

**THE ROLE OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVEL, PERSONAL AND  
AFFECTIVE FACTORS PREDICTING LANGUAGE PREPARATORY  
SCHOOL STUDENTS' ACADEMIC SUCCESS**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO  
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES  
OF  
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY**

**BY**

**GÖKÇEN AYDIN**

**IN PARTIAL FULLFILMENT OF REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE  
OF  
MASTER OF SCIENCE  
IN  
THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES**

**SEPTEMBER 2012**

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

---

Prof. Dr. Meliha Altunışık  
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

---

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Demir  
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science in Educational Sciences.

---

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Oya Yerin Güneri  
Supervisor

**Examining Committee Members**

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Oya Yerin Güneri (METU, EDS)

Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Daloğlu (METU, FLE)

Assist. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer (METU, EDS)

---

---

---

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

Last Name, Name: Aydın, Gökçen

Signature:

## **ABSTRACT**

### **THE ROLE OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVEL, PERSONAL AND AFFECTIVE FACTORS PREDICTING LANGUAGE PREPARATORY SCHOOL STUDENTS' ACADEMIC SUCCESS**

Aydın, Gökçen

M.S. Department of Educational Sciences

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Oya Yerin Güneri

September 2012, 111 pages

This study investigated the role of demographic factors, English proficiency level, personal and affective factors in predicting language preparatory school students' academic success. Participants of the study were 415 Department of Basic English students (158 pre-intermediate level, 158 intermediate level and 99 upper-intermediate level students) from a state university in Turkey. As data collection instrument, demographic information form, College Learning Effectiveness Inventory and Affective Characteristics Questionnaire were used. Multiple regression analysis was utilized to find the significant predictors. The results indicated that 53 % of the total variance was explained with the model. Among the predictor variables, English proficiency level, classroom communication, stress and time press and English self concept were found to be significant predictors of language achievement. The findings showed that students who had high proficiency level, better communication skills within the class, high English self concept and felt more stressful through the studies achieved higher scores in English Proficiency Exam.

Keywords: Academic success, personal factors, affective factors, effective learning

## ÖZ

### HAZIRLIK OKULU ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN AKADEMİK BAŞARISINI YORDAMADA İNGİLİZCE DİL SEVİYESİ, KİŞİSEL VE BİLİŞSEL FAKTÖRLERİN ROLÜ

Aydın, Gökçen

Yüksek Lisans, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Oya Yerin Güneri

Eylül 2012, 111 Sayfa

Bu çalışma, demografik özelliklerin, İngilizce yeterlilik düzeyinin, kişisel ve bilişsel faktörlerin İngilizce hazırlık okulu öğrencilerinin akademik başarılarını etkilemedeki rolünü incelemiştir. Çalışmanın katılımcılarını, Türkiye’de bir devlet üniversitesinin Temel İngilizce Bölümü’nde okuyan 415 (158 orta altı düzey, 158 orta düzey ve 99 orta üstü düzey) öğrenci oluşturmuştur. Veri toplama aracı olarak, kişisel bilgi formu, Üniversitede Etkili Öğrenme Envanteri ve İngilizceye Yönelik Tutumlar ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Başarıyı etkileyen değişkenleri bulmak amacıyla çoklu regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Model toplam varyansın % 53’ünü açıklamıştır. Analiz sonuçları, dil seviyesinin, sınıf içi iletişimin, stres ve zaman faktörünün ve İngilizceye yönelik kendini algılama değişkenlerinin yabancı dil öğrenme başarısını anlamlı bir şekilde yordadığını göstermiştir. Bulgular, hâlihazırda dil seviyesi yüksek olan, sınıf içinde iyi iletişim kurabilen, İngilizce benlik kavramı yüksek olan ve kendini daha stresli hisseden öğrencilerin İngilizce Yeterlilik Sınavı’ndan yüksek notlar aldığını göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Akademik başarı, kişisel faktörler, bilişsel faktörler, etkili öğrenme

To my grandfather whose passing away caused a great emptiness in my life

and

To my beloved family who are the most precious people I have had in my life

## ACKNOWLEDMENT

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Oya Yerin Güneri for her guidance and encouragement throughout my graduate study. I owe a great deal to her knowledge, kindness, understanding and valuable supervision which made things a lot easier for me in this process. I would not have succeeded without her support.

I must also thank to my other committee members Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Daloğlu and Assist. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer for their support and thoughtfulness in reviewing this research.

My special thanks go to Department of Basic English Administration; particularly Özlem Atalay and Zeynep Alganatay, and the instructors who helped me through data collection process and the students who were voluntary to participate in the study.

In particular, no words can fully express my gratitude to my beloved mother and father for their love throughout my life, never ending patience and eternal support in every phases of this process. My brother and sister, thank you for believing in me. I cannot be so powerful without you.

I am also indebted to my close friends who helped me through the challenging times and always believed in me, were always there in need of support, encouragement, resources, innovative ideas, and most importantly friendship and love; in particular and foremost Görkem Kumaş, Yıldız Dirmit, Duygu Toklucu, Eda Durkan, Funda Barutçu, Pınar Çağ and Nur Gülmez. I cannot express how important you are in my life.

I want to thank to Rana Ceylandağ for her valuable contribution. Additionally, I thank to Duygu Yumurtacı for her help and support though being in the same difficult process. I thank to my cousin Kerim Bozoklu for his precious help; Güllü Taşkırان and Kiraz Gümüş for their kindness and my relatives for believing in me. All in all, my friends, who gave even a little support, thank you a lot for being there with me.

Thank you all for making me smile in this difficult process.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
ÖZ.....	v
DEDICATION.....	vi
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	ix
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xiii
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background to the Study.....	1
1.2 Purpose of the Study.....	7
1.3 Significance of the Study.....	7
1.4 Definitions of Terms.....	9
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	11
2.1 The Theoretical Bases of College Student Success.....	11
2.2 The Importance of First Year College Student Success.....	13
2.3 Factors Associated with First Year Student Success.....	15
2.4 Factors Associated with Personal Variables .....	18
2.4.1 Academic Self Efficacy .....	20
2.4.2 Organization and Attention to the Study .....	22
2.4.3 Time Utilization and Stress.....	23



4.2 Correlation Coefficients, Means and Standard Deviations among Predictor Variables and Criterion Variables.....	54
4.3 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis .....	57
4.3.1 Assumptions.....	57
4.3.2 Findings of Multiple Regression Analysis .....	61
4.4 Summary.....	64
5. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS .....	65
5.1 Discussion of the Results.....	65
5.2 Implications for Practice .....	72
5.3 Recommendations for Further Research.....	75
REFERENCES.....	76
APPENDICES	
A. KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU.....	103
B. ÜNİVERSİTEDE ETKİLİ ÖĞRENME ENVANTERİ.....	105
C. İNGİLİZCEYE YÖNELİK TUTUMLAR ÖLÇEĞİ.....	108
D. TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU.....	111

## LIST OF TABLES

### TABLES

Table 3.1 Demographic Information of the Participants.....	41
Table 4.1 Intercorrelations among the Predictor Variables of English Achievement Score.....	56
Table 4.2 Tolerance and VIF Values of Predictor Variables.....	59
Table 4.3 Results of the Regression Analysis for English Language Achievement.....	62

## LIST OF FIGURES

### FIGURE

Figure 4.1 Histogram for students' English Proficiency Exam Scores.....	58
Figure 4.2 P-P plot for students' English Proficiency Exam Scores.....	58
Figure 4.3 Scatterplot for English Proficiency Exam Scores .....	60

## **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides background information to the study, problem statement, purpose, significance of the study and definition of terms.

#### **1.1 Background to the Study**

Education is one of the most important and necessary experiences during which a person expands knowledge, world view and personality. Sockett (1988) contributes to the scope of education by stating: “Education is, at least, the endeavor to get people to do things they could not previously do, to understand things they did not previously understand, and perhaps, to become the people they did not expect to become” (p.195). Through formal and informal education, students aim at progressing in life. This progress constitutes of primary, secondary and higher education (Istance, Schuetze & Schuller, 2002; Martin, 2009).

Having higher education or completion of a college degree is important in today’s world, which has led to a great amount of increase in number of students attending higher education, nearly four times compared to 70’s (Nguyen, 2011). Much of the growth in higher education is seen in developing countries (Altbach, 2011). The value attached to higher education is not only because of its contribution to qualified graduates but also to economy, advanced scientific and technological modernity, international transmission and enhanced personal development (Nguyen, 2011). Thus, the vision of universities reaches forth beyond the campus by providing

social transformation and politically engaged citizens (Slocum & Rhoads, 2009, p. 102). According to Trowler (2010), institutions of higher education have never been considered as substantial as ever in developing countries before by satisfying students, attracting their attention and ensuring their being successful and productive citizens recently.

Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC) (2001) identifies the role of higher education beyond walls. The association concludes that student success is not only required for universities but also for the country and communities. As the importance of higher education is great for the country, the quality of institution is given priority before others. As a matter of fact, institution quality is linked to students' academic success and actual learning (Coates, 2005; Kuh, 2009); otherwise, unsuccessful students may impose bad reputation on the university (Johnston, 2010; Vivekananda et al., 2003). Likewise, students' participation in academic and non-academic activities leading to success increases the quality of university indirectly (Pascarella, Seifert & Blaich, 2010) and this quality of the university has been one of the top indicators of marketing the properties of the university as well (NSSE, 2009). In addition, student success gives some data to the administration of the universities in order to increase the quality of activities or organize new activities for learning process (Krause & Coates, 2008).

The college education requires time, effort and money (Astin, 1996). Therefore, both students and institutions desire spending these years with an optimum success. One of the main and essential concerns of educators is to have successful students who are willing to achieve learning goals set by themselves and

the institution they attend, to attain the skills required by the challenges of twenty-first century (Kuh, 2009). Higher education system also values student success because it makes it available to monitor and measure; at the same time to use this data for future improvement of the process (Trowler, 2010, p. 31). In recent years, modern education systems have changed their view from “How should we teach students?” to “How should we help students learn?” in order to improve student success. It means that student success is not only under the responsibility of students and faculty but also it is a campus-wide responsibility (Hunter, 2006).

Regarding the literature, college success or achievement is a complex term to define because there are different factors coming from institutional and personal sides such as the type of program or demographic characteristics respectively (Mills, Heyworth, Rosenwax & Carr, 2009; Toutkoushian & Smart, 2001). To measure student success, Pike and Kuh (2005) take into consideration the significance of students’ characteristics, behaviors and expectations, their college attendance and effort. However, according to Finn and Rock (1997), academic success means graduating from the institution on time along with passing grades.

Until recent years, college success has been measured by achievement tests (Brooks & DuBois, 1995). However, recent studies have indicated that success means more than grades and it has been defined in several ways including the whole student and having many dimensions beyond cognitive and academic sides (Hunter, 2006). College success is defined by Kim, Newton, Downey and Benton (2010) as “acceptable grade averages, retention toward a degree and attainment of productive

life skills” (p. 112). Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges and Hayek (2006) look at the issue from different perspective by stating:

“Student success is also linked with a plethora of desired student and personal development outcomes that confer benefits on individuals and society. These include becoming proficient in writing, speaking, critical thinking, scientific literacy, and quantitative skills and more highly developed levels of personal functioning represented by self-awareness, confidence, self-worth, social competence, and sense of purpose” (p. 5).

To date, the factors influencing success are extensively studied by researchers. According to Pritchard and Wilson (2003), emotional and social factors are crucially related to student success and there is a strong impact of psychological variables on students’ academic success through students’ adjustment to college. Revealingly, positive student-faculty interaction outside of the classroom affects the grade point averages of students (Anaya & Cole, 2001; Cox, McIntosh, Terenzini, Reason & Lutovsky Quaye, 2009). Moreover, as offered by Blackburn and Lawrence (1995), institutional environment of colleges such as resources has an influence over expectations which affect student learning and engagement in a roundabout way. Recently, with the change in perspective of factors effecting student success (Kuh et al., 2006), student engagement has played the key role on success by having three dimensions like behavioral, emotional and cognitive engagement to college (Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004).

Many research studies are conducted to explain the importance of success in college education (Bowman, 2010; Hunter, 2006; Kuh et al., 2006). However, as the starting point of college experience, first year college student success is also

considered as substantial because it is thought that basic knowledge, positive attitudes, self-confidence and commitment to study, which are essential for university education, is attained in the first year of experience (Kuh, 2001). Hunter stated (2006) that “The first college year is not grade 13” (p. 4) and students enter a different culture at college. This period is considered as a make-or-break for learning because students question whether they had the right decision by attending that college (Terenzini & Reason, 2005, p. 1). The studies examined first year college student success show that students’ demographic characteristics, student-faculty interactions, family characteristics, past and expected engagement, academic performance are effective factors related to first year student success (Cole, Kennedy & Ben-Avie, 2009).

It is known that teaching courses at universities through medium of English is a widespread trend since if the sources are produced in a universal language rather than national language, they are easily accessible (Graddol, 2006, p. 45). Therefore, learning English is considered as a priority and to become proficient in English language is the educational goal for many institutions (Wong, 2007). As in many countries in the world, universities in Turkey underline the importance of acquiring English. However, learning a new language carries some cognitive, affective and psychological factors that affect acquiring a language. According to Krashen (1987), affective variables like motivation, anxiety and self-confidence are substantially crucial and bridges to acquisition of new language and so to success. When the students are 18-20 years old, the factors can play more effective role as they are also the first year students who are more prone to be influenced.

In Turkey, the universities in which the medium of instruction is English establish language preparatory schools in order to teach English language and prepare students for fulfilling the requirements of undergraduate studies by making them proficient in English. Language preparatory school students only get courses over developing skills in English language and at the end of this first year, they are required to qualify the language standard defined by the university. As students are required to attend preparatory school to gain English language skills necessary to complete undergraduate degree, their academic success in this first year has taken attention. Therefore, to find out whether they come across with any difficulties while learning a foreign language is crucial. The influence of personal variables on academic success should be considered together with affective factors within the language learning environment for preparatory students. Thus, this study aims to find out the role of personal variables (academic self-efficacy, organization and attention to study, stress and time pressure, involvement in college activities, emotional satisfaction and classroom communication) and affective factors (motivation, anxiety and English self concept) influencing academic success of English preparatory school students.

In conclusion, personal factors are important for the first year student success since they can provide valuable information for the whole college success. As the students are learning only a foreign language through the first year, including the affective factors of language learning is crucial in order to find the factors influencing first year success as a whole.

## **1.2 Purpose of the Study**

The main purpose of this study is to find out the role of demographic variables, English proficiency level, personal variables and affective factors in predicting academic success of English preparatory school students.

The study was conducted on the basis of following research question: What is the role of demographic factors (gender and type of residence), English proficiency level, personal factors (academic self-efficacy, organization and attention to study, stress and time pressure, involvement in college activities, emotional satisfaction and class communication) and affective factors (motivation, anxiety and English self concept) in predicting language preparatory school students' academic success?

## **1.3 Significance of the Study**

In this study, some pre-college and in college experiences, which were the basic parts of Kuh's model, were investigated together with language learning variables. Hence, it can contribute to the first year student success with a different perspective of language learning. As learning English is a widespread trend all over the world, the number of language preparatory schools at universities might increase. Therefore, conducting studies about personal variables of effective learning and affective factors of language learning can provide valuable information to the literature.

It is expected that the findings of this study can make a significant contribution to the literature in investigating the association between personal and affective variables on academic success of preparatory students who are the

beginners of college life. In the literature, it is found that affective factors in language learning are analyzed (Krashen, 1987). On the other side, some of the personal variables are examined in different studies with undergraduate students (Balduf, 2009; Crede & Kuncel, 2008; Margolis, 2005). However, studies conducted with first year preparatory students investigating both personal and affective variables all at once are lacking in the literature.

In the current study, a new inventory has been adapted to Turkish. Thus, counselors at university counseling centers can use this practical inventory in order to find the personal variables that affect academic success. Also, students can have the chance to apply the inventory by themselves to gain insight and be aware of the personal strengths and weaknesses. Furthermore, findings of this study might provide ideas to counselors regarding preventive activities for the low achieving students in preparatory school.

In addition, the findings can be beneficial for educators who are teaching preparatory students at different language proficiency levels. The results are expected to indicate some related variables of success or failure among college students who are in their first year of college.

The study can also provide information to administration and academic advisors working with first year language preparatory school students about personal and affective factors contributing to their academic success. Even though there are many other factors; working on personal variables, which students can have a control to change in themselves, might affect their success.

At last but not least, there is a lack of literature with first year college students' success with Turkish population. Despite studies conducted with undergraduate students' success, the literature lacks personal factors affecting academic success of first year students who are exposed to learn foreign language. Therefore, the present research may play a role of initiator and trigger the further research.

#### **1.4 Definition of Terms**

The operational definition of terms used in this study is defined as follows:

**Preparatory School Students:** Preparatory school students are new comers who have qualified to attend a large state university by passing University Entrance Exam. The students have to attend preparatory school in their first academic year in order to be qualified in English language which is the medium of instruction at that university.

**Academic Success:** In literature, success is defined as “acceptable grade averages, retention toward a degree and attainment of productive life skills” (Kim, Newton, Downey & Benton, 2010, p. 112). In this study, as the students are in preparatory school, they are studying only English language in their courses. Thus, academic success is defined as English Proficiency Exam scores given at the end of 2011-2012 academic year. All in all, academic success describes language achievement for this study.

