufficient information, 6) variability, 7) contradiction, 8) unclarity (Norton, 1975). At vocabulary level, multiple meanings can be a challenge for learners. Especially new beginners, who are required to internalize a huge amount of vocabulary knowledge to be proficient, may find it as an additional burden to memorize different meanings of the words. At sentence level, there are many possibilities about the possible meaning depending on the context. Also, there might be an implied or a hidden meaning behind the literal meaning of the sentence. At wider scopes, such as paragraph, essay or book, ambiguity is even more of a possibility. The information provided might be insufficient or disorganized. The ideas may contradict with each other, making it hard to grasp the gist of the text. These possible scenarios of ambiguity are highly probable in a language learning setting.

Tolerance of ambiguity stands for a person's ability to cope with such ambiguous context. Ellis (1994) defined tolerance of ambiguity as the ability to deal with a new stimulus without losing temper or consulting to an authority. In other words, when students face one of the ambiguous situations exemplified above, students need to show enough patience and effort to overcome it without getting help from a peer, teacher or an outside source in order to be considered as a tolerant learner towards ambiguity. Moreover, language learners with high tolerance of ambiguity are expected to be more comfortable and welcoming towards new language input. Especially at lower proficiency levels, language learners with low tolerance of ambiguity face problems with understanding the meaning or perceiving the language. These problems may have an effect on learners' anxiety and motivation levels, attitudes toward the target language or proficiency levels.

One of the ways to deal with ambiguities is teaching or guiding language learners to higher tolerance of ambiguity by raising their awareness and using language learning strategies. Therefore, it has been an aim of language teaching to provide language learners with awareness of language learning strategies. These strategies are defined as techniques and tools that are used by learners in order to obtain information (Rubin, 1975). In order for language learners to understand which strategies are beneficial for them, teachers need to have an idea about factors such as learners' character, personality, proficiency level and tolerance of ambiguity level. Then, the range and focus of language strategy training can be decided and worked on. These strategies help learners advance in their learning in multiple ways. These can be raising their motivation levels, coming up with news ways to deal with target language information as well as improving their tolerance levels in ambiguous situations.

Given the importance of language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity level in terms of language learning process, many studies tried to figure out the relationship between these two factors. Researchers also aimed to come up with ways to make the best use of them. An in depth study is conducted by Ely (1989). He developed a questionnaire to measure the tolerance of ambiguity levels of students. Then, he looked at the possible relationships with language learning strategies. The results showed that tolerance of ambiguity and language learning strategies has

relationship with each other and also on language learning. Ely's study has been the departure point of this study and, in lights of the information above, a need for a similar in-depth study in Turkish context is identified.

## 1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

As explained in the previous section and literature review section of this thesis, it is obvious that both language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity has substantial effect on language learning process. However, many studies did not specifically concentrated on the relationship between these two factors. They rather focused on language learning strategies and other student-related factors such as motivation, learning styles. Other studies focused solely on either language learning strategies or tolerance of ambiguity. Furthermore, there are limited number of studies that actually focused on the relationship between language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity.

Although Ely (1989) conducted an extensive study on the subject, there are many reasons to prove that there is clearly a big need for an up-to-date study.

First of all, language learning methods have shifted. Today, more communicative methods are used in course books and classrooms rather than mechanical methods such as translation. For example, in Common European Framework of Reference (2001), states that it takes up an action-oriented approach towards language learning. Rather than merely becoming competent on paper, it puts emphasis on the actual use of language in real life situations. According to CEFR, this communicative competence is achieved by having linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. As can be seen, linguistic knowledge is only one of the three components. A specific focus is given to social and cultural aspects of language as well as pragmatic use such as speech acts. One of the proposed ways to teach these components is by strategies. All in all, the importance of teaching language learning strategies is highlighted and methods are shifting towards a communicative focus. Therefore, considering these changes, studies need to provide up-to-date results because the perspective towards strategies is also

changing together with the shifts in the understanding and methodology of language learning.

Another thing that has changed is the aim of learning a language. Although the main reason for language learning is communication, today many people have specific reasons to learn English. Especially with the advancing technology, international opportunities for education, business and interaction has become much more accessible. Since English is the main common language for all these activities, people started learning English specifically for business, academic or leisure purposes. As a result, different aims also influence language learners' levels of tolerance of ambiguity and uses of different language learning strategies.

Another major change is the group that speaks English. Today, most of the interactions and conversations in English today around the world do not actually involve a native speaker (Jenkins, 2014). This means that, English is more commonly used among people whose native language is not English but they use English as a common language with each other. This global change surely creates new kinds of ambiguity situations and causes changes in the types of language strategies used. These changes has effects on language learners' level of tolerance of ambiguity and what kind of language learning strategies they use as well as how they use the strategies.

The last but the most important contribution this study aimed to make is to extensively explore the relationship between tolerance of ambiguity level and language learning strategies specifically in Turkish context. Although Erten and Topkaya (2009) and Kural (2014) made a studies on this subject, they only focused on the effect of reading instruction on tolerance of ambiguity rather than an overall skills evaluation. In another study in Turkish context, Gözüm (2018) conducted an up-to-date study on language learning strategies but she only looked at its relationship with self-efficacy beliefs of students. As a result, although there are some up-to-date studies on language learning strategies, there is a need for an extensive and up-to-date study specifically for Turkish context also investigating their relationship with tolerance of ambiguity.

## 1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. How does language learning strategy use and tolerance of ambiguity change depending on proficiency levels of learners?
2. What is the relationship between students' tolerance of ambiguity level and their language learning strategies?
3. Which language learning strategies affect students' tolerance of ambiguity the most?

# CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.1 DEFINITIONS

### 2.1.1 Tolerance of ambiguity

The term "ambiguity tolerance" was scientifically attributed to the study of Else Frenkel-Brunswik in the field of psychology (Furnham & Marks, 2013). It was claimed that a person's level of tolerance towards ambiguous situations could explain how that person would behave in an ambiguous situation. This was used to explain the concept of authoritarianism. A distinction was also made between terms "tolerance of ambiguity" and "tolerance of uncertainty". The first difference is about the time orientation of these concepts. Ambiguity refers to situations generally associated with current state whereas uncertainty is generally used for future concerns. Another idea claimed that ambiguity has to do with a stimulus while uncertainty is more about the person's emotional reaction to a stimulus. However, some researchers also claimed that these terms can be used interchangeably.

Although tolerance of ambiguity was defined in various ways by different researchers in various fields, the definition that was in line with the perspective of this study belonged to Ely (1989). He defined tolerance of ambiguity as "acceptance of uncertainties." Later, Ellis (1994) added ideas of keeping calm and not seeking outside help in ambiguity situations to the definition. In this sense, this study aimed to measure to what extent learners were able to face and deal with unknown situations and language components. This definition was also relevant because Ely (1989) also prepared the Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale used in this study. Therefore, it was plausible to say that the definition and the measuring scale were in accordance with each other.

### 2.1.2 Language learning strategies

Language learning strategies also had different definitions. However, many of them were very close to each other in terms of the points they emphasized. For

example, Scarcella and Oxford (1992) defined language learning strategies as "specifications, behaviors, steps, or techniques-- such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task -- used by students to enhance their own learning." In another definition, Griffiths and Cansiz (2015) considered them as "actions chosen (either deliberately or automatically) for the purpose of learning or regulating the learning of language." Overall, strategy definitions talk about students as actively involved in this process, making a choice and aiming to have a kind of control over their learning. As a results, these two definitions could be said to represent the general perception of language learning strategies as well as the perception of this study.

## 2.2 TOLERANCE OF AMBIGUITY

According to Ehrman (1996), tolerance of ambiguity has three levels: Intake, Tolerance of ambiguity proper and Accommodation. At the first level, learners become aware of the new situation or information. However, this consciousness is on the surface. They do not establish a connection between the new information and their previous knowledge. Tolerance of ambiguity proper stands for learner's acceptance of the incomplete information or contradiction. This is a step towards accommodation. The last level provides the integration of new information with learner's schemata. Learners make distinctions, set their priorities and restructure their existing knowledge or cognitive ability.

Literature on language learning suggests that tolerance of ambiguity can have significant effect on the learning process. In order to shed light on this area, effects of tolerance of ambiguity, variables that affect tolerance of ambiguity and ambiguity tolerant/intolerant learners are discussed below.

### 2.2.1 Effects on language learning

According to Ely (1989), second language learning is full of uncertainty. Learners rarely understand tenses of verb forms, know the exact meaning of new vocabulary and feel that their L2 pronunciation is on point. In addition, Chapelle

(1983) puts forward that grammatical, lexical, phonological and cultural cues may be unfamiliar and not enough for learners to construct a meaning. Moreover, the number of these cues may be numerous. In that case learners can have a hard time solving and rendering the new information. Even if they figure out several cues, they might still struggle to come up with a meaningful outcome. All in all, depending on these inferences, it is easily possible to argue that tolerance of ambiguity has a direct effect on language learning.

Ehrman (1996) claimed that language learners should be able to assess, understand and create a response to new situations. They should also be able to look at the situations and the language input from different perspectives. In order to become successful, learners with high tolerance of ambiguity levels feel content when faced with uncertainties in learning a new language.

Başöz (2015) provides a summary of studies that investigated the relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and language learning. The studies showed that tolerance of ambiguity could have impact on various aspects of language both linguistically and socially. Students' results from tests on vocabulary, writing and listening comprehension showed significant correlations with their tolerance of ambiguity levels. In addition, different studies demonstrated that tolerance of ambiguity was closely associated with success not only in main skills such as reading or listening but also in subskills such as cloze tests, imitation and multiple choice grammar tests. Students reported to have the most intolerance in spoken situations and speaking tests. They wanted to express their ideas clearly in a limited time. Therefore, it can be said that productive skills, writing and speaking, require a higher level of tolerance towards ambiguity.

The strong correlation of tolerance of ambiguity with language learning success in various studies from various contexts imply that teachers and students should look to increase the level of tolerance of ambiguity since it goes hand in hand with achievement in language learning. Even more support is required for increasing the tolerance for speaking and writing situations.

### 2.2.2 Variables

The variables that affect tolerance of ambiguity levels were generally examined together with language learning strategies because tolerance of ambiguity was also considered one of the language learning strategies. This relationship is deeply explored in the upcoming sections.

Apart from language learning strategies, tolerance of ambiguity was closely associated with anxiety (Chapelle, 1983). She claimed that high levels of anxiety resulted in low tolerance of ambiguity, which led to learners' avoidance from creating language learning opportunities or practicing the target language. Dewaele and Shan Ip (2013) stated that anxiety is a behavior that is especially observed in who are intolerant of uncertainty in ambiguous situations. Therefore, there is a direct relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and anxiety. They even claimed that the level of ambiguity tolerance can predict the level of anxiety.

Students who have high levels of anxiety or low levels of tolerance of ambiguity need to be identified by teachers. Possible signs can be behaviors such as keeping silent, avoiding or stuttering. As a solution, teachers could try to create a more positive learning environment in classrooms, especially in emotional sense, in which learners are not afraid of making mistakes. Another suggestion is to get students personally involved in the target language. This would help them see the target language as a social construct rather than only a tool. These are important tips because it is fairly difficult to decrease the uncertainty in the target language because it will always have multiple or hidden meanings and various possibilities. However, it is possible to lower the anxiety levels in the class, which in turn could improve the tolerance of ambiguity levels of students in the long term.

