

**T.C.
ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES**



**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BILINGUAL YOUNG ADULTS'
ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVELS AND LEARNING STYLES**

THESIS

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**Department of English Language & Literature
English Language & Literature Program**

January, 2021

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January, 2021

DECLARATION

I hereby declare with respect that the study “The Relationship Between Bilingual Young Adults’ English Proficiency Levels And Learning Styles”, which I submitted as a Master thesis, is written without any assistance in violation of scientific ethics and traditions in all the processes from the Project phase to the conclusion of the thesis and that the works I have benefited are from those shown in the Bibliography. (.../.../20...)

Ayda TANDIRCI

FOREWORD

First and foremost, I owe a debt of gratitude to my venerable supervisor, Prof. Dr. Türkay Bulut who supported me with endless faith and patience at every stage of my research and made great contributions to my work by sharing her academic experience and vast knowledge. She greeted me with a smile every time I knocked on her door and spared her precious time for my supervision and guidance which were highly valuable for my motivation.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BILINGUAL YOUNG ADULTS' ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVELS AND LEARNING STYLES

ABSTRACT

The majority of classrooms are made up of students who are diverse in terms of, for instance, learning styles, strategies, abilities, needs, interests, language knowledge and motivation. Teachers feel concerned about reaching each student because they do not progress at the same level and pace and do not have the same learning styles.

The aim of this study was to determine the learning style preferences of bilingual mixed-gendered students and to see whether there was a connection between their academic achievements and learning style preferences. The descriptive research design and quantitative method were used to investigate the research problem. Within the scope of the research, three data collection tools, namely the Reid's English Language Learning Style Preference Questionnaire to determine the learning styles of the participants, the Outcomes Placement Test to determine their English proficiency levels and the Demographic Information Form to get general information about the participants, were used. The participants consisted of sixty 18 year-old, bilingual young adults, 30 males and 30 females with diverse levels of English, who had graduated from Sahakyan-Nunyan Armenian School in Turkey. Most of them had an intermediate level knowledge of English and their proficiency of English levels was normally distributed between the genders.

The results indicated that only in the visual and group sub-dimensions were there statistically significant relationships between the participants' proficiency of English levels and ten learning styles. There was no relationship between the remaining eight dimensions and the proficiency of English levels. While female students' learning style preference was dependent, male students had the highest scores on the independent dimension. The research results were evaluated in the context of cultural psychology.

Keywords: *learning styles, autonomy, proficiency levels of English, bilingualism*

ÇİFT ANA DİLLİ GENÇ YETİŞKİN ÖĞRENCİLERİN İNGİLİZCE DİL YETERLİLİKLERİYLE ÖĞRENİM STİLLERİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

ÖZET

Sınıfların çoğunluğu, öğrenme stilleri, stratejileri, yetenekleri, ihtiyaçları, ilgileri, dil bilgileri, motivasyonları vb. açısından farklı öğrencilerden oluşmaktadır. Öğrenciler aynı seviyede, hızda ilerlemedikleri ve aynı öğrenim stillerine sahip olmadıklarından ötürü, öğretmenler her bir öğrenciye ulaşabilme endişesi duymaktadır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, iki dilli karma cinsiyetli öğrencilerin öğrenme stili tercihlerini belirlemek ve akademik başarıları ile öğrenim stili tercihleri arasında bir bağlantı olup olmadığını görmektir. Betimsel ve nicel araştırma yöntemlerinin kullanıldığı çalışmada, veri toplama araçlarından Reid'in İngilizce Öğrenim Stili Tercih Anketi, İngilizce Seviye Testi ve ayrıca Demografik Bilgi Formu kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar, Sahakyan-Nunyan Ermeni Okulu'ndan yeni mezun olan, 18 yaşında, farklı İngilizce seviyelere sahip 30erkek ve 30 kız, toplam 60 iki dilli genç yetişkinden oluşmuştur. Çoğu orta düzey İngilizce seviyesinde olup, İngilizce seviyeleri cinsiyetlerine göre normal düzeyde bir dağılım göstermiştir.

Sonuçlar, yalnızca görsel ve grup alt boyutlarında, katılımcıların İngilizce seviyeleri ile öğrenim stili tercihleri arasında istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Kalan 8 boyut ile İngilizce seviyeleri arasında bir anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamıştır. Kız öğrenciler bağımlı öğrenim stilini tercih etmişken, erkek öğrenciler bağımsız öğrenim seçilini seçmişlerdir ağırlıklı olarak. Araştırma sonuçları kültürel psikoloji bağlamında değerlendirilmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: *öğrenme stilleri, özerklik, İngilizce seviyelerinin yeterliliği, çift dilli öğrenme*

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In nature, we encounter various communication systems among human and non-human species, the purpose of which is preservation, growth, and the development of the species (Smith and Miller, 1968). All creatures are in need of exchanging information with other creatures to establish communication, either through verbal or non-verbal signals.

Human beings are unique among all living creatures in the use of language. Although some non-human species such as dolphins, parrots and apes can be taught various human-like communication systems, they are considered to react instinctively, in a stereotypic and predictable manner; whereas, human behavior is controlled voluntarily; therefore, human language involves creativity and self-control, and it is unpredictable. As a result, human beings are the only ones that are assumed to use and process language through their adaptive specialization feature (Kolb, 1984).

As a means of communication, language learning is one of the most important needs of our lives. It is a complex and lifelong adaptive system that involves dynamic interaction between the environment, agents and language itself (Beckner et al. 2009). There are certain requirements of establishing communication via L2. In order to send and receive messages appropriately, it requires true involvement, true commitment, a true emotional, intellectual and physical response (Brown, 2000). Learning occurs when there is a combination of students' endeavor to work on the material and the interaction of the learner with the teacher, other students or the material itself. Moreover, self-awareness plays a crucial role in learning as well. Willis (2008) indicates that the more we raise awareness of our students about how they learn best, the more they will be able to use their strengths to optimize their potential in their learning process.

We all live in a dynamic world in which we come across many social, political, cultural, environmental, technological, and scientific changes. In order to adapt ourselves to them, we have to fulfill the needs that emerge as consequences of all those changes. Since the 1970s, researchers in the field of ELT, have been exploring a variety of teaching methods and classroom techniques and working on instructional materials to ameliorate students' learning a foreign language. They have found out that it is not possible to promote learners' language skills only through enhancing the components mentioned above because numerous other factors are involved in language learning. They include internal variables such as learners' individual motivation (Oxford and Shearin, 1994), personal endeavor (Tabatabaei and Mashayekhi, 2013), and external variables; e.g. the learning environment and pedagogical and specialized guidance (Tabatabaei and Mashayekhi, 2013). Moreover, learners do not learn in the same way nor progress at the same pace since there are plenty of individual differences such as anxiety level, abilities, age, gender, needs, aptitude, interests, preferences, language knowledge, learning strategies, cultural and socio-economic backgrounds, and learning styles. Therefore, one method or strategy that is effective with one learner may not be convenient for another. We cannot draw a conclusion that methodology on its own is the formula of language learning; rather it is an aid and supplementary idea (Grenfell and Harris, 1999).

As learners differ from one another in various aspects, their learning processes vary as well. Therefore, students should be provided with different learning environments, namely individualized learning practices (Reigeluth, 2009), in accordance with their needs, preferences and learning styles. Within all the individual diversities, each learners' learning style preference contributes significant conception into the field of education (Sternberg, 1990; Felder & Spurlin, 2005; Xu, 20011). Students learn a second/foreign language (hereafter L2) in various ways such as visualizing, miming or acting, listening, analyzing, and questioning logically and intuitively. Thus, some teachers use a traditional approach, which is structure-oriented; others use visual aids. Some stress comprehension and memory; others on practice, to help their students' L2 acquisition. If students' learning styles (hereafter LS) do not correspond to the teaching style of their teachers, learning cannot be achieved because they get

frustrated and overwhelmed in the class, lose their motivation, and eventually get low scores in the exam (Felder & Henriques, 1995). When all these factors are taken into consideration, students' learning style preferences will guide teachers to design their lessons and teaching materials according to their needs and ways of learning. Ellis (1989) points out that if teachers determine the learning styles of their students, they will be able to assist them more effectively improve their learning outcomes, as they will be aware of their weaknesses and strengths.

1.2 The Purpose and Significance of the Study

The aim of the study is to investigate the learning style preferences (hereafter LSPs) of sixty bilingual, mixed gendered high school graduate students in Turkey and to determine whether there is a connection between their English Language Proficiency (ELP) levels and LSPs. As the classrooms are made up of both male and female students, the relation between gender and LSP will also be discovered as a sub-aim.

As a developing country, Turkey is in the process of integration with the global world in economy, finance, education and so forth. In the case of education, this integration has caused plenty of changes in ELT, namely teaching and learning techniques, teaching and learning styles, curriculum design, and professional development of teachers in primary, secondary and language schools, and instructors at universities and colleges. Turkish teachers are more enlightened about individual differences which describe that each learner is unique; thus, their LS, strategies, and approaches towards L2 show variations. They have also realized the fact that with the application of traditional, only 'grammar-based approaches', it is not possible to facilitate language learning. Therefore, professional training of English language teachers and studying learners' LSPs and their relation to some variations, such as gender, culture and academic achievement, is of great importance. Studying LS in a variety of contexts is crucial to broaden and clarify people's knowledge about LS (Sahragard et al. 2016). Therefore, it is very important for teachers to determine their learners' LSPs to implement their plans and match their teaching methods with LSPs of the learners to design meaningful and relevant activities accordingly. Moreover,

in ELT tradition, raising the awareness and autonomy of learners is crucial in learning L2. If we raise the autonomy of learners, they learn how to learn, they take the responsibility of their own learning. In this respect, they become aware of their own LS and typical features of their style, and they choose or change the LS that are the most eligible for them without being bombarded with a huge amount of information that they cannot internalize and use in meaningful contexts. Moreover, offering a variety of LS will overcome a monotonous atmosphere in the classroom.

However, Wintergers et al. (2003), claim that even though numerous studies have been conducted throughout the world on the LSP of native speakers of English, very limited research has been done on second language learners. In fact, this issue has been researched a great deal with Western students to define the term 'LS' and their categories (Oxford, 1993; Reid, 1995), and to find out how students' learning strategies and learning outcomes are influenced by LSPs (Ehrman and Oxford, 1989), and to see if effective learners have particular LS and learning strategy choices or not (Wong and Nunan, 2011). But in Turkey, there is very limited research that has been conducted to reveal the LSP of Turkish learners, and, on its relationship with bilingual learners' proficiency LSP research is even more limited. Therefore, this study will contribute to the curriculum development of bilingual schools according to tangible results and also to the literature in ELT in Turkey. It is an undeniable fact that further studies are required on this issue to complement the deficiencies of the former in order to raise the quality of English language learning and teaching.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definition and Overview of Learning Styles

The topic of learning styles has been the interest of many researchers in the field of ELT. Since the 1970s ample studies have been carried out, plenty of articles, books and research papers have been written on this topic, and hundreds of definitions have been made by numerous researchers and scholars who either asserted similar or contrary points of view. Even though this subject is 50 years old, the researchers studying this subject have not reached an agreement on the exact definition of the term, learning styles (Anderson and Adams, 1992).

In the field of common psychology, LS signify learners' favored and prevalent attitudes towards learning, that involves understanding, processing, and pursuing new data. In the context of Second Language Acquisition (hereafter SLA), the term expresses the prevalent attitude of language learners. Plenty of tests used in common psychology concerning LS have been conducted on second language learners such as the productivity, environmental preference survey (Dunn, Brown & Bearsall, 1991), student learning style scale (Riechmann, Grasha, 1974), the Embedded Figures Test (Witkin, Otman, Raskin & Karp, 1971), and the learning style Inventory (Kolb, 1976; 1984). Some of those tests were prepared particularly for second language research such as the style Analysis Survey (Oxford, 1993), Perceptual Learning Preference Survey (Kinsella, 1993), the Learning Channel Preference Checklist (O'Brien 1990), Perceptual Learning Style Questionnaire (Reid, 1987), and the Learning Style Questionnaire (Willing, 1987). LS is regarded as one of the scopes of SLA by researchers.

The researchers involved in this scope have defined LS in various ways. According to Liu, Kuljis, & Lines (2007), LS are one of the parameters to provide students with differentiated, personalized tasks which are designed to

promote learning L2 and enhance their performance. On the other hand, Haar, Hall, Schoepp, Smith (2002), define LS as the indicators of learners' various ways of comprehending, processing and transmitting information. Reid (1998), asserts that LS have inherent features that are not often perceived or used consciously by students to attain and grasp new data. Galloway & Labarca (1990), on the other hand, define LS as a combination of perceptual and environmental preferences, which affect people's physical and sensory requirements; cognition that specifies our understanding, conceptualizing and formulizing the world that we live in; and social preferences that stem from identity, perceptual and emotive factors that form our attitudes towards learning conditions. Husain (2011), points out that LS refer to the educational conditions of students in which they learn best. Brown (2000), claims that in the context of education, not only cognitive but also emotive or affective and psychological elements are intermixed and that alludes to LS. Donyei (2005), specifies LS as a notion, representing a group of students' attitudes towards learning, a schemata of students' desired way of perceiving, interacting with and responding to the learning situation. Similar to Brown's definition, Keefe (1979), claims that LS are the affective, cognitive, and psychological behaviors of learners.

With respect to all those definitions, Reid (1995), divided LS into three categories: affective LS, perceptual or sensory LS, and cognitive LS. Other researchers, specialized in this field, divide LS into four basic categories: affective, behavioral, cognitive, and sensory/psychological (Holloway, Oxford, & Horton-Murillo, 1992; Willing, 1988).

Affective learning styles signify how learners feel in their learning environment and how they internalize the learning situation they are involved in (Miller, 2005). They reflect the emotional part of learning guided by values, interests, beliefs, and behaviors of learners (Gronlund & Brookhart, 2009). *Cognitive* LS describe desired mental operations such as global/analytic, field-dependent/field-independent, impulsive/reflective learning styles. *Behavioral* LS refer to learning new behavior related to environmental circumstances. They only deal with external behavior to check if learning is actualized or not. *The sensory/ psychological* LS have been researched a lot in English as a Second Language (hereafter ESL) context, including the perceptual and sensory

attitudes of learners. A number of researchers (Reid, 1987, Dunn, 1983,1984; Garger& Guild, 1985, Reinert, 1976,) indicate that ESL learners possess at least one of six main sensory learning styles, which are auditory, kinesthetic, visual, tactile, individual and group LS.

Auditory learners require listening tasks; tactile learners learn best when they are given hands-on activities; visual learners desire seeing language items in the form of writing or pictures; kinesthetic learners require being active participants in the learning context; individual learners prefer learning on their own; finally, group learners enjoy joining in withgroup work.

Among all the definitions of LS, Dun et al's(as cited in Clenton, 2002), is the most extensive one; LS involves plenty of variables "individual responses to sound, light, temperature, design, perception, intake, chronological highs and lows, mobility needs and persistence, ... motivation, responsibility (conformity), and need for structure..." (p.56). According to Dun et al., LS is a composite of emotional (responsibility, motivation, persistence), environmental (sound, temperature, light), and sociological (groups, pairs) stimulants.