**Personal Variables:** Personal variables include a large number of factors that can be directly attributed to individual differences that are mainly within the power

of the person to influence, direct, or enhance in some way (Kim et al, 2010, p. 114). It might vary from attitudes, motivation, self-perceptions, behaviors, problem solving to values. In this study, time utilization, study approach and organization, academic self esteem, efficacy, confidence, stress and emotional components, student involvement with campus life, and motivation are taken as personal variables individuals have a control on changing.

**Affective Variables:** Affective factors in this study include attitude and motivation, anxiety and self concept in language learning. As Krashen (1987) underlines the great effect of affective variables in second language learning, a research study, in which English proficiency level of preparatory students is the focus, should consider anxiety level of students, motivation and self efficacy towards the target language.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

This chapter includes four sections. The theory and importance of college student success is explained through the first section. Next, the indicators and the importance of first year college student success are presented. The scope of personal variables related to college student success is presented in the third section. Finally, the fourth section includes the theory and the factors of language learning.

#### **2.1 The Theoretical Bases of College Student Success**

Higher education is shaped for the learning outcomes especially student success which is desired by students, educators, institutions and the country (Kim et al., 2010; Pritchard & Wilson, 2003; Slocum & Rhoads, 2009; Trowler, 2010). The issue of student success has also taken the attention of researchers through years. Traditional approaches have considered the “input (students)” as “black box” and in order to fulfill the black box, some policies and programs of university are required. Also, the “output (success)” is measured by GPA and standardized tests (Astin, 1999). In other words, traditional approaches put importance to instructors’ skills, content of the program and institutional characteristics for student success; however, trends in later years have changed the perspective from passive learners to active learners in the process (Hutley, 2001).

Astin's model of input-process-output, in which the student is passively developed by the faculty members and by university programs, has been extended with Astin's theory of involvement which is based on the energy students devote to academic issues, spending time on campus, participating in college activities and interactions with faculty members and includes mostly the behavioral aspect (Astin, 1984). The view emphasizes that student success is related to active role of student involvement in college by directing attention away from subject matter and technique towards the motivation and student's behavior.

The extensive studies have broadened the indicators of student success. As disclosed by Kuh et al. (2006), student success is constituted by pre-college experiences (mainly academic preparation, family background and college readiness); student engagement (study habits, time on task, peer involvement, first year experience and campus environment); post-college outcomes (grades and employment). Not only one indicator but also several others have an affect over student success, which gives inspiration to researchers to conduct numerous studies.

On the other hand, Tinto's academic and social integration model attaches importance to the new environment which students face with by attending higher education. According to theory, the more students feel integrated socially and academically to the new environment, the more they feel commitment to the institution (Tinto & Pusser, 2006). The high commitment increases students' retention and achievement. In the same vein, expectancy-value theory highlights the importance of motivation which is the crucial point of students' academic achievement. The theory considers motivation as directly associated with

expectations about success (Wigfield, 1994). As students expect more for their academic tasks, their motivation increases and they willingly commit themselves to gain desired goals. Another theory explaining student success is achievement goal theory, which simply points that defining challenging goals leads to higher achievement. It is stated that different types of achievement goals contribute to gain different outcomes such as academic achievement, motivation or learning (Canfield & Zastavker, 2010). Although different perspectives have put emphasis on different factors like psychological, social or environmental (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995; Pritchard & Wilson, 2003), Kuh's model clarifies the concept the most profoundly by taking pre-college experiences, student engagement and post-college experiences (Kuh, 2001).

It is noteworthy to say that college success is not only important for students but also for institutions and country and it includes four year experience. However, the first year is defined as crucial for giving start to university experience in terms of knowledge, behaviors, self-perception, etc. (Kuh, 2001).

## **2.2 Importance of First Year College Student Success**

In recent years, first year experience has gained priority for educators and administrators (Hunter, 2006). The first year experience deserves to be considered as the crucial point of college life as students are in a transition stage of persistence or break of the education process and social life. This transition stage includes cultural, academic, social and personal changes (Johnston, 2010). Upcraft, Gardner and Barefoot (2005) states that developing intellectual and academic competence,

establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships, exploring identity development, considering health, multicultural awareness and responsibility and deciding on a career are more substantial for first year students than having good grades. Thus “being the first year student”, is considered as far more than a single event, program or course and includes all curricular and extracurricular activities in the first year at university (Hunter, 2006).

The studies underline that universities should provide the first year students a learning environment where they find encouragement for achievement and lifelong learning and their expectations are met. A successful first year experience leads to satisfaction and better performance through university years. On the contrary, dissatisfied, disappointed and confused students are found to strive for success (Johnston, 2010).

As success means more than grades, each institution carries multiplex reasons for first year success. As an example, for career development, lifelong learning, critical thinking and knowledge-based economy, institutions should give importance to course design in the first year of college. The courses in which students have the chance to participate in class activities, work in teams and gain independence are highly recommended (Johnston, 2010). Tinto (2005) states six conditions to enhance success especially in the first year as institutional commitment; high expectations; academic, social and financial support; feedback to students, faculty and staff; academic and social integration; involvement of all students in learning.

To date, many research studies are conducted under the light of different theories in order to explain student success like Astin’s involvement theory, Tinto’s

academic and social integration, expectancy theory and achievement goal theory. However, first year student success takes the precedence as the basic and heading term of college success (Upcraft et al., 2005). The studies searching first year student success show that demographic characteristics are the factors influencing success. These factors include age, gender, place of residence and background knowledge are among the most common demographic profiles analyzed through the years. As related to Astin's input-environment-outcomes model, age, gender and high school type are three of the precollege characteristics and place of residence is among the environment variables.

### **2.3 Factors Associated with First Year Student Success**

Among the precollege characteristics, age, an indicator of academic performance (Graunke & Woosley, 2005), has been studied in many studies because of the raise in the average of age of college students. In the recent years, although some studies have found no significant associations between academic performance and age (Tutton & Wigg, 1990; Zajacova, Lynch & Espenshade, 2005), others indicated that adults are less successful even though they have much more motivation to complete the college (Peltier, Laden & Matranga, 1999). Another study examined traditional age (23 and under) and nontraditional age (25 and over) students college success. Results pointed out that nontraditional age students had high GPAs than traditional age students and females in both groups were also have better grades than males (Spitzer, 2000). More importantly, most students, who failed

at college, experienced the failure in the first year of education (Chireshe, Shumba, Mudhovozi & Denhere, 2009).

Although some of the studies indicated no significant gender difference (Campbell & Fuqua, 2008; Peterson, 2009; Zajacova et al., 2005) in terms of college success, some others underline that gender is strongly related to student success. Recent studies have found that female students are more successful than male students in the first year of college (Adams, Marsh, Irons & Carlson, 2010; Creemers & Kyriakides, 2010; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2007). On the other hand, Gogus and Gunes (2011) indicated that female undergraduates had more effective learning habits than male undergraduates in predicting academic performance. However, more female students were unsuccessful in their examinations through university life than male students according to Chireshe et al. (2009).

One of the environmental factors influencing the quality of college experience is the place of residence (Maşrabacı, 1989; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). The importance of first year students' residence is much more important than other years (Sand, 2000). There seems an effect of residential environments on student success because the difference between those who live on the campus and off campus is significant. (Upcraft et al., 2005). Research on living environments emphasize that students who live on campus residence halls are more successful than who live elsewhere as Astin (1999) and Kuh et al. (2006) state that on campus residents have more options like interaction with faculty, attending out-of-class activities and educational benefits than off campus residents because they might have some other responsibilities like family or home.

Although living on campus residences has advantages over off campus residences, there are also varieties among housing arrangement of off campus residences. Students who live at home with their family might have tendency to keep high school way of life and this can cause difficulty in transition to college. Moreover, students who live with high school or other colleagues at home seem to be move away from campus activities and support services and stay at home since they are shaping new friendships by getting to know their housemate (Upcraft et al., 2005).

An important demographic factor associated with college student success is the socioeconomic status of students and their parents. Kuh et al. (2006) considered socioeconomic status as a part of pre-college experiences associated with success. Socioeconomic status was defined by Atbaş (2004) as “the individual’s place within a social group based on various factors like income, education, and so forth” (p. 6). Mills et al. (2009) found an association between socioeconomic status, parents’ educational level and academic success of college students.

The type of high school is another component of college success. Mills et al. (2009) and Evans and Farley (1998) indicated that students from state high schools achieve much more than students from private high schools at college. Moreover, Mills et al. (2009) pointed out the influence of the type of secondary school on academic performance at college. Together with other factors like gender, secondary school English course and payment of university, secondary school type explained 32 % of variance in Mills et al.’s study (2009).

As the last part of demographic variables, background or prior knowledge has been studied as an influencer of academic success. According to Kuh, Cruce, Shoup,

Kinzie and Gonyea (2008), first year success strongly reflects prior academic achievement. It means that students who are successful before college generally tend to maintain this success in the first year of college since they use their previous knowledge. Accordingly, the research presented in the literature draws from the language learning perspective that prior language knowledge helps students learning the language later (Mills et al., 2009). In their study with adult learners, Larrotta and Serrano (2011) paid attention to previous knowledge about the target language since they emphasize that learners come to the class with some experiences, skills and prior knowledge which should be taken into consideration before giving a start to teach.

In conclusion, there are many demographic factors contributing to student success. Although they have been studied extensively, the results can change from population to population. Therefore, including demographic variables to the study can contribute to the literature.

#### **2.4 Factors Associated with Personal Variables**

Personal variables consist of behaviors, attitudes, activities or relationships that are under the control of the person (Lyubomirsky, Sheldon & Schkade, 2005) According to Kim et al. (2010), the literature representing student success can be summed up under the three categories of variables. First of all, previous achievement in high school was being used as a predictor of student success in college (Wolfe & Johnson, 1995). Secondly, circumstances variables like demographics or socio-economic status were found to influence student success and cannot be changed

easily by the students. Thirdly, factors that were under the control of the individuals like behaviors, attitudes, values and self-perceptions formed personal variables (Forsyth & Schlenker, 1977). When the achievement test scores and previous high school success could not explain the whole concept of success after having been investigated during a long history, researchers came to the conclusion that there were other academic, social, environmental and personal factors (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) proposes the percentage of factors influencing the student success is as follows; 50% of comes from the heritage, 10% depends on circumstances a person leads a life like being rich, unhealthy or fat, etc. and the final 40% comprises variables that are directly within the control of the person like intentional activities, relationships, behaviors and feelings. Individual behavior affects the outcome performance as well as other factors. However, the percentages show a great impact of personal variables on success.

Personal factors of student success have taken attention of researchers through many years. For example, in Kuh's model, some factors affecting student success were under the control of the students like peer interactions, study skills, time on task, etc. Up to date, many research studies were conducted for personal factors affecting success (Caprara, Vecchione, Alessandri, Gerbino & Barbaranelli, 2011; Robbins et al., 2004). Among these factors, motivation, student engagement to campus, stress, academic self esteem, self efficacy and emotional factors were found to have an effect on student success (Chemers, Hu & Garcia, 2001; Friedlander, Reid,

Shupak & Cribbie, 2007; Pritchard & Wilson, 2003; Shivpuri, Schmitt, Oswald & Kim, 2006).

Personal variables are also named as “psychosocial factors” and they include attitudes, motivation, usage of campus resources, study approach, etc. (Newton, Kim, Wilcox & Beemer, 2008, p. 4). There are so many branches within the personal factors. However, the studies about personal factors are focused on some specific variables which have more powerful influence on success. According to Newton et al. (2008), time utilization, strategic organization and study approach, academic self efficacy and confidence, stress and emotional components, student involvement in college life and motivation are among the most prominent factors influencing college student success.

#### **2.4.1 Academic self efficacy**

Self efficacy is defined as the evaluation of one’s own competence to achieve desired outcomes successfully (Bandura, 1986). The level of self efficacy influences the motivation of learners, which is a key factor for academic success (Ormrod, 2003; Zimmerman, 2000). As Allington and Cunningham (2002) asserted, ‘No one works if they know that they will fail anyway’ (p. 269). On the contrary, if people believe that they can succeed, they have a positive attitude towards studying (Nilsen, 2009).

In their study examining the influence of self-efficacy and other motivational self-beliefs on the achievement of 303 college intermediate French students, Mills et al. (2007) concluded that self efficacy was the most significant predictor of French

language achievement. Furthermore, so as to find the effect of self-efficacy and anxiety in English language achievement, Anyadubalu (2010) studied with 318 middle school students and the results showed that English language anxiety had a negative relationship with self efficacy.

Recently, it is highlighted that self efficacy has an influence on academic performance through study skills (Landis, Altman & Cavin, 2007). A student reflects self efficacy beliefs on study skills and so, to the achievement. That means that self efficacy has a close relationship with study skills as well when student achievement is considered.

Studies that put emphasis on essentiality of self efficacy for academic achievement conclude that students who have strong self efficacy achieve more than students with low self efficacy (Margolis, 2005). However, as Zajacova et al. (2005) suggested in academic studies and settings, academic self efficacy rather than generalized self efficacy was meant. Academic self-efficacy referred to students' competence in succeeding academic tasks like exams and homework (Schunk, 1991). According to the study conducted by Lindley and Borgen (2002), academic self efficacy had an influence on students' grades rather than generalized self efficacy.

A large amount of research highlights the positive association between academic self efficacy and college grades (Bong, 2001; Golden, 2003; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002; Zajacova et al., 2005). Again, the study conducted by Zajacova et al. (2005) showed that academic self efficacy and stress affected first year students' motivation, their engagement to campus life and academic achievement when

demographic characteristics were controlled. Thus, this study indicated academic self efficacy as by far the strongest predictor of success at college.

#### **2.4.2 Organization and attention to study**

Significance of study attitudes and habits is underlined for improving the success of university students (Burns & Sinfield, 2003; Crede & Kuncel, 2008). Besides the attention spent for time management, how a student organizes the tasks, concentrates and pays attention to study influences the success (Pauk & Owens, 2011). It is stated that “Successful people tend to have the ability to focus on the right tasks at the right time, the capacity to work quickly to meet their targets, and the knack of seeing each job through to a conclusion.” (McMillan & Weyers, 2011, p. 49)

In their study, Gogus and Gunes (2011) proposed three questions to find out whether most of the students study on a regular basis, during the exam weeks or just before the day of the exam. The results showed that 61 % of the students studied on exam weeks, 26 % of the students studied the day before the exam, and finally, the remains studied regularly at college. West and Sadoski (2011) pointed to the necessity of study management skills like previewing information, reviewing material, managing study periods and sparing time for other issues for higher achievement.

Various numbers of books are filled with tips for organizing students’ studying habits. As an example, to organize the place of the study, to become familiar with the course book, to organize the notebooks for each course, to use

calendar and timeline and so on are some of the basic steps for a good study organization (McWhorter, 2011). Moreover, for a better attention while studying, it is recommended in the book that students should schedule the duration of the study close to time spent in a class and it is required to have a to-do list for long term assignments.

In the light of this information, Balduf's qualitative research (2009) revealed consistent results. The first year college students participated in the study were from successful background and the questions were related to possible reasons of their underachievement at college. The results ascertained two of the most significant themes as inadequate study skills and poor time management. In the interviews, students mentioned that they waited to study for the exam to the very end since they had inadequate discipline to make themselves study and regulate their studies appropriately.

To sum up, the literature supports that when students organize their times and studies, they tend to be more successful; on the other hand, when they lack skills to be organized, they prone to label themselves as underachievers.

### **2.4.3 Time utilization and stress**

Time utilization is defined as “the ability to effectively organize your time and responsibilities in order to get most out of your day” (Combs, 2007, p. 74). According to Combs (2007), managing time effectively through college years puts a difference between those who are successful in reaching their goals and those who are regretful for spending years without being aware of the importance of time. To be

successful at college, the offered keys are to know how you are spending your time which also means focusing on the priorities, scheduling the activities and finally to overcoming procrastination (Dembo & Seli, 2008). It is recommended that students who are bad at time management can use those skills to avoid spending time in a useless way. That means that time management is under the control of the person, which makes it a part of personal variables of success.

The study conducted by Balduf (2009) emphasized that the lack of time management was a reason of underachievement. In that study, the factors causing first year students' underachievement were discussed and some interventions were described for students and other colleges. The interviews made with underachiever students showed that problems with time management were among the factors contributing to underachievement. Many participants complained about not arranging time effectively before the exams and studying less.

Yılmaz, Yoncalık and Bektas (2010) examined the relationship between time management and academic achievement with university students from three Turkish universities. They concluded that time management strategies did not change according to gender, age and GPA. On the contrary, there were other studies showing the great influence of time management strategies on academic achievement (Demirtaş & Özer, 2007).

The studies underline the necessity of planning as the most crucial part of time management. Students who wanted to use their time effectively were suggested to plan all the activities, their priorities and lessons (Cemaloglu & Filiz, 2010). On

the other hand, not scheduling the activities and not defining the priorities lead to procrastination, which might turn into stress on the side of students.