Another behavior that was associated with tolerance of ambiguity was risk taking. Ely (1989) found that risk taking students were

- comfortable in using new language elements,
- not afraid of using structures that seemed difficult or complicated
- accepting towards their mistakes

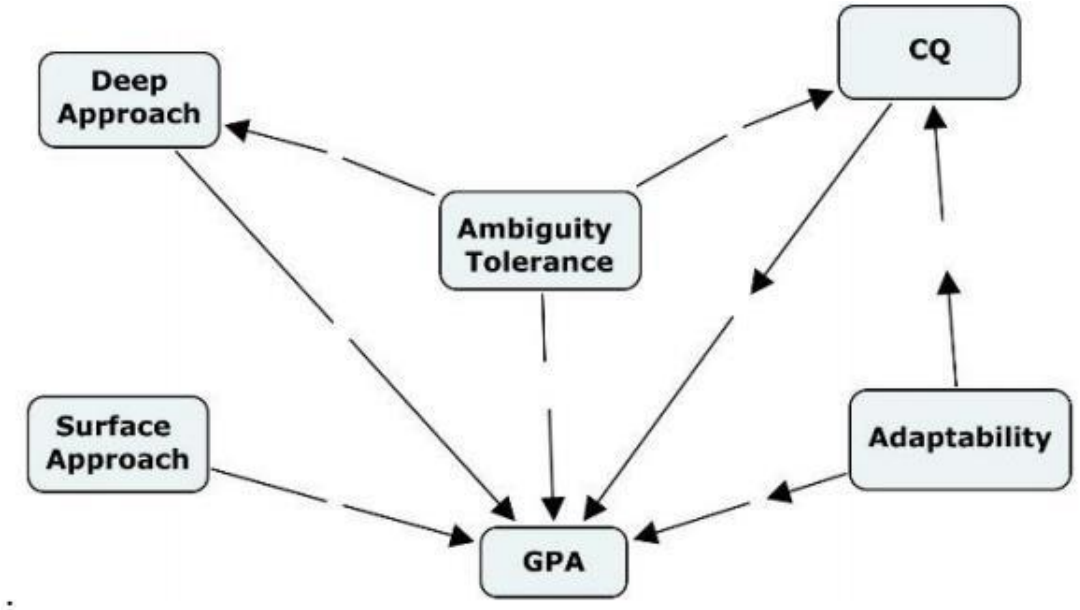
- practicing the new elements before putting them to use.

According to Rubin (1975), risk-taking learners were also ready to guess and they did not mind appearing foolish. When students do not feel comfortable in classroom, their risk-taking frequency gets lower. Therefore, similar solutions to anxiety variable can also be applied in classrooms with an aim to increase and encourage risk-taking.

Another factor that was investigated for its relation to tolerance of ambiguity was gender. There have been studies such as Erten and Topkaya (2009) that found female students outperformed male students in terms of tolerance of ambiguity. This study did not focus on gender as a variable for tolerance of ambiguity. The reason was that this kind of a result would not provide a valid implication for teaching in classroom.

Adaptability and cultural intelligence were also analyzed for their relations to tolerance of ambiguity in terms of language achievement (Alahdadi and Ghanizadeh, 2017). They proposed a model that showed the inter-relations between these variables (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Inter-relations between TA, CQ, adaptability and achievement



The model showed that ambiguity tolerance had a direct effect on cultural intelligence (CQ), deep approach and achievement. Their study also concluded that the selection of learning approaches was shaped by tolerance of ambiguity. Moreover, cultural intelligence also had a significant relationship with tolerance of ambiguity. This conclusion was important in the sense that cultural situations, especially new ones, include unfamiliar and uncertain behaviors as well as linguistic components. There might be a big gap between the distinct cultures of learners in communication. Therefore, they are susceptible to experiencing misunderstandings and communication breakdowns. These situations require a certain level of tolerance. Also, as a result of experiencing such situations students can either develop higher levels of tolerance for ambiguity or be discouraged to participate in those kinds of situations. Therefore, cultural intelligence can have a big effect on tolerance of ambiguity.

Ehrman (1999) suggested ego boundaries to have an effect on tolerance of ambiguity levels of students. According to this view students might have thin or thick ego boundaries. Students with thin ego boundaries tend to leave the process in its own course while thick boundary students ask for formal explanations and analysis. Within this continuum, having a flexible ego boundary helps students be more open. It also equips them with empathy and ability to learn another culture. Therefore, seeing the world from others people's perspective and welcoming a variety of new situations are closely associated with tolerance of ambiguity. A flexible ego boundary also allows students to accommodate for the situation. Thanks to this accommodation, they can act in certain styles that they do not usually make use. This adaptation is also a sign that students can deal with different situations by making certain changes in their behaviors. It is also a sign of having an adequate level of tolerance of ambiguity.

### 2.2.3 Tolerant Learners

Tolerant learners were considered good learners starting from earlier studies (Rubin, 1975). They were considered more successful because language learning is not always organized and includes a lot of variance. Therefore, students who can deal with these are claimed to make a better progress in language. Also, uncertainties appeal to

tolerant learners. They learn by taking risks in these situations and trying various ways of experiencing and interacting with the situation.

Some researchers suggested that a moderate level of tolerance for ambiguities is preferable for learners (Dewaele and Tsui shan, 2013). These learners can endure the ambiguities involved in language learning process longer than learners at low levels. A good language learner who has tolerance for ambiguities is seen as a learner that considers uncertainty as an opportunity to try new things and experiment, and is aware of possibilities and variances in language and not hesitant to deal with them.

In addition, tolerant learners were found to use deeper approaches to learning (Alahdadi and Ghanizadeh, 2017). Deep approaches can be towards language learning strategies or the willingness to acquire new information. They include using certain strategies such as linking information or analyzing new input in order to deal with uncertainties.

Intolerant learners, on the other hand, try to avoid situations that includes stress and insecurity. Therefore, they may even refuse to learn a new language because their own language to feels secure to themselves. As a result, they may not want to leave their comfort zone and take risks. They may see new input in language as a threatening fact, which leads to discouragement (Chapelle, 1983). They prefer to be taught in a more structured and certain way that does not involve surprises or changes.

Also intolerant learners were found to use surface approaches in their learning (Alahdadi and Ghanizadeh, 2017). Reacting negatively to uncertain information or situations, these learners prefer to use rote-based and superficial methods. This also stems from their low level of adaptability to new situations.

## 2.3 LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Language learning strategies is a wide research area in ELT field. Therefore, it will be explained in several titles in order to provide a more organized and clear picture.

### 2.3.1 Categories of language learning strategies

Since the earliest studies of language learning strategies research in ELT, researchers put forward different categorizations. The most prominent of these are chronologically explained below.

Bialystok (1978) proposed four different strategies that learners employ in learning. Formal strategies help learners develop explicit knowledge by focusing on language codes. Functional strategies primarily focus on the meaning, communication and implicit knowledge. Monitoring strategies are used to modify and produce correct linguistic output. Inferencing strategies enable learners to obtain a previously-known linguistic information.

Rubin (1981) talked about strategies in two groups: indirect and direct. Indirect strategies include creating language practice opportunities such as spending time in language lab or creating situations with a native speaker; and production tricks such as using formulaic interactions or contextualization to clarify meaning. Direct strategies include clarification such as asking for examples or repeating words; monitoring such as correcting errors in spelling, grammar, etc. of own or others; memorization such as writing items repeatedly, finding mnemonics or pronouncing out loud; guessing such as inferring meaning from key words or context; Deductive reasoning such as grouping of words, looking for co-occurring rules or comparison of target and native language; practice such as repetition of sentences or experimenting with new sounds.

Based on this 1981 categorization, Rubin provided another grouping in 1987. Rubin (1987) provided three types of strategies. These are learning social strategies, communication strategies and learning strategies.

She said that learning strategies contribute directly to language learning and include two major types: cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies. She defines cognitive strategies as operations or processes employed in modification, analysis and synthesis of materials. There are six cognitive strategies:

Monitoring: noticing errors, observing the delivery of message. Clarification: used to verify the understanding in learning process. Memorization: retrieval and storage of language, organization of knowledge. Guessing: using previous knowledge in linguistic forms and semantic meaning. Practice: repetition, experimentation, rehearsal, imitation, etc.

Deductive reasoning: looking for and using general rules to understand language, using general rules for problem-solving.

Metacognitive learning strategies are used in overseeing, regulation and self-directing the learning. Using these strategies, learners plan, monitor and evaluate the activities in their learning. There are four planning strategies:

Choosing: students decide on what and how they want to learn based on their needs and preferences.

Prioritizing: students prioritize certain points

Setting goals: students determine aims and steps to achieve

Planning: students choose, organize and modify learning strategies

Social strategies and communication strategies, on the other hand, contribute indirectly to learners. Communication strategies are mainly used in conversations to convey meaning and understanding what the speaker intended. However, it does not mean that learners do not learn new information while using communication strategies. On the contrary, these strategies indirectly help learning especially in cases of misunderstanding or difficulties in conversations. Social strategies aim to create an environment in which students can learn. They increase the learners' exposure to target language and provide the learner with practice of what has been obtained, stored and learned through learning strategies. Some examples can be attending social events such

as parties, answering questions of other students and starting conversation with teachers, students or native speakers.

In another major categorization, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) grouped language learning strategies as social/affective, cognitive and metacognitive based on their longitudinal study. Cognitive strategies are seen as direct strategies while metacognitive and social/affective strategies are considered indirect. Cognitive strategies are learners' mental understanding and modifications of knowledge, tasks and materials. They include rehearsal, organization, inferencing, summarizing, deducing, imagery, transfer and elaboration.

Metacognitive strategies help learners think about language learning process, plan their learning, monitor their progress and self-evaluation after the task or learning is completed. They include selective attention, planning, monitoring and evaluation.

Social/affective strategies include social interactions with other learners or people and learners' feelings and emotions. A summary of this categorization with definitions of strategies is provided in Table 2.1.

A comprehensive model of language learning strategies classification was designed by Oxford (1990) who considered strategies as a tool to reach communicative competence. According to this model, strategies are divided into two main categories as direct and indirect strategies, each having three subcategories.

Direct strategies directly involve target language and require mental processing. The subcategories are cognitive, memory and compensation strategies. Memory strategies function in linking the information mentally, using visuals and audios, revising and performing action. Cognitive strategies are employed in practicing, receiving and sending messages, reasoning and analyzing, and structuring input and output. Compensation strategies are used to make reasonable guesses and tackle difficulties in oral and written communication.

Table 2.1 O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) classification of strategies

| Classification | Strategies | Definitions |
|---|---|---|
| Metacognitive Strategies | Selective attention | Focusing on certain parts of language task |
| | Planning | Organizing written or spoken product |
| | Monitoring | Reviewing a task, comprehension or production while occurring |
| | Evaluation | Checking the production or comprehension after completion |
| Cognitive Strategies | Rehearsal | Repetition |
| | Organization | Grouping or classification of language components |
| | Inferencing | Predicting outcomes, missing parts or meaning |
| | Summarizing | Synthesizing information |
| | Deducing | Creating rules to understand |
| | Imagery | Making use of visual images |
| | Transfer | Taking advantage of known information to acquire new input |
| | Elaboration | Linking new ideas or old ideas with new ones |
| Social/Affective Strategies | Cooperation | Working with others to learn |
| | Questioning | Consulting to a teacher or a peer |
| | Self-talk | Self-encouragement |

Indirect strategies function together with direct strategies to support and help learners manage their language learning. They consist of metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. Students use metacognitive strategies to focus on learning, make arrangements and plans, and assess their learning. Affective strategies help learners overcome their anxiety, encourage themselves and control emotions. Social strategies are used for asking questions, cooperation and showing empathy. A summary of this categorization is presented in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 Summary of Oxford's (1990) classification of strategies




Stern (1992) came up with 5 groups of language learning strategies. The first group is Management and Planning strategies. These strategies are related to learners' directing and taking charge of their own learning. Teacher's duty is to help and advise students in the process in addition to providing resources for students to make use of. Learners are responsible for making decisions on their expectations, way of studying, resource selection and evaluation of steps and milestones in their learning process.

Second group is cognitive strategies that consist of applications and techniques which are employed by learners in acquiring new information and practicing. Cognitive strategies are:

a) Clarification/Verification

b) Guessing/Inductive Inferencing

c) Deductive reasoning

d) Practice

e) Memorization

f) Monitoring

Another group is Communicative and Experiental strategies that are vital to accomplish learning by combining formal study and opportunties of real-life language use. These strategies help learners to maintain converstaion flow without interruptions of language mistakes or inappropriate utterances. Therefore, it can be said that the aim of these strategies is to keep the conversation going rather than learning a particular point in target language. Asking for clarification, body language, paraphrasing and circumlocution are some examples of communicative and experiental strategies.