As the definitions of LS differ among researchers, their functions show alterations, as well. Keefe (1982), claims that LS are stable when they are in interaction with the learning environment, and adds that they are consistent reflections of learners' psychological, cognitive, and affective behaviors. Likewise, Claxton and Ralston (1978), point out that LS are learners' consistent way of reaction to stimulants in a learning environment. Ehrman and Oxford (1990), claim that LS have internal characteristics that learners possess naturally, despite the teaching techniques and class environments, adding that they are 'preferred or habitual patterns of mental functioning and dealing with new information'. Reid (1998), claims that LS are not consciously used by learners to understand and get data.

Another disagreement about LS is whether they are stable or not. Ehrman and Oxford (1990), point out that LS are not stable throughout life. Learners may get new ones in time and customize the old ones as they begin to be aware of them. Smith and Ragan (2005), share the same view, asserting that we can change and adapt our LS in order to make our learning conditions better; however, they stress that it is almost impossible to alter our cognitive styles that

designate the way we process data. Due to its consistency in figuring out learners' behavior, cognitive style is an indicator of learning outcomes in the form of achievements and performances.

According to Sternberg (1994), LS are neither inborn nor fixed; they may change in time according to learning environments that strengthen and shape learning styles. For instance, once students are rewarded as they use certain LS, they will be more likely to prefer those styles. Moreover, preparing learning tasks for which certain styles are more ideal to perform, may again lead students to choose those styles. He claims that our value system affects the improvement of LS via socialization. Kinsella and Sherak (1998), state that LS are not absolutely inborn and stable, because they can be enhanced through the atmosphere in the classroom, where students will be exposed to certain roles and values. They will most likely prefer the ones that they experience the most, such as academic success. This signifies that LS display a customary tendency to acquire knowledge.

Some researchers, on the contrary, claim that LS are inherited and are the results of our genetic formation. To illustrate, Wintergerst et al,(2001), state that LS are innate preferences of learners in a learning environment. Dunn and Griggs (1988), also point out that LS are a “biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics” (p.3). In their research, three out of five LS were determined biologically. For instance, students' choices of dimly-lit or brightly-lit environment selections were related to their inborn attributes. Dunn (1990), moreover, asserts that other factors, namely environmental and sociological ones, also affect the progress of LS.

Even though different scholars state various ideas related to the function of LS, it is considered that not all factors are inherited. For instance, Dunn, (1998), Griggs (1991), and Milgram (2000), point out that perceptual weaknesses and strengths, namely auditory, visual, kinesthetic, tactile and so on, are stable, while other components of LS such as social preferences, eagerness, devotion and liability for learning, motivation may alter due to individuals' intense endeavor and their maturation through learning experiences and self-awareness as cited in Tatarinceva (2014).

Hunter (1979), states that LS depict how learning is achieved instead of what is learnt. In LS, the process of learning is the main concern, not the product. Enginer (2014), points out that LS is a conceptual structure and is related to the choice of learners for the sake of their own learning. In other words, they are like an instrument to reach our aims, and that instrument may change depending on learners' preferences. Hence, teachers play a significant role in determining LS and matching them with a proper teaching style to promote learning.

As mentioned above, scholars approach the nature and function of LS in various ways; however, they share similar opinions about the improvement of LS. They agree that LS are stable for a while but may change in time as students are in interaction with exterior factors such as educational and social contexts. Therefore, this study will examine in what ways diversified factors may affect the LS of students.

2.2 Learning Style Models

Learning style models are formed on the consideration that everyone learns in a different way. For this reason, the categorization and determination of learners' preferences and strategies is the main purpose of LS models. Coffield, Moseley, Hall and Ecclestone (2004: 10), have assigned 71 LS models according to the studies made by all the researchers between 1902 and 2002. They are based on differentiated theories that are competing one another. The purpose of these theories is to elucidate the differences in an individual's learning.

Many theories share the same notion in which human beings are categorized in terms of their learning styles; however, they diverge how those styles could be described, classified and evaluated (Willingham, Daniel T., Hughes, Elisabeth M., Doboly, David G. 2015).

According to Jung's typology, people are divided into two groups in the process of their decision making and evaluation tendency; thinkers and feelers. Thinkers tend to make decisions based on objectivity, reason and analyzing, whereas feelers incline to make decisions based on values. They take individual and humanistic conditions into consideration. **Carl Jung's Theory of Psychological Type** is regarded as one of the best learning style models of all times. Jung uses

his psychological types theory to explain personal diversities. This theory is considered efficient in the evolution of learning styles models (Jung,1968). He uses his theory as a tool of learning. He points out coincidental attitudes are the result of the diversities of people's choices to wield their brain capacities, in inner and external situations. He states that individual dissimilarity is based on reasoning and sensation. People's preferences are differentiated towards eight divergent psychological types. Four of those types are identified as reasoning and perceiving functions and two of them are called attitudes. These four functions and two attitudes are combined to compose eight mental Functions-in-Attitude.

People can be divided into two groups according to their aptitudes in the process of perception: sensorial and intuitive. In 1962, Myers-Briggs introduced the **Myers-Briggs Type Indicator** (MBTI), which is a prevalent psychological self-report medium. As they were interested in similarities and differences of people's personalities, they developed a model of personality types under the influence of Jung's theory on psychological types. After having done research on personality types for many years, they discovered that there were 16 diverse personality types and four personality dimensions. By the use of MBTI, they made it possible to measure the LS preferences of learners considering 16 personality types, which are based on Jung's eight types of mental functions (The Myers & Briggs Foundation, 2015). Today, MBTI is extensively used not only in LS research, but also in education, family consultation, and career planning, to determine the individual preferences of people, to get information and make decisions according to the personality types in binary opposition (Cooper,2001; Kolb, 1984).

Myers-Briggs has classified learners into the following categories based on Jung's psychological types:

1. Extroverts – Introverts: Extrovert students learn by trial and error. They concentrate on the individuals around – introvert students think with their inner world. According to Jung, if a person is interested in the external world, he is thought to be extrovert, and if interested in the inner world, he is considered an introvert individual. An extrovert person is thought to be active, have high self-

esteem, and sociable, while an introvert is considered not to be concerned about social environment but to focus on thoughts and emotions.

2. Sensuals – Intuitives: Sensuals (Sensorials in Jung’s terminology) perform practical exercises. They like to focus on details, techniques, and procedures. They prefer accurate, concrete, and calculable data obtained from observations and experiments. They are practical and focus on details and process. On the other hand, intuitives are considered to be creative and imaginative. They focus on meanings, concepts, and probabilities. In other words, they concentrate on possibilities and senses through imagination. They prefer notions and relations.

3. Thinkers – Sentients: Thinkers are believed to be skeptical. They would prefer decisions rather than rules. Sentients give importance to values. They tend to make decisions based on individual and humanistic thoughts.

4. Judicials – Sensors: Judicials tend to behave according to an agenda. Moreover, they even like to research unrelated information. Sensors easily adapt to changing situations. They need extra data for a subject.

Thus, in respect of Myers – Briggs, a student can be extrovert, sensual, a thinker and sensor while another one is introvert, intuitive, sentient, and judicial.

According to **Kolb’s Experiential Learning Style Model**, an individual’s ability to use different learning models together, to observe the incidents, and to integrate them with theorems causes the person to choose experiences in life (Kolb, 1984). This is based on his life learning theory. It consists of concrete life, abstract conceptualism, active living, and reflective observation which are four learning dimensions. Their components define the learning styles (Kaf Hasırcı, 2006): “through feeling” for concrete life, “through watching” for reflective observation, “through thinking” for abstract conceptualism, and “through conducting” for active living. In the **Concrete Life** learning phase, the learner prefers an approach based on feelings. According to Kolb, learners enjoy being with other people, are open to new ideas and thoughts, and keen on analyzing. They succeed in making decisions based on perception. The **Reflective Observation** learning phase concentrates on observing thoughts and events carefully and evaluating them through different points of view. The learners learn by listening and watching in this learning phase. They observe

very carefully before making a decision. In **Abstract Conceptualism**, students use thoughts and logic in order to solve a problem or figure out a situation in this learning phase. Typically, the learner develops a theory to work out a problem and prefers systematic planning. People in this group move on after analyzing thoughts and incidents logically. People in the **Active Living** phase of learning have the specialty of affecting their environment and changing the situations. In this learning style, the learner would rather practice than watch and observe. The learner is thought to be accomplished at affecting others and taking risks.

According to Kolb's Experiential Model, learning is a loop, and there is not an exact form which defines the learning style of the individual. Each learner's learning style is the combination of these four basic styles: "dissociating, absorbing, modificative and aligning".

Dissociating is created by the combination of abstract conceptualism and active living learning styles. Problem solving, decision making, logical analysis, and systematic planning are distinctive features. Learners plan systematically during the problem-solving process. They require opportunities to apply the learnt material. **Absorbing** is combined with the mixture of abstract conceptualism and reflective observation learning styles. The most distinctive feature is to create conceptual models. They focus on abstract concepts and ideas while learning. They are generally experts in mathematics and basic sciences. **Modificative** involves concrete life and reflective observation learning styles. Thinking skills and awareness of values and meanings are among the most explicit features. The learner scrutinizes abstract circumstances and s/he rationalizes the relations in a meaningful way. S/he makes a judgement very carefully, patiently and objectively, in the process of learning but s/he doesn't put it into action. Such learners good at social studies. **Aligning / Placing** is combined with concrete life and active living learning styles. The most distinctive features are said to be planning new experiences and carrying out the decisions. These learners are generally open-minded and adapt the changes easily. They learn by conducting and feeling.

According to the McCarthy Learning Style Model, learning is used to comprehend new things and react accordingly. He defines learning style as

perceiving and processing data. He composes his style based on Kolb's. His styles are categorized into four groups and named "inventor - analytic - commonsensical and dynamic". **Inventor Learners** interiorize individual learning. They act with their individual frame of mind. They prefer group work, brainstorming, and multi-disciplinary studies. **Analytic Learners** use basic knowledge theories very efficiently to develop their ability to understand. They would rather do data analysis, use direct verbalism, and conduct independent research. They also prefer to share information with the experts. **Commonsensical Learners** would prefer to experience, make mistakes, and try to understand before accepting the information. For them, experimental studies are vital. Finally, **Dynamic Learners** try individualized invention and searching activities. They are capable of using their own instincts. They can be very successful at independent studies.

2.3 The Difference between Learning Style and Cognitive Style

These two terms are both used interchangeably in an ELT context. Ellis (2008), states that it is crucial to distinguish between cognitive style and LS to prevent misunderstanding. Allport (1937), identifies cognitive styles as people's habitual thinking processes that involve reasoning, problem solving, recalling and comprehending, while LS deal with the implementation of cognitive style in our learning process (Riding & Cheema, 1991). Cognitive learning style is the sub-category of LS just like temperament (language) learning styles and sensory learning styles. Furthermore, they claim that cognitive styles, unlike LS, have opposing dimensions (e.g., abstract-concrete, analytic-holistic, reflective-impulsive etc.). Learning styles; on the contrary, contain various constituents that are not intrinsic (e.g., kinesthetic, tactile, group learning styles). Cognitive styles are significant components of LS. Rayner (2000), and Dörnyei (2005), differentiate these two terms in terms of consistency of processing data in different conditions. They describe cognitive style as the steady form of processing knowledge that relates to behavioral, psychological and affective factors to ensure learning. However, LS may change through experience and could be taught as well (Cassidy, 2004; Holec, 1987; Little & Singleton, 1990).

Numerous factors - gender, ethnicity, birth arrangement, qualifications and culture affect LS (Sternberg, 1997; Sakalli, 2009; Merrifield, 1996; Reid, 1987).

2.4 The Factors Influencing Learning Styles

2.4.1 Learning styles and cultures

Biggs and Moore (1993) describe culture as the total structures of the life of a group of people that is transferred from ancestors to their descendants in a particular society. Kennedy (2002) claims that culture cannot be regarded as a set of behavior, it involves beliefs, ideals, social norms, and manners which control our actions and self-expression.

Nelson (1995) investigated the connection between LS and culture - expressing these two terms seem paradoxical in general. LS are concerned with individual variations and development of LS constituents, but the concept of culture is related to common features that are shared in society. In other words, unlike LS, it involves similarities and differences. Nevertheless, culture is not only shared by a certain group of people but is also learned, because when people are born, they don't know if they can learn aurally, visually or analytically. Individuals develop autonomy to select the best way that they can learn through socializing in the environment that they live in. In a way, people can learn how to learn.

As we all live in a globalized world, composed of various cultures and ethnic groups, researchers have taken cultural differences into consideration to promote L2 acquisition. Bentley, Tinney and China (2005), state that when international students, with different cultural backgrounds, try to adjust to new learning environments, the educational diversities that they are exposed to, both in their native countries and the current one, may hamper their academic achievements. Therefore, it reveals the necessity of identifying students' LS occurring due to cultural and individual differences to facilitate learning. Barron and Arcodia (2002), investigated the probable connections between ethnic groups and LSPs in respect to the learners of Confucian Heritage Culture, studying at a university in Australia. The study found that learners preferred active LS and complied with Western learners. They also altered their learning

techniques and styles and harmonized with the academic environment over a period of time.

Cultural differences affect LS of learners as each society or culture attaches more importance to the improvement of certain skills, and promotes their progress, but takes other skills for granted or just neglects them, considering them worthless (Deleon, 1983, Tannenbaum, 1986). Cross-cultural studies related to LS have discovered that culture plays an important role as a socialization medium in LS (Barmeyer, 2004). Yamazaki (2005), claims that alterations in cultural socialization affects students' learning choices and generates a variety of styles in their learning. In this context, some researchers have conducted experimental studies to find out whether cultural diversities influence LS variations (Joy & Kolb, 2009). Using diverse agents for measurement, several comparative researches have revealed substantial differences in learning style preferences (hereafter; LSPs) amongst bachelor's degree students coming from various countries, studying in the same or different field. They came up with a conclusion that culture has an important effect on LS (Barmeyer, 2004; Joy & Kolb, 2009); Yamazaki, 2005; Holtbrügge & Mohr, 2010; Boland, Sugaharo, Optecam & Everaert, 2011). All this research has revealed significant experimental evidence about the influence of culture on LS.

Nevertheless, it is crucial to investigate the designs of all these studies and results prior to creating a link between numerous cultures and dominant LS. In this respect, Joy and Kolb (2009), emphasized that specialization in an academic field has relatively more impact on identification of learners' preferences than culture, adding that this may occur because academic specializations are the main points of institutions; thus, learners determine their LS in order to display the required performance of the academic fields. In other words, socialization is considered to be less, whereas academic disciplines are more influential in LS preferences compared to gender and culture.

Park (1997a, 1997b, 2000, 2001), has found important statistical differences in LS of students coming from a variety of cultures. For instance, in her study, Park (1997b), claims Chinese, Filipino and Korean students preferred visual style the most, while Anglo learners favored it the least. Moreover, Filipino,

Korean, Chinese and Anglo learners preferred studying on their own; however, Vietnamese learners preferred group work.