Stress is generally defined as the feeling of tension when personal sources are inconsistent with the demands of the environment (Galanakis, Stalikas, Kallia, Karagianni & Karela, 2009). Bland, Melton, Welle and Bigham (2012) point that college students experience stress to a large extent as they try to adjust the new environment, cope with the academic, social and personal issues by moving away from their parents. Moreover, Pierceall and Keim (2007) have found that the 75 % of college students are experiencing moderate stress while 10 % of them are feeling severe stress. As well as their social and personal life can be influenced by the stress, college students also face with stress in their academic studies, which has a negative impulse over achievement (Bland et al., 2012). Alzaem, Sulaiman and Wasif Gillani (2010) extends the critical impact of stress in academic studies by mentioning that excessive stress perceived for academic issues might influence both academic success and health in a negative way.

Even though literature above emphasized the negative influence of stress over achievement, there was conducted some contradictory research as well. Jepson and Forrest (2006) found that perceived stress had a significant result of academic success. The study showed that the more students try to achieve better, the more they feel stressed.

#### **2.4.4 Involvement in college activities**

Colleges are places of not only education but also social activities. It is investigated that students who take the advantage of participating in college activities feel more engaged in college life (Reason, Terenzini & Domingo, 2006). Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) emphasized the importance of engagement in order to reach desired outcomes of higher education. Along with inside the classroom activities, the evidence shows that extracurricular activities increase the satisfaction and engagement of students (Cooper, Healy & Simpson, 1994; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Reason et al., 2006). Notely, Astin (1993) has predicated that each involvement in college activity is profitable for student learning.

According to Kuh (1995), out of class activities help students improve learning, personal development, involvement in college environment, leadership and organization skills and communication skills with peers and faculty. Moreover, these outside the classroom activities do not occur in discrete from developing cognitively and faculty members also give support to participate in extracurricular activities within the campus environment (Reason et al., 2006).

Additionally, Kuh (1995) has stated students' perspectives about the gains from out of class activities. The students have mentioned that out of class activities have helped them clarify their vocational goals, develop leadership skills, think more about course materials and develop new ideas, experience what they learn in class outside the classroom, solve problems occurred in relationships, etc. There can be concluded that out of class activities improve students in variety of aspects like cognitively, socially and academically.

#### **2.4.5 Emotional satisfaction**

Student achievement also depends on students' satisfaction about the college they attend. Satisfaction is explained for different areas related to campus life like satisfaction about college activities, faculty, quality of program of study, campus environment or overall satisfaction (Inkelas, Vogt, Longerbeam & Owen, 2006; Klein, Kuh, Chun, Hamilton & Shavelson, 2005; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005).

Overall satisfaction involves emotional satisfaction as well, which is one of the key dimensions of student achievement (Pritchard & Wilson, 2003). Students who are emotionally satisfied with the college show high rates of attending and achievement (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). In construction of effective learning questionnaire, Newton et al. (2008) have thought that emotional satisfaction is influenced by liking the courses and university, instructors' care for students, instructors' behaviors and satisfied about future career plans.

Pritchard and Wilson (2003) argued that conflicts with instructors and dissatisfaction with university directly decreased students' emotional satisfaction. Likewise, Komarraju, Musulkin and Bhattacharya (2010) studied over the smart contribution of faculty members' taking an interest on students and their achievement. The research also signified the gains of student-faculty relationship as higher academic self confidence, more engaged students and satisfaction with academic life in general. More than that, Decker, Dona and Christenson (2007) noted that good relationship between student and faculty member had much influence on emotional functioning than academic achievement. Additionally, the study highlighted that

faculty members' caring for students increases the motivation level of students and they feel respected.

Taken together, literature showed that there are various dimensions associated with emotional satisfaction. For some examples, residential students demonstrated higher satisfaction (Inkelas et al., 2006), students who chose the department in their dream felt more satisfied with the college (Kuh, Douglas, Lund & Ramin-Gyurnek, 1994), students who had good relations with faculty members showed the sign of satisfaction (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005) and again students who attended educationally purposeful activities seemed more satisfied (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh & Whitt, 2005). Furthermore, Aitken (1982) put high importance to the quality of the curriculum, academic program and courses for student satisfaction. Overall, Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) summarized the predictor of satisfaction as the perception of college environment serving the purpose of academic and social needs.

#### **2.4.6 Class communication**

Learning takes place in an environment where communication stands (Wall, 2007) and teaching, too (Nurzali & Khairu'l, 2009). The communication between student vs. student and student vs. teacher creates the opportunity to share and learn more. Current studies showed that potential learning occurred when the teacher paid attention to each student in the classroom (Mortimore, 1999). Student-faculty relationship, which was a significant factor related to achievement, had a progressive effect when the teacher showed interest in students' achievement (Bryson & Hand,

2007; Komarraju et al., 2010). Even though some studies mentioned the low percentage of current student-faculty communication (NSSE 2000), Rosenthal et al. (2000) argued that were students know even one faculty member closely, they could be more enthusiastic to be successful. Furthermore, perceived efficacy of the instructor made students gain more through the learning activities (Prevatt et al., 2009).

On the other hand, student vs. student relationship has a significant effect over achievement. Astin (1993) considered student-student interaction in and out of the class as important for gaining the skills for leadership, self-growth and problem solving. According to Rubin et al. (1990), students, who felt relaxed while communicating others, had higher GPAs at the end of the college life because positive friendship relations influenced academic success in positive way. Similarly, most of the communication occurs in a formal classroom environment. However, research mentioned that especially first year students who had the opportunity to communicate with faculty outside the classroom felt motivated and were more successful (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Reason et al., 2006). Astin (1993) implied some communication ways between student and faculty outside the classroom as working with a professor on a project, assisting faculty in class, talking with a faculty or visiting faculty at home. Revealingly, Schuetz (2008) argued that the number of hours students communicate with the faculty was a predictor of student success.

Finally, the literature suggested some ways to have better classroom communication such as being clear about what you want from others, paying attention to others' feelings, having cooperation, resolving conflicts with others and

being assertive. These crucial skills make you communicate well with classmates and learn in the classroom environment (Drew & Bingham, 2010).

## **2.5 Theory and Factors of Language Learning**

The need to increase achievement and success in all education process has become an interest of research studies and lead to analyze different factors. The development in humanistic theories has directed the attention towards learners' feelings, thoughts and emotions in student success. According to Grootenboer (2010), a good education and learning has a purpose of developing the person as a whole and this development requires the beliefs, values, attitudes and emotions of the person. Developing as a whole includes a new way of thinking, feeling and behaving under the light of a new culture while learning a new language (Brown, 1994). Likewise, language learning is emphasized as Williams (1994) mentioned that "language, after all, belongs to a person's whole social being: it is part of one's identity, and is used to convey this identity" (p. 77).

The importance of affective factors has been emphasized in second language learning together with other fields like maths, science, etc. (Gardner, 1985). According to language learning theories, basic skills and structure of the language are the first requirements of learning on the surface. However, the underground side hides that affective factors, which refers to learners' responses to learning situation like attitudes, motivation to learn, anxiety and self perceptions (Atbaş, 2004), have a significant association with learning (Bown & White, 2010; Genç & Bilgin Aksu, 2004). Affective factors are not only predictors of achievement in second language

but also the native language (Sparks & Ganschow, 1996). Among other affective variables, attitude and motivation, anxiety and self confidence were considered notable factors for language learning (Krashen, 1987). Furthermore, these factors were found to be correlated with each other (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Yokochi, 2003). The class atmosphere, learning materials and instructor are some of the external variables, but the psychological world of the student, internal variables, is the basic factor affecting learning in this study.

In order to find the achievement in language learning, some studies focus on individual differences. However, according to Krashen (1987), high motivation, self confidence, a good self image and low anxiety are the factors for success in second language acquisition. On the other hand, low motivation, low self confidence and anxiety can raise the “affective filter” which includes obstructions to learning. In the literature, it is seen that low self confidence leads to lower motivation to learn second language (Clement, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994; Clement, Gardner & Smythe, 1977).

### **2.5.1 Attitude and motivation**

Gardner and Lambert (1972) mention motivation and attitude as the predictors of success in language learning. The attitude is defined by Gardner (1985) as “an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object on the basis of the individual’s beliefs or opinions about the referent” (p.9) and motivation as “a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language” (p. 10). A lack of motivation prevents language learning since lack of interest and desire to learn the language and

a lack of positive attitude put obstacles in achievement. There are given two types of motivation as extrinsic and intrinsic explaining the concept of language learning. Striving for learning the language because of desire to do so falls under the category of intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, should a learner try to learn a second language to pass a course or get a job, that is extrinsic motivation (Yokochi, 2003).

There are many theories explaining motivation in language learning like Dörnyei's motivational framework of second language (Dörnyei, 2009), Dörnyei and Otto's process model of second language motivation (Dörnyei, 2009), Williams and Burden's framework of second language motivation (Williams, 1994), cognitive situated period (Dörnyei, 2005), etc. The reason why there are so many theories is because of their attribution of the source of motivation to different things. However, as more on motivation types about language, Gardner and Lambert (1972) proposed the socio-educational model of second language learning in which the difference between integrative and instrumental motivation was identified. From the point of this model, integrative motivation construed the desire to learn the culture of the target language while instrumental motivation was aroused by external goals like career, financial or academic. Between two types, they argued higher effect of integrative motivation over instrumental. However, Noels, Pelletier and Vallerand (2000) argued the close tie between intrinsic and integrated motivation even though Gardner (1985) found that extrinsic motivation was close to integrated motivation.

Between two types of motivation, language learning requires the inner feelings of "willing" on the side of learners. It means that intrinsic motivation is much more required than extrinsic for a qualified and successful learning. The more

learners internalize learning the target language, the higher they achieve in that language (Noels et al., 2000). Likewise, positive attitude of second language learners' puts an advantage to achievement (Brown, 1994). A study with young students showed that when students liked English, they considered it as easy, interesting and fun (Petrides, 2006). Moreover, Ryan and Deci (2000) mentioned self determination theory in which motivation was described as dynamic and constantly changing drive toward learning subjects. As can be seen in this theory, motivation level depended on some factors and flexible in time according to learners' emotions and needs (Yokochi, 2003).

Studies conducted in different countries signified different aspects of motivation in language learning. As an example, Okada, Oxford and Abo (1996) found more intrinsic factors in language learners of Japanese than Spanish in his study. Furthermore, genders also differed in attitude and motivation in language achievement process as girls had more positive attitude than boys towards the target language (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Although different studies favored one of them over the other in terms of language achievement, Atbaş (2004) highlighted the importance of not the type but the strength of the motivation. Additionally, effort spent for the target language, interest and value attached to the language are the signs of strength of motivation. Similarly, the strength of the motivation is considered to be containing effort, interest and value issues and is valued more than the type in this study as well.

### **2.5.2 Anxiety**

Among affective factors in language learning, anxiety was considered as one of the best predictors of foreign language achievement (Aida, 1994; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) defined foreign language anxiety as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts” (p. 284). Young (1991) identified six sources for anxiety in language learning environment: personal and interpersonal anxieties, learner beliefs about language learning, instructor beliefs about language teaching, instructor-learner interactions, classroom procedures and language testing.

Anxiety level of learners had a potent influence on language learning (Krashen, 1981). There were studies mentioning negative relationship between anxiety and second language achievement; that is high level of anxiety decreased the success (Andres, 2002; Atbaş, 2004; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Mahmood & Iqbal, 2010). However, Chastain (1975) found that higher anxiety led to higher achievement. By and large, no anxiety also affected success in a negative way. In education environment, the best was to have mid-level anxiety, which meant having motivational factors and a facilitative encouragement at the same time (Brown, 1994; Chastain, 1975).

In education settings, students come across with anxiety provoking subjects or points. However, new language learning creates a lot of anxiety (Andres, 2002) because it includes a new aspect to communicate with others as speaking skills (Atbaş, 2004). The high number of studies conducted on anxiety provoking situations

in language learning stayed focused on speaking in front of others in the class, being laughed at and seeming to show off (Pierce, 1994; Yan & Horwitz, 2008). Accordingly, Tanveer (2007) proposed that the fear of making mistakes and hearing the classmates' evaluation led to anxiety and this fear made speaking anxiety come to the surface in the classroom.

It is worth saying that anxiety influence success not only in higher education but also in secondary education. Berberoğlu (2001) conducted her study with 9th and 11th grade students and concluded that there was a negative correlation between anxiety and student achievement. Moreover, genders differed in anxiety level especially in language learning environment. For instance, the study conducted by Mahmood and Iqbal (2010) proposed that female college students had more foreign language anxiety than male students and average level of foreign language anxiety of male students led them to gain better academic achievement compared to female students with high anxiety. On the contrary, Kitano (2001) named male students as experiencing higher anxiety than female students.

Similarly, reviewed literature puts forth that language proficiency levels of students have an effect over anxiety although the results are contradictory in terms of levels. For example, Kitano (2001) revealed that advanced level of students experienced more anxiety compared to intermediate or elementary level students. On the other hand, Frantzen and Magnan (2005) indicated that true beginners were more anxious than false beginners. Furthermore, Ipek (2009) studied over reading anxiety of different proficiency level of college students. With regards to reading anxiety, it was concluded that beginner, elementary and pre-intermediate level students had

more anxiety than intermediate level students. According to the results of this study, the lower the language level, the more students felt anxious in language environment. Ipek (2009) also underlined the existence of medium foreign language reading anxiety in each level of language level.

### **2.5.3 English self-concept**

In addition to motivation and anxiety, self-concept is another influencer of language learning (Mercer, 2008). Self-concept plays both an academic and general role in educational setting. General self-concept is related to social and emotional feelings and behaviors. However, academic self-concept is related to school subjects or topics. In the literature, academic self-concept is defined as the perception which students have for themselves in academic environment (Wigfield & Karpathian, 1991). Therefore, as searching for academic success of preparatory students, this study attaches importance to academic self-concept, especially English self-concept.

In language learning literature, self-concept of learners has been under the very much interest of empirical research (Clement et al., 1977; Clement et al., 1994; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Generally, it was found that students with low self concept failed to show high success in their academic studies (Chastain, 1975). Accordingly, Krashen (1987) linked high motivation and low anxiety to self confidence as pointing students who felt themselves confident were more motivated and less anxious in language learning. Furthermore, self-concept was associated with motivation, anxiety, attitudes and beliefs of language learners (Dörnyei, 2009). Researchers working on English language achievement (Chou, 2007; Ho, 2005;

Mills et al., 2007) indicated self-concept as a significant predictor of English language proficiency.

In light of theoretical discussions in the literature and the findings of the studies reviewed above, there seems to be a crucial influence of motivation, anxiety and self-concept in language learning process. However, there are some other concepts associated with motivation, anxiety and self-concept in language learning process. Previous formal exposure to second language is related to affective factors, which might mean they lead to high motivation and self confidence. Moreover, interest in language learning increases the motivation level of students as well as value attached to target language.

This chapter summarized the theoretical perspective explaining student achievement and foreign language learning with a deep representation of personal and affective variables related to it. The next chapter discusses the methodology followed through the study.

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD

In this chapter, methodological details of the study are presented. This part includes six sections. In the first section, overall design of the study and research questions are summarized. The participants of the study are addressed in the second section. The third section includes the data collection instrument and the steps followed through translation and adaptation process. Finally, data collection procedure, data analysis and limitations of the study are presented respectively.

#### 3.1 Overall Design of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find the role of English language learning affective factors and personal factors over language preparatory school students' academic success. Therefore, the overall design of this study was correlational. The correlational type of research is used to determine the relationships among two or more variables without any attempt to manipulate them, and to explore their implications for cause and effect (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

As the study was based on Kuh's model, some pre-college experiences and in college experiences should be measured together with language learning variables in order to find the factors influencing academic success. Therefore, a demographic information form (*Appendix A*), College Learning Effectiveness Inventory (CLEI) (*Appendix B*) and Affective Characteristics Questionnaire (ACQ) (*Appendix C*) were administered to 415 Department of Basic English students of METU. Stratified

random sampling was used for sample selection. Descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis were executed to analyze the data.

### **Research Question:**

The study was conducted to answer the following research question:

What is the role of demographic factors (gender and type of residence), English proficiency level, personal factors (academic self-efficacy, organization and attention to study, stress and time pressure, involvement in college activities, emotional satisfaction and class communication) and affective factors (motivation, anxiety and English self concept) in predicting language preparatory school students' academic success?

### **3.2 Population and Sample Selection**

The target population of the study is all first year language preparatory school students who are learning English as the medium of instruction in Turkey. However, the accessible population is 3000 first year Department of Basic English (DBE) students in 2011-2012 academic year enrolled in a large state university. The questionnaires were administered to 600 students in order to reflect 20% of accessible population.

The participants involved in the present study were randomly selected by stratified random sampling method. During the sample selection, first of all, the number of all classes from each level in DBE was listed. There were four levels at Department of Basic English namely; pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced. After the number of students in each level was defined, in order to reach 20% of the students in each level, classes were randomly chosen by

taking all levels in the sample equally. Finally, as reflecting 20% of the whole accessible population, 600 questionnaires were administered in classes. The total of 454 students returned the questionnaires. The return rate of the participants was 75.66 %. However, among 39 advanced level students who returned to the questionnaires, 34 of them did not write their ID numbers on demographic information form. Therefore, their English Proficiency Exam scores could not be gathered and as a result, advanced level students were excluded from the study. Overall, the study was carried out with 415 volunteer preparatory students enrolled in three levels of DBE namely; pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate.