Fourth group of strategies is Interpersonal strategies. These strategies guides learners to stop asking for help in case of a problem and overcome these problems. It is natural for learners, especially at the beginning of the learning process, to face problems and depend on help from their teacher, classmates or others. However, as they become more proficient, learners should be able to deal with difficult situations, monitor their learning and evaluate their progress independently by using interpersonal strategies. A good way to independence is being in continuous contact with native speakers a to improve social skills and also collect awareness and information on target culture.

The last group of strategies is affective strategies which are about the emotional state of a learner. Language learning may make students overwhelmed or annoyed because it includes a lot of new information and rules that can be difficult to process or perceived as strange. Students use affective strategies in order to overcome negative situations and create favorable conditions for their affect. The negativeness may also come from learner's negative feelings towards the people of target language. Good language learners make use of these strategies to find a relation to turn these into positive. Teachers can train learners by drawing their attention to affective problems when they arise and also by guiding and giving examples on how to deal with them using affective strategies.

The most recent prominent categorization of language learning strategies is put forward by Cohen (2000). He provided four groups of strategies which are cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social. Cognitive strategies are used in comprehension of

new information and production of acquired knowledge. They also help learners group, store and retrieve the target language input. Metacognitive strategies assist learners in management of their learning process. This management involves organization, planning and evaluation of all the language-related activities and studies. Affective strategies help learners to maintain positive attitude and high motivation. Possible causes of negative emotions such as anxiety and demotivation are controlled whereas positive acts such as self-encouragement and self-esteem are promoted thanks to affective strategies.

When all the categorizations are considered, it is obvious that there are many overlapping and similar ideas and groups in all of them. Researchers tried to draw a picture of strategies in order to clarify the points they mention and better explain terms in their research. These categorizations guide new researchers and teachers in determining which strategies to teach, in what ways to teach and how to make use of them in the best possible way.

### 2.3.2 Variables

A Research suggests that language learning strategies clearly provides advantage for students. Therefore, researchers conducted many studies on variables that affect strategies in order to control, eliminate or make use of other factors that may influence students' strategy use. Studies yielded a number of variables with varying effects on language learning strategies.

***Motivation and Attitudes.*** Motivation is one of the most researched areas of language learning. In the same way, it was one of the first variables to be examined in relation with language learning strategies. Motivation and attitudes are discussed under the same sub-category because they are very closely related and they affect one another. In many definitions of motivation, attitudes are also included. For example, Ellis (1997) says that "motivation involves the attitudes and the affective states that influence the degree of efforts that learners make to learn an L2."

There has been many different definitions of motivation. Each definition touched upon a different aspect. Gardner (1985) included effort, goals and positive attitudes in his definition while Williams and Burden (1997) talked about it as "cognitive arousal". Moreover, various types of motivation have been put forward such as extrinsic, intrinsic, integrative and resultative (Ellis, 1997). Extrinsic motivation has to do with outside factors such as finding a better job, having a higher salary or getting a good grade. Intrinsic motivation comes from student's own desire to get involved in language learning. Integrative motivation is about student's desire to interact with the native speakers or culture of target language. Resultative motivation comes from student's achievements in language learning.

Gardner (1985) suggests that motivation has a strong influence on success. The same can also be expected on language learning strategies. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) suggested that motivation was the most influential variable on students' use of language strategies. They suggested that motivation and use of strategies go hand in hand. Highly motivated students used more strategies. In turn, strategy use resulted in success and proficiency which then brought high self-esteem and motivation to use more and more strategies. In another study which supported this result, Oxford, Park-oh, Ito and Sumrall (1993) argued that high motivation increased the use of language learning strategies, and vice versa. These findings conclude that teachers should try to increase motivation levels of students and encourage them to use more strategies in order to obtain language achievement.

As for attitudes, research suggests similar results. Yang (1993) found that there is a positive correlation between the use of language learning strategies and students' attitudes toward target language. Sedaghat (2001) also stated that students with positive attitudes used certain strategies more than others. As a result, when students develop positive attitudes toward target language, it can lead to higher motivation levels and using more number of language learning strategies in a more effective way.

***Gender.*** Although there has been controversy on the effects of gender on language learning strategies, the number of studies on their relationship and the results from these studies show that gender differences in language learning strategies has profound

influence. Some studies examined amount of strategies used by different genders. Griffiths (2013) argued that female students use more strategies whereas Tran (1988) suggested the opposite. Other studies focused on the different types of strategies which were employed more frequently by female or male students. For example, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) concluded that female students made use of conversational input elicitation strategies more than male students because they engage in social interaction more. Studies like these surely provide teachers with ideas to address these differences in language learning tasks, instruction and evaluation in class.

***Learning Styles.*** Learning styles has to do with students' preferences about learning. Ehrman (1996) provides a different explanation to learning styles. According to her, four 'comfort zones' stand for four different learning styles. These zones are railroads, major highway systems, trails and open country. Students with railroad style look for direct and to-the-point instructions. On the other hand, open country style students like to explore the language freely to improve. Students with the other two styles, highway and trail styles, in the middle of these opposite styles with strictness or freedom. Based on this classification, Ehrman (1996) suggested that open country and trail style students are better at skills such as free conversation and informal activities which do not require strict rules or components. However, the key point is to bring students who have various learning styles together with activity types which successfully matches the styles in context.

In another study, Oxford and Anderson (1995) put forward that there are at least 20 dimensions of learning styles. Styles can be grouped in many different ways. The important idea of this study is that learning styles constitute the foundation of learning strategies. An example study on this relationship between learning styles and strategies was carried out by Ko (2002). Although he stated the differences were not significant, he found that students with visual and multiple style used more affective strategies while kinesthetic learning style used more social and memory strategies.

All in all, learning styles has a determinant role the learning strategy choices of students. It is another area that teachers and researchers need to take into consideration in their teaching and studies.

***Culture.*** Being a vast term, culture include many components such as gestures, thinking styles, perceptions, etc. It is researched in various research areas with the idea that it is a big part of life and has an influence on people's psychology and behavior, including their learning (Dörnyei, 2005). A number of attempts have been made to explore the relationship between cross-cultural differences and language learning strategies.

In one of these studies, Yang (1993) found that Taiwanese college students preferred compensation strategies the most while memory strategies were the least used ones. A similar result was found by Torut (1994) who examined Thai university students who studied at different departments with different proficiency levels. The study also concluded that students used compensation strategies the most. Also, all groups preferred direct strategies more than indirect strategies. In a comparative study, Levine, Reves and Leaver (1996) studied the differences between immigrant students and students who lived in Israel for more than 5 years in terms of learning strategies. As a result, immigrant students were inclined to use memorization strategies whereas the students in the other group tended to use communication strategies. A recent study by Sung (2011) employed a different perspective by taking the cultural background of students into account. The study yielded that Chinese heritage students used less social, affective and metacognitive strategies than non-heritage students.

To conclude, it is clearly possible to say that cultural background and differences have an impact on students' learning strategies. However, students can always go beyond these conclusions in their learning because culture can not be a barrier on what they can do and how they can learn.

***Proficiency Level.*** Proficiency level is one of the most researched factors in language learning strategies. Although it is thought to have influential results on strategy use, the studies provide controversial results.

On one hand, there are studies which suggest that language proficiency is significantly related to learning strategies. To illustrate, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001)

concluded that students who had more proficiency in reading made use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies better than others. In another supporting study, Griffiths (2007) found out that students with a higher level of proficiency employed a larger number of strategies in a more frequent manner.

On the other hand, some studies suggested that the level of proficiency is not a significant factor in strategy use. Porte (1988) reported that there was not a significant relationship between more proficient learners and their use of language learning strategies. In another study, Vann and Abraham (1990) put forward that the sample in their study could not make any progress in terms of TOEFL scores although they made use of a number of strategies.

Despite the controversial results, most studies indicate that as the proficiency level increases, students benefit more from language learning strategies.

***Other Variables.*** There have been various other factors that are thought to have an impact on language learning strategies. Some of these are discipline, age, risk-taking, study length, etc.

Age is a factor that also includes cognitive and social differences. As age grows, individual's social and cognitive abilities tend to change. For example, Ellis (1986) suggested that compared to young learners, adults are more bound by culture. Therefore, culture shock is greater for them and this can lead to the feeling of incompetence in language learning. However, Griffiths (2013) argued that more mature students are better at using and utilizing a number of learning strategies. Moreover, they also have better metacognitive control such as time management and planning.

The length of English study is another factor that yielded controversial results on strategy use. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) put forward that students with at least five years of English study demonstrated a positive correlation with their use of certain types of strategies. On the other hand, Rahimi, Riazi and Saif (2008) argued that length of English study was a predictor of learning strategies in a negative way.

It is impossible to measure, analyze and come to a general conclusion about factors that affect language learning strategies. Besides, uniqueness of every student, teacher, classroom, culture, etc. gives the indication that every student and teacher should try to make the best use of any strategy that suits their needs and interests.

### 2.3.3 Good and Independent Language Learners

Studies on good language learners started in early seventies and employed two main approaches. First approach included interviewing, researching and asking questions to good language learners in order to explore how they learn the target language. In the second approach, researchers compared good and bad language learners. According to these studies with these approaches, researchers identified certain characteristics of good and bad language learners.

One of the first study to mention the concept of good language learners is Rubin's (1975) research. She suggested that if what successful language learners do is explored, it might be possible to teach these to poorer learners in order to improve their language learning. This knowledge about good language learners helps to decrease the gap between poor and succcessful learners. According to Rubin (1975), good language learners

- are willing and able to use clues to guess meaning
- use a variety of techniques in communication
- manage inhibitions
- pay attention to form and meaning
- monitor their own and others' language production
- practice the target language.

Stern (1975) suggests that success of good learners come from the methods they employ and also provides a list of the characteristics of good language learners. Good learners:

- use positive or personal learning strategies
- have an active attitude towards language activities

- use technical knowledge of how to acquire a language
- plan their language learning systematically
- search for meaning
- look for real life use of target language
- have a desire to practice and add to their information on target language

On the other hand, it would be wrong to think that poor language learners does not use any language learning strategies. On the contrary, poor learners also use different language learning strategies but the difference with good language learners arises from the use of less appropriate strategies or less articulation of these strategies (Porte, 1988). Vann and Abraham (1990) also stated that the difference is about quality rather than quantity. Even if poor learners use the same strategies as that of good learners, how good they make use of that strategy constitutes the difference. Oxford (1993) also supports this idea by saying that poor learners are not as good and creative as good ones in orchestration of language learning strategies.

Another important finding was put forward by Chamot, Küpper and Impink-Hernandez (1988) in one of the early studies. The study included observation of language learners in three different proficiency levels of Spanish and Russian for four semesters. Students were rated as effective and ineffective learners by their teachers. The study yielded that effective students used grater range of strategies in a more appropriate way. They also combined their general knowledge with the new information on target language.

White (2008) provides a detailed overview of the relationship between independent language learning and learning strategies. She mentioned three dimensions of independent language learning: context (setting), philosophy (approach) and attributes (learner).

The first dimension is the context in which the learners acquire and develop language related skills (although this process does not necessarily have to be individual). The main point is the independence from a teacher as a transmitter of knowledge.

The second dimension is the philosophy, which refers to the approach to learning. The independence (thereby autonomy) is of vital importance in the learning process and the approach or philosophy to learning is a key factor in providing students with independence.

The third and the last dimension is the attributes of the learners, which refers to the attitudes, beliefs and skills of learners. Learners use these attributes to deal with problems and take actions.

Until recently, the focus was on extrinsic factors such as teachers, methodology and materials in the learning processes. Learning processes were dependent on teaching methods and materials, and they were teacher centered. Only after 1970s, the learners and their motivations, attributes and learning styles are deemed to be important. Language learning became a more learner centered process and language teaching methods were criticized for not taking different learning styles into consideration. As a result, learners became responsible for their own learning. They were required to take action and use appropriate strategies when necessary.

However, studies and interviews with students revealed that this was a problematic issue. Taking necessary actions and using appropriate strategies was not very easy to do. In fact, many students preferred teacher centered face to face instructions rather than being responsible of their own learning. According to some students, it was a burden to be responsible of their own learning, which proves the importance of strategy training.

All in all, studies on good and independent language learners has proved to be fruitful in exploring the relationship between strategies and language learning. Although this type of study has limitations such as relying on verbal data and reflecting formal settings, it still has a substantial effect and importance on strategy research (Ellis, 1996).