Reid(1987), conducted research in the USA among 1300 ESL from various cultural backgrounds, such as Malay, Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Arabic and Korean. The research revealed that non-native English speakers presented lots of differences in terms of their perceptual LSPs compared to native speakers. The research discovered that L2learners, in general, preferred kinesthetic and tactile LS the most, but group learning the least. However, native speakers were less tactile. Moreover, LSPs of L2 learners coming from various countries also differed from one another as they possessed different cultural and educational backgrounds. To illustrate, Korean learners favored visual style the most and they were distinctively more visual than native speakers and Japanese students. Japanese were found the least auditory among all learners. The study also revealed that as ESL students adapt to the American education system, they adjust their LS accordingly. In other words, LS of students may change as they spend time in a new environment. For example, some L2 learners, who stayed in the USA more than three years, preferred auditory LS compared to the ones staying there less. To sum up, the data received from this study indicated that students can adjust and change their LSPs to their new academic environments. Reid (1987), also added that the innate diversities related to the academic fields and cultural or linguistic backgrounds influence the determination of LS.

Willing (1988), examined a group of 517 students coming from thirty diverse ethnicities to investigate their authentic connection with LSPs. Only Chinese, South Americans, Vietnamese, and Polish/Czech ethnic groups consisted of an applicable number of students to get statistical results. The LS questionnaire, including thirty LS, fifteen learning strategies and other components related to biographical features. The findings revealed that cultural differences existed in students' preferences of LS. For instance, certain ethnic groups preferred learning grammar, although the means of this item was not that high. In fact, 65% of Arabic learners preferred it the most. Moreover, the results suggested that analytical and instructor-oriented LS were favored by South American, Arabic, Vietnamese, Polish and Chinese learners. Watching movies and playing

games were ranked as the lowest, yet the majority of the students favored being given an explanation of everything and pronouncing words in L2.

Nelson (1995), conducted two studies comprising a wide range of ethnic groups. The first one was performed on native Hawaiian pupils who could not succeed in traditional state schools, where they were exposed to self-oriented LS that they were not familiar with. The pupils were accustomed to learning through socialization in their home countries. Their teachers rearranged the class activities according to the needs of those learners who favored peer work activities and being taught via stories. The reorganization of the teachers elevated the academic performances of the students. Consequently, his findings reveal the presence of cultural LS. Moreover, they are learned in the society that they live in and if LS of students match with teaching styles, they can perform well.

2.4.2 Learning styles and gender

Gender as one of the variables of LS has been researched to a great extent in ELT tradition. As males and females have diversified psychological, physical, and sociological characteristic features, they may have different LS unique to their gender as well.

Certain studies on LS (Amir & Jebes, 2010; Bansesh et al., 2014; O' Faithaigh, 2000), have pointed out that males favor learning independently more than females. Although these studies found similar results related to LSPs of different genders, only a few of them clarified this issue elaborately. According to some other scholars Ashmore (1990), Melton (1990), Oxford (1995), Severiens & ten Dam (1997), gender disparity may have an effect continuum of socialization. Oxford (1995), describes the word "socialization" as the course of education and the integration of youth into their environment via different roles. To illustrate, she claims that parents present different reactions to boy and girl infants; moreover, teachers keep their eyes more on naughty, misbehaving boys rather than girls who behave in the same way. She gives an explanation for this attitude by saying that females are considered to have a mild temperament; whereas, males have an aggressive and bold spirit. Actually, the way they should behave is imposed on them by the society in which they live. Ashmore

(1990) introduced a “multiplicity model” in which gender identity is composed of certain constituents, namely social rules, interests, physical appearances and personality ranges. Nevertheless, all these scholars did not clarify why males favor certain LS compared to females or vice versa. To illustrate, they have not explained clearly the reason of males preferring tactile LS as the best way of learning compared to females.

LSPs change among males and females due to the different functions in the brain hemispheres. Leaver (1986) says that each part of our brain has distinctive functions. The right side of our brain interprets the verbal patterns; whereas, the left side deals with the meaning of the words. Oxford (1995), claims that while processing linguistic data, males voluntarily use the left hemisphere, which is more logical and analytical; on the other hand, females can use both sides of their brain mutually in that process. In this respect, this might be the reason why males prefer analytical LS more than females. Severiens and ten Dam (1994), conducted research to reveal gender differences in LSP. According to their study, there was a very little interaction between gender and LSPs. The remarkable difference was male learners’ major preference to abstract conceptualization in their learning. Therefore, they tend to think more analytically compared to females.

Nevertheless, the results of some researchers, related to gender differences in LS, contradict one another. For example, the study of Oxford (1995), and Isemanger and Sheppard (2003), reveal that female learners are more kinesthetic compared to males; on the contrary, according to Honigsfeld & Dunn (2003), and Melton’s (1990), findings, males are more kinesthetic than females. Several researchers (Baneshi, Tezerjani, & ten Dam, 1997) claim that different contextual factors such as cultural and educational backgrounds could be the reason for the contradiction among the findings of different researchers. Watkins and Hattie (1981), researched the interaction between gender and some disciplines and found that there is a relationship between major and gender, and added that, according to the field of study, LS of males and females display differences too.

There are some consistent results as well regarding LSPs. Feingold (1992), and Li (2006), found out that female learners are more auditory than males, which

shows that they understand better when they listen as they possess a better verbal ability. There are some other studies that match with this finding such as (Melton, 1990; Thomas et al, 2001; Tai 1999; Honigsfeld & Dunn, 2006).

2.4.3 Learning style preferences and academic achievement

Another issue that has been looked into in the literature is the connection between the achievements of learners and their LSPs. The findings of numerous studies indicated its evidence (Reid, 1987; Gencel, 2006; Tatarinceva, 2014, Xu, 2011). Dunn (1984), again, around four decades ago, discovered this relationship. Likewise, Brown (1994), stated the relationship between LSP and academic progress by suggesting that if students' LSPs are well-matched with their teaching styles then their performance, success and motivation will increase.

Studies reveal that if weak and mediocre learners are taught according to their LSP, they get higher marks in their exams. Even if high achievers are not taught according to their LSPs, they can still perform very well. However, the situation is not the same with weak students because they need to be taught in accordance with their LSPs to perform better (Dunn & Griggs, 1998). Riding (2005), claims that as each learner is different from another, his or her learning styles, strategies and outcomes show dissimilarities. In order to indicate the underlying factors behind low academic achievement, some researchers (cited in Jilardi et al., 2011) researched a number of variables to explain academic achievement, namely demographic status which defines age, gender, experience and skills (Casanova, Garcia-Linares, de la Torre, and de la Villa Carpi, 2005; Ray, 2010; O'Sullivan, 2009), psychological factors such as attitudes (Erdoğan, Bayram, and Deniz, 2008; Olatunde (2009), self-esteem (Bankston and Zhou, 2002; Lockett and Harrell, 2003; Schmidt and Padilla, 2003; Reasoner, 2005), self-efficiency (Ferla, Valcke, and Cai 2009; Onyeizugbo, 2010), and self-concept (Reynolds, 1988, Holliday, 2009), behavioral features (Ergul, 2004; Lane, Barton-Arwoo, Nelsonz and Wehby, 2008), and intelligence (Deary, Strand, Smith and Fernandes, 2007).

When we talk about individual differences, ability is another factor that affects the academic achievement of learners; however, it is not easy to control because

their abilities differ from one another. As Sternberg (1997), suggested, LS can be modified to some extent through which the academic success of the learners can be enhanced. Felder (1993), claims that there should be a compatibility between LS of learners and teaching styles of teachers so that learners can maintain the information much longer, use it more properly and efficiently, and have better post course attitudes towards the subject, compared to learners whose LS do not match with the teaching styles. That is to say, due to individual differences in LS, adjusting the materials according to their LS variations will enable learning of particularly weak and mediocre learners (Zin, Zaman, & Noah, 2002). Hence, it is crucial for instructors to be aware of their learners' LS as they have a great influence on their students' academic success. Moreover, once learners are aware of their own LS, they can adopt proper learning strategies in a task and get their teachers to know about their LSP by which teachers will be able to adapt their teaching strategies through time. Jiang (2002), and Oxford (1993), claim that in this way, students achieve a great success in L2 learning.

Other studies, however, found no relation between LSP and academic achievement in L2 acquisition. For instance, as cited in Huang et al. (2018), according to Bailey et al. (2000), Oxford et al. (1993), and Tabatabaei and Mashayekhi (2013), there is an indirect but almost no connection between them, yet agreeing on the belief that LS affect learning outcomes. Oxford and Ehrman (1993), found that visual learners are more successful when they are provided with written instructional materials. Similarly, Güneş (2004), conducted a study to investigate the influence of LSP on learners' achievement scores. She analyzed four dimensions, namely input (verbal versus visual), process (reflective versus active), understanding (global versus sequential), and perception (intuitive versus sensing) in terms of writing, listening, grammar and reading. The results of her study revealed that the learners' achievement scores did not indicate a remarkable difference on their LSPs. In other words, being intuitive or sensing, verbal or visual, reflective or active, and global or sequential did not increase the learners' grades in writing, reading, grammar and listening.

There was research conducted by native speakers on learners who studied English for a long period of time. As cited by Wong (2015), numerous scholars (Melton, 1990; Reid, 1987; Reid, Vicioso, Gedeon, Takacs, & Korotkikh, 1998), discovered that the more learners are exposed to English language learning, the higher auditory learning preference they have. Reid et al. (1998), claim the reason for this is the fact that auditory learning is fundamental for language learning. Furthermore, Melton (1990), discovered that students who studied English for a longer time had more tendency to choose group and kinesthetic learning styles. She asserts that kinesthetic students are prone to risk-taking and it is an essential qualification of language learning. She has also found that learners who were taught English by native instructors for a long time are more inclined to prefer kinesthetic learning style compared to the others, yet she does not mention the reason for this in her study.

Wong (2015) interviewed sixty university students, whose English language proficiency scores ranged from grade 'A' to 'D', for thirty minutes and conducted a questionnaire on them to identify their LSPs. Learners with 'A' proficiency level revealed that they favored independent learning style rather than learning in groups or being instructed by a teacher. They expressed that they were capable of learning individually, stressing that the students with high scores in English should improve their language without any help because learning in pairs or groups wouldn't improve their language. Conversely, students with a low language proficiency level preferred learning in groups and favored dependent learning style. In her study, plenty of them remarked that learning from the ones with a higher language proficiency would promote their language. Furthermore, Wong (2015) asserted that those learners felt quite confident to hand in their work as they had been working on the task with other learners. Apart from working in groups, they also required the guidance of their teachers more than the others as they didn't have the confidence to analyze certain language patterns on their own. On the basis of their interviews with the students of various English proficiency levels, she found out that ELP played a crucial role in learners LSPs. The students who had high scores in an ELP exam tended to prefer individual and independent LS for certain reasons. Firstly, they didn't trust the low-ability learners' knowledge of English. Secondly, they

claimed that low-achievers did not contribute much to the completion of the task. Also, they put forward that they would slow their academic progress in group work. On the other hand, the ones who had low scores preferred group and dependent LS as a result of an inadequate knowledge of English. They had the confidence that high ability learners would complete the task in any case. Surprisingly, both low and high ability learners didn't utterly object to working in groups in unassessed class activities. However, they strongly opposed group work when assessment was involved as they believed that low-achievers wouldn't contribute to their learning and the quality of the project; moreover, they didn't want to spend extra time with them to complete their work.

Bilgin and Durmus (2003), studied the connection between learners' success and their LS using Grasha's LS model for data collection. Having conducted the research on students from two different schools they did not find a remarkable relationship between their success and LSP, but added that the ones who adopted the LS were academically better than the others.

2.4.4 Learning styles and bilingualism

Bilingualism is a difficult term to define as there are different theories concerning how much exposure an individual needs to become a native speaker. Due to individual differences, it is difficult to determine the complete language acquisition of a child as each person's control over the language is different (Romaine, 1995).

Essen (2008), defines bilingual education as the use of L2 as a learning medium of a subject matter other than another language. Bilingualism on a large scale is defined as the competence of a person to use two languages for communication purposes. Kandolf (1995, p.1) also agrees on this definition, adding that all bilinguals do not need to be dominant in two languages equally. She claims that one of the two languages will be more dominant compared to the other. However, she agrees upon the view that bilinguals are subject to both languages regularly. As seen, the descriptions above do not distinguish bilingual language acquisition from L2 acquisition. When someone knows two languages, we cannot claim that she or he is bilingual since one of those languages can be an L2. For this reason, to be more precise, Bloomfield identifies a bilingual as

someone who has innate competence in two languages (Romaine, 1995). Fromkin(2003), points out that bilingual language acquisition is the perception of two languages before the age of three. She states that having a native-like competence in a language is in correlation with how young a person is exposed to that language.

Bilingualism is categorized as ‘partial’ versus ‘ideal’ bilingual; ‘compound’ versus ‘coordinate’ bilingual, which are concerned with proficiency and performance (Romaine, 1995). According to her, complete bilingualism is defined as an ‘ideal’ or a ‘balanced’ bilingual. People who cannot use a language efficiently, but can understand the sentences are called ‘receptive’ or ‘passive’ bilinguals by some linguists. They do not know how much a person has to be exposed to a language to become a ‘balanced’ bilingual. However, we know that an infant should get more or less the same amount of knowledge in each language to achieve native-like competence in both languages (Fromkin, 2003). It is an inevitable fact that, if an infant is more exposed to one of the two languages, she or he will certainly acquire that language more quickly and wholly. As seen, bilingualism is perceived as two languages that are acquired, not learnt, until the age of three. However, there is a degree between the two languages in terms of their competence level. For instance, ‘receptive’ or ‘passive’ bilinguals are not productive enough, but can understand the discourse in one of the two. On the other hand, ‘ideal’ bilingual or ‘balanced’ bilinguals are exposed to both languages more or less equally during their infancy and can use them both productively.

Santoso(2006), mentioned the benefits of bilingualism in his research. He claims that bilingual education gives students a chance to use a variety of strategies to improve their learning. According to him, the role of L1 is not ignored completely. Likewise, Raguanued(2009), referred to the advantages of bilingualism such as academic ability, self-esteem, attaining more knowledge, and a balanced cultural identity. Field (2005), asserts that while teaching two languages, we need to keep in mind some basic concepts such as the age, language proficiency level, language literacy, LS, cultural backgrounds, and educational and sociological environments of learners.

Some studies revealed that monolingual and bilingual learners' LSPs are not the same. For instance, Cooper (1981), in his research, found that when independent and dependent LS are of concern, bilingual learners are prone to be more dependent. In his study, African-American bilingual learners favored kinesthetic and holistic LS. The languages they spoke affected their preferences according to Cooper. Similarly, Emamipour and Shams Esfandabad (2010), mentioned the difference between bilingual and monolingual learners' LSPs. Likewise, Moradi (2010), also pointed out that LS of bilingual and monolingual learners were diverse. Clarkson (2008), revealed that roughly 60% of people in the world are either multilingual or bilingual.

Because there are a large number of bilinguals living in the world and inadequate research in the scope, it is of great importance to research bilingual young adults' LSPs.

Turkey can be considered a multilingual country due to its multicultural nature. According to a survey, 15,46 % of the population in Turkey speak 23 languages, other than Turkish, as their mother tongue, which are: widespread Kurmanji, partially common languages such as Arabic, Zazaki and some less prevalent minority languages like other Turkic languages, Balkan languages, Laz, Armenian and Greek (Lewis, 2009). Due to the diversity of languages spoken in Turkey, the aim of the study is to find out whether there is a connection between bilingual young adults LSPs and their English proficiency levels.