More specifically, 158 (38.1 %) of respondents were pre-intermediate level students, followed by 158 (38.1 %) intermediate level and 99 (23.9 %) upper-intermediate level students. Among participants, 199 (48 %) of them are female and 216 (52 %) of them are male. Moreover, the mean age of the participants was 19.41 with a standard deviation of 1.04 and their ages ranged between 18 and 28. Furthermore, 51.8 % of students are staying at METU dormitories, 34 % of them are living with their families, 8.9 % of students are living with their friends, 2.7 % of them are living at dormitories other than METU, 1.4 % of them are living alone, 1.2 % of them are living with their relatives and finally 0.2 % of them are living in other places. Overall, 51.8 % of the participants are staying at METU dormitories while 48.2 % of them are staying outside the campus. The demographic information was indicated in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1***Demographic Information of the Participants (n=415)*

Variables	n	%
Gender		
Female	199	48
Male	216	52
English Proficiency Level		
Pre-Intermediate	158	38.1
Intermediate	158	38.1
Upper-Intermediate	99	23.9
Accommodation		
METU Dormitory	215	51.8
Outside the campus	200	48.2

The data was collected by the researcher in the last two weeks of May in the spring semester of 2012. Although the data was collected in classroom settings, the number of the participants defined by stratified random sampling decreased because the study was conducted on voluntary basis.

### **3.3 Data Collection Instruments**

In this study, Demographic Information Form, College Learning Effectiveness Inventory and Affective Characteristics Questionnaire were used as the data collection instruments.

**3.3.1 Demographic information form.** Demographic information form is designed by the researcher including ID number, gender, age, English proficiency

level at DBE and student's residence type (see *Appendix A*). The categorical variables are gender, English proficiency level (pre-intermediate to advanced level), students' residence type (dormitory to staying with alone). Finally, age is a continuous variable.

**3.3.2 College learning effectiveness inventory (CLEI).** The inventory is developed and revised by Newton, Kim, Wilcox, Beemer and Downey in 2008 to measure the personal factors influencing college student success. That is, the inventory is designed to measure individual attitudes and behaviors that may affect academic success.

This inventory consists of 51 items and 6 subscales: Academic Self-efficacy (Items; 23, 26, 43, 24, 28, 42, 50, 5, 21, 38, 4, 47, 49, 20), Organization and Attention to Study (Items; 2, 30, 1, 31, 51, 48, 25, 6), Stress and Time Press (Items; 36, 13, 3, 32, 37, 7), Involvement in College Activity (Items; 9, 11, 34, 29, 40, 10, 15, 41, 17), Emotional Satisfaction (Items; 14, 39, 18, 27, 12, 19, 16, 45) and Class Communication (Items; 8, 33, 46, 35, 44, 22). It is a 5-point Likert scale, the degree to which students show certain behavior "1. *Never*" to "5. *Always*", was used for the inventory. For the scales, high scores show expectations to succeed and outcome goals; effective organizational planning to achieve academic success; manage the pressures of academic such as procrastination; participation in activities; encouragement, interest; and active communication with instructors and friends. On the contrary, low scores indicate uncertainty about success; avoidance of planning strategies; symptoms of stress; less contact with campus activities; discouragement; less communication with others.

In scoring procedure, it is possible to have individual's mean raw scores, and T-scores for each six scales. Before calculating scores, negative continuum items should be transformed to reverse scores. The raw mean scores for each scales fall between 1.0 and 5.0. While 2.5 or below indicates a negative response or weakness, 3.5 or above reflects a positive attitude and strength. T scores can be obtained from these raw mean scores. The Cronbach Alpha levels of scales were .87 (ASE), .81 (OAS), .77 (STP), .81 (ICA), .72 (ES), .68 (CC) respectively.

The validity of CLEI is conducted by Yeager (2009) in order to examine the degree to which the six scales measure what they were intended to measure. The results show that the correlations (Pearson  $r$ ) are statistically significant. The Academic Self-Efficacy Scale of the CLEI was correlated with both the Motivation Scale of the Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (LASSI) ( $r=.46$ ) and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale ( $r=.45$ ). The Organization and Attention to Study Scale had correlations with two subscales of the LASSI: Concentration Scale ( $r=.71$ ) and Self-Testing Scale ( $r=.46$ ). Even though the correlation between the Involvement in College Activity Scale and the Student Adaptation to College Questionnaire was a bit low ( $r=.31$ ), it was statistically significant. The correlation coefficient between The Stress and Time Press Scale and the Time Management Scale of the LASSI was significant as well ( $r=.44$ ). The Class Communication Scale had correlations with the Student Propensity to Ask Questions ( $r=.53$ ). Finally, the Emotional Satisfaction Scale was correlated with the Attitude Scale of the LASSI ( $r=.50$ ). Moreover, confirmatory factor analysis values have resulted in overall fit indices for 2008 version of the inventory.

**3.3.2.1 Translation and adaptation of the instrument.** As the original inventory is in English, there are applied some steps for translation. After the permission is taken from the authors via e-mail (foremost Dr. Fred Newton), the questionnaire is translated by four different experts as proposed by Ægisdóttir, Gerstein and Canel-Çınarbaş (2008) about independent translation of scales at least by two or more experts. The 3 of the experts were English language specialists and the other expert was an advanced doctorate student in Psychological Counseling and Guidance. After the pool was obtained, each item was analyzed by the researcher and her advisor by considering all of the four options in order to get the best item reflecting the original meaning. Back translation method was not demanded by the authors and so purposefully avoided because the adequacy of translation could be threatened and item bias could come to the surface (Van de Vijver & Hambleton, 1996). Then, the draft version was formed to get students' opinions. Based on the feedback received from 7 DBE students, the pilot form was revised and administered to 209 students. After the pilot study, validity and reliability studies were conducted.

**3.3.2.2 Validity and reliability of the Turkish version of CLEI.** After the last revision of the instrument was made, the Turkish version of the CLEI was piloted with 209 voluntary preparatory students different from the main study. The number of students' classes involved in the pilot study was randomly selected to reflect the proportion of English proficiency levels at DBE. It means that each proficiency level was included in the pilot study with less number of participants than actual study.

The participants were students from four levels at DBE; namely, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced. Among these 209 students, 83 were from pre-intermediate level (39.7%), 57 were from intermediate level (27.2%), 40 were from upper-intermediate level (19.1%), 29 were from advanced level (13.8%). Moreover, 95 of the participants were female (45.4%) and 114 of the participants were male (54.6%). The pilot study was carried out in the spring semester of 2011-2012 academic year.

In order to test six-factor structure as hypothesized theoretically and to ensure the content validity of College Learning Effectiveness Inventory, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted by using Analysis Moments of Structures (AMOS) 4.1 program. In analysis, Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA) were used to assess how model fitted to Turkish population. After some necessary loadings were applied, CFA results confirmed the six-factor structure and indicated significant chi-square value  $\chi^2(1051) = 1957.84, p < .05$  with the comparative fit index (CFI) value of .72 and non-normed fit index (NNFI) value of .70 whose appropriate value is indicated as between 0 and 1 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 2006). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value is calculated as .06. When the criterion value of RMSEA, which indicates good fit with a value smaller than .05, mediocre fit by the values between .05 and .08 and poor fit greater than .10, was taken into consideration, the CFA for this study indicated mediocre fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). However, items 12 and 41 were found as insignificant and omitted in the data analysis. (12. I am discouraged with how I am treated by my instructors., 41.

My friends have good study habits.) These items might indicate cultural differences between populations.

For reliability, Cronbach's alpha (or Coefficient alpha) is one of the important indicators which answer whether all the items within the instrument measure the same construct. As alpha level closes to the value of 1.00, the higher the internal consistency of items become (George & Mallery, 2003). For the present study, the Cronbach's alpha level of total scale (N=415) was found as .88 and the reliability of the subscales with the new population were calculated as .75 (ASE), .79 (OAS), .68 (STP), .73 (ICA), .65 (ES) and .61 (CC) respectively.

**3.3.3 Affective characteristics questionnaire (ACQ).** The questionnaire is developed by Atbaş in 2004 to measure the affective factors influencing English language learning. The scale consists of 36 items and 5 subscales: Effort to learn English (.84), interest in English (.89), value attached to English (.80), English self concept (.83) and speaking anxiety in English (.87). A 5-point Likert scale is used from "1. *Strongly Disagree*" to "5. *Strongly Agree*" (see *Appendix C*). Items "8, 10, 13, 15, 18, 21, 24, 27" are to measure the effort to study English, items "7, 9, 11, 16, 19, 22, 26" for the interest in English, items "12, 14, 17, 20, 23, 25, 28" for value attached to English, items "1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6" for self concept and finally items "29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36" for speaking anxiety.

Apart from some of the items in self concept scale, which was adapted from the Academic Self Description Questionnaire-ASDQ (Marsh, 1990), the researcher developed the items for anxiety and motivation. The inventory was formed by having a

pool of several items and pilot studies were carried out within the same population in years. In scoring procedure, it is possible to have a total score for each individual or a total score for each subscale. Before calculating scores, negative items (2, 9, 10, 15, 16, 19, 22, 24, 27, 28) should be transformed to reverse scores.

The factor analysis results concluded 5 interpretable factors which accounted for 54.72 % of the total variance. The first factor, speaking anxiety (8 items), accounted for 12.67 %, effort (8 items) 11.70 %, interest (7 items) 10.77 %, value (7 items) 10.41 %, and self concept (6 items) 9.17 % of the variance.

For the present study, the Cronbach's alpha level of total scale (N=415) was found as .85 and the reliability of the subscales with the new population were calculated as .77 for effort to learn English, .89 for interest in English, .80 for value attached to English, .86 for English self concept and .80 for speaking anxiety in English respectively.

**3.3.4 Academic Success of Preparatory Students.** The construct of language preparatory students' academic success in this study consists of the students' English Proficiency Exam (EPE) scores administered by Department of Basic English at the end of 2011-2012 academic year.

The Department of Basic English (DBE) where participants of the study were selected aims at providing the basic language skills for the students whose level of English is below proficiency level. The department works as language preparatory school running a two-semester program placing emphasis on reading, writing, listening and speaking of English language. Students who are qualified in university entrance exam, take English Proficiency Exam at the beginning of the semester. The

proficiency level is stated as at least 59.50 and students who do not get this score take placement exam and are placed in five groups according to their English proficiency levels.

Based on this placement, each group has 12, 15, 20 or 25 class hours per week all through the academic year. In order to be a freshman, all students are required not only to reach a certain level of yearly success but also to be successful in the English Proficiency Exam at the end of the year. For yearly success, students take 6 mid-terms which are based on reading, grammar, listening and writing parts; quizzes and several pop quizzes. Speaking skill is tested via another speaking exam but not included in mid-terms because English Proficiency Exam does not include speaking skill as well. Yearly success includes 25% of mid-terms, 10% quizzes and pop quizzes and 10% student performance grade in the first term and 35% of mid-terms, 10% quizzes and pop quizzes and 10% student performance grade in the second term. For yearly success, students have to get a mean score of 64.50 or above in order to take English Proficiency Exam (Department of Basic English, n.d.).

Students' academic success was obtained via English Proficiency Exam scores. Although mid-term results reflect the academic success comprised the whole academic year, it is based on the system in which each group is given a different mid-term according to its level. Therefore, it would not be suitable to compare students' mid-term results in different levels. On the other hand, English Proficiency Exam is given to students at all levels at the end of the year as a battery of tests consisting of the standard grammar and vocabulary, reading comprehension sections,

listening, writing sections. This exam can be the key point in reflecting students' English language success yearly.

All students including intermediate and advanced students who obtain 64.50 and pre-intermediate students who obtain 84.50 as yearly success score can get English Proficiency Exam in June. Others have to attend summer school and get English Proficiency Exam in July. Overall, all students who are thought to have reached nearly the same level get EPE at the end of the year in order to start their undergraduate study.

### **3.4 Data Collection Procedures**

The data for this study were gathered from the students of language preparatory classes at DBE during the spring semester of 2011-2012. Demographic information form including the explanation of the present study, College Learning Effectiveness Inventory and Affective Characteristics Questionnaire were prepared to collect data for this study. Before collecting data, permission was taken from METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee and Department of Basic English Administration at METU. The scales were administered during class hours via paper-pencil format by getting permission from the instructors of the class. It took the participants approximately 15 minutes to complete the scales and demographic information form. The data were collected in 2 weeks at the end of the spring semester of 2011-2012 academic year. At the end of the term, English Proficiency Exam result of each participated student was gathered from the Department of Basic English Administration.

### **3.5 Data Analysis Procedure**

The statistical analysis was carried out by making use of IBM SPSS Statistics 20 software program. First, the data collected for all of the variables were combined into the program. Then, the data were scanned to check whether there were missing values or incorrect data entry. No incorrect entry was detected, but in the items of scales, there were some missing values not exceeding 5 %. Therefore, no case was deleted and all missing values were kept for the analysis.

In this study, mainly descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis were used to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics were gathered to get the frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations of the data to present an overall picture of the available data and to check the assumptions of the statistical procedures (e.g., normality of distributions, linearity, absence of multicollinearity, etc.). Except for the demographic characteristics, which were dummy coded dichotomous variables (gender and type of residence) and English proficiency level, all the variables were represented as continuous interval data in the analyses.

Multiple regression analysis was used to get inferential statistics so as to learn more about the relationship between several independent (predictor variables) and a dependent (criterion variable), that is personal and affective factors over academic success (Field, 2005). As proposed by Kuh's student success model (Kuh, 2001), in the first step, among pre-college experiences, demographic information was entered to the model and as reflecting a part of in-college experiences, students' English Proficiency Exam scores were entered in the second step. As the third step, personal variables that were considered as having a role on first year student success in the literature (Caprara et al., 2011; Chemers et al., 2001) were included. Finally, as

preparatory school students were learning a foreign language extensively in their first year of college education, affective factors having a role in language learning (Bown & White, 2010; Gardner, 1985; Krashen, 1987) were entered as the last stage of the model.

### **3.6 Limitations of the Study**

There are some limitations of the present study which need to be considered. The first limitation is related to generalizability of the results. Although 415 students are satisfactory enough to carry out the study, the scope of the study is limited to only the language preparatory students enrolled in a state university, the results could not be generalized to the whole language preparatory schools because in other contexts and applications, the results might point to other findings. That is, generalization of the findings would be limited with this sample.

Secondly, as advanced level students did not provide ID numbers sufficiently, the results lacked possible crucial impact of this level since advanced level students, who were at the top of English proficiency level at DBE, could create a difference compared to others. Dafei (2007) has underlined the significant difference between basic proficiency levels and advanced levels while there is not such a big difference between intermediate and upper intermediate levels. Under the light of this information and the significant result that English proficiency level created the most significant effect over the prediction of academic success, advanced level could also extend the total variance of the study. Although the sample size was enough in order to reflect DBE students overall, not including advanced level might have affected the

results and this makes it difficult to generalize the findings of the study to the all DBE students.

Another limitation would be because of the self-report nature of the study. That means students might not give the actual response to the items owing to different reasons. Finally, although the total reliability of College Learning Effectiveness Inventory was appropriate, the reliability of the subscales was a little bit low for the present population due to possible effects of cultural differences. Therefore, this may influence the results of the study. The methodology of the study was explained in this chapter. The next chapter continues with the results of the study.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **RESULTS**

In this chapter, the results of the statistical analyses were presented. The main goal of the present study was to find out the role of demographic variables, English proficiency level, personal variables over preparatory students' academic success in foreign language learning environment where affective factors can be effective factors as well.

#### **4.1 Overview of the Analytical Procedure**

Prior to the main analyses, the accuracy of data entry was checked as preliminary analysis. In terms of presence of missing case, the students who did not provide ID numbers were excluded from the study. However, as there were less than 5 % missing item in each case, no item or case was excluded from the data set in the present study.

The findings of this study are presented in two sections. The relevant descriptive statistics are showed in the first section and the second section reports the findings of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis conducted to investigate the possible relationships between demographic variables (gender and type of residence), English proficiency level, personal factors (academic self-efficacy, organization and attention to study, stress and time pressure, involvement in college activities, emotional satisfaction and classroom communication) and affective factors of

language learning (motivation, anxiety and English self concept) in predicting preparatory students' language success.

In Multiple Linear Regression Analysis procedure, the demographic variables, English proficiency level, personal and affective predictors were entered as separate sets to see their roles over preparatory students' academic success. For these analyses, the effect size (adjusted  $R^2$ ) of the overall regression model, the associated significance test value ( $p$ ), and the individual contribution of each predictor (Beta) were reported. The  $F$  statistic (ANOVA) and the associated significance test ( $p$ ) indicates the significance of the model to predict the criterion.