### 2.3.4 Language learning strategy training

Referred in different terms such as learner development, learner training or strategy instruction, strategy training aims to help learners understand what factors affect their learning in what way and explore the most beneficial strategies for themselves. As Ellis and Sinclair (1989) stated, this enables students to take control of their own learning and they can even apply these strategies in their lives. Moreover, strategy training can provide learners with awareness to diagnose their strengths and weaknesses, take autonomy in their learning tasks and evaluate their own learning and progress.

There have been many different suggestions on how to perform strategy training. Wenden (1987) proposed four criteria for strategy training:

- To inform students about importance of strategies given
- To provide trainings of different categories of strategies
- To determine the optimum way to bring learner training and language training together
- To evaluate learner training in multiple perspectives

One proposed type is Explicit and Implicit strategy training. In explicit learning of strategies, students are aware of the purpose in using certain strategies. In this type of strategy training, students can take teacher as their model, evaluate the strategies or transfer them into new tasks (Chamot, 2008). In implicit type of strategy training, learners are provided with strategies within tasks, activities and materials. They are expected to extract the reasons and uses behind these strategies on their own (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Although both types of strategy training are found useful in different ways, most of the research emphasize the importance of presenting strategies in an explicit way to students. If students do not know the usefulness and importance of a certain strategy in a task, they may miss what could be crucial for their learning at that time or in the future.

Another possible way to perform strategy training is in an Integrated or Discrete way. Integrated strategy training means that strategies are embedded in the curriculum and content whereas discrete strategy training involves single focus on presenting strategies. One argument against integrated strategy training states that students may have difficulty in transferring the strategy they learned in a specific integrated task into many other different contexts (Gu, 1996). Another argument argues that training teachers on how to successfully integrate strategies into their lessons is more difficult than teaching students the strategies discretely (Vance, 1999). On the other hand, integrated strategy training is supported because of the reason that it provides strategies in context which may lead to a better understanding of target strategy (Wenden, 1987). Also, Cambione and Armbruster (1985) claimed that integrated and authentic tasks in strategy training facilitates the transfer of strategies into similar contexts for students.

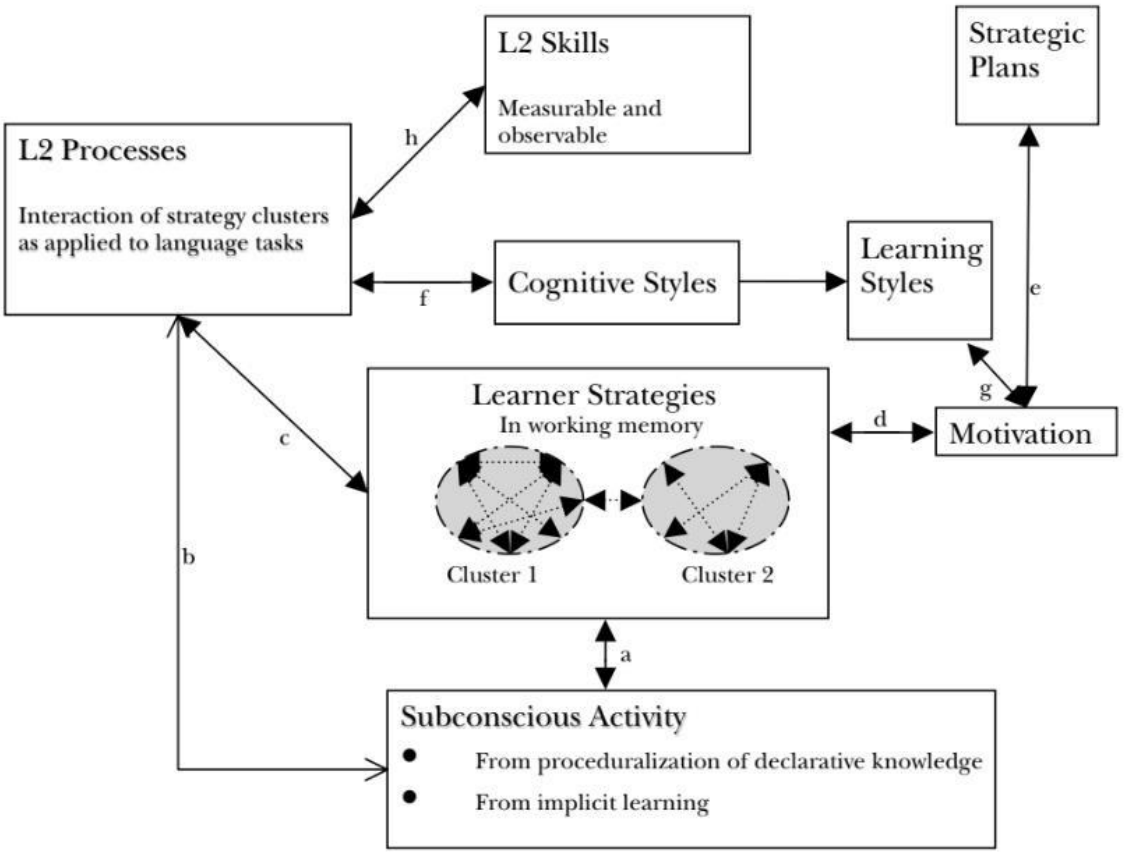
For teachers who want to come up with their own way of teaching language learning strategies, it is crucial to understand how learner strategies work with other variables and how are they learned. In this sense, Macaro (2006) provided a cognitive framework for learner strategies. In this model, there is a differentiation between working memory and subconscious memory. Learner strategies perform in the working memory but they are closely associated with subconscious activity. The important point for teachers here is to look at the relationship between L2 processes and motivation with learner strategies. As explained in the previous sections motivation could have a direct effect on language learning strategies. Therefore, teachers could start with awareness raising and move towards persuading learners about the benefits of using learning strategies in order to increase their motivation. In this process, some modelling by teachers in using certain strategies may also help. Strategic plans box could be filled with these kinds of suggestions in order to increase motivation level of students to encourage learning strategies.

Another important point is to recognize that L2 skills are specified as observable whereas L2 processes are not observable and associated with both working and subconscious memories. Teacher should be aware that when they measure learning strategies of the students, they only measure the L2 skills. In the L2 processes students may be making use of different and more number of strategies. In this part, raising

awareness activities could play a big role. Improving self-analysis and self-recognition by awareness-raising activities, student may become more conscious of their L2 processes and learning strategies. This would help them make informed and deliberate decisions.

Final point is about differences in cognitive and learning styles. In strategy instruction, teachers need to consider the differences in how students learn. Certain strategy groups might be useful for some students whereas they might be not as fruitful to other students. These styles also affect how students process the target language in given language tasks. Therefore, designing appropriate tasks to students both cognitive and learning styles could foster appropriate learner strategies, which would improve target language skills.

Figure 2.2 Macaro's (2006) cognitive framework for learner strategies.




Although there is not an agreed way to perform strategy training, results of strategy training studies have mostly proved beneficial. In an example study, Oxford,

Crookall, Cohen, Lavine, Nyikos and Sutter (1990) concluded from their two-year longitudinal research that students became more motivated, confident and fond of language learning. A meta-analysis of 37 studies by Ardasheva, Wang, Adesope, and Valentine (2017) showed that strategy instruction has benefited learners significantly. Especially young learners and more proficient learners gained more from strategy instruction than other students.

In Turkish context, a strategy instruction study was conducted by Kahveci (2017). She found that overt listening and reading strategy instruction contributed to the significant development of students' cognitive strategies. The students also showed willingness to use these newly learned strategies for further situations. Overall, strategy training in any way can be fruitful for both students and teachers.

## 2.5 RELATED STUDIES

This section provides a summary of relevant studies on language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity. First, studies in different countries are given to provide a global context. Then, studies in Turkish context are provided to provide a closer look to the possible similar or different outcomes to the present study.

### 2.5.1 Global context

Ely (1989) conducted a study and developed a scale to test the ambiguity tolerance in relation to second language learning. The scale was used in the study (and in the literature later) to evaluate the relationship between ambiguity tolerance and the use of language strategies. Participants of the study were 84 2nd and 3rd year university students learning Spanish. He found that tolerance of ambiguity could be a predictor of certain strategies. In the regression analysis, tolerance of ambiguity was found to account for around %10 of the variance in strategies. This analysis showed that tolerance of ambiguity had a relationship with language learning strategies.

Lee (1998) studied the relationship between the tolerance of ambiguity and Korean midshipman's use language learning strategies. There were 377 participants in

the study. The participants were classified according to their English proficiency levels as low, mid and high. Participants' major and class levels were also tested but they were not significantly affected the results in terms of using language learning strategies. Participants' degree of ambiguity tolerance was reported to be very low. Class was an important factor in terms of tolerance of ambiguity since the senior students' ambiguity tolerance was significantly higher than the freshmen's. Proficiency was also found to be an important factor. Participants with higher levels of proficiency showed higher levels of ambiguity tolerance.

Zhang (2004) investigated the effects of ambiguity tolerance on the selection and use of foreign language learning strategies. The results indicated that students' level of tolerance of ambiguity is an important factor in selecting language learning strategies. Students who have high levels of tolerance of ambiguity select and use language learning strategies conveniently with the challenging language task, whereas students with low tolerance of ambiguity have problems in this case. Students with low tolerance of ambiguity cannot cope with ambiguous language input, as reported by the researcher.

Yu (2007) investigated the relationship between the tolerance of ambiguity, multiple intelligences and English proficiency. Participants of the study were 173 Taiwanese students in a private university. 49 of the participants were males and 124 were females. Three sets of data were used in the study, questionnaires of multiple intelligences, Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale and students' scores from English proficiency exam. The analyses revealed that there was a correlation between the students' English proficiency levels, tolerance of ambiguity, and multiple intelligences. Students with low ambiguity tolerance selected used learning strategies in an inappropriate way, while students with high ambiguity tolerance used learning strategies more appropriate to the context.

Ba (2012) stated the importance of English listening in second language learning process. According to the author, Chinese students face many ambiguities when they communicate in English because of the differences between the two languages. When the students cannot rely on their mother tongue when they face an

ambiguity problem, it is challenging and frustrating. The author conducted a study to examine the relationship between the tolerance of ambiguity and Chinese learners' English listening comprehension. The results revealed that students who have high levels of ambiguity tolerance can make use of other skills to compete with these challenging situations.

Chu, Lin, Chen, Tsai and Wang (2015) investigated the relationships between tolerance of ambiguity, English proficiency and language learning strategies. The participants of the study were 60 Taiwanese students. The results of the study revealed that learners who have high proficiency in the second language could use strategies to cope with ambiguity by trying to understand the overall meaning. The authors suggested that students with low ambiguity tolerance need assistance in coping with ambiguities they face and teachers must be aware of that fact.

### 2.5.2 Turkish context.

In Turkish context, Çavuşoğlu (1992) conducted one of the earliest studies on language learning strategies. The study focused on the relationship between strategy use and language proficiency. Upper-intermediate and advanced learners are examined for the number and frequency of learning strategies. The results showed that students at higher proficiency level used more number of strategies more frequently. However, the relationship was not significant. It concluded that proficiency is not a direct indicator of strategy use. Therefore, other factors that influence the variety and frequency of strategy use needs to be researched.

Erten and Topkaya (2009) conducted a study to investigate the tolerance of ambiguity. Their participants were 188 preparation year Turkish EFL learners. The authors gathered data with a Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale with some additional demographic questions. The results revealed that, in the learning process, participants had lower levels of ambiguity. Male students were reported to be more tolerant than females in the study. Another important finding of the study was that as the participants know more about strategies they become less intolerant. The

authors concluded by stating the importance of teachers' awareness of their students' strategies and introducing more strategies as they get the chance to make their students more tolerant.