2.5 Teaching and Learning in Mixed-ability Classes

One of the biggest problems that teachers confront in EFL classes is a lesson where the students are at different levels of competence; some at advanced level, some at intermediate level, yet others at beginning points. Such classes are called 'mixed ability classes' (hereafter MAC) or 'heterogeneous classes' (HC). Prodromou (1992), refers to these classes as mixed-ability; whereas, Ur (2005), favors the term heterogeneous saying that the term 'mixed-ability' does not cover all aspects that influence language learning, rather relates only the students' ability to perform. No matter what they are called, the students in those classes have different strengths and weaknesses, and thus they progress at different rates. Bremner (2008), suggests that such classes do not only consist of

a range of abilities, but there are also a range of learning styles and preferences. Learners may show their strengths at different times depending on the topic that is studied and on the learning style that is used. For this reason, I wanted to research MAC in this study, as each classroom is not made up of students who have the same preferences, strengths or weaknesses, nor have the same learning styles or strategies.

Schools around the world try to stream students who have similar abilities or level of knowledge using different techniques and tests. They think that by creating a homogeneous classroom atmosphere, they will be able to facilitate the process of learning. In spite of the effort, they have not achieved their goal. As an illustration, in the mid- 1930's, some schools in the United Kingdom decided to divide students according to their IQ tests. In the 1950's almost all the schools in the UK were streamed for all subjects. A survey of junior schools in the mid-1960's (Jackson, 1964), indicated that 96% of teachers taught to streamed ability groups. However, it was observed that the new group of students still had differences, and it was not feasible to arrange these groups and change the curricula every time. Also, it was not possible to predetermine the number of students to form homogenous classrooms. Thus, realizing the deficiencies and inadequacies of streaming, they decided to learn about their students' needs, learning styles, learning strategies, strengths and weaknesses and thought about creating a mutual learning environment in which they would contribute to one another's learning and feel comfortable and satisfied in their learning process.

Even if the main differences observed among students are the amount of language that is learnt, there are other reasons besides the ability that affect how they learn and need to be taught. Ur (1996), asserts that, since no two students can be the same in terms of "language learning ability, language knowledge, cultural background, psychological need, learning style, attitude towards language, mother tongue, intelligence, world knowledge, learning experience, knowledge of other languages, age, gender, maturity, personality, confidence, motivation, interests, independence, self-discipline and educational level", it would be a utopian view to think that our classes could be homogeneous. Hess (2001), supports her assertion by pointing out that students differ not only in ability to

acquire a language, but also in age, motivation, intelligence, self-discipline, literacy skills, attitude, and interests. Scrivener (2005, p.68) approaches this issue from a different perspective by saying that having learners at certain levels such as Intermediate and Pre-Intermediate would disguise the fact that they have a range of levels over the different language skills. One student may be intermediate level in reading and listening; however, his/her writing or speaking competence might be at a pre-intermediate level. Even though teachers set or stream students based on their ability or level, there will still be differences among them to some extent. Moreover, they will possibly suffer from being labeled, which could lead to de-motivation and thus ineffective learning.

2.5.1 Possible problems in mixed ability classes

As Ur (1996), suggests, there are several problems teachers encounter in mixed ability classes. These problems are described in the sub-sections below:

2.5.1.1 Effective learning for all

In mixed-ability classes, it is extremely difficult to provide effective learning for all learners because it is well known that each student has a different way of learning, and each student learns and progresses at different speed. Thus, while some students may find the learning task very easy to deal with, others may find it difficult to understand. Although it is quite difficult for the teacher to know about each student, and to follow how each one performs, even in small classes, it is more challenging to monitor each student and reach their needs in various ways to achieve effective teaching. Besides, learning also depends on what students bring with them into class. Since each comes from a different family, a different environment, and a different heritage, the multi-cultural population of the classroom may be an obstacle for the teachers in reaching the students, which eventually results in ineffective learning. For those reasons, there will always be learners who would not get any benefit of some of the curriculum.

2.5.1.2 Discipline

It is an undeniable fact that the differences among learners is likely to create a dilemma for the teacher to cope with. They either focus on the more advanced students and neglect the rest, or address the less able ones, but cause the more

able ones get bored. Eventually, this may result in disruptive behavior due to low self-esteem and de-motivation.

2.5.1.3 Interest

Interest problems may arise due to the differences among students in terms of their attitude towards the subject matter. Some students may find the lessons boring, as the topic has nothing to do with their way of life or the topic does not interest them, or the topic is above their level of linguistic competence. While advanced learners prefer communicative activities, discussions, problem-solving tasks, the low achievers would rather be engaging in activities which do not require any language production or active participation in communicative tasks.

2.5.1.4 Participation

Since the classroom is the first and only environment for many foreign language learners, they should take advantage of it as much as possible. However, some students find it difficult to speak the target language for many reasons such as level of interest, confidence, age, or knowledge. Other students, on the other hand, would like to express their thoughts using the target language. As a result, some students may be actively involved, while others prefer to be invisible throughout the lesson. Therefore, teachers find it hard to pitch their lessons at a level where all students can be engaged.

2.5.1.5 Materials

Another problematic issue is the choice of materials. Ur (1996), asserts that textbooks are homogenous, designed for one kind of learner. Therefore, it is necessary to adapt the materials based on the needs of the learners in order to foster their learning.

2.5.1.6 Individual awareness

Hess (2001), points out that “we would like to allow each of our students to find his/ her preferred and unique way and pace of learning.” Due to the diversities within the students in mixed-ability classes, it is quite difficult to devote time and attention equally to all students while teaching a subject.

2.5.2 Advantages of MAC

Ur (1996), and Hess (2001), state the advantages of MAC as:

2.5.2.1 A rich pool of human resources

There are various opinions, experiences, point of views and temperaments which provide a variety of human resources in MAC, compared to the classrooms that are streamed. Learners bring with them their life experiences, knowledge, interests, and a variety of ideas can be interacted with in the classroom. Due to the differences among the learners, we can create a variety of interesting, meaningful, collaborative, and student-centered lessons in which they correct one another's mistakes and learn from each other.

2.5.2.2 Students' interaction

Ur (1996), suggests that "there is educational value in the actual contact between very different kinds of people". Interaction between learners increases their tolerance, knowledge, awareness of other cultures and personalities. Moreover, it provides an opportunity for them to learn from one another during the completion of the tasks.

2.5.2.3 Professional development

Although teaching in a MAC represents many challenges, it forces teachers to search for creative and non-conventional teaching strategies and solutions. Teacher autonomy has emerged as a significant concept recently. In language teaching, teacher autonomy is defined as a professional attribute that involves a capacity of self-directed professional development by Thavenius (1999), McGrath (2000), Smith (2001, 2003), and Aoki (2002) (as cited in Benson, 2006). Teachers need to accept their new role: first as a learner themselves and then as facilitators of learning. Tütüniş (2011), claims that although there is a common consensus in the EFL environment towards a student-centered approach, most of the teachers still provide teacher-centered learning due to lack of practice and pedagogical knowledge and the impact of their past learning experiences. Teachers keep teaching grammar and attach less importance to the other skills. Thus, most students cannot reveal their knowledge in the form of speaking and writing or communication in general. Tütüniş (2011), ascribes the reason for teachers' incapability of identifying their

learners' learning styles and strategies. If teachers participate in teacher training seminars, develop their deficiencies in terms of learning styles, strategies, and autonomy then they can design their lessons accordingly. Becoming quite competent in these issues requires a lot of practice and teacher autonomy, besides teacher education. Most teachers fail to put their knowledge into practice; therefore, the necessity of explicit teacher training increases, day by day, in order to create autonomous learners and teachers. To explore what 'learner autonomy' means and the desirability and feasibility of it among teachers, a questionnaire can be given to the teachers. It could be the initial step to raise awareness and judge their way of teaching.

2.5.2.4 Treatment (Enhancing Learner Autonomy)

The idea of learner autonomy is not a new concept; however, it has had a significant influence on EFL during recent decades. In the early 1970s, Holec, the former director of CRAPEL-Center of teacher researchers at University of Nancy, in France, along with his colleagues, searching for a term to describe people's ability to take the responsibility for all the decisions related to their own learning process, came to conceptualize 'learner autonomy' for practical reasons (Holec, 1981). In a report, he wrote for the Council of Europe, he stated that autonomous learners take an active role in determining the objectives, selecting the course content, deciding on the techniques and methods and planning practice opportunities, monitoring the procedure of acquisition, and evaluating what has been learned. In order to promote lifelong learning, CRAPEL offered adult learners an opportunity to learn a foreign language, free from the guidance of teachers. However, initially the participants did not have full decision-making capacity in this practical application which was focusing on self-directed learning; therefore, CRAPEL offered other methods such as learner counseling and training to reinforce their self-directed ability, autonomy (Smith, 2008).

Fisher (2001), suggests that many children do not achieve their full potential because they are told "to make a journey, but they have no map". Students cannot learn and develop their linguistic competence if they have not learnt how to learn. The experiment above combined education, individual freedom and

social responsibility, which reflected the views of personal autonomy prevailing in Europe and America at that time.

An Action Research on Learner Autonomy

In his action research study, Lefever (2005), a PhD student at the University of Iceland, applied the method and theories of learner autonomy in his teaching practice at a lower secondary level of elementary school in Iceland. He intended to increase learner autonomy by creating a collaborative learning atmosphere in which learners were given opportunities to take responsibilities for their own learning. They made their decisions on topics, working groups, learning approaches, homework, and final presentations. Meanwhile, the role of the teacher was that of a facilitator and the students' progress was evaluated through peer and self-assessment. At the beginning, some learners were displeased with the system; however, most of them were enthusiastic to take part in their own learning process, feeling high self-esteem. The interviews with the students revealed that even though the teacher was guiding them in the decision-making process, they were in charge of their own learning. They also indicated that they paid more attention to the presentations because it was their responsibility to give feedback to their peers. This study revealed the necessity of encouragement of learner autonomy through peer-teaching and working in cooperation. By moving the focus from teacher to learner, the learners became motivated, they were involved in their own learning, and their self-awareness was raised.

Moving the Attention from Teacher to Learner

As Nunan (1997), suggests, everything cannot be taught in the classroom, and even if it could, teachers will not always be nearby when students are to use the language in real life. Apparently, learner autonomy puts emphasis on the role of the learner rather than the teacher, and focuses on the process rather than the product. It encourages learners to see learning as a lifelong process through development of purposes for their own learning (Jacobs & Farrell, 2001). However, Little, Dam and Timmer (2000), clarify their point of views, claiming that the growth of autonomy requires insight, stimulus and the guidance of an experienced teacher, both to process the content of learning and to achieve effective learning. Therefore, the emphasis from teaching to learning does not

mean the redundancy of the teacher; on the contrary, the aim is to organize lessons in collaboration with learners through materials and methods. Teachers are not urged to cover all the contents in the syllabus and textbooks because the focus is on the needs and decisions of the learners. Therefore, teachers play crucial roles in raising self-awareness of each individual student's strengths, weaknesses, learning styles, strategies, interests, and needs. Needs Analysis questionnaires are designed to determine the learners needs interests, learning styles and so on.

2.5.3 Teaching strategies

Designing the lessons according to the needs and interests of the learners plays a crucial role in MAC as learners have different abilities, skills and backgrounds which affect the way they learn (Tomlinson,2003). Teachers can reinforce effective learning if they accept the fact that every lesson cannot be whole class teaching controlled by the teacher from the front. The lessons have to be enriched with different tasks in which each student will be involved in the completion of them in the form of pair-work or group-work. Hess (2001), suggests that providing a variety of activities is important in all learning situations, but it is more significant in MAC because a variety of tasks may appeal to different levels in such classes. The best solution would be giving students graded tasks according to their levels with activities ranging from easy to difficult, appealing to students of different levels. High achievers can be given open ended, creative, and gap filling tasks to widen their linguistic competence; whereas, low achievers may work on much easier tasks, such as matching, fill in the gaps, and questionnaires. Another way of differentiated activities can be in the form of Bloom's Taxonomy to promote reading skill. Bloom describes six levels of thinking as knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, evaluation, and synthesis. Knowledge and comprehension questions are the easiest ones and they are suitable for weak students. The other questions which are ranked according to their difficulty can be distributed among the stronger ones. In this way, all students will work in collaboration on the same text and will have a lot of sharing with one another.

Moreover, approaching the topic from different perspectives decreases the level of tedium and demotivation. Lightbown and Spada (2002), state that varying the

activities and material reduces boredom and increases interest levels. If the tasks attract the interest of the learners, they become more motivated and thus involved in the activities. Instructions have to be used as tools to make learners become more self-sufficient and independent. Teachers do not play the role of transmitters of information, rather their role is more that of a facilitator who arranges the activities and guides learners to plan their learning.

2.5.3.1 Working in collaboration

Hess (2001), suggests that students who work in cooperation will participate more actively, learn how to negotiate on meaning, and become better self-evaluators and risk takers. Working together supports learner autonomy because students will learn not to depend on teachers all the time but rather learn from each other through sharing their opinions and experiences. It is inevitable that learners will develop at different rates and complete the tasks at different pace; however, peer tutoring and peer correction will reinforce their own learning and sense of team spirit.

2.5.3.2 Learning strategies

Researchers dealing in the field of ELF have defined 'learning strategies' in different ways. Tarone (1983), has described the term learning strategies as someone's effort to improve their linguistic and socio-linguistic capabilities in L2 and to combine all these skills with their multilingual abilities. Rubin (1987), pointed out that there are certain approaches that learners create themselves for the sake of their linguistic development. Oxford (1990), defined learning strategies as specific tactics used by the students to make learning easier, faster, more fun, more self-guided, more efficient, and more convertible to new circumstances.

Even if certain researchers have defined learning strategies to clarify their meaning, there remains confusion between LS and learning strategies. Reid (1998), differentiated them by saying that LS have intrinsic features which are not taught or used consciously by students during the intake of new data. On the other hand, she described learning strategies as external skills which are generally used consciously by learners to promote their learning.

According to these two definitions, we deduce that as LS have internal features, they refer to the inclination of learners towards learning situations. Furthermore, we can say that they are fairly steady and not prone to change in time. Likewise, Oxford (1990), asserted that certain learner features such as LS and personality traits were not likely to change. However, certain researchers such as Ellis (1989), in his study, found that learners did no longer use their own LS, as they adapted themselves to the teaching style that they were subjected to.

In other respects, learning strategies are described as external skills, which signify that they are more conscious and problem based. Moreover, it indicates that they are more likely to change in time according to the activities and the tasks that are used in the classroom. Oxford (1990), stated that learning strategies can be taught and adjusted easily by the help of strategy training.

Learning strategies also promote the autonomy of learners. According to Wenden (1991), in order to establish autonomy in MAC, instructors need to inform learners about differentiated learning strategies and help them to choose the best ones for them because it is by the use of strategies that learners can become autonomous. Green and Oxford (1995, p.285) surveyed 374 Puerto Rican university students and discovered that the more successful students generally use more language learning strategies compared to less successful ones. Teachers ought to have only the role of counselors to make learners become aware of the rationale behind the strategies; however, they must be careful about not directing the learners to the strategies that they personally prefer.

Learning strategies are as important as learning styles in L2 achievement and are interrelated to one another (Schmitt, 1997; Reid, 1998; Ehrman, Leaver & Oxford, 2003). For instance, Li and Qin (2006), studied the relationship between students' learning styles and strategies by using questionnaires and interviews and found that the application of diverse LS revealed a remarkable effect on learners' learning strategy choices. They also pointed out that if the instructors make their learners aware of their strengths and weaknesses through an appropriate training, their learning will progress.