#### **4.2 Correlation Coefficients, Means and Standard Deviations among Predictor Variables and Criterion Variables**

Descriptive statistics of model show that the mean of English Proficiency Exam is 65.97 with a standard deviation of 11.24. Among personal variables, the mean of academic self-efficacy is 61.45 with a standard deviation of 7.03; organization and attention to study  $M=24.91$ ,  $SD=5.64$ ; stress and time press  $M=19.41$ ,  $SD=4.22$ ; involvement in college activities  $M=27.82$ ,  $SD=5.35$ ; emotional satisfaction  $M=21.98$ ,  $SD=3.50$ ; classroom communication  $M=21.62$ ,  $SD=3.49$ . The means and standard deviations of affective variables were as following; effort to learn English  $M=26.38$ ,  $SD=5.58$ ; interest in English  $M=26.37$ ,  $SD=5.70$ ; value attached to English  $M=29.92$ ,  $SD=4.15$ ; self concept  $M=19.55$ ,  $SD=4.61$ ; and finally speaking anxiety  $M=22,06$ ,  $SD=6.14$ . The intercorrelations of predictor variables of English Proficiency Exam show that pre-intermediate vs. upper-intermediate group,

stress and time press, class communication and English self-concept have the highest correlations as given in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1** *Intercorrelations among the Predictor Variables of English Proficiency Exam Score*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
English Proficiency Exam	1.00																
Gender	.09	1.00															
METU Dorm. vs Family	.04*	-.16	1.00														
METU Dorm. vs Other	-.09	.06	-.29	1.00													
Pre-Int vs Intermediate	.17	.01*	-.05	.02*	1.00												
Pre-Int vs Upper-Intermediate	.49	.11	.02*	-.07	-.44	1.00											
Academic Self-Efficacy	.22	-.23	.01*	.07	.04*	-.07	1.00										
Organization&Attention to Study	.05	-.16	.02*	-.13	.00*	.08	.61	1.00									
Stress and Time Press	.42	.01*	-.03*	.26	.05	-.03*	.44	.39	1.00								
Involvement in College Activity	.15	-.12	.03*	.11	.03*	-.35	.32	.06	.07	1.00							
Emotional Satisfaction	.22	-.12	.06	.05	.08	-.07	.64	.53	.44	.31	1.00						
Class Communication	.30	.06	-.06	.11	.05	-.17	.40	.25	.44	.29	.38	1.00					
Effort to Learn English	.10	-.05	.04*	-.08	.02*	.03*	.52	.60	.30	.12	.45	.27	1.00				
Interest in English	.20	-.01*	.02*	.13	-.03*	-.06	.36	.27	.25	.18	.39	.27	.60	1.00			
Value Attached to English	.02*	-.19	-.08	.05	.04*	-.07	.33	.18	.11	.28	.32	.18	.43	.47	1.00		
English Self-concept	.52	.00*	.05	.35	.08	-.09	.41	.24	.45	.19	.33	.41	.35	.55	.19	1.00	
English Speaking Anxiety	.28	.19	-.05	.14	.10	-.14	.20	.10	.30	.24	.18	.61	.15	.18	.06	.45	1.00

\* $p < .05$

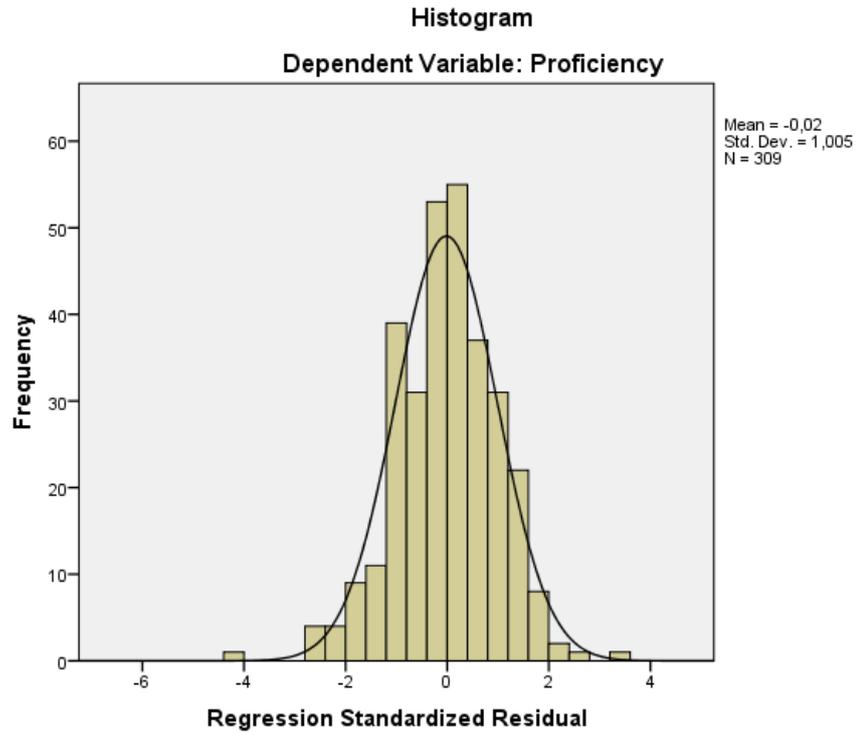
### **4.3 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis**

For analysis, Multiple Linear Regression Analysis was conducted to find the role of demographic variables, English proficiency level, personal and affective factors influencing academic success of preparatory school students.

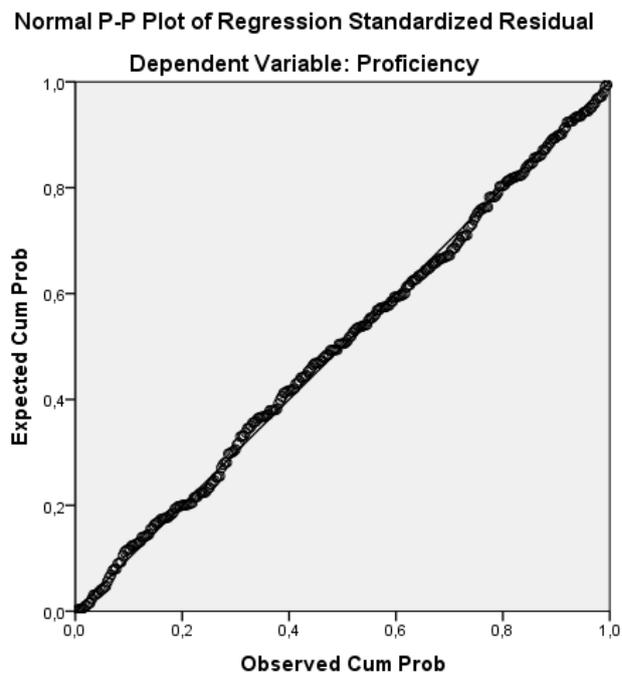
#### **4.3.1 Assumptions**

Prior to running the analysis, all the necessary assumptions of regression analysis, which are normality, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, independence of residuals and outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), were checked.

The histogram and normal probability plot of residuals was checked for the normality assumption of the residuals. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), the distribution of the histogram should not be too peaked or too flat. The histogram (see Figure 4.1) of residuals indicated approximately normal (bell-shaped) distributions with no significant outliers. Also, the normal P-P plots (see Figure 4.2) showed that there was no serious deviation from the straight line. Therefore, normality assumption of the residuals was satisfied in the analysis.



**Figure 4.1** Histogram for students' English Proficiency Exam Scores



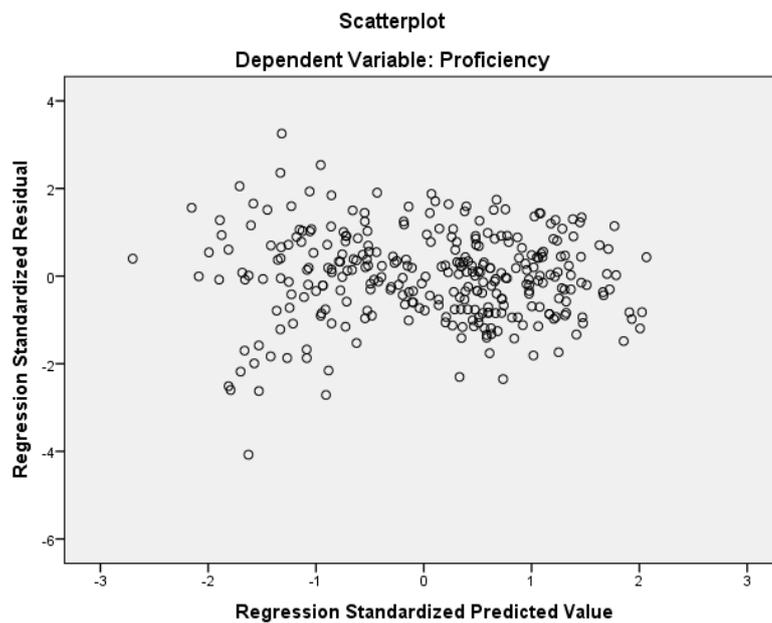
**Figure 4.2** P-P plot for students' English Proficiency Exam Scores

In order to check multicollinearity assumption, which is a sign of high correlations among the independent variables, variance inflation factor (VIF), tolerance, and bivariate correlations (Pearson) between independent variables were analyzed. According to Field (2005), VIF values should be less than 10, and the values of tolerance should be more than .20. Tolerance and VIF values requirements were satisfied as shown in Table 4.2. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), the correlation between independent variables should be less than .90 and Table 4.1 showed that the level of correlation was suitable for required limits. Therefore, it can be concluded that multicollinearity assumption was not violated.

**Table 4.2** *Tolerance and VIF Values of Predictor Variables*

Variables	Tolerance	VIF
Gender	.80	1.25
METU Dormitory vs Family	.84	1.18
METU Dormitory vs Other	.77	1.30
Pre-Intermediate vs Intermediate	.70	1.42
Pre-Intermediate vs Upper-Intermediate	.56	1.80
Academic Self Efficacy	.39	2.58
Organization and Attention to Study	.42	2.37
Stress and Time Press	.58	1.71
Involvement in College Activities	.67	1.50
Emotional Satisfaction	.48	2.09
Classroom Communication	.49	2.03
Effort to Learn English	.39	2.55
Interest in English	.42	2.36
Value Attached to English	.64	1.56
English Self-Concept	.42	2.37
English Speaking Anxiety	.52	1.93

Another assumption of multiple regression analysis is homoscedasticity. It was checked with scatter plots. According to Field (2005), if the spread on the vertical axis is great, the assumption of constant variance is less valid. Therefore, it can be concluded that there seemed no violation of assumption because the scores were randomly scattered and there was not any pattern of scores by looking at Figure 4.3.



**Figure 4.3** Scatterplot for English Proficiency Exam Scores

Then, independence of residuals assumption was checked via Durbin-Watson value and it should be between 1 and 3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The value showed that the residuals did not follow a pattern from case to case. As Durbin-Watson value was 2.22, the independence of residuals assumption was satisfied in this regression analysis.

Finally, Cook's distances, Leverage, Mahanobis distance were checked for assumption relevancy. First of all, Cook's distance showing the effect of one case over the model was observed as .01 and it should not be greater than 1. Then, leverage values, which should be between 0 and 1, were checked in order to see whether the case has an influence for the model and it was within the standards (Field, 2005). Finally, Mahanobis distance was checked to find the outliers in the data and all the values are lower than critical  $\chi^2$ , which was a good indicator because the sample was large and there are more than five subgroups. As a result, none of these assumptions appeared as a problem in this study.

#### **4.3.2 Findings of Multiple Regression Analysis**

The predictors of this study were personal (academic self efficacy, organization and attention to study, stress and time press, involvement in college activities, emotional satisfaction and class communication and affective (effort to learn English, interest in English and value attached to English, speaking anxiety and English self concept). Moreover, demographic items like gender and type of residence and finally English proficiency level were also the predictors of the study. The criterion variable was English Proficiency Exam scores of students.

Firstly, demographic variables of gender and type of residence were entered in the regression model. The type of residence was a variable with three categories. Thus, two dummy coded variables (METU dormitories vs family and METU dormitories vs. other) were created (Field, 2005).

Then, English proficiency level of students was entered as the second step. The summed scores for each predictor of personal variables labeled academic self efficacy (ASE), organization and attention to study (OAS), stress and time press (STP), involvement in college activities (ICA), emotional satisfaction (ES) and class communication (CC) were entered as the third phase.

Finally, predictor variables of affective questionnaire labeled effort to learn English, interest in English, value attached to English, English self concept and speaking anxiety were entered to the regression model. The results of the analysis were summarized in Table 4.3.

**Table 4.3** Results of the Hierarchical Regression Predicting Academic Success

Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	$\beta$	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>	$\Delta R^2$	$\Delta F$
Model 1						.02	2.36
Gender	.49	.91	.02	.53	.59		
METU Dormitory vs Family	.30	.93	.01	.33	.74		
METU Dormitory vs Other	-.59	1.32	-.02	-.44	.66		
Model 2						.41	129.01
Pre-Intermediate vs Intermediate	9.36	.99	.41	9.41*	.00		
Pre-Intermediate vs Upper-Intermediate	14.15	1.28	.54	11.08*	.00		
Model 3						.09	11.01
Academic Self-Efficacy	-.02	.09	-.01	-.18	.86		
Organization and Attention to Study	-.08	.11	-.04	-.77	.44		
Stress and Time Press	.42	.13	.16	3.32*	.00		
Involvement in College Activities	-.00	.09	-.00	-.03	.97		
Emotional Satisfaction	.10	.17	.03	.57	.57		
Class Communication	.33	.16	.10	2.02*	.04		

**Table 4.3 (continued)**

Model 4					.03	4.63
Effort to Learn English	.11	.12	.06	.98	.33	
Interest in English	-.19	.11	-.09	-1.70	.09	
Value Attached to English	-.08	.12	-.03	-.62	.53	
English Self-Concept	.59	.13	.24	4.33*	.00	
English Speaking Anxiety	-.01	.09	-.00	-.10	.92	

*Note.* Dependent Variable = English Proficiency Exam. \* $p < .05$

Results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated that demographic variables were not found as significant predictors in the first step,  $\Delta R^2 = .02$ ,  $\Delta F (3, 359) = 2.36$ ,  $p > .05$ . In the second step, when English proficiency level of students were entered into the model, the results were found as significant by explaining 41 % of the total variance,  $\Delta R^2 = .41$ ,  $\Delta F (2, 357) = 129.01$ ,  $p < .05$ . Adding personal variables as the third step increased the accountability by 9 % with a significant value,  $\Delta R^2 = .09$ ,  $\Delta F (6, 351) = 11.01$ ,  $p < .05$ . Finally, in the last step, affective variables were entered and the model was significant by explaining 3 % of the variance,  $\Delta R^2 = .03$ ,  $\Delta F (5, 346) = 4.63$ ,  $p < .05$ . The regression model was significant as shown in the Table 4.3 and overall 53 % of the variance of the scores can be accounted for by the combination of predictors.

Among the significant predictors, English proficiency level of students, pre-intermediate vs. intermediate ( $\beta = .41$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and pre-intermediate vs. upper intermediate ( $\beta = .54$ ,  $p < .05$ ), appeared to make the strongest contribution to the prediction of students' academic success. It was followed by English self concept

( $\beta = .24$   $p < .05$ ), stress and time pressure ( $\beta = .16$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and classroom communication ( $\beta = .10$   $p < .05$ ). However, gender, type of residence, involvement in college activities, emotional satisfaction, interest in English, effort to learn English, value attached to English and speaking anxiety were not significant predictors in the model as they did not reveal significant bivariate correlations with the criterion while predicting students' success.

#### **4.4 Summary**

The main goal of the study was to find out the role of demographic variables (gender and type of residence), English proficiency level, the personal factors (academic self-efficacy, organization and attention to study, stress and time pressure, involvement in college activities, emotional satisfaction and classroom communication) and affective factors of language learning (motivation, anxiety and English self concept) in predicting English language preparatory students' success. According to results, 53 % of the variance in the criterion variable is accounted for by the model. Among the predictors, English proficiency level of students, English self concept, stress and time pressure, classroom communication were found as significant predictors. However, gender, accommodation, involvement in college activities, emotional satisfaction, interest in English, effort to learn English, value attached to English and speaking anxiety were not significant predictors in the model.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents discussion of the results based on the statistical analysis, as well as implications and recommendations for further research.

#### 5.1 Discussion of the Results

The purpose of this study was to find the role of gender, type of residence, English proficiency level, personal variables and affective factors of English language learning in predicting language preparatory school students' academic success. The results indicated that 53 % of the variance in the criterion variable is explained by the model and English proficiency level, stress and time pressure, class communication and English self-concept appeared as significant predictors. However, contrary to expectations, gender, type of residence, academic self-efficacy, involvement in college activities, emotional satisfaction, interest in English, effort to learn English, value attached to English and English speaking anxiety were not significant predictors.

According to results, demographic variables of gender and type of residence were not found as significant. Firstly, gender did not appear as an important predictor of academic success. This result was not in line with the findings of Mills et al. (2009) and Creemers and Kyriakides (2010) indicating gender as a significant predictor of college student academic success and with some other studies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1993) showing that female students were more successful

than male students in language learning. On the contrary, current results supported Peterson's (2009) findings that revealed no difference between male and female students regarding success.

While the literature highly emphasized the importance of type of place of residence for students' academic success (Maşrabacı, 1989; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991), especially for first year students (Sand, 2000) and students who live in campus dormitories were found to be more successful than others (Aitken, 1982; Upcraft et al., 2005), the results of the study did not present a role of place of residence over academic success. One explanation for that finding is maybe the advantageous of both types of residence. As stated by Özgür, Babacan Gümüş and Durdu (2010), students living at home had advantageous such as having better physical conditions and feeling much free; on the other hand, students living at dormitories had advantageous such as the ease of nutrition, cleanup, resting and using social and educational sources. Moreover, the literature regarding the positive influence of staying at dormitories underlined the easy access to resources such as library, cafeteria or sports activities within the campus environment (Özgür et al., 2010; Upcraft et al., 2005). However, with the help of the widespread facilities of technology, students might have more social and educational opportunities outside the campus than in the past. Thus, as findings of the current study indicated, staying on the campus or outside the campus with the parents or friends may not predict academic success.