Kural (2014) studied the relationship between students' tolerance of ambiguity levels and Metacognitive awareness of L2 reading strategies. The study was designed as a mixed method study. Participants of the study were 195 preparatory school students (A1, A2 and B1 levels) in a private university. Three sets of data were collected for the study: one set was collected through the Second Language Ambiguity Tolerance Survey, another was collected via the Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory and the last set of data was collected through semi-structured interviews. First of all, the participants' levels of ambiguity tolerance was found to be low. The study, like other studies in the literature, has revealed that the level of English proficiency and the level of tolerance of ambiguity are closely related. Tolerance of ambiguity increases as the level of English proficiency increases. The researcher has also reported that gender has a significant effect on ambiguity tolerance (male students are more likely to be more tolerant than females).

In a more recent study, Gözüm (2018) examined the relationship between language learning strategies and students' self-efficacy beliefs and language proficiency. The participants were 884 students from five different high schools. The analysis showed that students self-efficacy improved together with compensation, metacognitive, cognitive and social strategies. Moreover, all subscales of language learning strategies had positive significant correlations with both language proficiency levels and self-efficacy levels. The study concluded that teaching language learning strategies together with increasing self-efficacy had an impact on language proficiency levels of students. The study also provided suggestions for application in classrooms.

Overall, the previous studies in the literature provide a great deal of support for paying attention to both language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity. Although some studies did not include both variables together in the analysis, it was evident from other studies that tolerance of ambiguity was in a close relationship with the use and selection of language learning strategies. Together with other factors such

as self-efficacy and motivation, language learning proficiency and achievement in language classrooms are considered as results of learners' improvement in their tolerance levels and the frequent use of strategies.

# CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design of this study included students at three English proficiency levels as participants and two scales as data collection tools. The two instruments – one measuring the language learning strategy use and one measuring tolerance of ambiguity – allowed for exploration of both variables separately and the relationship between them. In addition, subscales within strategies scale enabled a more detailed analysis of this relationship between strategies and tolerance of ambiguity.

The study followed a quantitative analysis in order to maintain objectiveness and obtain reliable data. For this purpose, a correlational design was the most suitable since the study aimed to explore the relationship between two variables. It was also suitable to see the relationships of subscales with the main variable. To test the change in a variable over time, ANOVA was selected because the participants consisted of three groups. As a result, this study followed a quantitative correlational design which was supported with ANOVA.

More detailed information on participants, procedures, instruments and data analysis are provided below.

## 3.2 PARTICIPANTS

In order to determine the sample size, a priori test was run using GPower software aiming at a medium effect size (.30) and high power (.95) for a correlational study (Erdfelder, Buchner and Lang, 2009). The calculation required a minimum of 110 participants. However, there were 105 participants in this study because some students handed in questionnaires which were filled out with the same number or not filled out at all. A post hoc analysis by GPower showed that 105 participants captured a medium effect size (.30) and a high power (.94).

Participants were university English preparatory school students at a private university in Istanbul, Turkey. The present study aimed to compare language strategy use and tolerance of ambiguity levels of different language proficiency groups. Therefore, participants were chosen from pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate proficiency levels by using purposive sampling (Patton, 2002). Ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 25. Descriptive data about group sizes and gender are provided in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Descriptive statistics of groups

| Level | Pre-intermediate | | Intermediate | | Upper-Intermediate | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| | 21 | 14 | 18 | 17 | 19 | 16 |
| Total | 35 | | 35 | | 35 | |

To give background information on participants' English study before coming to university, some information is given in this paragraph about Turkish education system. At the time of this study, in Turkish elementary schools, English was a compulsory subject. In 2nd and 3rd grade, students had two hours of English lessons a week. In higher grades, including high school up to university, they had 4 hours a week. English questions were included in high school entrance exam but university exam did not require them to answer any English questions unless they wanted to study at language departments.

As a result, they might have neglected to give necessary importance to English because it was not necessary to be placed at a university. This result was hinted by the percentage of students who were able to pass the proficiency exam at the beginning of the year (4% was successful). Even after 11 years of English instructions, majority of the students started from the very beginning of level 1 at English preparatory school of the university.

## 3.3 SETTING

The study was conducted in an English preparatory school of a foundation (private) university in Istanbul, Turkey. Successful completion of this one-year program grants students to start their academic courses in their departments. The university mainly consists of departments related to commerce such as economics, international trade and business administration.

At the beginning of the year students were placed in different proficiency levels according to their score in the placement exam. The English prep program followed the framework of Common European Framework of Reference (2001) in determining the levels of students. One year program consisted of four levels. These are elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate. Every level took 2 months to complete. The students were required to attend ninety percent of their lessons. Otherwise, they would not be able to take the final exam and fail.

In terms of assessment, in every level, students took one mid-term exam, one final exam and three quizzes. They also prepared two presentations and two in-class writings. Mid-term exams included grammar, vocabulary, listening and writing sections. Final exams also included the same sections with an addition of a speaking section. In order to be successful, students were required to complete the necessary attendance and a 65% overall success rate from their assessment. If students failed to complete a level, they would repeated the same level.

Each classroom had a computer, sound system and a projector or a smart board. Therefore, teachers were able to make use of video or audio sources in class. Classroom population varied between 20 and 25.

In terms of teaching and learning setting, all teachers paid careful attention to use English during lessons. Also, books and other materials did not include any Turkish. Students studied integrated skills course books in elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate levels. At upper-intermediate level, they studied two skill-based books (a listening and speaking book together with a reading and writing

book). Students took 4 hours of English lessons every day. In total, they took 160 hours of English lessons for every level.

### 3.4 INSTRUMENTS

Before the application of measurement scales, students were given a consent form (Appendix 1). They were free to sign this form and participate in the questionnaire or to be out of it. This consent form also included demographic questions in order to obtain participants' information such as gender and age.

In order to measure the tolerance of ambiguity levels of language learners, Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale (SLTAS) was used (Appendix 2). Although there are other questionnaires developed by researchers such as Budner (1962) and Norton (1975), SLTAS was considered the most suitable because it was specifically devised to measure the tolerance of ambiguity level in language learning. In its original form, this questionnaire consists of 12 items and each item has four options (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree).

However, Erten and Topkaya's (2009) version of the same scale was used in this study (Appendix 3). This version was translated into Turkish by researchers and also has a fifth option for questions, "undecided". By this, it was aimed to avoid forcing students to choose a positive or a negative option. For this five point Likert scale version which was also in Turkish, Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability was 0.75.

Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learners was utilized in order to explore the ways and extent of language strategy use by students (Appendix 4). This questionnaire is the most widely used strategy questionnaire in English teaching field. Therefore, it was also found suitable to be utilized in this study.

The original version was in English and included 50 items. These items had 5 rating points called "always, usually, somewhat, usually not and never true for me". The scale also had 6 subscales to language strategies. These are

- memory strategies (9 items): reviewing, using images, grouping

- cognitive strategies (14 items): practicing language, summarizing, making use of analysis or reasoning

- compensation strategies (6 items): utilizing gestures and synonyms to communicate when in difficult situations, guessing the meaning of a word or a sentence from context

- metacognitive strategies (9 items): self-evaluation, searching for practice, paying attention, monitoring errors

- affective strategies (6 items): reducing anxiety, encouraging or rewarding him/herself

- social strategies (6 items): increasing cultural awareness, interacting with native speakers, asking questions.

This scale was translated into Turkish in order to avoid misunderstandings in items that could affect the results or the reliability of the scale (Turkish version in Appendix 5).

Translation of both scales was performed in the form of blind-translation. That is, the researcher translated the questionnaires into Turkish while another field expert also translated them. They did not see each others' Turkish versions until they were finished. After that, they compared two versions of translations and checked for mismatches and language appropriateness. At the end of this session, final Turkish translated versions of both scales were obtained.

### 3.5 PROCEDURE

The questionnaires were given to students at the beginning of the second two-month study period. The reason behind was that this time of the academic year included student groups at all English proficiency levels. Within the first two-month period, there were elementary level students that started from the beginner level. Also there were students who had a head start at the pre-intermediate and intermediate

levels. At the end of this period, these students became pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate.

Before giving out any data collection tools, the participants were given a consent form that included information about the study and the researcher. Students were also told that there were free to join, not participate or leave at any time of the study. It was also made sure that they understood their participation or performance in the study would not have any effect on their school grades.

After voluntary students signed the consent forms, they were given Turkish versions of both SLTAS and SILL at the same time. They were asked to answer the questions in an honest way. This was aided with asking them to not write their names on the papers.

### 3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis was conducted using SPSS version 23. All the data including demographic information, tolerance of ambiguity scale ratings and language strategy use ratings were entered into the same data set.

For SLTAS, ratings were coded from 5 to 1 for strongly disagree to strongly agree. Therefore, a high rating for SLTAS would mean a high tolerance of ambiguity or vice versa.

For SILL, ratings were coded from 5 to 1 for always to never true for me. Therefore, a high rating for SILL would mean a high use of language learning strategies.

It was made sure that there were no blanks in the answers and coding. After the coding process was completed, the data was analyzed for a number of aspects. First of all, demographic information was checked descriptively. This included gender, study majors and age. Also, reliability levels of both scales were measured using Cronbach's alpha. This allowed for checking if the translated versions were trustable.

Secondly, normality of the data distribution was checked using Shapiro-Wilk test before running any statistical tests. They were also checked visually via boxplots. As normality ratings were at acceptable levels, the analysis continued with further steps.

Since SLTAS had a middle point called “undecided”, it was necessary to check if the results were different from undecided. To this end, a one-sample t-test was run in order to check if the ratings were different from the middle value of “3”. Later, as a preliminary analysis, mean scores for tolerance of ambiguity levels, overall strategy use ratings and subscales of strategy use were checked. In order to determine whether the mean score differences among the three proficiency groups were meaningful, a one-way ANOVA was run for each of the variables (TA, overall strategies and its subscales). For the significant results, a Bonferroni correction was run to see which groups had significant differences.

As a final analysis, Spearman’s correlation was run to explore the relationships between TA and overall strategy use as well as TA and strategy subscales. Age, academic major or gender were not included as variables in ANOVA or correlation analysis because these variables were not the focus of the present study.

# CHAPTER IV: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## 4.1 RESULTS

### 4.1.1 Reliability of scales

The reliability analysis of Strategy Inventory for Language Learners, which included 50 items, yielded a high reliability (α = .93). The subscales of SILL were also analyzed for their reliability. Results showed varying reliability levels. Compensation strategies subscale (n of items = 6, α = .67) and social strategies subscale (n of items = 6, α = .62) yielded the lowest reliability values among the subscales. A higher result was obtained from memory strategies subscale (n of items = 9, α = .7). Finally, the highest reliability values among the subscales were provided by cognitive strategies subscale (n of items = 14, α = .82) and metacognitive strategies subscale (n of items = 9, α = .88).

The reliability analysis of Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale, which included 12 items, gave a high reliability (α = .8). A summary of reliability analysis for two scales and subscales are summarized in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1. Reliability values of scales and subscales

| Scale or subscale | Reliability values (α) |
|---|---|
| SLTAS | .8 |
| SILL memory | .93 |
| cognitive | .7 |
| compensation | .82 |
| metacognitive | .67 |
| affective | .88 |
| social | .72 |
| | .62 |

### 4.1.2 Normality of data

In order to check if the data was suitable for further analysis, normality of data from SILL, its subscales and SLTAS were analyzed with Shapiro-Wilk normality test. The analysis was run on overall mean scores of participants. The results are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Normality test values of scales and subscales according to groups

| Scale or subscale | Group | Shapiro-Wilk normality test (p value) |
|---|---|---|
| SLTAS | pre-intermediate | .001* |
| | intermediate | .083 |
| | upper-intermediate | >.001* |
| SILL memory | pre-intermediate | .001* |
| | intermediate | .082 |
| | upper-intermediate | .025* |
| cognitive | pre-intermediate | .042* |
| | intermediate | .624 |
| | upper-intermediate | .033* |
| compensation | pre-intermediate | .02* |
| | intermediate | .293 |
| | upper-intermediate | >.001* |
| metacognitive | pre-intermediate | >.001* |
| | intermediate | .151 |
| | upper-intermediate | .217 |
| affective | pre-intermediate | >.001* |
| | intermediate | .291 |
| | upper-intermediate | .322 |
| social | pre-intermediate | .001* |
| | intermediate | .281 |
| | upper-intermediate | .757 |
| * shows significant values. | pre-intermediate | >.001* |
| | intermediate | .037* |
| | upper-intermediate | .034* |

In almost all of the subscales of SILL (except for social strategies), data was found to be normally distributed for majority of groups. However, normality distribution of overall SILL and SLTAS were found to be not normal. Therefore, a visual inspection was run without dividing the data into proficiency levels. Boxplots showed that the distribution of data was at an acceptable normality level (see Figure 4.1 and 4.2 below).