To sum up, the key points for teaching mixed-ability classes involve i) providing a positive and collaborative atmosphere, ii) providing a variety of

tasks suitable for different levels and iii) raising the awareness and autonomy of learners. It is impossible to reach perfection in such classes; however, through the involvement of LS and reinforcement of autonomy, teachers can reduce the number of problems and meet the needs and interests of the students better than conventional whole class teaching.

2.6 Learning Styles of Turkish ESL Learners

Since the establishment of the Republic of Turkey, the requirement for university education has risen because of the increase in population, the growth of the national economy, and its participation in the competing economic system of the world. Consequently, a great number of private universities have been founded, one of which is Istanbul Aydın University. Recently, the number of students coming from other countries to get a university education has increased in Turkey, which has triggered certain changes in the education system such as teaching styles, curriculum design, learning styles and so forth. Moreover, it has caused a sort of cultural interaction among Turkish and foreign students. For this reason, a need to investigate the LS preferences of learners from various cultural backgrounds has emerged (Healey & Jenkins, 2000). Similarly, primary and secondary schools have attached more importance on how to teach English efficiently.

In Turkey, millions of students endeavor to learn English, which is appointed a universal language, as it is used as a medium of communication, education, finance, trade and politics in the global world. In this respect, one of the aims of the National Education System in Turkey is to provide Turkish students with ESL learning opportunities so that they can establish good communication when they go abroad and further their studies in English either abroad or in Turkey.

Schroeder (1993), asserts that current undergraduate students are not as well-prepared, intelligent and enthusiastic as former generations. The way they get information and perceive meaning differs from their lecturers due to the differences of a generation gap in style. Hence, it can be concluded that the current learners have a wider range of LSPs compared to previous ones. However, though LS have been widely searched throughout the world by numerous scholars, hardly any studies have been conducted in Turkey (Akgün,

2002; Arslan, 2003; Baykan&Nacar, 2007; Gencer, 2006; Demirkan&Demirbaş, 2007; Kara, 2009; Mutlu, 2005; Yıldırım et al., 2008). In addition, most of these revealed the LS of multi-cultural L2 learners; not particularly Turkish students.

Arslan (2003) conducted a study of 400 engineering students to examine their LSPs. The study revealed that all the participants were visual but a high percentage of them were sensing and active learners, rather than intuitive.

Demirkan and Demirbaş (2007), administered Kolb's LS Inventory in their study. They analyzed the probable connection between LS and gender on students of graphic design at a university, but they did not find a remarkable relevance between them.

Kalaça and Gülpınar (2011), examined LS of learners majoring in medicine. Half of the participants favored teacher-in LS, and the other half preferred self-oriented LS. The researchers concluded that the curriculum must be designed according to a learner-oriented approach in the medical schools in Turkey.

Another significant study involving 47 language teachers and 350 ESL learners of six private English courses was carried out by Akgün (2002) to reveal whether gender, age, and level of education affect LSPs. She administered the descriptive method, Willing (1988)'s Inventory on teachers and the Likert Scale on the learners. The results showed that most of the teachers and the learners favored concrete, communicative, teacher-oriented, and analytical LS, respectively. Though the variables such as age and gender did not indicate a relationship with LS, in respect of the education level, post graduate learners selected analytical LS more than the graduate learners. A similar study to determine the LS of 100 learners studying ELT at a state university in Turkey comes from Kara (2009). The results signified that the majority of the learners were auditory and visual in her study.

If we take all these studies into consideration, even though they were conducted on Turkish learners by Turkish researchers, the majority of the students were not studying ELT. Moreover, none of the researchers had ever implemented DeCapua and Wintergerst's (2003) LS Indicator (hereafter LSI) on EFL learners to discover their LSPs, although it was specifically designed for EFL students. İnal, Büyükyavuz, and Tekin (2015) emphasize the deficiency of studies on

LSPs of Turkish learners, saying that very few studies exist in ESL in Turkey. In their study, they investigated the connection between LSPs and other variables such as grade, gender, and academic performances in reading, writing, and speaking through an independent samples t-test on the students studying ELT. Their findings indicate that most of the learners were project and group-oriented. This means that they had a tendency to learn through interaction with their classmates. In this study, they utilized Wintergerst (2003) et al's LSI. According to Wintergerst et al (2003), students of Asian origin, for instance Chinese, Korean and Japanese, are most likely group and project oriented. Hofstede (1980), has remarked on Turkish students' attitude to collaboration with their society and culture in his studies. He categorizes Turkey as one the predominant countries that are in favor of cooperation rather than individuality. Brown (1994) has indicated the tendency of learners to collaboration may influence their LS. Likewise, Ebel (1990), Grebb (1991), and Cavanaugh (2002) have supported the same view (cited in İnal, Büyükyavuz and Tekin, 2015).

İnal, Büyükyavuz, and Tekin (2015), have also found that the participants majoring in ELT have ranked individual-oriented LS as second in their preference scale which seems quite contrary to their first preference which was group-oriented LS. The underlying reason is that the participants of this study were young adults who are subject to mass media which allows interaction with other cultures across the world. In fact, this interaction leads to mutual affection of cultural features and even alteration in the long term. Moreover, the participants in their research were all studying ELT at university in Turkey. In this respect, they were interacting with Western cultures in English as a part of the requirement of their education. This may explain their inclination to individual-oriented LSP. However, these researchers revealed that the study needs to be re-conducted with other groups majoring in different fields, to get more reliable results and reach a conclusion accordingly. In the context of gender, their study indicated that female learners had a tendency towards project-oriented LS than males, whilst male students were more self-oriented; they were more inclined to study on their own, while female learners preferred working in cooperation. This finding supports Dorval's (2000) research which

revealed females' tendency to learn collectively (cited in İnal, Büyükyavuz, and Tekin (2015)).

Another study was conducted by Güneş (2004), on 367 randomly selected English Preparation School students at Gazi University, using Index of LS (ILS). She investigated Turkish students' LSPs and their relationship with certain variables, namely gender, competence in English, and their achievements in reading, listening, writing, and grammar. For data analysis, she conducted a t-test, and Crosstab procedure. Her findings revealed that there was not a notable distinction between learners' performances, gender, disciplines, and proficiency levels and their LSs.

3. METHOD

In the method section, the model of the research is described, the sample group and data collection tools are explained, information about data collection procedure and its analysis are given.

3.1 Research Model

In this research a correlational survey model- one of the quantitative research models – was used, in which, primarily, the relationship between bilingual young adults', the proficiency level of English and learning styles were handled. The Correlational survey model is used in studies to determine the alterations that emerge among two or more variables and to determine the extent of these changes (Karasar, 2014). Also, Descriptive research design was applied to investigate the research problem by collecting quantifiable information to be used in statistical analysis of the participants.

The Correlational survey model is carried out by the use of correlational analysis. It is used to see while the value of one variable changes, whether the value of the other variable changes or not, and to determine the direction of this alteration.

Another aim of this study is to research whether LSPs change according to the participants' gender or not. Therefore, in the application of descriptive statistics of this study, casual-comparative research was also conducted. Casual-comparative research was done in order to determine the causal connection between dependent and independent variables (Karakaya, 2009).

While conducting a casual-comparative research, the reasons and the outcomes of the alterations among the groups were examined without making any changes on the participants. (Büyüköztürk et al., 2012).

3.2 Study Group

The sample group of the study consisted of 30 male and 30 female eighteen year-old young adults who had newly graduated from Sahakyan-Nunyan Armenian Secondary School. The data of the study were collected through face-to-face application of a survey and a Placement Test on September, 18, 2020.

3.3 Data Collection Tools

To acquire the data from the participants, according to the problem of the research, “Demographic Information Form, “English Language Learning Style Preference Questionnaire”, and “Outcomes Placement Test” were used.

3.3.1 The demographic information form

The Demographic Information Form was prepared by the researcher to collect information about the participants’ socio-demographic features. The statutes of age, gender and educational background of the participants that constitute the subject group were determined with the help of this form.

3.3.2 English language learning style preference questionnaire

The data collection from students started off with a survey – “English Language Learning Style Preference Questionnaire”, which was adapted from Reid’s (1987), perceptual learning style preferences questionnaire (see Appendix C). The questionnaire was used to collect information for four purposes: to establish an overview of students’ language learning style preferences; to understand the relationship between students’ language LSPs and different possible variables; to select participants for the subsequent procedures; and to obtain students’ background information. Prior to the survey, the researcher reviewed literature related to the reliability and validity of the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (hereafter PLSPQ) developed by Reid (e.g., DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2005; Wintergerst, DeCapua, & Itzen, 2001; Wintergerst, DeCapua, & Verna, 2003). The self-report questionnaire, adapted from the PLSPQ, was developed by Joy Reid in 1984. The questionnaire was mainly developed to investigate second/foreign language learners’ perceptual learning style preferences. The PLSPQ originally used a

five-point scale: from 1 (“Strongly agree”) to 5 (“Strongly disagree”), with five statements on each type of learning style. The PLSPQ was chosen to be adapted in this research mainly because it is the most widely used one among three common survey instruments in the ESL/EFL field (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2005; Wintergerst et al., 2001).

The following shows the example statements of those learning styles:

1. *Independent learners* – this type of learner prefers learning independently and

prefers solving problems on their own first.

Example: I prefer to solve problems by myself first (instead of relying on a teacher’s

explanation).

2. *Dependent learners*– this type of learner prefers learning in a teacher-centered

approach in which teachers have the role of authority in establishing learning goals and

offering knowledge.

Example: I learn better if teachers prepare lots of handouts for me.

3. *Analytic learners* – this type of learner prefers learning which requires high-order

thinking and cognitive skills.

Example: I prefer teachers to allow me to analyze language concepts (e.g., grammar

and vocabulary) through giving examples.

4. *Teacher-modeling learners* – this type of learner prefers teachers showing them

how to think or do things by direct examples and illustrations.

Example: I learn better if someone can show me how I can apply different language

concepts in different situations.

3.3.3 Outcomes placement test

Outcomes Placement Test Package consists of three sections: Placement Test, Oral Placement Test and Writing Placement Test. The most objective, and the most straightforward to administer is the Placement Test among them. In this study, only the Placement Test was used, consisting of 50 questions, to determine the English Proficiency level of the participants.

The chart on the following page refers to the placement levels of the participants taking the Placement Test. Students were awarded one point for each correct answer, according to the Answer Key provided.

Table 3.1: Levels of Placement Test Scores

Placement Test Results	
Placement Test score (50 items: 1 point per item)	Recommended level of <i>Outcomes</i>
0 – 18 points	<i>Outcomes Elementary</i>
19 – 25 points	<i>Outcomes Pre-Intermediate</i>
26 – 32 points	<i>Outcomes Intermediate</i>
33 – 39 points	<i>Outcomes Upper Intermediate</i>
40 – 46 points	<i>Outcomes Advanced</i>
47 – 50 points	Higher level series recommended.

3.4 Data Collection

Before distributing the questionnaire, the researcher briefly introduced the questionnaire to the students and answered the questions of the students related to it. The students were informed that it was voluntary to do it and the data collected would be confidential. They were given approximately 20 minutes to complete the questions. The questionnaires were collected by the researcher. The students who wished to participate in in-depth interviews related to the study were asked to write contact information.

The data received from the subject group were analyzed by the use of IBM SPSS 24 statistic program. After having determined the statistical analyses to be used according to the hypothesis of the study, the data were analyzed and the

assumptions related to those analyses were tested. During the access of the data to the SPSS program, although there was a variable to minimize error margin of online form usage, the data were checked and their access was accomplished correctly. In order to specify the structural characteristics of the parameters, descriptive analyses were done. During the descriptive analyses, to make sure whether the distribution was normal or not, skewness and kurtosis values were examined. Skewness and Kurtosis values were between -1.500 and +1.500, which indicated that the distribution was normal (Tabacknick & Fidell, 2003).

During the evaluation of the data received from the aforementioned scales in the scope of this research, the accordance of the parameters to normal distribution was evaluated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Normality Test, and the relevance of the data to the normal distribution was confirmed. Due to the normal distribution of the data, parametric tests and analyses were accomplished. In order to see whether there was a significant diversity between the participants' LSPs and demographic features or not, two of the parametric analyses which are t-test and One-Way ANOVA test were performed. To determine from which variable the differentiation in One-Way ANOVA test was caused, Post-Hoc analysis was used. Also, for descriptive statistics of categorical data, Chi-Square Test was used and the significance was evaluated at the level of $p < 0.05$.

Pearson Correlation Test was used to determine the relationship between the total scores and sub-item scores of English Language LSP Questionnaire and the total and sub-item scores of the Outcomes Placement Test.

In correlation analysis, if the correlation coefficient was below 0.20, it was interpreted as "low", 0.20-0.39 as "weak", 0.40-0.59 as "medium", 0.60-0.79 as "high" and 0.80-1.00 as a "very high" level of relationship.

4. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

4.1 Results

Table 4.1: Frequency Distribution Table of Participants by Gender

Gender	n
Female	30
Male	30
Total	60

Participants' gender distribution is shown in Table 4.1.1. Fifty percent of participants are female (n=30) and 50 percent of participants are male (n=30). For the homogeneity of the sample and the normal distribution of the data according to the gender in the study, the participants were selected in equal numbers from both sexes.

Table 4.2: Frequency Distribution Table of ELP Levels

ELP Levels	N	%
Elementary	8	13
Pre-Intermediate	19	32
Intermediate	22	36
Upper Intermediate	5	8
Advanced	5	8
Higher Level	1	2
Total	60	100

The participants' English level is given in Table 4.1.2. Accordingly, 13 percent of participants are elementary (n=8), 32 percent of them are Pre-Intermediate (n=19), 36 percent of them are Intermediate (n=22), eight percent of them are Upper Intermediate (n=5), eight percent of them are Advanced (n=5) and two

percent of them are Higher Level. According to this data, most of the participants were at pre-intermediate and intermediate levels. Therefore, it can be said that the majority of the participants had an intermediary level of English knowledge.

Table 4.3: Frequency Distribution Table of ELP by Gender

ELP	Female		Male	
	n	%	n	%
Elementary	3	5	5	8
Pre-Intermediate	8	13	11	18
Intermediate	15	25	7	12
Upper Intermediate	2	3	3	5
Advanced	2	3	3	5
Higher Level	0	0	1	2

The ELP levels according to the gender of the participants are shown in Table 4.1.3. Accordingly, among 30 female participants, five percent were Elementary (n=3), 13.3 percent were Pre-Intermediate (n=8), 25 percent were Intermediate (n=15), 3.3 percent were Upper Intermediate (n=2) and 3.3 percent were Advanced (n=2). Among 30 male participants, 8.3 percent were Elementary (n=5), 18.3 percent were Pre-Intermediate (n=11), 11.6 percent were Intermediate (n=7), five percent were Upper Intermediate (n=3), five percent were Advanced (n=3) and 1.6 percent were at higher levels (n=1). According to this data, it can be seen that the majority of the male students' ELP level was Pre-intermediate, whereas that of the female students was Intermediate. The table indicates that the ELP levels of the female students were higher than the male students. However, the t-test analysis given in Table 4.1.25 showed that the ELP scores of the participants did not change according to gender.