In the present study, the second set of variable entered in the model was English proficiency level and it was the strongest predictor of students' academic

success by explaining 41% of the total variance. The upper-intermediate class students achieved the highest scores, intermediate class students achieved less than upper-intermediate, prognosticatively; pre-intermediate class students got the lowest proficiency exam scores. In Department of Basic English, students are given a placement exam at the beginning of the academic year and placed in classes according to their placement exam results. The students are subject to learn English through a year in classes based on their proficiency level. The students in low proficiency groups study extended period of time to catch up with students in high proficiency groups so that they can enter the same proficiency exam to pass the language preparatory school. However, the findings of this study indicated that students who had higher proficiency level got higher scores in English Proficiency Exam. In other words, even though students in lower proficiency classes received extended hours of training in English language, the language proficiency gap between groups still existed in the proficiency exam. In conclusion, the present findings confirmed earlier studies (Atbaş, 2004; Carrell, 1983; Krashen, 1981; Mills et al., 2009) indicating that there was a significant relationship between proficiency level, or prior knowledge in target language and academic success. The study also confirmed the literature indicating that lower proficiency in English language led to lack of academic success (Graham, 2012).

In the current study, the third set of variables entered in the model were personal predictors (class communication, stress and time press, academic self efficacy, organization and attention to study, involvement in college activities, and emotional satisfaction). Among the personal variables, class communication was

found to be positively associated with academic success. The class communication includes feeling free in the classroom while asking questions, giving new ideas or expressing what they have learnt on the exam paper, having good relations with peers and faculty members. This finding was consistent with the literature indicating that students who were open to communication and felt relax had higher grades (Reason et al., 2006; Rubin et al., 1990).

The study revealed surprising results in terms of stress and time press which was the second personal predictor. Although the literature argued intensely the negative effect of stress over student academic success (Alzaeem et al., 2010; Bland et al., 2012), the findings of this study indicated that stress was a predictor of students' academic success and there was a positive relationship between stress and success. It means that as students felt more stressful, they achieved better. In some aspects, this finding was consistent with the literature indicating the benefit of some stress for motivation and performance (Cahir & Moris, 1991) and perceived stress as the result of academic success (Jepson & Forrest, 2006).

Contrary to the literature (Komarraju et al., 2010; Kuh et al., 2005; Mills et al., 2007; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005;), the findings of the study did not reveal other personal variables such as academic self-efficacy, organization and attention to study, involvement in college activities and emotional satisfaction as significant predictors of academic success in the model. One of the most surprising results was the nonsignificant relationship between academic self efficacy and academic success. It means that whether students believed they could succeed or not had not related to their academic success. Even though a great amount of research underlined the

positive influence of self-efficacy over success (Golden, 2003; Landis et al., 2007; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002; Margolis, 2005; Ormrod, 2003; Zimmerman, 2000), this study contradicted with earlier studies. This might be because of the fact that the participants of the present study were English language preparatory students and their academic self efficacy might be based on only English language; closely related to this prediction, their English self concept was a significant predictor of in the academic success present study, which was a consisted result with the literature (Chastain, 1975; Clement et al., 1994; Dörnyei, 2009).

Moreover, the results showed that participating students' academic success was not associated with organization and attention to study. It was a surprising finding since in the literature, it was stated that underachievement aroused due to inadequate knowledge of how to study (Balduf, 2009) and in order to be successful, students should pay attention to their studies, concentrate better and be organized (Pauk & Owens, 2011). In addition, the results were contradictory with the study of Baslanti (2008) which concluded that 64 % of Turkish gifted underachievers had problems with preparing for their studies and be organized. The reason might be that language preparatory students are learning only English during their first year and it might be difficult for them to be organized while learning a foreign language, which requires some skills to be developed (Sparks & Ganschow, 1996; Su & Duo, 2012). Moreover, it was stated in the literature that first year students entered into a different world and culture. This might lead to transition or adjustment problems for first year students (Hunter, 2006; Tinto, 2005). Consequently, preparatory students might be experiencing difficulty in concentrating on their studies.

In the present study, another personal variable, involvement in college activities, was not also related to academic success. A great amount of research supported the view that the more students involved with college activities, the more they got successful (Cooper et al., 1994; Kuh et al., 2005; Pascarella & Reason, 2005; Reason et al., 2006). However, Aitken's findings (1982) that found involvement in extracurricular activities was not a significant predictor of academic success is parallel to current findings. In that study, Aitken (1982) concluded that the impact of involvement in college activities might start after the first year. This perspective might be valid for the participants of this study as well because language preparatory school students might not know all the possibilities or how to be a part of those activities at campus due to the fact that preparatory school is far away from the center of university where nearly all the extracurricular activities are conducted.

The personal variable of emotional satisfaction includes faculty taking an interest in students' academic success, liking the courses and university, instructors' behaviors and being satisfied about future career plans. Contrary to the literature (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Pritchard & Wilson, 2003), in the current study, emotional satisfaction did not come out as a predictor of academic success. Emotional satisfaction regards faculty taking care in students' academic success as an indicator of academic success. When the students feel cared, they believe their capacity to achieve more and increase academic self efficacy (Komarraju et al., 2010). Moreover, Decker et al. (2007) consider this belief as a better indicator of emotional satisfaction than academic success. The insignificant finding of emotional

satisfaction might be explained by the Umbach and Wawrzynski's (2005) suggestion that students might tend to search for support not from faculty but from other sources.

The last set of variables entered in the model were affective variables of language learning (English self concept, motivation and anxiety). Results showed that only English self-concept predicted academic success but not the other variables of motivation and attitudes towards English and speaking anxiety. Parallel to the existing literature (Chastain, 1975; Clement et al., 1994; Dörnyei, 2009), current findings revealed a positive correlation between English language self-concept and academic success. In another words, the more students had higher self-concept regarding learning English, the more they achieved. Consequently, this study supported the general view that how students perceive themselves while learning a foreign language is related to their success (Chastain, 1975; Clement et al., 1994; Dörnyei, 2009).

Another affective factor of the present study was motivation including interest in English, value attached to English and effort to learn English. The findings of the present study did not reveal a statistically significant relationship between students' motivation and English proficiency exam scores. This result was contradicting with the literature. According to Dörnyei (2009) and Gardner and Lambert (1972), motivation and attitude was a crucial predictor of academic success. Additionally, Genc and Kaya (2010) found statistically significant relationship between grades and motivation of language preparatory students; on the other hand, no statistically significance between grades and desire to learn English. As related with this finding of Genc and Kaya (2010), desire to learn English did not predict the

academic success in the present study. The reason might be that the literature emphasizes the positive association of willing to learn a foreign language and academic success (Noels et al., 2000), but learning English is a compulsory for the students in language preparatory school and they do not intentionally choose language classes. Therefore, their motivation level might not predict their academic success.

Another interesting result was that among affective factors, speaking anxiety was not related to academic success. Almost the whole literature signifies the negative impact of anxiety over success (Andres, 2002; Atbaş, 2004; Krashen, 1981). However, in this study, academic success of preparatory students was not associated with feeling anxious while speaking in the target language. It might be because of the fact that English Proficiency Exam does not include speaking part. In other words, the exam consists of parts measuring reading, vocabulary, writing and listening skills but not speaking skill. Hence, students might not consider speaking in English as an anxiety provoking factor for academic success.

## **5.2 Implications for Practice**

The results of the present study provided valuable information regarding factors related with language preparatory school students' academic success. It is expected that the findings may offer valuable information to university counseling centers, language preparatory school administrators and instructors. The significant predictors of academic success were English proficiency level of students, classroom communication, stress and time press and English self-concept. First of all, academic

success is associated with the influence of background knowledge to the present study. If the faculty members teaching in high level classes are aware of the fact that students' background knowledge plays a crucial role in academic success, they can prepare activities related to it. Also, students in lower level classes can be supported via peer tutoring programs and student clubs based on different skills so that different learning opportunities are conducted in order to enhance these students.

Similarly, the positive affect of class communication over student academic success might suggest that a good relationship between peers and classroom environment where students feel free to ask questions and contribute with different ideas increase academic success. Consequently, faculty members can create an environment where students have a chance to study with their friends and open to new ideas like group projects, role plays or other performance studies. Therefore, this finding can be used in order to improve activities applied within the classroom beyond only teaching the classroom material and this view can improve student-centered learning in which students are responsible for learning.

The predictor of stress and time press gives valuable information to university counseling centers and psychological counselors for practice. As the most evident implication, it can be given that the literature mentions the negative relationship between stress and academic success; however, the present study adds to another perspective that perceived stress can influence academic success in a positive way. Therefore, the counselors should keep this positive influence in mind while counseling with preparatory students.

The significance of English self-concept can be used to give some implications as well. As students have higher self-concept regarding learning English, they achieve more. Therefore, the university counseling centers can work in cooperation with preparatory school in order to use the influence of English self-concept on academic success. The instructors can be encouraged to give more positive feedback for students' academic success and the preparatory school can be offered to use some rewarding activities for students' academic success.

On the other hand, insignificant predictors of academic success indicate some implications for practice. First of all, as involvement in college activities did not predict students' academic success in the present study, the administration or faculty members could direct students to attend outside the classroom activities by enhancing the number and the type of announcement of the activities since the students might not know the present opportunities due to the location of the preparatory school. Moreover, predictors contradicted with the literature might seem to indicate that there might be other factors to be worked on as the inevitable return of the changing society and technology.

Finally, in the present study, a new inventory measuring personal factors has been adapted to Turkish and as a research implication, this new inventory can be used in future studies practically. Furthermore, this inventory can reveal students' profiles about personal factors. Therefore, university counseling centers and psychological counselors can use this new practical inventory to get more information about students' profiles in terms of personal factors.

### **5.3 Recommendations for Further Research**

The findings of the study offer some suggestions for further research. First of all, participants of this study were English language preparatory school students from pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate levels of only one university. Therefore, future studies could be conducted with students from other universities at all proficiency levels. Since the present study is one of the first attempts to investigate personal factors of effective learning and affective factors of foreign language learning in Turkey, the study should be replicated in other universities in Turkey whose medium of instruction is English and have language preparatory schools. This would strengthen the findings of the present study.

The present study focused on predictors of effective learning and 53 % of variance was explained by the model, mostly English proficiency level. Consequently, another suggestion for future research might be including some other factors to the model. In terms of personal variables, adjustment to the university, autonomy, commitment to the university and study habits can be added to the further studies. Moreover, in terms of affective variables, language study and learning skills, native language skills, prior exposure to language or reading anxiety of language preparatory students can be added in order to find the predictors of unexplained variance. As the proficiency level was found as the best predictor and followed by English self-concept, researchers studying with language preparatory school students can design future research by including other variables that might predict academic success.

## REFERENCES

- Adams, N.J., Marsh, G., Irons, E.J. & Carlson, N.L. (2010). First time university students: Predictors of success. *National Social Science Journal*, 36(1), 1-7.
- Ægisdóttir, S., Gerstein, L.H. & Canel-Çınarbaş, G.D. (2008). Methodological issues in cross-cultural counseling research: Equivalence, bias, and translations. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 36, 188-219. doi:10.1177/0011000007305384
- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 155-167. doi:10.2307/329005i
- Aitken, N.D. (1982). College student performance, satisfaction and retention. *Journal of Higher Education*, 53(1), 32-50. doi:10.2307/1981537
- Allington, R.L. & Cunningham, P.M. (2002). *Schools that work: Where all children read and write*. (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Altbach, P.G. (2011). Patterns of higher education development. In Altbach, P.G., Gumport, P.J. & Berdahl, R.O. (Eds.). *American higher education in the twenty first century*. Baltimore, MA: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Alzaeem, A.Y., Sulaiman, S.A. & Wasif Gillani, S. (2010). Assessment of the validity and reliability for a newly developed stress in academic life scale

(SALS) for pharmacy undergraduates. *International Journal of Collaborative Research on Internal Medicine & Public Health*, 2(7), 239-256.

Anaya, G. & Cole, D.G. (2001). Latina/o student achievement: Exploring the influence of student-faculty interactions on college grades. *Journal of College Student Development*, 42(1), 3-14.

Andres, V. (2002). The influence of affective variables on EFL/ESL learning and teaching. *The Journal of the Imagination in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7. Retrieved from: <http://www.njcu.edu/cill/vol7/andres.html>

Anyadubalu, C. (2010). Self-efficacy, anxiety, and performance in the English language among middle-school students in English language program in Satri Si Suriyothai School, Bangkok. *International Journal of Human and Social Sciences*, 5(3), 193-198.

Astin, A.W. (1984). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 25, 297-308.

Astin, A.W. (1993). What matters in college? *Liberal Education*, 79(4), 4-12.

Astin, A. W. (1996). Involvement in learning revisited: Lessons we have learned. *Journal of College Student Development*, 37, 123–134.

Astin, A.W. (1999). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. *Journal of College Student Development*, 40(5), 518-529.

- Atbaş, E.E. (2004). *The effects of students' entering characteristics and classroom environment experiences on their language learning outcomes in an EFL setting in Turkey*. (Unpublished Doctoral Thesis) Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- AUCC (2001). *Joint declaration on higher education and the general agreement on trade and services*. Retrieved from [www.aucc.ca](http://www.aucc.ca).
- Balduf, M. (2009). Underachievement among college students. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, 20(2), 274-294. doi:10.1177/1932202X0902000204
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Baslanti, U. (2008). Investigating the underachievement of university students in Turkey: Exploring subscales. *International Journal of Progressive Education*, 4(2), 40–56. Retrieved from <http://www.inased.org/v4n2/baslanti.html>
- Berberoğlu, D. (2001). *Assessment of affective characteristics of students and their relations to achievement in English: A case study*. (Unpublished master thesis) Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Blackburn, R. & Lawrence, J. (1995). *Faculty at Work: Motivation, Expectation, Satisfaction*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

- Bland, H.W., Melton, B.F., Welle, P. & Bigham, L. (2012). Stress tolerance: new challenges for Millennial college students. *College Student Journal*, 46(2), 362-375.
- Bong, M. (2001). Role of self-efficacy and task-value in predicting college students' course performance and future enrollment intentions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 26(4), 553–570. doi:10.1006/ceps.2000.1048
- Bowman, N.A. (2010). Can 1st-year college students accurately report their learning and development. *American Educational Research Journal*, 47(2), 466–496. doi:10.3102/0002831209353595
- Bown, J. & White, C. (2010). A social and cognitive approach to affect in SLA. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, IRAL*, 48, 331-353. doi:10.1515/iral.2010.014
- Brooks, S.P. & DuBois, D.L. (1995). Individual and environmental predictors of adjustment during the first year of college. *Journal of College Student Development*, 36, 347-360.
- Brown, H.D. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. (3rd ed.) New Jersey, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Browne, M.W. & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In Bollen, K.A. & Long, J.S. (Eds.) *Testing structural equation models*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

- Bryson, C. & Hand, L. (2007). The role of engagement in inspiring teaching and learning. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 44(4), 349-62. doi:10.1080/14703290701602748
- Burns, T. & Sinfield, S. (2003). *Essential study skills*. London, UK: Sage.
- Cahir, N. & Moris, R. (1991). The psychology student stress questionnaire. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 47(3), 414-417. doi:10.1002/1097-4679(199105)47:3<414::AID-JCLP2270470314>3.0.CO;2-M
- Canfield, C. & Zastavker, Y.V. (2010). *Achievement Goal Theory: A framework for Implementing group work and open-ended problem solving*. 40th ASEE/IEEE Frontiers in Education Conference, Washington, DC.
- Campbell, K. C. & Fuqua, D. R. (2008). Factors predictive of student completion in a collegiate honors program. *Journal of College Student Retention*, 10(2), 129. doi:10.2190/CS.10.2.b
- Caprara, G.V., Vecchione, M., Alessandri, G., Gerbino, M. & Barbaranelli, C. (2011). The contribution of personality traits and self-efficacy beliefs to academic achievement: A longitudinal study. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81, 78–96. doi:10.1348/2044-8279.002004
- Carrell, P.L. (1983). *Some issues in studying the role of schemata, or background knowledge, in second language comprehension*. Paper presented at TESOL Convention, Toronto, Canada.