Figure 4.1. Boxplot for SILL data

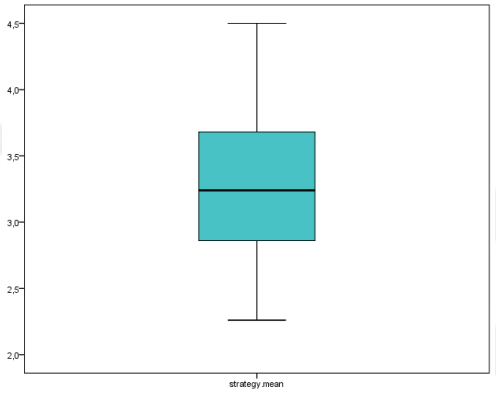
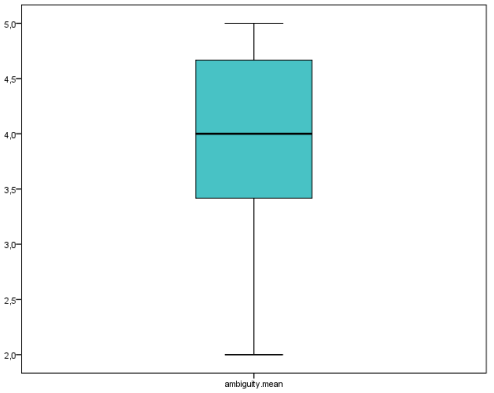



Figure 4.2. Boxplot for SLTAS data




### 4.1.3 Analysis for the middle value (undecided) in SLTAS

Since SLTAS included a middle point that gave the participants the option of "undecided", it was necessary to test if the resulting mean score was different from its assigned value, which was "3". To test if the final mean score was significantly different, a one-sample t-test was run. The test compared the difference between the middle point (3) and the mean score of participants at three different proficiency level groups.

The result showed that overall mean of SLTAS (3.94) for all the participants was significantly different from the middle point of 3 ($t = 14.088$, $p < .0001$ ). Also, when groups means were checked the same way, mean scores of all groups of participants were found to be significantly different from the middle point of 3. The results are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. One-Sample T-test results of SLTAS

| SLTAS | mean | p |
|---|---|---|
| Overall | 3.94 | > .0001* |
| pre-intermediate | 3.66 | > .0001* |
| intermediate | 4.01 | > .0001* |
| upper-intermediate | 4.16 | > .0001* |

* shows highly significant values.

### 4.1.4 Mean scores

Before running any statistical tests, the data was examined descriptively in order to have a preliminary idea of what the participant groups provided. The mean scores for SILL and its subscales are provided in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Mean scores of SILL and its subscales

| | Pre-intermediate | | Intermediate | | Upper-intermediate | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| SILL (overall) | 2.77 | .52 | 3.31 | .33 | 3.71 | .53 |
| memory | 2.73 | .71 | 3.13 | .51 | 3.51 | .53 |
| cognitive | 2.54 | .58 | 3.13 | .50 | 3.61 | .65 |
| compensation | 3.02 | .81 | 3.69 | .61 | 3.79 | .56 |
| metacognitive | 3.11 | 1.18 | 3.49 | .66 | 3.97 | .55 |
| affective | 2.51 | .78 | 3.27 | .64 | 3.65 | .67 |
| social | 2.89 | .65 | 3.40 | .67 | 3.91 | .67 |

Overall means of SILL data increased as the proficiency level of a group increased. The upper-intermediate group had the highest mean while the pre-intermediate group obtained the lowest mean scores.

For the pre-intermediate group, the highest mean was for metacognitive strategies and the lowest was for affective and cognitive strategies. The mean scores of memory and social strategies were very close to each other. Their overall mean fell just under the middle value “3” which was “somewhat true for me” in the questionnaire.

The intermediate group means showed that the highest score was for compensation strategies whereas the lowest was for memory and cognitive strategies. The mean scores for metacognitive and social strategies were very close to each other. Their overall mean was above the middle value. All mean scores of subscales were above the middle value. However, none of them reached the value "4", which was "Usually true for me".

The upper-intermediate group had the highest mean score for metacognitive strategies while the lowest one was for memory strategies. All of the means, including the overall and subcategories were above the middle point (3.5) between values "3" and "4".

When looked from subcategories perspective, only compensation and metacognitive strategies were above the middle value of "3" for all proficiency groups. Memory strategies was the subcategory with the lowest mean score for both intermediate and the upper-intermediate groups. On the other hand, metacognitive strategies had the highest mean score for both the pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate groups.

As for SLTAS, mean scores for all three groups are presented in Table 4.5. It showed that overall mean score was just under the value of "4", which was "disagree".

Table 4.5. Mean scores of SLTAS

| | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| Overall | 3.94 | .68 |
| Pre-intermediate | 3.66 | .73 |
| Intermediate | 4.01 | .60 |
| Upper-intermediate | 4.16 | .64 |

When groups were compared, both intermediate and upper-intermediate groups were above not only the overall mean score but also the value of "4". Pre-intermediate group was the only one with a mean lower than value "4". Mean scores for SLTAS increased as the proficiency level increased.

### 4.1.5 Comparison of means

Although there were certain differences between mean scores of the three groups, a statistical test was necessary to see if the difference was meaningful and significant. For this purpose, a One-way ANOVA test was run for each scale, SILL and SLTAS, and for the subcategories SILL questionnaire to compare the mean scores of all three groups.

One-way ANOVA results are presented in Table 4.6 below. This analysis showed that there were significant differences among the mean scores of all groups for all the variables tested, including the overall means of both scales and subcategories of SILL.

Table 4.6. One-way ANOVA results for between-group comparison of means scores

| Compared variable | p |
|---|---|
| Overall mean scores of SILL | < .0001* |
| means scores of memory | < .0001* |
| means scores of cognitive | < .0001* |
| means scores of compensation | < .0001* |
| means scores of metacognitive | < .0001* |
| means scores of affective | < .0001* |
| means scores of social | < .0001* |
| Overall mean scores of SLTAS | .006* |

* shows highly significant values.

One-way ANOVA test showed that there were significant differences between mean scores of groups. However, it did not show which groups were different. Therefore, a Bonferroni correction was run in order to see which groups among the three had significant mean differences.

For overall mean scores of SILL, the pre-intermediate group had a highly significantly different mean score from both the intermediate group ($p < .0001$) and

the upper-intermediate group ($p < .0001$). In addition, the intermediate and the upper-intermediate group also had significantly different mean scores ($p = .001$).

As for memory strategies, the pre-intermediate group showed highly significant difference with the upper-intermediate group ($p < .0001$) and significant difference with the intermediate group ($p = .015$). Moreover, the intermediate and the upper-intermediate groups also differed significantly ($p = .031$).

All three groups also showed highly significant differences among themselves for cognitive strategies. Pre-intermediate group significantly differed from the other two groups ($p < .0001$ for both comparisons) and intermediate group significantly differed from the upper-intermediate group ($p = .002$).

For compensation strategies, the pre-intermediate group showed highly significant differences with the other two groups ($p < .0001$ for both comparisons). On the other hand, the difference between the intermediate group and the upper-intermediate group was statistically not significant.

When mean scores for metacognitive strategies were compared, the only significant difference was between the pre-intermediate and the upper intermediate group ($p < .0001$). There was no significant difference between the intermediate group and the other two groups.

As for affective strategies, the pre-intermediate group showed significant differences with both the intermediate and the upper-intermediate group ($p < .0001$ for both comparisons). However, the mean difference between the intermediate and the upper intermediate group was not significant.

Lastly, all three groups showed significant differences among themselves for social strategies. The mean scores of the pre-intermediate group was significantly different from both the intermediate group ($p = .006$) and the upper-intermediate group ($p < .0001$). The difference between the intermediate and the upper-intermediate group was also significant ($p = .005$).

For overall mean scores of SLTAS, the Bonferroni correction showed that only the pre-intermediate and the upper-intermediate group had significantly different mean scores ($p = .006$). The intermediate group did not have significant differences with the pre-intermediate or the upper-intermediate group.

### 4.1.6. Correlations

In order to explore the relationship between the tolerance of ambiguity and the language learning strategies, overall scores of SILL and its subcategories were analyzed to see if they had a significant relationship with overall SLTAS scores. The results are summarized in Table 4.6.

Table 4.7. Correlation of SILL and its subcategories with SLTAS

| | SLTAS |
|---|---|
| Overall SILL | .001** |
| memory | .002** |
| cognitive | .004** |
| compensation | .323 |
| metacognitive | < .0001** |
| affective | .001** |
| social | .047* |

* shows significant rho values.

** shows very significant rho values.

The analysis showed that overall mean scores of SLTAS had a very significant relationship with overall mean scores of SILL and all of its subcategories except for compensation strategies. Although social strategies had a significant relationship with SLTAS, it is important to note that the rho value was very close to the accepted limit (.050).

## 4.2 DISCUSSION

### 4.2.1 Scales

Before moving onto the analysis regarding the research questions, it was necessary to consider the results about the reliability of the scales. In the literature, an alpha level of .7 is generally regarded as acceptable while over .80 is preferred (Cortina, 1993). Taking this into account, the alpha levels of the scales in this study were at the preferred level.

When analyzed in detail, SILL questionnaire provided a highly reliable value ($\alpha$ = .80). It showed that the scale provided reliable data from the students. Among the subcategories, only compensation and social strategies were below .7 level. The reason behind this was probably the low number of items in these subcategories. Both of them had only six items to measure the strategy use of students and more number of questions might have been needed to secure a more acceptable alpha level.

On the other hand, metacognitive and cognitive strategies subcategories had above .8 alpha values. In addition, memory and affective strategies were at acceptable levels. Considering the very high reliability level of the SILL questionnaire, it was possible to say that low reliability of two subcategories among six did not have such a big impact as to effect the reliability of the whole scale. Therefore, the Turkish translated SILL questionnaire in this study was reliable.

For the SLTAS scale, it was important to note that this study used the version of Erten and Topkaya's (2009) version that added a fifth option in the middle called "undecided". The alpha level in their study was .75. The analysis of the scale in this study showed an even higher alpha level (.93). It was at a preferred level.

Overall, it was plausible to say that both of the scales had high reliability. Therefore, the measurement of the aimed variables, which were tolerance of ambiguity and language learning strategies, was done with reliable tools.

### 4.2.2 Mean scores

The literature on the relationship between language learning strategies and proficiency level suggested that the variety and frequency of language strategy use increased as learners become more proficient. In the same line, the expectation was to observe higher mean scores for language learning strategies in intermediate group and even higher scores for upper-intermediate group when compared to pre-intermediate group.

The results of this study was on the same page with the expected outcomes. In all of the variables including the overall means for SILL, its subcategories and overall means for SLTAS, means scores increased with the proficiency level. The upper-intermediate group had the highest mean scores while the pre-intermediate group had the lowest mean scores in all variables.

As a guideline for analyzing SILL questionnaire, Oxford (1990) stated that mean scores for SILL questionnaire items from 2.5 to 3.4 indicated students used the strategies "sometimes". Therefore, mean scores higher than 3.5 were aimed to conclude a frequent use of a strategy group.

Considering the guideline, mean scores for the pre-intermediate group indicated that they used all of the strategies "sometimes". In fact, their overall mean score for SILL questionnaire (M = 2.77) was very close to the bottom score for "sometimes" (M = 2.5). Although they had higher mean scores for compensation and metacognitive strategies, they still did not seem to make frequent use of them. One positive side of the results was that students made use of a wide variety of strategies from all categories at pre-intermediate level. None of the subcategories indicated a rare or no use. Therefore, it made sense to conclude about the pre-intermediate group that they created a basket of strategies from a wide range although they were not yet able to consult to them as frequent as higher levels.