Table 4.4: Frequency Distribution Table of Visual Sub-Dimension by Gender

Visual	Female		Male	
	N	%	n	%
Negative	3	5	0	0
Minor	20	33	25	42
Major	7	12	5	8

Learning Styles Scale Visual Sub-dimension concerning gender frequency distribution is illustrated in Table 4.1.4. Accordingly, five percent of participants (3 females) had a negative. Seventy-five percent of participants (20 female, 25 male) had minor, and 20 percent of participants (7 female, 5 male) had major LS in VisualSub-dimension. According to these data, it can be seen that both female and male students mostly had a minor learning style for the visual sub-dimension.

Table 4.5: Frequency Distribution Table of Auditory Sub-Dimension by Gender

Auditory	Female		Male	
	N	%	n	%
Negative	1	2	1	2
Minor	22	37	19	32
Major	7	12	10	17

Learning Styles Scale Auditory Sub-dimension by gender frequency distribution is given in Table 4.1.5. Results indicate that 3.3 percent of participants (one female, one male) had negative LS. 68.3 percent of participants (22 females, 19 males) had minor, and 28.3 percent of participants had major LS. Based on this data, we can claim that the minor learning style was the majority for both female and male students in the Auditory sub-dimension.

Table 4.6: Frequency Distribution Table of Kinesthetic Sub-Dimension by Gender

Kinesthetic	N	%	n	%
Negative	2	3	0	0
Minor	13	22	15	25
Major	15	25	15	25

Learning Styles Scale KinestheticSub-dimension by gender frequency distribution is shown in Table 4.1.6. Accordingly, 3.3 percent of participants (two females) had negative LS; whereas 46.6 percent (13 females, 15 males) had minor LS. 50 percent of participants (15 females, 15 males) had major LS in the kinesthetic sub-dimension. According to this data, it can be claimed that students had higher scores in the kinesthetic sub-dimension compared to most other sub-dimensions.

Table 4.7: Frequency Distribution Table of Tactile Sub-Dimension by Gender

Tactile	Female		Male	
	n	%	N	%
Negative	2	3	0	0
Minor	24	40	25	42
Major	4	7	5	8

Learning Styles Scale TactileSub-dimension by gender frequency distribution is given in Table 4.1.7. Accordingly, 3.3 percent of participants (two females) had negative LS. 81.6 percent of participants (24 females, 25 males) had minor LS and 15 percent (four females, five males) had major LS. Accordingly, it can be asserted that the minor sub-dimension constituted the majority for both female and male students in the tactile sub-dimension.

Table 4.8: Frequency Distribution Table of Individual Sub-Dimension by Gender

Individual	n	Female		Male	
		%	N	%	N
Negative	4	7	0	0	0
Minor	10	17	16	27	16
Major	16	27	14	23	16

Learning Styles Scale IndividualSub-dimension by gender frequency distribution is illustrated in Table 4.1.8. Accordingly, 6.6 percent of participants (4 females) had negative LS. 43.3 percent of participants (10 females, 16 males) had minor LS. 50 percent (16 females, 14 males) had major LS. According to this data, it can be said that the students got higher scores in individual sub-dimension compared to most other sub-dimensions.

Table 4.9: Frequency Distribution Table of Group Sub-Dimension by Gender

Group	n	Female		Male	
		%	N	%	N
Negative	10	17	3	5	3
Minor	14	23	21	35	14
Major	6	10	6	10	6

Learning Styles Scale GroupSub-dimension by gender frequency distribution is illustrated in Table 4.1.9. Accordingly, 21.6 percent of participants (10 females, 3 males) had negative LS. 58.3 percent of participants (14 females, 21 males) had minor LS and 20 percent (6 females, 6 males) had major LS. According to this data, it can be seen that both male and female students had a minor learning style for the group sub-dimension.

Table 4.10: Frequency Distribution Table of Independent Sub-Dimension by Gender

	Female		Male	
	n	%	N	%
Independent				
Negative	1	2	0	0
Minor	19	32	13	22
Major	10	17	17	28

Learning Styles Scale IndependentSub-dimension by gender frequency distribution is given in Table 4.1.10. Accordingly, 1.7 percent of participants (1 female) had negative LS. 53.3 percent of participants (19 females, 13 males) had minor LS and 45 percent (10 females, 17 males) had major LS. According to these data, in the independent sub-dimension, while the majority of female students constituted a minor learning style, it has been shown that the majority of male students had a major learning style. Considering the averages, although it was found that the male students got higher scores from this sub-dimension, the difference was not found significant as shown in Table 4.1.32.

Table 4.11: Frequency Distribution table of Dependent Sub-Dimension by Gender

	Female		Male	
	n	%	n	%
Dependent				
Negative	0	0	1	2
Minor	14	23	21	35
Major	16	27	8	13

Learning Styles Scale DependentSub-dimension by gender frequency distribution is given in Table 4.1.11. Accordingly, 1.7 percent of participants (1 male) had negative LS. 58.3 percent of participants (14 females, 21 males) had minor LS. 40 percent of participants (16 females, 8 males) had major LS in this sub-dimension. According to these data, it can be said that while the majority of women in the dependent sub-dimension had a major learning style, the majority of men had a minor learning style.

Table 4.12: Frequency Distribution Table of Teacher-modeling Sub-Dimension by Gender

		Female		Male	
Teacher-modeling	n	%	n	%	
Negative	0	0	0	0	
Minor	15	25	17	28	
Major	15	25	13	22	

Learning Styles Scale Teacher-modeling Sub-dimension by gender frequency distribution is illustrated in Table 4.1.12. Accordingly, no participants had negative LS.53.3 percent of participants (15 females, 17 males) had minor LS. 46.6 percent of participants (15 females, 13 males) had major LS. According to this data, in teacher-modeling sub-dimension, it can be said that most of the students had a minor learning style. While male students had an even more minor learning style in teacher-modeling sub-dimension, female students were equally distributed in minor and major learning styles.

Table 4.13: Frequency Distribution Table of Analytic Sub-Dimension by Gender

		Female		Male	
Analytic	n	%	n	%	
Negative	1	2	0	0	
Minor	25	42	19	32	
Major	4	7	11	18	

Learning Styles Scale Analytic Sub-dimension by gender frequency distribution is given in Table 4.1.13. Results indicate that 1.7 percent of participants (1 female) had negative LS. 73.3 percent of participants (25 females, 19 males) had minor participants and 25 percent (4 females, 11 males) had major LS. According to this data, it can be seen that both male and female students had a minor learning style for the analytic sub-dimension.

Table 4.14: Correlation between ELPscores and Sub-Dimensions

N=60	ELP
Visual	-,304*
Auditory	,208
Kinesthetic	,106
Tactile	-,054
Individual	,087
Group	-,325*
Independent	,040
Dependent	-,173
Teacher-modeling	-,135
Analytic	-,064

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Correlation analyses were done, in Table 4.1.14, to examine the relationship between the participants' ELP scores and each sub-dimension of the Learning Styles Scale. The results indicated a statistically significant negative correlation between Visual Sub-dimension of the Learning Styles Scale and ELP scores ($r = -0,304$, $p < 0,05$). In addition, a statistically significant negative correlation was found between the Group Sub-dimension of Learning Styles Scale and ELP scores ($r = -0.325$, $p < 0.05$). Except these, no relationship was found between the other sub-dimensions of Learning Styles Scale and ELP scores.

Table 4.15: Chi-Square Test for ELP and Visual Sub-Dimension

	Negative			Minor		Major	
	N	%	n	%	n	%	
Visual							
Elementary	0	0,0	6	10,0	2	3,3	
Pre-Intermediate	1	1,7	15	25,0	3	5,0	
Intermediate	1	1,7	15	25,0	6	10,0	
Upper Intermediate	0	0,0	5	8,3	0	0,0	
Advanced	1	1,7	3	5,0	1	1,7	
Higher Level	0	0,0	1	1,7	0	0,0	
Total	3	5,0	45	75,0	12	20,0	

The participants' Visual sub-scores Learning Styles Scale and their ELP levelscale were compared in Table 4.1.15. The findings revealed that 45 participants (75%) had minor learning style in terms of Visual Sub-dimension and the majority of them were at Pre-Intermediate (25%) and Intermediate (25%) levels. In addition, it was found that 12 participants (20%) had the major sub-dimension and 3 participants (5%) had a negative sub-dimension. The findings also indicated that there was no connection among sub-dimensions of the variables ($X^2(10, N=60) = 5.38, p=0,819$).

Table 4.16: Chi-Square Test for ELP and Auditory Sub-Dimension

	Negative		Minor		Major	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
Auditory						
Elementary	0	0,0	8	13,3	0	0,0
Pre-Intermediate	0	0,0	15	25,0	4	6,7
Intermediate	2	3,3	13	21,7	7	11,7
Upper Intermediate	0	0,0	3	5,0	2	3,3
Advance	0	0,0	2	3,3	3	5,0
Higher Level	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	1,7
Total	2	3,3	41	68,3	17	28,3

The participants' Auditory sub scores Learning Styles Scale and their ELP levels scale were compared in Table 4.1.16. The findings revealed that 41 participants (68.3%) had minor learning style in terms of Auditory Sub-dimension and the majority of them were at Pre-Intermediate (25%) and Intermediate (21.7%) levels. It can be seen that all of the participants at Elementary level had a minor learning style in Auditory Sub-dimension. In addition, 17 students (28.3%) had a major learning style, and 2 participants (3.3%) had a negative learning style. The findings also indicated that there was no connection among sub-dimensions of the variables ($X^2(10, N=60) = 13.07, p=0,122$).

Table 4.17: Chi-Square Test for ELP and Kinesthetic Sub-Dimension

Kinesthetic	Negative		Minor		Major	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
Elementary	0	0,0	5	8,3	3	5,0
Pre-Intermediate	1	1,7	6	10,0	12	20,0
Intermediate	1	1,7	12	20,0	9	15,0
Upper Intermediate	0	0,0	2	3,3	3	5,0
Advanced	0	0,0	3	5,0	2	3,3
Higher Level	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	1,7
Total	2	3,3	28	46,7	30	50,0

The participants' Kinesthetic sub scores Learning Styles Scale and their ELP levels scale were compared in Table 4.1.17. The findings revealed that 30 participants (50%) had major learning style in terms of Auditory Sub-dimension and 20 percent of participants were Pre-Intermediate in major learning style. In addition, there were 28 participants (46.7%) in the minor learning style, among which 12 participants (20%) were at the Intermediate level. Finally, there were 2 participants (3.3%) in the negative learning style. The findings also indicated that there was no connection among sub-dimensions of the variables ($X^2(10, N=60) = 5.26, p=0,811$).

Table 4.18: Chi-Square Test for ELP and Tactile Sub-Dimension

Tactile	Negative		Minor		Major	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
Elementary	1	1,7	5	8,3	2	3,3
Pre-Intermediate	0	0,0	15	25,0	4	6,7
Intermediate	2	3,3	16	26,7	4	6,7
Upper Intermediate	0	0,0	4	6,7	1	1,7
Advanced	0	0,0	4	6,7	1	1,7
Higher Level	0	0,0	1	1,7	0	0,0
Total	3	5,0	45	75,0	12	20,0

The participants' Tactile sub scores learning styles scale and their ELP levels scale were compared in Table 4.1.18. The findings revealed that 45 participants (75%) had minor learning style in terms of Tactile Sub-dimension and the majority of them were at Intermediate (26.7%) and Pre-Intermediate (25%) levels. There were 12 students (20%) in the major learning style, and four (6.7%) of these students were pre-intermediate and four (6.7%) were intermediate. Finally, there were three students (5%) in the negative learning style. The findings also indicated that there was no connection among sub-dimensions of the variables ($\chi^2(10, N=60) = 3.82, p=0.926$).

Table 4.19: Chi-Square Test for ELP and Individual Sub-Dimension

Individual	Negative		Minor		Major	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
Elementary	0	0,0	6	10,0	2	3,3
Pre-Intermediate	2	3,3	7	11,7	10	16,7
Intermediate	2	3,3	8	13,3	12	20,0
Upper Intermediate	0	0,0	2	3,3	3	5,0
Advanced	0	0,0	2	3,3	3	5,0
Higher Level	0	0,0	1	1,7	0	0,0
Total	4	6,7	26	43,3	30	50,0

The participants' Individual sub scores on the Learning Styles Scale and their ELP levels scale were compared in Table 4.1.19. The findings revealed that 30 participants (50%) had major learning style in terms of Individual Sub-dimension and the majority of them were at Intermediate (20%) and Pre-Intermediate (16.7%) levels. There were 26 students (43.3%) in the minor learning style and 8 of these students (13.3%) were intermediate, 7 (11.7%) were pre-intermediate and 6 (10%) were elementary. There were four students (6.7%) in the negative learning style. The findings also indicated that there was no connection among sub-dimensions of the variables ($\chi^2(10, N=60) = 6.75, p=0.802$).

Table 4.20: Chi-Square Test for ELP and Group Sub-Dimension

Group	Negative		Minor		Major	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
Elementary	0	0,0	5	8,3	3	5,0
Pre-Intermediate	3	5,0	12	20,0	4	6,7
Intermediate	5	8,3	13	21,7	4	6,7
Upper Intermediate	2	3,3	3	5,0	0	0,0
Advanced	3	5,0	1	1,7	1	1,7
Higher Level	0	0,0	1	1,7	0	0,0
Total	13	21,7	35	58,3	12	20,0

The participants' Group sub-scores Learning Styles Scale and their ELP level scale was compared in Table 4.1.20. The findings revealed that 35 participants (58.3%) had minor learning style in terms of Group Sub-dimension and the majority of them were at Intermediate (21.7%) and Pre-Intermediate (20%) levels. In the negative learning style, there were 13 participants (21.7%) within this sub-dimension and the highest number for this style was reached in the group sub-dimension. Students' low scores on working in groups indicated that students generally preferred working alone. There were 12 participants (20%) in the major sub-dimension. The findings also indicated that there was no connection among sub-dimensions of the variables ($\chi^2(10, N=60) = 10.56, p=0,377$).

Table 4.21: Chi-Square Test for LP and Independent Sub-Dimension

Independent	Negative		Minor		Major	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
Elementary	0	0,0	6	10,0	2	3,3
Pre-Intermediate	0	0,0	9	15,0	10	16,7
Intermediate	0	0,0	14	23,3	8	13,3
Upper Intermediate	0	0,0	2	3,3	3	5,0
Advanced	1	1,7	1	1,7	3	5,0
Higher Level	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	1,7
Total	1	1,7	32	53,3	27	45,0

The participants' Independent sub scores Learning Styles Scale and their ELP levels scale was compared in Table 4.1.21. The findings revealed that 32 participants (53.3%) had minor learning style in terms of Independent Sub-dimension and 23.3 percent of participants were Intermediate in minor learning style. In addition, as it is shown in the table, 27 participants (45%) had a major learning style and 10 participants (16.7%) were at the pre-intermediate level concerning this learning style. There was only one participant (1.7%) who favored negative learning style. The findings also indicated that there was no connection among sub-dimensions of the variables ($X^2(10, N=60) = 16.50, p=0,198$).