- Cemaloglu, N. & Filiz, S. (2010). The relation between time management skills and academic achievement of potential teachers. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 33(4), 3-23.
- Chastain, K. (1975). Affective and ability factors in second language learning. *Language Learning*, 25, 153-161. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.1975.tb00115.x
- Chemers, M.M., Hu, L. & Garcia, B.F. (2001). Academic self efficacy and first year college student performance and adjustment. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93(1), 55-64. doi:10.1037//0022-0663.93.1.55
- Chireshe, R., Shumba, A., Mudhovozi, P. & Denhere, C. (2009). University students' attributions towards academic success or failure. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 23(5), 865-876. doi:10.4314/sajhe.v23i5.48805
- Chou, C.T. (2007). *A study on the relationships among English self efficacy, English learning anxiety, English learning strategies, and English learning achievement of senior high school students*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation) National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, Taiwan.
- Clement, R., Dörnyei, Z. & Noels, K.A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, 44, 417-448. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02042.x
- Clement, R., Gardner, R.C. & Smythe, P.C. (1977). Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A study of Francophones learning English. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science*, 9, 123-133. doi:10.1037/h0081614

- Coates, H. (2005). The value of student engagement for higher education quality assurance. *Quality in Higher Education*, 11(1), 25-36.  
doi:10.1080/13538320500074915
- Cole, J.S., Kennedy, M. & Ben-Avie, M. (2009). The role of precollege data in assessing and understanding student engagement in college. *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 141, 55-69. doi: 10.1002/ir.286
- Combs, P. (2007). *Major in Success: Make college easier, fire up your dreams, and get a great job*. Ten Speed Press: New York.
- Cooper, D.L., Healy, M.A. & Simpson, J. (1994). Student development through involvement: Specific changes over time. *Journal of College Development*, 35, 98-102.
- Cox, B.E., McIntosh, K.L., Terenzini, P.T., Reason, R.D. & Lutovsky Quaye, B.R. (2009). *Factors shaping faculty-student interaction outside the classroom: Institutional, demographic, and pedagogical influences*. Paper presented at the conference of the American Educational Research Association, San Diego, CA.
- Credé, M. & Kuncel, N.R. (2008). Study habits, skills, and attitudes: The third pillar supporting collegiate academic performance. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 3(6), 425-453. doi: 10.1111/j.1745-6924.2008.00089.x
- Creemers, B. & Kyriakides, L. (2010). School factors explaining achievement on cognitive and affective outcomes: Establishing a dynamic model of

educational effectiveness. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 54(3), 263–294. doi:10.1080/00313831003764529

Csizér, K. & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behavior. *Language Learning*, 55(4), 613-659. doi:10.1111/j.0023-8333.2005.00319.x

Dafei, D. (2007). An exploration of the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency. *Asian EFL Journal*, 24, 1-23.

Decker, M.D., Dona, P.D. & Christenson, S.L. (2007). Behaviorally at risk African American students: The importance of student-teacher relationships for student outcomes. *Journal of School Psychology*, 45(1), 83-109. doi:10.1016/j.jsp.2006.09.004

Dembo, M.H. & Seli, H. (2008). *Motivation and learning strategies for college success*. (3rd ed.) New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.

Demirtaş, H. & Özer, N. (2007). Öğretmen adaylarının zaman yönetimi becerileri ile akademik başarısı arasındaki ilişkisi. *Eğitimde Politika Analizleri ve Stratejik Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 2(1), 1–17. Retrieved from <http://www.inased.org/epasad/c2s1/demirtasozer.pdf>

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. New Jersey, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). *The psychology of second language acquisition*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Department of Basic English, (n.d). Rules and Regulations. Retrieved from [http://www.dbe.metu.edu.tr/student/duyurular/Rules\\_and\\_relgulations\\_2011\\_2012\\_fall.pdf](http://www.dbe.metu.edu.tr/student/duyurular/Rules_and_relgulations_2011_2012_fall.pdf)

Drew, S. & Bingham, R. (2010). *The guide to learning and study skills for higher education and at work*. Farnham, UK: Gower Publishing Limited.

Ehrman, M. E. & Oxford, R. L. (1995). Cognition plus: Correlates of language learning success. *Modern Language Journal*, 79, 67-89.  
doi:10.1111/j.1540-4781.1995.tb05417.x

Evans, M. & Farley, A. (1998). Institutional characteristics and the relationship between students' first year university and final year secondary school academic performance. *Journal of Institutional Research in Australia*, 7(2), 36-44.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. (2nd ed.) London: Sage.

Finn, J.D. & Rock, D.A. (1997). Academic success among students at risk for school failure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(2), 221-234.  
doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.82.2.221

Forsyth, D.R. & Schlenker, L. (1977). Attributing the causes of group performance: Effects of performance quality, task importance and future testing. *Journal of*

*Personality*, 45, 220-236. doi:10.1111/j.1467-6494.1977.tb00148.x

Fraenkel, J.R. & Wallen, N.E. (2006). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Frantzen, D. & Magnan, S.S. (2005). Anxiety and true beginner-false beginner dynamic in beginning French and Spanish classes. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(2), 171-186. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.2005.tb02483.x

Fredricks, J.A., Blumenfeld, P.C. & Paris, A.H. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 74(1), 59–109. doi: 10.3102/00346543074001059

Friedlander, L.J., Reid, G.J., Shupak, N. & Cribbie, R. (2007). Social support, self-esteem, and stress as predictors of adjustment to university among first year undergraduates. *Journal of College Student Development*, 48(3), 259-274. doi:10.1353/csd.2007.0024

Galanakis, M., Stalikas, A., Kallia, H., Karagianni, C. & Karela, C. (2009). Gender differences in experiencing occupational stress: the role of age, education and marital status. *Stress and Health*, 25, 397–404. doi: 10.1002/smi.1248

Gardner, R.C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London, GB: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R.C. & Lambert, W.E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

- Genç, G. & Bilgin-Aksu, M. (2004). İnönü üniversitesi öğrencilerinin İngilizce derslerine ilişkin tutumları. XIII. Ulusal Eğitim Bilimleri Kurultayı, Malatya. Retrieved from <http://www.pegem.net/dosyalar/dokuman/314.pdf>
- Genc, G. & Kaya, A. (2010). An investigation on the motivational level of EFL students. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications*, 1(3), 17-27.
- George, D. & Mallery, P. (2003). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference, 11.0 update*. Boston, USA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Gogus, A. & Gunes, H. (2011). Learning styles and effective learning habits of university students: A case from Turkey. *College Student Journal*, 45(3), 586-600.
- Golden, S. (2003). Self-efficacy: How does it influence academic success. *Adult Learning*, 14(3), 14-16.
- Graddol, D. (2006). *English Next*. British Council.
- Graham, J.G. (2012). English language proficiency and the prediction of academic success. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21, 505-521. doi: 10.2307/3586500
- Graunke, S. & Woosley, S. (2005). An exploration of the factors that affect the academic success of college sophomores. *College Student Journal*, 39(2), 367-376.

- Grootenboer, P. (2010). Affective development in university education. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 29(6), 723-736.  
doi:10.1080/07294361003682586
- Hair, J.F., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L. & Black, W. C. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Ho, L.C. (2005). *The relationships among self-efficacy, collective efficacy, attitude, and academic performance of middle school students*. (Unpublished master's thesis) National Changhua University of Education, Changhua, Taiwan.
- Horwitz, E.K., Horwitz, M.B. & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, 70, 125-132. doi:10.2307/327317
- Hunter, M.S. (2006). Fostering student learning and success through first-year programs. *Associations of American Colleges & Universities*, 4-7.
- Hutley, K. (2001). *Alexander Astin's Theory of Involvement: A Summary*. Handout presented in Engaging Minds. Illinois State University, IL.
- Inkelas, K.K., Vogt, K.E., Longerbeam, S.D. & Owen, J.E. (2006). Measuring outcomes of living-learning programs: Examining college environments and student learning and development. *The Journal of General Education*, 55(1), 40-76. doi:10.1353/jge.2006.0017
- Ipek, H. (2009). Foreign language reading anxiety: Proficiency and gender. *The International Journal of Learning*, 16(8), 293-299.

Istance, D., Schuetze, H.D. & Schuller, T. (Eds) (2002). *International perspectives on lifelong learning: From recurrent education to the knowledge society*. Buckingham: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

Jepson, E. & Forrest, S. (2006). Individual contributory factors in teacher stress: The role of achievement striving and occupational commitment. *Educational Psychology, 76*, 183-197. doi: 10.1348/000709905X37299

Johnston, B. (2010). *The first year at university. Teaching students in transition*. Glasgow: Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press. McGraw- Hill.

Kim, E., Newton, F.B., Downey, R.G. & Benton, S.L. (2010). Personal factors impacting college student success: Constructing College Learning Effectiveness Inventory (CLEI). *College Student Journal, 44*(1), 112-125.

Kitano, K. (2001). Anxiety in the college Japanese language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 85*(4), 549-566. doi:10.1111/0026-7902.00125

Klein, S.P., Kuh, G., Chun, M., Hamilton, L. & Shavelson, R. (2005). An approach to measuring cognitive outcomes across higher education institutions. *Research in Higher Education, 46*(3), 251-276.  
doi:10.1007/s11162-004-1640-3

Komarraju, M., Musulkin, S. & Bhattacharya, G. (2010). Role of student-faculty interactions in developing college students' academic self-concept,

motivation, and achievement. *Journal of College Student Development*, 51(3), 332-342. doi: 10.1353/csd.0.0137

Krashen, S.D. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. New York, NY: Pergamon.

Krashen, S.D. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New Jersey, NJ: Prentice-Hall International.

Krause, K. & Coates, H. (2008). Students' engagement in first-year university. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 33(5), 493-505. doi:10.1080/02602930701698892

Kuh, G.D. (1995). The other curriculum: Out of class experiences associated with student learning and personal development. *Journal of Higher Education*, 66(2), 123-155. doi:10.2307/2943909

Kuh, G.D. (2001). Assessing what really matters to student learning: Inside the National Survey of Student Engagement. *Change*, 33(3), 10-17. doi:10.1080/0009138010960179

Kuh, G.D. (2009). What student affairs professionals need to know about student engagement. *Journal of College Student Development*, 50(6), 683-706.

Kuh, G.D., Cruce, T.M., Shoup, R., Kinzie, J. & Gonyea, R.M. (2008). Unmasking the effects of student engagement on first year college grades and persistence. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 79(5), 540-563.

Kuh, G.D., Douglas, K.B., Lund, J.P., & Ramin-Gyurnek, J. (1994). Student learning outside the classroom: Transcending artificial boundaries. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report. The George Washington University, Washington, DC.

Kuh, G.D., Kinzie, J., Buckley, B.A., Bridges, B.K. & Hayek, J.C. (2006). *What matters to student success: A review of the literature*. Commissioned report for the National Symposium on Postsecondary Student Success. Retrieved from [http://nces.ed.gov/IPEDS/research/pdf/Kuh\\_Team\\_Report.pdf](http://nces.ed.gov/IPEDS/research/pdf/Kuh_Team_Report.pdf)

Kuh, G.D., Kinzie, J., Schuh, J.H., & Whitt, E. (2005). *Student success in college: Creating conditions that matter*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Larrotta, C. & Serrano, A. (2011). Adult learners' funds of knowledge: The case of an English class for parents. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 55(4), 316-325. doi:10.1002/JAAL.00038

Landis, B.D., Altman, J.D. & Cavin, J.D. (2007). Underpinnings of academic success: Effective study skills use as a function of academic locus of control and self-efficacy. *Psi Chi Journal of Undergraduate Research*, 12(3), 126-130.

Lindley, L.D. & Borgen, F.H. (2002). Generalized self-efficacy, Holland theme self-efficacy, and academic performance. *Journal of Career Assessment*, 10(3), 301-314. doi:10.1177/10672702010003002

- Linnenbrink, E.A. & Pintrich, P.R. (2002). Motivation as an enabler for academic success. *School Psychology Review*, 31, 313-327.
- Lyubomirsky, S., Sheldon, K. M. & Schkade, D. (2005). Pursuing happiness: The architecture of sustainable change. *Review of General Psychology*, 9(2), 111-131. doi: 10.1037/1089-2680.9.2.111
- MacIntyre, P.D. & Gardner, R.C. (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety and language learning: A review of literature. *Language Learning*, 41, 85-114. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00677.x
- MacIntyre, P.D. & Gardner, R.C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning*, 44, 283-305. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01103.x
- Magolda, P. (2005). *Promoting student success: What student leaders can do*. Bloomington, IN: NSSE. Indiana University Center for Postsecondary Research. Retrieved from <http://nsse.iub.edu/institute/documents/briefs/DEEP%20Practice%20Brief%2008%20W>
- Mahmood, A. & Iqbal, S. (2010). Difference of student anxiety level towards English as a foreign language subject and their academic achievement. *International Journal of Academic Research*, 2(6), 199-203.
- Margolis, H. (2005). Increasing struggling learners' self efficacy: What tutors can do and say. *Mentoring and Tutoring*, 13(2), pp. 221-238.

doi:10.1080/13611260500105675

Marsh, H.W. (1990). The structure of academic self-concept: The Marsh/Shavelson Model. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(4), 623-636.

doi:10.1037//0022-0663.82.4.623

Martin, A.J. (2009). Motivation and engagement across the academic life span: A developmental construct validity study of elementary school, high school, and university/college students. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 69(5), 794-824. doi:10.1177/0013164409332214

Maşrabacı, T.S. (1989). Yurttta kalan ve kalmayan üniversite öğrencilerinin ruh sağlığını etkileyen psikolojik faktörler. Üniversite Gençliğinde Uyum Sorunları Sempozyumu Bilimsel Çalışmaları. Bilkent Üniversitesi, Ankara: Meteksan.

McMillan, K. & Weyers, J. (2011). *The study skills book*. Essex, UK: Pearson.

McWhorter, K. (2011). *Study and critical thinking skills in college*. (7th ed.) USA: Pearson.

Mercer, S. (2008). Learner self-beliefs. *ELT Journal*, 62(2), 182-184.

doi:10.1093/elt/ccn001

Mills, C., Heyworth, J., Rosenwax, L. & Carr, S. (2009). Factors associated with the academic success of first year health science students. *Advances in Health Science Education*, 14(2), 205-217. doi: 10.1007/s10459-008-9103-9

- Mills, N., Pajares, F. & Herron, C. (2007). Self-efficacy of college intermediate French students: Relation to achievement and motivation. *Language Learning, 57*(3), 417-442. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2007.00421.x
- Mortimore, P. (1999). Understanding pedagogy and its impact on learning. *Life Sciences Education, 48*(4), 456-459.
- National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) (2000). The NSSE 2000 Report: National benchmarks of effective educational practice. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Center for Postsecondary Research.
- National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) (2009). Using NSSE to assess and improve undergraduate education: Lessons from the field. Bloomington, IN: NSSE.
- Newton, F.B., Kim, E., Wilcox, D. & Beemer, N. (2008). *Administration and scoring manual for the college learning effectiveness inventory (CLEI)*. Kansas State University, Manhattan.
- Nguyen, T.K.Q. (2011). Globalization and higher education in Vietnam. *Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies, 23*(1), 117-136.
- Nilsen, H. (2009). Influence on student academic behavior through motivation, self-efficacy and value-expectation: An action research project to improve learning. *Issues in Informing Science and Information Technology, 6*, 545-556.

- Noels, K.A., Pelletier, L.G. & Vallerand, R.J. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning, 50*(1), 57-85. doi:10.1111/0023-8333.00111
- Nurzali, I. & Khairu'l, N.I. (2009). The effects of classroom communication on students' academic performance at the International Islamic University Malaysia. *Unitar E-Journal, 5*(1), 37-49.
- Okada, M., Oxford, R.L. & Abo, S. (1996). Not all alike: Motivation and learning strategies among students of Japanese and Spanish in an exploratory study. In Rebecca, L.O. (Ed.) *Language Learning Motivation: Pathways to the New Century*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second language Teaching & Curriculum Center.
- Ormrod, J.E. (2003). *Educational psychology: Developing learners* (4th ed.) Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Oxford, R. L. (1993). Instructional implications of gender differences in language learning styles and strategies. *Applied Language Learning, 4*, 65-94.
- Özgür, G., Babacan Gümüş, A. & Durdu, B. (2010). Evde ve yurttan kalan üniversite öğrencilerinde yaşam doyumu. *Journal of Psychiatric Nurses, 1*(1), 25-32.
- Pascarella, E.T. & Terenzini, P.T. (1991). *How college affects students: Findings and insights from twenty years of research*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. doi:10.1007/BF00992835

- Pascarella, E.T. & Terenzini, P.T. (2005). *How college affects students: A third decade of research*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Pascarella, E.T., Seifert, T.A. & Blaich, C. (2010). How effective are the NSSE benchmarks in predicting important educational outcomes? *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 42(1), 16-22.  
doi:10.1080/00091380903449060
- Pauk, W. & Owens, R.J.Q. (2011). *How to study in college*. (10th ed.) Boston, MA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Peltier, G.L., Laden, R. & Matranga, M. (1999). Student persistence in college: A review of research. *Journal of College Student Retention*, 1(4), 357-375.
- Peterson, V.M. (2009). Predictors of academic success in first semester baccalaureate nursing students. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(3), 411-418.  
doi:10.2224/sbp.2009.37.3.411
- Petrides, J.R. (2006). Attitudes and motivation and their impact on the performance of young English language learners. *Journal of Language and Learning*, 5(1), 1-20.
- Pierce, C. (1994). Importance of classroom climate for at-risk learners. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 88, 37-42. doi:10.1080/00220671.1994.9944832
- Pierceall, E. A. & Keim, M. C. (2007). Stress and coping strategies among community college students. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 31, 703-712. doi:10.1080/10668920600866579

- Pike, G.R. & Kuh, G.D. (2005). A typology of student engagement for American colleges and universities. *Research in Higher Education, 46*(2), 185-209.  
doi:10.1007/s11162-004-1599-0
- Prevatt, F., Li, H., Welles, T., Festa-Dreher, D., Yelland, S. & Lee, J. (2009). The academic success inventory for college students: Scale development and practical implications for use with students. *Journal of College Admissions, 211*, 26-31.
- Pritchard, M.E. & Wilson, G.S. (2003). Using emotional and social factors to predict student success. *Journal of College Student Development, 44*, 18-28.  
doi:10.1353/csd.2003.0008
- Reason, R.D., Terenzini, P.T. & Domingo, R.J. (2006). First things first: Developing academic competence in the first year of college. *Research in Higher Education, 47*(2), 149-175. doi:10.1007/s11162-005-8884-4
- Robbins, S.B., Lauver, K., Le, H., Davis, D., Langley, R. & Carlstrom, A. (2004). Do psychosocial and study skill factors predict college outcomes? A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 130*, 261–288.  
doi:10.1037/0033-2909.130.2.261
- Rosenthal, G., Folse, E.J., Allerman, N.W., Boudreaux, D., Soper B. & Von Bergen, C. (2000). The one-to-one survey: Traditional versus non-traditional student satisfaction with professors during one-to-one contacts. *College Student Journal, 34*(6), 315-321.