As for the intermediate group, the overall mean score for SILL indicated that they also fell into the "sometimes" category although they had a significantly higher score (M = 3.31) than the pre-intermediate group. However, they were very close to

surpassing the upper limit for this category (3.4). A sign that showed intermediate students' use of language learning strategies improved was frequent use of some strategy groups. These were compensation strategies that included strategies such as making use of synonyms and using gestures and metacognitive strategies that included strategies such as looking for practice opportunities, self-evaluation and monitoring errors. Social strategies was at the top border of "sometimes" category with a mean score of 3.4. Those included cultural awareness, cooperation with natives and similar strategies.

When the mean scores of these two groups were statistically tested, the results showed that pre-intermediate group increased their use of language learning strategies in all subscales of SILL except for metacognitive. In the other five subscales students significantly increased their use of strategies such as grouping, analyzing, guessing from context and asking questions.

The upper intermediate group overall mean score for SILL questionnaire showed a frequent use of language learning strategies. Among these strategies, all the subscales of SILL had higher mean scores than 3.4 indicating that all strategies were widely used. Therefore, statistical analysis of the mean scores was consulted in order to see which subscales significantly differed from the intermediate level to the upper-intermediate level. The statistical analysis revealed that only three subscales significantly differed. These were memory, cognitive and social strategies. The upper-intermediate students mostly improved their use of strategies such as structured reviewing, deep processing and becoming culturally aware.

It was interesting to see that from both the pre-intermediate to the intermediate level and the intermediate level to the upper-intermediate level, students significantly improved in three common strategy subscales (memory, cognitive and social strategies). However, compensation strategies significantly differed only from the pre-intermediate level to the upper-intermediate level. One conclusion to make from this result was that once students improved the use of compensation strategies to a frequency level that was satisfactory for them at the intermediate level, they were also satisfied with this frequency level at the upper-intermediate level as well. Another

conclusion would be that students achieved a satisfactory level of compensation strategies before others because they were either easier to work on or more urgently needed at that level.

The overall mean scores of the other scale in this study, SLTAS, showed that tolerance of ambiguity levels of the students significantly increased from pre-intermediate to upper-intermediate level. It was also an expected result before starting this study. However, the important point is to explore the reasons behind this improvement. The next section will shed light on this topic.

### 4.2.3 Correlations

This study aimed to look at how much the use of language learning strategies affected the changes in tolerance of ambiguity at different proficiency levels. Therefore, the relationship between the two variables was tested with correlations.

The significant positive correlation between SILL and SLTAS confirmed that there was a meaningful relationship between the use of language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity. For more detailed analysis, it was necessary to also look at subscales of SILL. Their correlations with SLTAS showed that all subscales had significant positive correlations with SLTAS except for compensation strategies. In addition, the correlation coefficient of social strategies (.047) was just below accepted significance level of .05.

When the results were considered together with mean score changes in the previous section, it was evident that compensation strategies did not significantly increased from intermediate to upper-intermediate levels. Therefore, it might be the reason the analysis showed no significant relationship with tolerance of ambiguity.

As for social strategies having a very low significant relationship with SLTAS, the reason might be that students looked for interaction because they could as a result of their improved proficiency level. One might expect to see a strong relationship between being social and tolerance of ambiguity because interacting with different

people would be full of ambiguities. However, the significant improvement in social strategies from intermediate to upper-intermediate level did not show a strong correlation with tolerance of ambiguity in this study.

Another interesting result was that metacognitive and affective strategies did not improve significantly when consecutive proficiency levels were compared. However, they had highly significant positive correlations with tolerance of ambiguity. It would be plausible to say that their increase, although not significant, was enough to have an impact on tolerance of ambiguity. This might even mean that these two subscales have had more effect on tolerance of ambiguity levels of students than other subscales.

### 4.2.4 Research Questions

The first research question aimed to look at differences among proficiency levels in terms of tolerance of ambiguity levels and the use of language learning strategies. Similar to previous studies (Erten and Topkaya, 2009; Kural, 2014; Lee, 1998), proficiency level had an effect on the tolerance of ambiguity levels. However, this difference was only found to be significant from pre-intermediate to upper-intermediate group. It showed that students' development was only significant when they advanced two levels.

Strategy groups showed different developmental patterns. Although they all improved as the students' levels advanced, not all improvements were significant. Memory and cognitive strategies improved significantly at every level advancement. However, other strategy groups presented mixed significance patterns as explained in the discussion chapter in detail.

The second research question explored the relationship between tolerance of ambiguity level and language learning strategies. A significant relationship was found between tolerance of ambiguity and overall strategy use as well as all subscales of strategy scale except for compensation strategies.

The third research question was about the effect that strategies had on tolerance of ambiguity. Although metacognitive strategies did not increase significantly at each level, correlation analysis showed very significant relationship with tolerance of ambiguity. These results might lead to the conclusion that metacognitive strategies had the biggest effect on tolerance of ambiguity because even the small increase in them showed significant relationship with tolerance of ambiguity.

# CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

The present study focused on two widely discussed variables regarding language classrooms, tolerance of ambiguity and language learning strategies. As a result of the analysis of the data from scales measuring the two variables, it tried to explore

- differences in the use of various language learning strategies at different proficiency levels,
- differences in the tolerance of ambiguity levels at different proficiency levels
- the relationship between the frequency and type of language learning strategies and tolerance of ambiguity levels.

Language learners showed increased use in all types of language learning strategies as their proficiency levels improved. However, significant increases from one level to another were at different strategy groups. From each level to the next, students significantly increased their use of memory, cognitive and social strategies. In addition, they increased the use of compensation and affective strategies from the pre-intermediate level to the intermediate level but not to the upper-intermediate level. Tolerance of ambiguity levels also improved significantly from pre-intermediate to upper-intermediate level. This shows that although students improve in certain strategies in certain amounts, teachers need to monitor these changes and decide on which group of strategies to prioritize. Seeing some strategies did not improve after intermediate level, teachers should consider whether they need to be developed further if the case is the same in their classrooms. To that end, SILL could help them to measure the strategy use of their students and monitor their developmental process over time.

The differences in strategy use and development of language learning strategies indicated to various conclusions. First of all, the use of compensation strategies reached at a frequent level at the intermediate proficiency. This could lead to two conclusions. It might be said that students found these strategies easy to equip. In this case, it is plausible to say that teachers could work on this strategy group and have learners proficient in frequently using a strategy group. However this would be up to

the teacher. The other case could be that compensation strategies were more urgent and needed at lower proficiency levels. In this scenario, this strategy group becomes crucial rather than optional. Therefore, further investigation into these conclusions is needed in order to test which was the case. It would help determining the importance of compensation strategies and its priority over other strategy groups.

Metacognitive strategies did not show any significant increase from one proficiency level to the other although the mean scores increased. However, their significance was evident when the results of the correlations were examined. Although they did not increase in significant amounts, they had very significant relationship with tolerance of ambiguity. This would lead to the conclusion that even a small increase in these strategy groups had considerable effect on tolerance of ambiguity levels of student. This conclusion was also supported by Oxford (2008). She stated that metacognitive strategies are "extremely" important for independent language learning, which requires high levels of tolerance against ambiguities. She explained that students generally used these strategies to fill the gaps when teacher lacked. Metacognitive strategies were especially used by distance learners. Although the participants in this study were not distance learners, one of the aims of teachers was to help them succeed even when the teacher was not enough. Therefore, this strategy group is crucial in creating autonomous learners.

In addition, memory strategies and cognitive strategies also had highly significant positive correlations with tolerance of ambiguity, indicating a strong relationship. However, compensation strategies did not have any significant correlation and social strategies had a weakly significant correlation with tolerance of ambiguity. Despite the expectation that social activities such as interacting with native speakers and becoming culturally aware would highly increase the tolerance for ambiguous situations, the study revealed that other categories affected the increase not only in the tolerance of ambiguity levels but also social strategy use. Therefore, it was possible to say that social strategies was not a reason for the increase in tolerance of ambiguity but the result of development in other strategy subscales together with the tolerance of ambiguity.

Both tolerance of ambiguity and development of language learning strategies are contributing factors to success in language learning. By discovering the relationship between these two variables, this study showed that they could be improved together. By carefully designing a course that considers importance and priority of different language learning strategy groups and includes methods to increase tolerance of ambiguity levels of learners, teachers can lead students to a more fruitful learning process. Students can learn other skills in addition to language knowledge.

That kind of a course design could also contribute to the autonomy of learners. Taking its roots from Vygotsky's (1987) constructivism, the idea of knowledge that is constructed by active learners through mental processes such as research, imagination, hypothesizing and predicting has become quite strong today. It has been closely associated with learner autonomy that sees teachers as guides that facilitate students' learning. Researchers in strategy field also claimed that strategy training could improve learner autonomy. Stern (1975) stated that students became good learners when they had their own learning styles and positive strategies. Similarly, Oxford (1990) believed that teachers could help learners to find suitable strategies to their needs and styles and personality. Following these ideas, it is possible to conclude that language learning strategy training in class and helping learners to make the best use of them supports learners' autonomy. This would contribute to their learning both inside and outside the class as well as in formal and informal education settings. Raising students with constructive mental capacity and processes should be one of the main aims of teachers and it is possible to achieve this through teaching language learning strategies.

All in all, this particular study showed that following strategies seemed to be useful for teachers who want to have their students to possess a high level of tolerance of ambiguity:

- how to group, analyze and summarize information
- making use of reasoning, deep processing and structured reviewing
- creating solutions such as guessing the meaning of an unknown word or using gestures to convey meaning

- creating opportunities for practice with native speakers and raising cultural awareness.

In addition to these suggestions, teachers could assess their own classes and decide on what kind of strategies to focus on. Chamot (2005) provided different methods to identify learner strategies. Teachers can make use of interviews (stimulated recall), questionnaires (such as SILL), diaries and journals (personal observations by students on their own learning) and think-aloud protocols (self-reports during interviews). Teachers then could explore how students used these strategies and how they affected other variables such as motivation, proficiency and self-efficacy.

Identification of language learning strategies is a step forward to strategy instruction. Researchers had differing ideas on how to teach strategies in class (explicitly or implicitly) or whether to teach them at all. However, this study showed that learners could become more successful when they were equipped with more strategies. To this end, Harris and Grenfell (2004) provided a clear and useful set of steps for strategy instruction. In their proposed set, strategy instruction starts with raising students' "awareness" on the strategies they are already familiar with. Second step includes "persuasion" of students about the importance of expanding their strategy repertoire and "modelling" of new strategies by teacher. The next step is about "practicing" these new strategies in different ways such as in pairs or individually. The fourth step, "action planning", asks students and teacher to identify which strategies are useful for them and what are the difficulties with other strategies. Before the final step, students participate in "focused practice". In this stage, teacher withdraws the help gradually and students try to be able to choose and use appropriate strategies on their own. In the last stage, teacher and students "evaluate" all the steps and processes in order to review and set new goals for the future.

There were several limitations of this study. First of all, it only employed quantitative data analysis methods, correlation and ANOVA. Although the sample size and reliability of scales contributed to the high power of the research design, further studies could include qualitative methods such as interviews or journal for triangulation purposes. They could provide more personalized information and lead to better analysis when combined with quantitative results.

Secondly, the study was conducted in one institution. However good and careful the research was designed, the conclusions in this study may not be applicable to another context especially if it is a culturally different one or with a different age group than university students. Therefore, conclusions should be drawn carefully and taking these kinds of variables into account. Further studies can conducted in different cultural contexts. In Turkish context, other studies can include different institutions. Comparing results from different institutions allows for drawing more generalizable and reliable conclusions.

Finally, variables that affect language learning process and development are interrelated. This study aimed to explore the relationship between two of them, tolerance of ambiguity and language learning strategies. However, further research into other possible relationships among other variables such as learner autonomy, language anxiety, classroom dynamics, etc.

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## APPENDIX 1

### Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Bu çalışma İstanbul Üniversitesi öğrencisi Elif Ebru Suna Çelikbaş tarafından öğrencilerin dil öğrenirken karşılaştıkları belirsiz durumalara karşı gösterdikleri hoşgörü seviyesi ve dil öğrenmede kullandıkları stratejileri incelemek amacı ile yapılmaktadır. Çalışmanın amacı, sınıftaki dil öğrenimini geliştirecek sonuçlara ulaşmaktır.

Çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllüdür. Herhangi bir kişisel bilgi paylaşmanıza gerek yoktur. Cevaplarınız gizlilik içerisinde tutulacak ve araştırmacı tarafından sadece bilimsel araştırma amacı ile kullanılacaktır. Verilecek 2 adet anketi tamamlamanız yaklaşık 30-40 dakika sürecektir.

Anketler rahatsız edici sorular içermemektedir. Yine de, herhangi bir sebeple rahatsızlık duyar ya da devam etmek istemezseniz, çalışmadan ayrılabilirsiniz. Bu çalışmadaki gönüllülüğünüz ve cevaplarınız sınıf notlarınızı kesinlikle etkilemeyecektir.

Eğer sonuçlar ile alakalı bilgi sahibi olmak isterseniz, araştırmacı ile Haziran 2019 tarihinden sonra irtibata geçebilirsiniz. Katılımlarınız için şimdiden teşekkürler. İletişim bilgileri aşağıdadır.

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Bu çalışmaya tamamen kendi rızam ile katıldığımı, istediğim zaman çıkabileceğimin farkında olduğumu ve verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlar ile kullanımına izin verdiğimi beyan ederim.

İsim Soyisim Tarih İmza

## APPENDIX 2

### Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale

Please read and respond to each statement. Decide whether you agree or disagree with each statement.

| | Strongly Agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1- When reading something in English, I feel impatient when I don't totally understand the meaning. | | | | | |
| 2- It bothers me that I don't understand everything the teacher says in English. | | | | | |
| 3- When I write English compositions, I don't like it when I can't express my ideas exactly. | | | | | |
| 4- It is frustrating that sometimes I don't understand completely some English grammar. | | | | | |
| 5- I don't like the feeling that my English pronunciation is not quite correct. | | | | | |
| 6- I don't enjoy reading something in English that takes a while to figure out completely. | | | | | |
| 7- It bothers me that even though I study English grammar, some of it is hard to use in speaking and writing. | | | | | |
| 8- When I'm writing in English, I don't like the fact that I can't say exactly what I want. | | | | | |
| 9- It bothers me when the teacher uses an English word I don't know. | | | | | |
| 10- When I'm speaking in English, I feel uncomfortable if I can't communicate my ideas clearly. | | | | | |
| 11- I don't like the fact that sometimes I can't find English words that mean the same as some words in my own language. | | | | | |
| 12- One thing I don't like about reading in English is having to guess what the meaning is. | | | | | |

## APPENDIX 3

### İkinci Dilde Belirsizlik Hoşgörüsü Ölçeği

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve cevaplayınız. Her birine ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı işaretleyiniz.

| | Kesinlikle Katılıyorum | Katılıyorum | Kararsızım | Katılmıyorum | Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1- İngilizce bir şey okurken, anlamını tam olarak anlamadığımda kendimi sabırsız hissediyorum. | | | | | |
| 2- Öğretmenin İngilizce söylediği her şeyi anlamamak canımı sıkıyor. | | | | | |
| 3- İngilizce kompozisyon yazdığımda, fikirlerimi tam olarak ifade edememek hoşuma gitmiyor. | | | | | |
| 4- Bazı İngilizce dilbilgisini hiç anlamamak çok sinir bozucu. | | | | | |
| 5- İngilizce telaffuzumun tam olarak doğru olmadığını hissetmek hoşuma gitmiyor. | | | | | |
| 6- Tam olarak anlaması vakit alan İngilizce bir şeyi okumaktan zevk almıyorum. | | | | | |
| 7- İngilizce dilbilgisine çalışmama rağmen, bazılarını okuma ve yazmada kullanmanın zor olması canımı sıkıyor. | | | | | |
| 8- İngilizce yazarken, tam olarak istediğim şeyi söyleyememeyi sevmiyorum. | | | | | |
| 9- Öğretmen bilmediğim bir İngilizce kelime kullandığında canım sıkılıyor. | | | | | |
| 10- İngilizce konuşurken fikirlerimi açıkça ifade edemezsem kendimi rahat hissetmiyorum. | | | | | |
| 11- Kendi dilimdekilerle aynı anlama gelen İngilizce kelimeleri bazen bulamıyor olmak hoşuma gitmiyor. | | | | | |
| 12- İngilizce okurken sevmediğim şeylerden biri de anlamın ne olduğunu tahmin etmeye çalışmaktır. | | | | | |

# APPENDIX 4

## Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

SECTION A:

| | ALWAYS | USUALLY | SOMEWHAT | USUALLY NOT | NEVER |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English. | | | | | |
| 2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them. | | | | | |
| 3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help remember the word. | | | | | |
| 4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used. | | | | | |
| 5. I use rhymes to remember new English words | | | | | |
| 6. I use flashcards to remember new English words. | | | | | |
| 7. I physically act out new English words. | | | | | |
| 8. I review English lessons often. | | | | | |
| 9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign. | | | | | |

SECTION B:

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. I say or write new English words several times. | | | | | |
| 11. I try to talk like native English speakers. | | | | | |
| 12. I practice the sounds of English. | | | | | |
| 13. I use the English words I know in different ways. | | | | | |
| 14. I start conversations in English. | | | | | |
| 15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English. | | | | | |
| 16. I read for pleasure in English. | | | | | |
| 17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English. | | | | | |
| 18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully. | | | | | |
| 19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English. | | | | | |
| 20. I try to find patterns in English. | | | | | |
| 21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand. | | | | | |
| 22. I try not to translate word-for-word. | | | | | |
| 23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English. | | | | | |

SECTION C:

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

SECTION D:

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

SECTION E:

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English. | | | | | |
| 40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake. | | | | | |
| 4l. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English. | | | | | |
| 42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English. | | | | | |
| 43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary. | | | | | |
| 44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English. | | | | | |

SECTION F:

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

# APPENDIX 5

## Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri

BÖLÜM A:

| | HER ZAMAN | GENELDE | BAZEN | GENELDE HAYIR | HİÇBİR ZAMAN |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. İngilizce'de bildiklerimle yeni öğrendiklerim arasında ilişki kurarım. | | | | | |
| 2. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri hatırlamak için bir cümlede kullanırım. | | | | | |
| 3. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri akılda tutmak için kelimenin telaffuzuyla aklıma getirdiği bir resim ya da şekil arasında bağlantı kurarım. | | | | | |
| 4. Yeni bir kelimeyi o sözcüğün kullanılabileceği bir sahneyi ya da durumu aklımda canlandırarak, hatırlarım. | | | | | |
| 5. Yeni kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için, onları ses benzerliği olan kelimelerle ilişkilendiririm. | | | | | |
| 6. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için küçük kartlara yazarım. | | | | | |
| 7. Yeni kelimeleri vücut dili kullanarak zihnimde canlandırırım. | | | | | |
| 8. İngilizce derslerinde öğrendiklerimi sık sık tekrar ederim. | | | | | |
| 9. Yeni kelime ve kelime gruplarını ilk karşılaştığım yerleri (kitap, tahta ya da herhangi bir işaret levhasını) aklıma getirerek, hatırlarım. | | | | | |

BÖLÜM B:

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| 10. Yeni sözcükleri birkaç kez yazarak, ya da söyleyerek, tekrarlarım. | | | | | |
| 11. Anadili İngilizce olan kişiler gibi konuşmaya çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 12. Anadilimde bulunmayan İngilizce'deki **"th /θ / hw "** gibi sesleri çıkararak, telaffuz alıştırması yaparım. | | | | | |
| 13. Bildiğim kelimeleri cümlelerde farklı şekillerde kullanırım. | | | | | |
| 14. İngilizce sohbetleri ben başlatırım. | | | | | |
| 15. T.V.'de İngilizce programlar ya da İngilizce filmler izlerim. | | | | | |
| 16. İngilizce okumaktan hoşlanırım. | | | | | |
| 17. İngilizce mesaj, mektup veya rapor yazarım. | | | | | |
| 18. İngilizce bir metne ilk başta bir göz atarım, daha sonra metnin tamamını dikkatlice okurum. | | | | | |
| 19. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimelerin benzerlerini Türkçe'de ararım. | | | | | |
| 20. İngilizce'de tekrarlanan kalıplar bulmaya çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 21. İngilizce bir kelimenin, bildiğim kök ve eklerine ayırarak anlamını çıkarırım. | | | | | |
| 22. Kelimesi kelimesine çeviri **yapmamaya** çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 23. Dinlediğim ya da okuduğum metnin özetini çıkarırım. | | | | | |

BÖLÜM C:

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| 24. Bilmediğim İngilizce kelimelerin anlamını, tahmin ederek bulmaya çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 25. İngilizce konuşurken bir sözcük aklıma gelmediğinde, el kol hareketleriyle anlatmaya çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 26. Uygun ve doğru kelimeyi bilmediğim durumlarda kafamdan yeni sözcükler uydururum | | | | | |
| 27. Okurken her bilmediğim kelimeye sözlükten bakmadan, okumayı sürdürürüm. | | | | | |
| 28. Konuşma sırasında karşımdakinin söyleyeceği bir sonraki cümleyi tahmin etmeye çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 29. Herhangi bir kelimeyi hatırlayamadığımda, aynı anlamı taşıyan başka bir kelime ya da ifade kullanırım. | | | | | |

BÖLÜM D:

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| 30. İngilizce'mi kullanmak için her fırsatı değerlendiririm. | | | | | |
| 31. Yaptığım yanlışların farkına varır ve bunlardan daha doğru İngilizce kullanmak için faydalanırım. | | | | | |
| 32. İngilizce konuşan bir kişi duyduğumda dikkatimi ona veririm. | | | | | |
| 33. "İngilizce'yi daha iyi nasıl öğrenirim?" sorusunun yanıtını araştırırım. | | | | | |
| 34. İngilizce çalışmaya yeterli zaman ayırmak için zamanımı planlarım. | | | | | |
| 35. İngilizce konuşabileceğim kişilerle tanışmak için fırsat kollarım. | | | | | |
| 36. İngilizce okumak için, elimden geldiği kadar fırsat yaratırım. | | | | | |
| 37. İngilizce'de becerilerimi nasıl geliştireceğim konusunda hedeflerim var. | | | | | |
| 38. İngilizce'mi ne kadar ilerlettiğimi değerlendiririm. | | | | | |

BÖLÜM E:

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|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 39. İngilizce'mi kullanırken tedirgin ve kaygılı olduğum anlar rahatlamaya çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 40. Yanlış yaparım diye kaygılandığımda bile İngilizce konuşmaya gayret ederim. | | | | | |
| 41. İngilizce'de başarılı olduğum zamanlar kendimi ödüllendiririm. | | | | | |
| 42. İngilizce çalışırken ya da kullanırken gergin ve kaygılı isem, bunun farkına varırım. | | | | | |
| 43. Dil öğrenirken yaşadığım duyguları bir yere yazarım. | | | | | |
| 44. İngilizce çalışırken nasıl ya da neler hissettiğimi başka birine anlatırım. | | | | | |

BÖLÜM F:

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| 45. Herhangi bir şeyi anlamadığımda, karşımdaki kişiden daha yavaş konuşmasını ya da söylediklerini tekrar etmesini isterim. | | | | | |
| 46. Konuşurken karşımdakinin yanlışlarımı düzeltmesini isterim. | | | | | |
| 47. Okulda arkadaşlarımla İngilizce konuşurum. | | | | | |
| 48. İhtiyaç duyduğumda İngilizce konuşan kişilerden yardım isterim. | | | | | |
| 49. Derste İngilizce sorular sormaya gayret ederim. | | | | | |
| 50. İngilizce konuşanların kültürü hakkında bilgi edinmeye çalışırım. | | | | | |

**CV**

Elif Ebru SUNA ÇELİKBAŞ was born in Bursa in 1991. After completing elementary school in Bursa, she moved to New Jersey to finish middle school. To be an English teacher, she moved to İstanbul and completed high school there. Then, she decided to stay there for university education as well. Since she graduated from English language department at Fatih University in 2014, she has been busy with young learners and trying to complete her MA degree at the same time. For the future, she is hoping for new job opportunities abroad.