Table 4.22: Chi-Square Test for ELP and Dependent Sub-Dimension

Dependent	Negative		Minor		Major	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
Elementary	0	0,0	5	8,3	3	5
Pre-Intermediate	0	0,0	9	15,0	10	16,7
Intermediate	0	0,0	14	23,3	8	8,3
Upper Intermediate	1	1,7	2	3,3	2	3,3
Advanced	0	0	4	6,6	1	1,7
Higher Level	0	0,0	1	1,7	0	0
Total	1	1,7	35	58,3	24	45,0

The participants' Dependent sub scores Learning Styles Scale and their ELP levels scale were compared in Table 4.1.22. The findings revealed that 35 participants (58.3%) had minor learning style in terms of Dependent Sub-dimension and the majority of them were at Intermediate (23.3%) levels. The findings also indicated that there was no connection among sub-dimensions of the variables ($X^2(10, N=60) = 14.25, p=0,444$).

Table 4.23: Chi-Square Test for ELP and Teacher-Modeling Sub-Dimension

Teacher-modeling	Negative		Minor		Major	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
Elementary	0	0,0	3	5,0	5	8,3
Pre-Intermediate	0	0,0	11	18,3	8	13,3
Intermediate	0	0,0	10	16,7	12	20,0
Upper Intermediate	0	0,0	3	5,0	2	3,3
Advanced	0	0,0	4	6,7	1	1,7
Higher Level	0	0,0	1	1,7	0	0,0
Total	0	0,0	32	53,3	28	46,7

The participants' Teacher-modeling sub scores Learning Styles Scale and their ELP levels scale were compared in Table 4.1.23. The findings revealed that 32 participants (53.3%) had minor learning style in terms of Teacher-modeling Sub-dimension and the majority of them were at Pre-Intermediate (13.3%) and Intermediate (16.7%) levels. In addition, as shown, 12 out of 28 participants (46.7%), who had major learning style, were of Intermediate level. In this sub-dimension, there were no participants with a negative learning style. The findings also indicated that there was no connection among sub-dimensions of the variables ($X^2(10, N=60) = 3.90, p=0,627$).

Table 4.24: Chi-Square Test for ELP and Analytic Sub-Dimension

Analytic	Negative		Minor		Major	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
Elementary	0	0,0	7	11,7	1	1,7
Pre-Intermediate	1	1,7	13	21,7	5	8,3
Intermediate	0	0,0	16	26,7	6	10,0
Upper Intermediate	0	0,0	3	5,0	2	3,3
Advanced	0	0,0	4	6,7	1	1,7
Higher Level	0	0,0	1	1,7	0	0,0
Total	1	1,7	44	73,3	15	25,0

The participants' Analytic sub scores Learning Styles Scale and their ELP levels scale were compared in Table 4.1.24. The findings revealed that 44 participants (73.3%) had minor learning style in terms of Analytic Sub-dimension and the majority of them were at Intermediate (26.7%) and Pre-Intermediate (21.7%) levels. There was only one participant (1.7%) with negative learning style in Analytic Sub-dimension where 15 participants (25%) had major learning style. The findings also indicated that there was no connection among sub-dimensions of the variables ($\chi^2(10, N=60) = 3.99, p=0,927$).

Table 4.25: Independent Sample T-Test for ELP and Gender

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Df	F	p
Female	30	26,95	6.39	58		
Male	30	26,74	9.04		2,654	,915
Total	60	26.84	7,76			

$p < 0,05$

An Independent Sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' ELP scores showed differences according to their genders or not. As the results illustrate in Table 4.1.25, there was a significant statistical difference between the average of female learners' ELP scores and that of male learners ($M=26.95, SD= 6.39$) ($M=26.74, SD= 9.04$) $t(58) = 2.654, p=0.915$). Considering the standard deviations as well as the mean scores of the groups, it can be said that the scores of female students were closer to one another than male students. Although the ELP scores of male participants were higher than female participants, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.26: Independent Sample T-Test for Visual Sub-Dimension and Gender

Visual	N	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Female	30	16,56	4,01	58		
Male	30	17,07	2,76		2,001	,566
Total	60	16,81	3,42			

$p < 0,05$

An Independent Sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' average Visual Sub-dimension scores showed differences according to gender or not. The results in Table 4.1.26, indicated that there was not a significant statistical difference between the average female learners' Visual Sub-dimension scores (M=16,56) and that of male learners (M=17,07). ($t_{(58)} = 2,001$, $p > 0,05$). Although the Visual LS scores of male participants were higher than female participants, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.27: Independent Sample T-Test for Auditory Sub-Dimension and Gender

Auditory						
	N	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Female	30	17,31	3,11	58		
Male	30	17,71	3,31		,008	,632
Total	60	17,51	3,19			

$p < 0,05$

An Independent Sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' average Auditory Sub-dimension scores showed differences according to gender or not. The results, in Table 4.1.27, indicated that there was not a significant statistical difference between the average of female learners' Auditory Sub-dimension scores (M=17,31) and that of male learners (M=17,71) ($t_{(58)} = 0,008$, $p > 0,05$). Although male participants' Auditory LS scores were higher than female participants, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.28: Independent Sample T-Test for Kinesthetic Sub-Dimension and Gender

Kinesthetic						
	N	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Female	30	18,96	3,33	58		
Male	30	19,22	1,93		4,500	,713
Total	60	19,09	2,70			

$p < 0,05$

An Independent Sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' average Kinesthetic Sub-dimension scores showed differences according to gender or not. As illustrated in Table 4.1.28, there was not a significant statistical difference between the average of female learners' Kinesthetic Sub-dimension scores (M=18,96) and that of male learners (M=19,22) ($t_{(58)} = 4,500$, $p > 0,05$). Although the Kinesthetic LS scores of male participants were higher than female participants, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.29: Independent Sample T-Test for Tactile Sub-Dimension and Gender

Tactile						
	N	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Female	30	16,82	3,00	58		
Male	30	17,68	3,19		,174	,288
Total	60	17,25	3,10			

$p < 0,05$

An independent sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' average Tactile Sub-dimension scores showed differences according to gender or not. The results, in Table 4.1.29, indicated that there was not a significant statistical difference between the average of female learners' Tactile Sub-dimension scores (M=16,82) and that of male learners (M=17,68) ($t_{(58)} = 0,174$, $p > 0,05$). Although the Tactile LS scores of male participants were higher than female participants, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.30: Independent Sample T-Test for Individual Sub-Dimension and Gender

Individual						
	N	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Female	30	18,45	4,84	58		
Male	30	18,71	2,52		9,520	,791
Total	60	18,58	3,83			

$p < 0,05$

An Independent Sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' average of Individual Sub-dimension scores showed any differences according to gender or not. The results, in Table 4.1.30, indicated that there was not a significant statistical difference between the average of female learners' Individual Sub-dimension scores (M=18,45) and that of male learners (M=18,71). ($t_{(58)} = 9,521$, $p > 0,05$). Although the Individual LS scores of male participants were higher than female participants, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.31: Independent Sample T-Test for Group Sub-Dimension and Gender

Group	N	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Female	30	13,47	4,71	58		
Male	30	16,29	3,91		1,996	,015
Total	60	14,88	4,52			

$p < 0,05$

An independent sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' averages of Group Sub-dimension scores showed differences according to gender or not. The results, in Table 4.1.31, indicated that there was not a significant statistical difference between the average of female learners' Group Sub-dimension scores (M=13,47) and that of male learners (M=16,29) ($t_{(58)} = 1,996$, $p < 0,05$). In the Group LS, the scores of male participants were higher than females.

Table 4.32: Independent Sample T-Test for Independent Sub-Dimension and Gender

Independent	N	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Female	30	18,13	2,95	58		
Male	30	19,45	2,49		,928	,067
Total	60	18,79	2,79			

$p < 0,05$

An independent sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' average Independent Sub-dimension scores showed differences according to gender or not. The results, in Table 4.1.32, indicated that there was not a significant statistical difference between the average of female learners' Independent Sub-dimension scores (M=18,13) and that of male learners (M=19,45). ($t_{(58)} = 0,928$, $p > 0,05$). Although the Independent LS scores of male participants were higher than females, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.33: Independent Sample T-Test for Dependent Sub-Dimension and Gender

Dependent						
	N	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Female	30	19,80	2,59	58		
Male	30	18,01	3,22		,585	,022
Total	60	18,90	3,03			

$p < 0,05$

An independent sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' average Dependent Sub-dimension scores showed differences according to gender or not. The results, in Table 4.1.33, indicated that there was not a significant statistical difference between the average of female learners' Dependent Sub-dimension scores (M=19,80) and that of male learners (M=18,01). ($t_{(58)} = 0,585$, $p < 0,05$). Female participants scored higher than males for the dependent learning style. This statistical difference was highly significant as females mostly preferred dependent LS; whereas, males preferred independent LS.

Table 4.34: Independent Sample T-Test for Teacher-modeling Sub-Dimension and Gender

Teacher Modeling						
	N	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Female	30	19,36	2,38	58		
Male	30	19,03	2,20		,140	,576
Total	60	19,20	2,28			

$p < 0,05$

An independent sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' average Teacher-modeling Sub-dimension scores showed differences according to gender or not. The results, in Table 4.1.34, indicated that there was not a significant statistical difference between the average of female learners' Teacher-modeling Sub-dimension scores (M=19,36) and those of male learners (M=19,03). ($t_{(58)} = 0,140$, $p > 0,05$). Although the Teacher-modeling LS scores of female participants were higher than male participants, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.35: Independent Sample T-Test for Analytic Sub-Dimension and Gender

Analytic						
	N	Mean	SD	df	F	P
Female	30	17,30	2,61	58		
Male	30	18,46	2,47		,249	,081
Total	60	17,88	2,58			

$p < 0,05$

An independent sample t-test was conducted to see whether the participants' average Analytic Sub-Dimension showed differences according to gender or not. The results, in Table 4.1.35, indicated that there was not a significant statistical difference between the average of female learners' Analytic Sub-dimension scores (M=17,30) and that of male learners (M=18,46). ($t_{(58)} = 0,249$, $p > 0,05$). Although the Analytic LS scores of male participants were higher than female participants, this difference was not statistically significant.

Table 4.36: Correlation among Sub-Dimensions

	Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic	Tactile	Individual	Group	Independent	Dependent	Teacher-modeling	Analytic
Visual	1									
Auditory	-.232	1								
Kinesthetic	-.062	,321*	1							
Tactile	,494**	-,015	-,017	1						
Individual	,349**	-,122	-,009	,507**	1					
Group	,208	,137	,136	,062	-,361**	1				
Independent	,184	,252	,070	,274*	,394**	-,112	1			
Dependent	,208	-,009	,198	,363**	,239	-,119	,152	1		
Teacher-modeling	,312*	-,074	,217	,460**	,248	,105	,078	,528**	1	
Analytic	,178	,324*	,414**	,311*	,125	,314*	,285*	-,035	,315*	1

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

The correlation among the scores of the participants in each sub-dimension of the Learning Styles Scale is shown in Table 4.1.36. Accordingly, a positive and statistically significant correlation was found between the Visual and the Tactile Sub-dimensions. ($r: 0,494, p < 0,01$). Likewise, there was a positive and statistically significant correlation between the Visual and the Individual Sub-dimensions ($r: 0.349, p < 0.01$). Finally, a positive and significant relationship was found between the Visual and the Teacher-modeling Sub-dimensions ($r: 0.312, p < 0.05$).

A positive and statistically significant relationship was found between the Auditory and the Kinesthetic subscales of Learning Styles Scale ($r: 0.321, p < 0.05$). In addition, a positive and statistically significant relationship was found between the Auditory and the Analytic Sub-dimensions ($r: 0.324, p < 0.05$). There was a high level of positive and statistically significant correlation between the Kinesthetic and the Analytic subscales. ($r: 0.414, p < 0.01$).

There were quite a lot of sub-dimensions related to the Tactile Sub-dimension. A positive and statistically significant relationship was found between the Tactile and the Individual Sub-dimension ($r: 0.507, p < 0.01$). Again, there was a highly positive and statistically significant relationship between Tactile and the Dependent Sub-dimensions ($r: 0.363, p < 0.01$). Likewise, a highly positive correlation was found between the Tactile and the Teacher modeling Sub-dimensions ($r: 0.460, p < 0.01$).

Statistically, a positive relationship was found between the Tactile Subscale and the Independent Subscale ($r: 0.274, p < 0.05$). Likewise, there was a positive and statistically significant relationship between Tactile and Analytic Sub-dimensions ($r: -0.311, p < 0.05$).

A highly negative and statistically significant correlation was found between the Individual Sub-dimension of the Learning Styles Scale and the Group Sub-dimension ($r: -0.361, p < 0.01$). A statistically significant and positive correlation was found between the Individual and the Independent Subscales ($r: 0.394, p < 0.01$).

A positive and statistically significant relationship was found between the Group Sub-dimension and the Analytic Sub-dimension ($r: 0.334, p < 0.05$).

There was also a statistically significant and positive relationship between the Analytic and the Independent Sub-dimensions ($r: 0.285, p < 0.05$).

A positive and statistically significant relationship was found between the Teacher-modeling Sub-dimension of the Learning Styles Scale and the Dependent Sub-dimension ($r: 0.528, p < 0.01$). This significant relationship had the highest correlation among the sub-dimensions. Finally, a positive and statistically significant correlation was found between the teacher modeling and the analytic sub-dimensions ($r: 0.315, p < 0.05$).

4.2 Discussion and Conclusion

The relationship between bilingual young learners' English level proficiency and learning style was primarily searched in this study. The study group consisted of 30 girls and 30 boys aged 18.

There are many studies on the importance of learning styles in ESL education and the effect of activities based on learning styles on ESL learning and teaching processes. The research conducted by Güven (2007), revealed that the learning environments in which activities based on learning styles were done had a positive effect on students' acquisition, attitudes and the retention of data. Aliakbari and Tazik (2011), based on the findings of their research, argued that determination of LS according to learners' preferences would significantly contribute to their ESL learning and these differences should be taken into account in the teaching process. Kırkgöz and Doğanay (2003), expressed that compatibility of teaching with learners' learning styles had a positive effect on learning in EFL classes, yet they drew attention to the difficulty of achieving this. They argued that it was possible to comply with different students' LSPs by the use of different teaching activities, materials and strategies. Atli (2012), stated that taking individual differences such as learning styles, motivation and attitudes into account had an undeniable effect on teaching L2. Hansen (2006: 31), also stated that learning styles were one of the factors that significantly affected L2 learning process. All these researchers emphasized how important it was to specify learners' LSPs and to design the lessons according to their styles.

All the participants in this study had Turkish-Armenian ethnicity; therefore, Turkish and Armenian were their first languages and English was their second language. LS of males and females were examined and it was seen that the highest learning style was dependent among women and independent among men.