- Rubin, R.B., Graham, E.E. & Mignerey, J.T. (1990). A longitudinal study of college students' communication competence. *Communication Education, 39*, 1-14. doi:10.1080/03634529009378783
- Ryan, R. M. & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist, 55*, 68–78. doi: 10.1037110003-066X.55.1.68
- Sand, J. (2000). *Impact of living environment on specific measures of involvement: A comparison between the first year and senior year*. (Unpublished Dissertation Thesis) Ohio State University, Ohio.
- Schuetz, P. (2008). A theory-driven model of community college student engagement. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice, 32*, 305-324. doi: 10.1080/10668920701884349
- Schunk, D. H. (1991). Self-efficacy and academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist, 26*, 207-231. doi:10.1080/00461520.1991.9653133
- Shivpuri, S., Schmitt, N., Oswald, F.L. & Kim, B.H. (2006). Individual differences in academic growth: Do they exist, and can we predict them? *Journal of College Student Development, 47*(1), 69-86. doi:10.1353/csd.2006.0013
- Slocum, J. & Rhoads, R.A. (2009). Faculty and student engagement in the Argentine grassroots rebellion: Toward a democratic and emancipatory vision of the university. *Higher Education, 57*(1), 85-105. doi:10.1007/s10734-008-9134-4

- Sockett, H. (1988). Education and will: Aspects of personal capability. *American Journal of Education*, 96(2), 195-214. doi:10.1086/443893
- Sparks, R.L. & Ganschow, L. (1996). Teachers' perceptions of students' foreign language academic skills and affective characteristics. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 89(3), 172-185. doi:10.1080/00220671.1996.9941323
- Spitzer, T.M. (2000). Predictors of college success: A comparison of traditional and nontraditional age students. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice*, 38(1), 99-115. doi:10.2202/1949-6605.1130
- Su, M.H. & Duo, P.C. (2012). EFL learners' language learning strategy use and perceived self-efficacy. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 27(3), 335-345.
- Tabachnick, B.G. & Fidell, L.S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics*. (5th ed.) Boston: Pearson.
- Tanveer, M. (2007). *Investigation of the factors that cause language anxiety for ESL/EFL learners in learning speaking skills and the influence it casts on communication in the target language*. (Unpublished master thesis) University of Glasgow, UK.
- Terenzini, P.T. & Reason, D.R. (2005). *Parsing the first year of college: A conceptual framework for studying college impacts*. Paper presented at the meeting of the Association for the Study of Higher Education, Philadelphia, PA.

- Tinto, V. (2005). Taking student success seriously: Rethinking the first year of college. Ninth Annual Intersession Academic Affairs Forum. Retrieved from [http://fdc.fullerton.edu/events/archives/2005/05-01/Save\\_the\\_Date.htm](http://fdc.fullerton.edu/events/archives/2005/05-01/Save_the_Date.htm)
- Tinto, V. & Pusser, B. (2006). *Moving from theory to action: Building a model of institutional action for student success*. National Postsecondary Education Cooperative. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/npec/papers.asp>
- Toutkoushian, R.K. & Smart, J.C. (2001). Do institutional characteristics affect student gains from college. *The Review of Higher Education*, 25(1), 39-61. doi:10.1353/rhe.2001.0017
- Trowler, V. (2010). *Student engagement literature review*. Higher Education Academy, York.
- Tutton, P. & Wigg, S. (1990). The influence of last secondary school attended, subjects taken in the last year of secondary education and gender on pre clinical performance on medical students. *Australian Journal of Education*, 34(2), 168-173.
- Umbach, P.D. & Wawrzynski, M.R. (2005). Faculty do matter: The role of college faculty in student learning and engagement. *Research in Higher Education*, 46(2), 153-183. doi: 10.1007/s11162-004-1598-1
- Upcraft, M.L., Gardner, J. & Barefoot, B.O. (2005). *Challenging and supporting the first year student*. San Francisco: John Willey & Sons.

- Van de Vijver, F. & Hambleton, R.K. (1996). Translating Tests: Some practical guidelines. *European Psychologist*, 1(2), 89-99.  
doi:10.1027/1016-9040.1.2.89
- Vivekananda, K., Ramsay, S., Elphinstone, L., Peters, J., Lizzio, A., Tannoeh-Bland, J.,...,Zimitat, C. (2003). Griffith University student retention project. Griffith University, Gold Coast,Australia. Retrieved from <http://www.griffith.edu.au/>
- Wall, K. (2007). Gesture and its role in classroom communication: An issue for the personalised learning agenda. *Education Review*, 19(2), 32-39.
- West, C. & Sadoski, M. (2011). Do study strategies predict academic performance in medical school? *Medical Education*, 45, 696–703. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2923.2011.03929.x
- Wigfield, A. (1994). Expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation: A developmental perspective. *Educational Psychology Review*, 6(1), 49-78. doi: 10.1007/BF02209024
- Wigfield, A. & Karpathian, M. (1991). Who am I and what can I do? Children's self-concepts and motivation in achievement situations. *Educational Psychologist*, 26, 233-261. doi:10.1080/00461520.1991.9653134
- Williams, M. (1994). Motivation in foreign and second language learning: An interactive perspective. *Educational and Child Psychology*, 11, 77-84.
- Wolfe, R.N., & Johnson, S.D. (1995). Personality as a predictor of college performance. *Educational & Psychological Measurement*, 55, 177-185.

doi:10.1177/0013164495055002002

- Wong, R. (2007). Motivation and English attainment: A comparative study of HK students with different cultural backgrounds. *Asia Pacific Education Researcher*, 16(1), 45-60.
- Yan, J.X. & Horwitz, E.K. (2008). Learners' perceptions of how anxiety interacts with personal and instructional factors to influence their achievement in English: A qualitative analysis of EFL learners in China. *Language Learning* 58(1), 151-183. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2007.00437.x
- Yeager, M.E. (2009). *A cross-validation study of the College Learning Effectiveness Inventory (CLEI)*. (Unpublished dissertation thesis) Kansas State University, Manhattan.
- Yılmaz, I., Yoncalık, O. & Bektas, F. (2010). Relationship between the time management behavior and academic success. *New World Sciences Academy*, 5(3), 187-194.
- Yokochi, L. (2003). *Affective factors in second language acquisition: A critical review of the literature*. (Unpublished master thesis) West Virginia University, USA
- Young, D.J. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal*, 75(4), 426-439. doi:10.2307/329492

Zajacova, A., Lynch, S.M. & Espenshade, T.J. (2005). Self-efficacy, stress, and academic success in college. *Research in Higher Education*, 46(6), 677-706. doi: 10.1007/s11162-004-4139-z.

Zimmerman, B.J. (2000). Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 82–91. doi:10.1006/ceps.1999.1016

## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

##### Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Eğitim yaşantısında akademik başarı oldukça önemli konulardan birisidir. Özellikle üniversiteyi yeni kazanan öğrencilerin başarılarını etkileyebilecek faktörlerin belirlenmesi, gelecek yıllardaki başarıyı doğrudan etkilemektedir. Üniversiteyi yeni kazanan öğrencilerin akademik başarılarını etkileyen etkenleri anlamaya yönelik olarak planlanan bu araştırmada, sizden istenen kendinizi en doğru ifade eden seçeneği işaretlemenizdir. Yardımınız ve katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

**Araş. Gör. Gökçen AYDIN**  
**Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık**  
**Yükseklisans Öğrencisi**  
**agokcen@metu.edu.tr**

ÖĞRENCİ NUMARANIZI LÜTFEN yazınız.

İsminiz öğrenilmeyecek ve verdiğiniz tüm bilgiler GİZLİ tutulacaktır.

- 1) Öğrenci No: .....
- 2) Cinsiyet: Kadın ..... Erkek .....
- 3) Doğum yılınız: .....
- 4) Hazırlık sınıfında hangi düzeyde İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz?
  - Başlangıç Düzeyi (Beginner's Level)
  - Düşük Düzey (Elementary Level)
  - Orta Altı Düzey (Pre-Intermediate Level)
  - Orta Düzey (Intermediate Level)
  - Orta Üstü Düzey (Upper-Intermediate Level)
  - İleri Düzey (Advanced)

5) Aşağıdakilerden hangisi sizin şu andaki barınma durumunuzu en iyi ifade etmektedir?

- ODTÜ yurtlarında yaşıyorum.
- ODTÜ dışında yurtlarda yaşıyorum.
- Ailemle birlikte yaşıyorum.
- Arkadaş(lar)ımla birlikte evde yaşıyorum.
- Akrabalarımın yanında yaşıyorum.
- Tek başıma evde yaşıyorum.
- Diğer

## APPENDIX B

### ÜNİVERSİTEDE ETKİLİ ÖĞRENME ENVANTERİ

Aşağıda öğrenme yaklaşımınız hakkında maddeler verilmiştir. Her bir maddeyi hangi sıklıkta yaptığınızı belirtmek için lütfen aşağıdaki değerlendirme ölçeğini kullanınız. İlk izlenimler genellikle en doğru göstergeler olduğu için cevaplarınızı beklemeden ve çok düşünmeden veriniz.

1. Hiçbir zaman, 2. Nadiren, 3. Bazen, 4. Genellikle, 5. Her zaman

	1- Hiçbir zaman	2- Nadiren	3- Bazen	4- Genellikle	5- Her zaman
1. Sınava çalışmak için bir gece öncesine kadar beklerim.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Ders çalışmaya daha fazla zamanım kalması için zamanımı planlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sanki yapmam gereken her şeyi yapmak için zamanım yetmiyor.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Gelecek hafta teslim edilmesi gereken ödevlerimin neler olduğunu bilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Ödevlerimi yapmam.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Derste öğrendiğim bilgileri daha sonra unutmayacağım ve tekrar kullanacağım bir şekilde düzenlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Ödevlerimi son dakikaya bırakıp bunalmamak için önceden plan yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Derste söz almaktan kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Kampüsteki sosyal etkinliklere katılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Birlikte ders çalıştığım bir grubum var.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kampüste bir öğrenci topluluğuna üyeyim.	1	2	3	4	5

12. Hocalarımın bana karşı davranışları cesaretimi kırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Üniversiteye geldiğimden beri üzerimdeki tüm baskılardan dolayı stres belirtileri gösteriyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Derslerimi seviyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Üniversitenin hayatımın en güzel zamanı olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Derslerde yerine getirmem gereken yükümlülükleri düşündükçe bunalıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Burada öğrenci olmaktan keyif alıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Okuldan nefret ediyorum ama bitirmem gerektiğini biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Öğrendiklerimi, beni teşvik edici bir tutum içinde olan kişilerle paylaşabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Bulduğum toplumdaki insanlar üniversite eğitime değer verir.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Ailem akademik başarıyı takip eder / başarıyla ilgilenir.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Akademik başarı için ihtiyacım olan desteği almak bana zor geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Üniversiteyi bitirebilecek yeteneğe sahip olduğuma inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
24. İyi notlar almanın benim için mümkün olduğuna inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Derste dikkatimi toplayamıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Üniversitede okuyarak ulaşmak istediğim amaçlarım var.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Derslerim ve kariyer hedeflerim arasında ilişkiler görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ödevlerimi tam olarak tamamlamadan teslim ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Birlikte ders çalışabileceğim bir arkadaşım var.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Ders çalışmak için hedefler belirlerim ve onlara uyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Çok kapsamlı ödevleri baş edebileceğim küçük parçalara ayırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Sanki derslerde sürekli arayı kapatmaya çalışıyor gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Derste sorular sorarım.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Üniversite deneyiminin bir parçası olarak konserlere,	1	2	3	4	5

oyunlara, söyleşilere ve spor etkinliklerine katılıyorum.					
35. Katılımın zorunlu olduğu derslerden kaçınıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Her hafta yapılması gereken çok fazla şey olması beni strese sokuyor.	1	2	3	4	5
37. İçinde yaşadığım koşullar beni ders çalışmaktan alıkoyuyor.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Çok iyi bir öğrenci olmadığım için ailem beni eleştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Hocalarım benimle ilgilenir.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Okulda arkadaşlarım var.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Arkadaşlarımda iyi ders çalışma alışkanlıkları var.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Üniversiteyi bitirmek için yeterince çaba gösterebildiğimden emin değilim.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Kendimle ilgili yüksek akademik beklentilerim var.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Bazı derslerin sınav sonuçlarını öğrenme düşüncesi beni korkutur.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Derste öğrendiklerim ve kariyer planlarım arasında bağlantı kurabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Bana düşüncelerimi kağıt üzerinde pek iyi ifade edemiyordum gibi geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Bilgi sahibi olmak benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Ders çalıştığım zamanlarda kendimi hayal kurarken bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Ulaşmak istediğim kariyer için neden bir diplomaya gerek olduğu konusunda sorguluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Amaçlarıma ulaşmak için ne yapılması gerekiyorsa yapmaya kararlıyım.	1	2	3	4	5
51. Yapacak başka hiçbir şey olmasa bile ders çalışmaya başlayamıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

## APPENDIX C

### İNGİLİZCEYE YÖNELİK TUTUMLAR

Aşağıda İngilizceye yönelik tutumlar ile ilgili çeşitli ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Bu ifadelerin her birine ne oranda katıldığınızı belirtmek için size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

	<b>Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum</b>	<b>Katılmıyorum</b>	<b>Kararsızım</b>	<b>Katılıyorum</b>	<b>Kesinlikle Katılıyorum</b>
1. Yaşıtlarım olan diğer öğrencilere nazaran İngilizcede iyiyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İngilizce söz konusu olunca ümitsizim.	1	2	3	4	5
3. İngilizcede hep başarılı olmuşumdur.	1	2	3	4	5
4. İngilizce ile ilgili etkinlikler ve çalışmalar benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5
5. İngilizcede iyi notlar alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
6. İngilizcede konuları çabuk öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
7. İngilizce öğrenmek zevklidir.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Yapacak ödev olmasa da, ders dışında İngilizce çalışmaya çaba gösteririm.	1	2	3	4	5
9. İngilizce öğrenmekten nefret ediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Sadece derslerden geçmeye yetecek kadar İngilizce çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
11. İngilizce öğrenmeyi seviyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
12. İngilizce üniversite eğitimimin önemli bir parçasını	1	2	3	4	5

oluşturmaktadır.					
13. Kendi kendime İngilizce çalışmak için zaman ayırmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
14. İngilizce iyi bir iş sahibi olabilmem için gereklidir.	1	2	3	4	5
15. İngilizce çalışırken sadece sınavlarda sorulması muhtemel konulara bakarım.	1	2	3	4	5
16. İngilizce öğrenmeye istekli değilim.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Burada öğrenci olmaktan keyif alıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
18. İngilizce öğrenmek için çok çalışmaya gayret ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
19. İngilizce öğrenmeye hiç ilgi duymuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
20. İngilizce hayata bakış açımı genişletebilmemi sağlayacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
21. İngilizceyi sadece sınıfta değil, diğer kaynaklardan da öğrenmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
22. İngilizce öğrenmenin sıkıcı olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
23. İngilizce kendimi geliştirebilmemi sağlayacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Daha az İngilizce dersleri almak istiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
25. İngilizce üniversite eğitimim için gereklidir.	1	2	3	4	5
26. İngilizce ile ilgili her tür etkinlik hoşuma gider.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Zorunlu olmasaydı hazırlık okumak istemezdim.	1	2	3	4	5
28. İngilizce günlük yaşamda pek bir işe yaramaz.	1	2	3	4	5
29. İngilizce derslerinde bana söz verileceğini anladığımda kendimi tedirgin hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
30. İngilizce konuşurken diğer öğrencilerin bana güleceğinden çekinirim.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Diğer öğrencilerin önünde İngilizce konuşmaktan çok sıkılırım.	1	2	3	4	5

32. İngilizce derslerinde hazırlıksız konuşmak zorunda kaldığımda paniğe kapılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
33. İngilizce derslerinde konuşurken hiçbir zaman tam olarak kendimden emin değilimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
34. İngilizce derslerinde konuşurken kendimi gergin ve kafam karışmış hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5
35. İngilizce derslerinde doğrudan bana yöneltilmiş sorular haricinde cevap vermekten çekinirim.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Hep diğer öğrencilerin benden daha iyi İngilizce konuştuklarını hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D

**TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU**

**ENSTİTÜ**

- Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü
- Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
- Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü
- Enformatik Enstitüsü
- Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

**YAZARIN**

Soyadı :  
Adı :  
Bölümü :

**TEZİN ADI** (İngilizce) :

**TEZİN TÜRÜ** : Yüksek Lisans  Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

**TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ:**