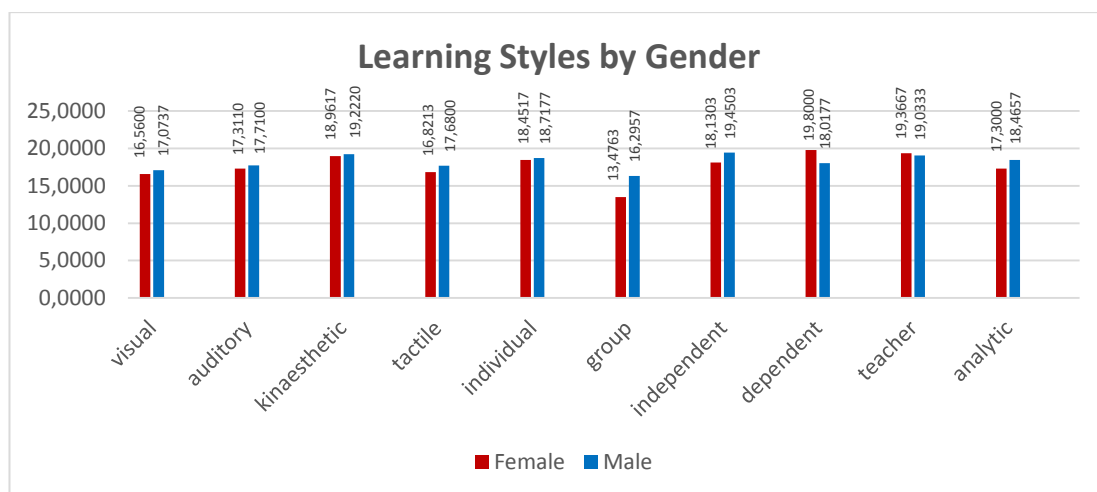


Figure 4.1: Learning Styles by Gender

In the study conducted by Park (2002), the relationship between ethnic origin and learning style was determined. Students who made up the study group had; Armenian (n = 302), African (n = 141), Spanish (n = 288), Sino-Vietnamese-Thai (n = 136), Korean (n = 305), Mexican (n = 738) and British (n = 355) origins. In Park's research, also, the learning styles inventory developed by Reid was applied. According to the research findings, it was stated that LSPs were interconnected with ethnicity, gender, and graduation scores. In the research; it was found that Spanish students were mostly auditory and kinesthetic; Vietnam-Thai, Korean and Armenian origin students had more visual learning styles.

In this study, some data does not coincide with the findings of the research conducted by Park on the learning styles of Armenian origin students. In Park's research, it was stated that the students of Armenian origin had dominantly visual learning styles, but the results of the analysis indicated that female students preferred dependent, while boys preferred independent LS. However, regardless of their origin, the visual sub-dimension is the second last among all the participants.

The reason why the research results differ from Park's research may be due to the effect of cultural psychology. The participants in this study received their education according to the criteria set by the ministry of education in Turkey and they were raised in traditional Turkish society. The fact that female students have dependent learning styles, while male students have independent learning styles, completely opposite to the dependent dimension, can be explained by the gender effect in this study.

Another result in Park's research was that female students had a more kinesthetic learning style and male students had a tactile learning style. However, in this study, the scores of male students' scores in both kinesthetic and tactile learning styles were higher than those of female students. This can be explained on the culture effect.

Another finding of the study is related to the low scores in the group sub-dimension. Learning style is a culture related concept. Turkey has a relatively traditional cultural structure. All participants in this study were Armenian high school graduate students living in Turkey. In many studies investigating learning styles, it is noteworthy that students growing up in traditional cultures such as China and Japan have high 'group' dimension scores. In contrast to the data in the literature, although the participants in this study were raised according to traditional culture, their group sub-scale scores were lower than expected.

When the English proficiency levels of the participants were examined in the study, it was seen that the majority of them were at an Intermediate level. The chart below shows the ELP scores of the participants according to their gender. They are evenly distributed among male and female participants.

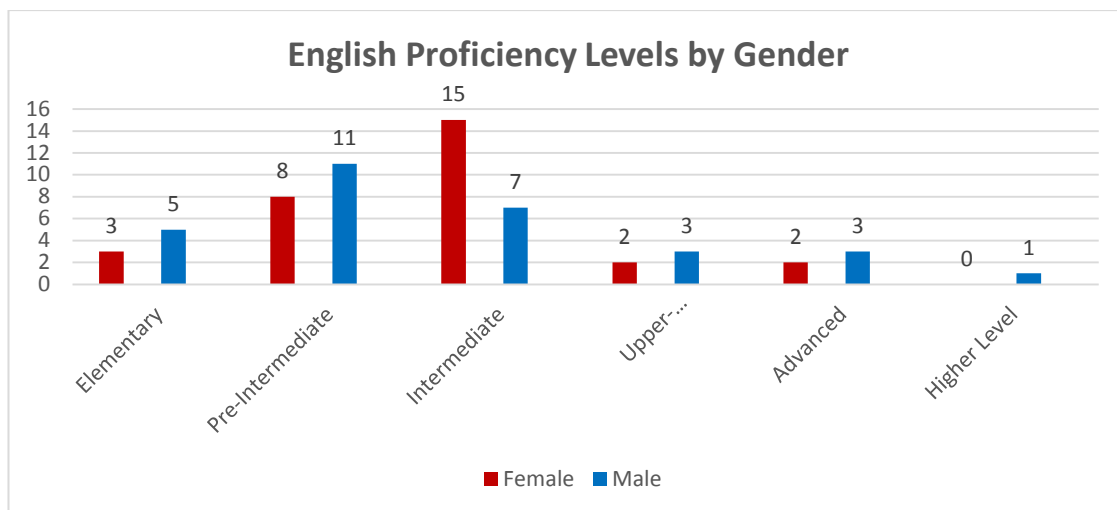


Figure 4.2: English Proficiency Levels by Gender

The research question of the study, "Is there a relationship between the English proficiency level of bilingual young adults and their learning styles?" was examined for each learning style. Research results revealed that there was only a relationship between visual and group and English level among ten learning styles. There is no relationship between the remaining eight dimensions and the level of English. The relationship between the participants' ELP levels and the group and visual sub-dimensions is negative.

Table 4.37: Correlation between ELP Scores and Sub-Dimensions

Sub-Dimensions	ELP	
	Correlation	p
Visual	-0,304	0,018
Auditory	0,208	0,11
Kinesthetic	0,106	0,42
Tactile	-0,054	0,685
Individual	0,087	0,509
Group	-0,325	0,011
Independent	0,04	0,759
Dependent	-0,173	0,187
Teacher-modeling	-0,135	0,303
Analytic	-0,064	0,626

On a similar topic, Wai Lam Heidi Wong's (2015), study showed that students with a higher English language proficiency tended to have a higher tendency towards unconventional learning styles. Likewise, this research revealed that the students with high ELP scores preferred conventional LS such as visual and group LS the least. The negative relationship between the scores in these two styles and ELP scores indicated that the students with high ELP scores did not have much 'learning flexibility' towards visual and group LS.

Further data that needs to be discussed in the research results is the relationship among LS sub-dimensions. In this table, it is seen that the analytic dimension is associated with all other dimensions, while the group dimension is not associated with any other dimensions except individual dimension. There is a high level of positive correlation between the dependent dimension, which was mostly preferred by female students, and teacher-modeling. The correlative relationship between the independent dimension of male students and individual is highly significant in a positive way. Both data are parallel to the literature and are statistically significant. Another finding is that there is a negative correlation between the scores in the auditory dimension and the scores in the visual dimension. In this case, it can be said that the participants preferred either the visual or the auditory style. It is seen that 'learning flexibility' is low in these two sub-dimensions.

While interpreting the results of the research, it should be kept in mind that the concept of learning style is a flexible concept that differs according to culture, personality traits, students' educational background, goals, interests and preferences. All the data obtained within the scope of the research should be interpreted considering the variables above. For the development of this study, further research can be carried out by including all the other variations above to see whether they change the results or not.

The research topic has a unique value as it has rarely been researched among bilingual learners in Turkey. However, it can be suggested to researchers who want to work on the same topic, to examine the teaching styles of teachers as well as their learning styles, and to examine the "matching theory" effect between these two concepts. In addition, by designing an experimental study, more tangible data can be obtained. I would suggest classifying the participants

according to their learning styles and teach English according to their LSPs for a certain period of time, and evaluate their performances in English systematically, to make sure about its effectiveness. Last but not least, for the development of this study, I would suggest researchers conduct the research on students who have a different cultural background. The data obtained can contribute to literature in cultural psychology.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A: A Study of English Language Learning Styles Preferences of Sahakyan-Nunyan Armenian High School Students

Appendix B: Demographic Form for Students

Appendix C: Learning Style Preference Questionnaire for Students

Appendix D: Ethical Approval Form

Appendix A:

A Study of English Language Learning Styles Preferences of Sahakyan-Nunyan Armenian High School Students

Consent Form for Students

I have read the information sheet and understand what will be required of me if I participate in the research.

I have been given a full explanation of this project and have been given an opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any stage without penalty.

I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and that any published or reported results will not identify me and my college.

I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities at the İstanbul Aydın University and/or in password protected electronic form and will be destroyed after three years.

I understand that I can receive a copy of the report on the findings of the study.

I understand that I can get more information about this project from the researcher and that I can contact Istanbul Aydın University Ethics Committee if I have any complaints about the research.

By signing below, I agree / disagree* to participate in this research project.

I agree/disagree* to complete the attached self-reported questionnaire.

I agree/disagree* to attend a 30-minute semi-structured group interview with five or six students in the context of this study. I understand that the group interview will be tape-recorded for transcription purposes and further data checking only, and all participants of the interview will be asked to treat what is shared in confidence.

**Please delete as appropriate.*

Name: _____ Signature: _____
_____ Date: _____ Email address for
report (Optional): _____ If you agree to attend a sharing
session, please leave your contact number.
Contact No.: _____

*Please return this consent form in the sealed envelope to your class teacher.
Thankyou.*

Appendix B:

Demographic Form for Students

Gender: *Male / Female (*Please delete as appropriate.)

Age: _____

Programme: * Associate Degree / BA Degree/ High School Diploma

Year of Study: *1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / ---

Major Field (e.g., Arts, IT, Social Sciences): _____

Place of Origin: Turkey/ Other (Please specify): _____

First Languages: * _____

Second Language: * _____

Where did you receive secondary education?

“♦ English-medium secondary school in Turkey

“♦ Turkish-medium secondary school in Turkey

“♦ International school in Turkey

“♦ Sahakyan-Nunyan Armenian School

“♦ Local secondary school in Turkey

“♦ Local secondary school in English-speaking countries

“♦ Other(s) (Please specify): _____

What was your highest educational qualification before the admission to the Associate Degree / Higher Diploma programme?

“♦ Form Seven / Grade 13 “♦ Form Six / Grade 12 “♦ Form Five / Grade 11 “♦ Pre-

Associate Degree / Foundation Diploma

“♦ Other (Please specify): _____

Appendix C

Learning Style Preference Questionnaire for Students

Directions

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

Read each statement on the following pages. Please respond to the statements quickly, without too much thought. Try not to change your responses after you choose them.

Read each statement on the following pages. Please respond to the statements
This questionnaire uses the following rating scale when responding to each item:

6	5	4	3	2	1
Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

For example, if you agree with the statement, please circle.

	6	5	4	3	2	1
1. I think students learn best by reading what I write on the board and/or PowerPoint presentations.	6	5	4	3	2	1
2. Students learn better in class with oral instructions.	6	5	4	3	2	1
3. I like giving students practical work in class. (E.g., Practice writing a good introduction in an academic writing lesson.)	6	5	4	3	2	1
4. I think students learn more by making something by themselves. (E.g., Giving a poster presentation.)	6	5	4	3	2	1
5. I try to encourage students to work with each other.	6	5	4	3	2	1
6. I think students learn best by working on individual tasks.	6	5	4	3	2	1
7. I encourage students to solve problems by themselves first (instead of relying on teacher's explanation).	6	5	4	3	2	1
8. Lecturing is a significant part of how I teach each lesson.	6	5	4	3	2	1
9. I like class activities which allow students to analyze problems.	6	5	4	3	2	1
10. I like providing students with lots of examples to illustrate language concepts (e.g., grammar and vocabulary).	6	5	4	3	2	1

11. I think students learn better with written instructions.	6	5	4	3	2	1
12. I think students learn better if they do things in class. (E.g., Jotting down vocabulary meanings, instead of relying on handouts given by teachers.)	6	5	4	3	2	1
13. Students learn more when they make something for a class project. (E.g., Collecting and summarizing readings for a class project.)	6	5	4	3	2	1
14. Students learn more when they study with other students.	6	5	4	3	2	1
15. Students learn better when they work alone.	6	5	4	3	2	1
16. I like designing activities that allow students to explore topics which they are interested in.	6	5	4	3	2	1
17. I think students learn better if I prepare lots of handouts for them.	6	5	4	3	2	1
18. When possible, I give students models of successful work from other people when giving assignments.	6	5	4	3	2	1
19. I think students remember things they have heard in class better than things they have read.	6	5	4	3	2	1
20. I think students enjoy learning in class by doing practical work. (E.g., Practicing how to cite an article in class, instead of reading referencing manuals given by the teachers.)	6	5	4	3	2	1
21. When possible, I explain language concepts by making drawings (e.g., concept mapping / mind mapping).	6	5	4	3	2	1
22. I prefer to give students lots of guidelines and reference materials when giving assignments.	6	5	4	3	2	1
23. I prefer to give students opportunities to ask and respond to questions.	6	5	4	3	2	1
24. I like showing students how they can apply different language concepts in different situations.	6	5	4	3	2	1
25. I think students understand language concepts (e.g., grammar and vocabulary) better with written notes than oral explanation.	6	5	4	3	2	1
26. I think students learn better when listening to a lecture (instead of reading a book).	6	5	4	3	2	1
27. I think students understand things better in class with active activities (e.g., role-playing).	6	5	4	3	2	1

28. I think asking students to construct something helps them remember things better. (E.g., Writing and organizing their own notes for revision.)	6	5	4	3	2	1
29. Students enjoy working on assignments with two or three classmates.	6	5	4	3	2	1
30. I think having personal consultation with my students helps them understand new concepts or things that they do not understand.	6	5	4	3	2	1
31. I encourage students to find out more about a topic which they are interested in on their own first, instead of relying on teachers.	6	5	4	3	2	1
32. Students learn better when they can evaluate on other people's work. (E.g., Evaluating on other students' essays in an academic writing lesson.)	6	5	4	3	2	1
33. I think students learn more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.	6	5	4	3	2	1
34. I think students learn better with instructions that allow them to hear what they are learning.	6	5	4	3	2	1
35. I think students learn better when they study with others.	6	5	4	3	2	1
36. I think students prefer to work by themselves.	6	5	4	3	2	1
37. When students don't understand something, I try to encourage them to figure it out for themselves first.	6	5	4	3	2	1
38. In class, I like spending most of the time on explanation when presenting new concepts.	6	5	4	3	2	1
39. I encourage students to analyze language concepts (e.g., grammar and vocabulary) through giving examples.	6	5	4	3	2	1
40. I think students learn better if I can show them how to do things or demonstrate ways of thinking. (E.g., Showing how to work out the answers in class.)	6	5	4	3	2	1

Thank you for your contribution!

Appendix D: Ethical Approval Form

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 15.04.2020-1497



T.C.
İSTANBUL AYDIN ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 88083623-020
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Sayın Ayda TANDIRCI

Tez çalışmanızda kullanmak üzere yapmayı talep ettiğiniz anketiniz İstanbul Aydın Üniversitesi Etik Komisyonu'nun 18.03.2020 tarihli ve 2020/02 sayılı kararıyla uygun bulunmuştur.
Bilgilerinize rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Dr.Öğr.Üyesi Alper FİDAN
Müdür Yardımcısı

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2007 - 2009 Bahçeşehir High School

2000 - 2007 Sahakyan - Nunyan Private Armenian Primary School

Languages:

-Turkish: Native Language

-English: Advanced

-Armenian: Advanced

,

Skills:

-Communication, Teamwork, Problem Solving, Flexibility, Creativity

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