

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS AS
PREDICTORS OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY IN A LANGUAGE
PREPARATORY SCHOOL

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MERİH AÇIKEL

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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. Ali Yıldırım
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.

Assist. Prof. Dr. Yeşim Çapa-Aydın
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Daloğlu (METU, FLE) _____

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

Assist. Prof. Dr. Yeşim Çapa Aydın (METU, EDS) _____

I hereby declare that all 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.

Name, Last Name : Merih Aıkel

Signature :

ABSTRACT

LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS AS PREDICTORS OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY IN A LANGUAGE PREPARATORY SCHOOL

Açikel, Merih

M. S., Department of Curriculum and Instruction

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Yeşim Çapa Aydın

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The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of language learning strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs with language proficiency of the language preparatory school students. Moreover, some demographic characteristics of the participants were analyzed in relation to the proficiency scores of the students. Four hundred eighty nine language preparatory school students from one private university in Ankara were included in the study. Turkish version of Inventory of Strategies for Language Learning and Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy were given to the participants. Proficiency scores were taken from the proficiency test done to examine their proficiency level at the beginning of the year. Multiple regression analysis was utilized to evaluate data collected. The results indicated that the number of years of English language learning, being abroad, type of high school that they graduated from, self-efficacy for receptive skills, and deep processing strategies predict the English language proficiency scores of the students positively,

while memory and rehearsal strategies predict the English language proficiency scores negatively. The research findings were discussed by relying on the previous research findings.

Key Words: self-efficacy, language learning strategies, English language proficiency

ÖZ

YABANCI DİL HAZIRLIK OKULUNDA İNGİLİZCE YETERLİLİK YORDAYICISI OLARAK DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ VE ÖZYETERLİK İNANCI

Açıkel, Merih

Yüksek Lisans, Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Anabilim Dalı

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, üniversite hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerinin özyeterlik inançları ve dil öğrenme stratejilerini kullanımlarının İngilizce yeterlilikleri ile olan ilişkisini incelemektir. Ayrıca, katılımcıların bazı demografik özellikleri İngilizce yeterliliklerine bağlı olarak incelenmiştir. Ankara’da bulunan bir özel üniversiteden 489 öğrenci çalışmaya katılmıştır. Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri Envanteri’nin ve İngilizce Özyeterlik Anketi’nin Türkçe versiyonları öğrencilere verilmiştir. İngilizce yeterlilik puanları ise sene başında öğrencilerin yeterlilik düzeylerini analiz etmek için yapılan yeterlilik sınavından alınmıştır. Araştırma sorularını cevaplamak için elde edilen veriler çoklu regresyon yöntemi kullanılarak test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, İngilizce öğrenilen yıl sayısının, yurtdışında bulunup bulunmama durumunun, mezun olunan okulun, algılayıcı beceriler konusundaki özyeterliğin ve derin düşünme stratejilerinin İngilizce yeterliliğini anlamlı şekilde yordadığı görülmüştür. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin hafıza ve tekrar stratejileri kullanımı ile İngilizce yeterlilikleri arasında

olumsuz yönde anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu gözlenmiştir. Sonuçlar alan yazını dikkate alınarak tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Özyeterlik, Dil öğrenme stratejileri, İngilizce yeterlilik

To My Family

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the background information on language learning strategies and self-efficacy belief which contribute to the basis of this study. Moreover, this chapter presents the problem, outlines the purpose and the significance of the study, states the research question, explains the limitations of the study, and presents the definition of the terms.

1.1. Background to the Study

In today's world, English is the dominant language of science, business, diplomacy, trade, entertainment and Internet, which makes it the current *lingua franca*. The fact that English language is in every part of life requires people to acquire the awareness of the importance of learning English. The reason underlying the desire to learn English can differ from one person to another, and this has an effect on the things they want to learn and need to learn. The main motive of learning English for the university students is to be proficient in English in a general way since English is either a barrier that they must overcome to move on their academic studies or a tool that may come in handy in their academic and professional lives. Either way, being proficient in English is vital for the university students.

Proficiency is affected by many factors, yet mostly learner-related factors come to forefront in recent years, leading the researchers to put more emphasis on the language learner and the learning process. Realizing that some people show rapid

progress in language learning, whereas the others struggle to learn making slow progress, researchers turn to learner characteristics and preferences. Learners, therefore, have become the main focus in the studies trying to find out how the learners approach language learning tasks and whether the learners have certain characteristics which dispose them to good or poor learning. Besides the age and previous language learning experiences, Naiman, Fröhlick, Stern, and Todesco (1978) listed cognitive factors such as intelligence and language aptitude, personality factors and cognitive style, attitudes and motivation as the learner characteristics that are considered relevant and influential to the language learning. The list can be widened with other influential factors including the language learning strategy choice and the self-efficacy beliefs that the students hold.

Language learning strategies have been one of the main focuses in the field of language learning as “rather than mere passive receptacles for knowledge, learners become thinking participants who can influence both the processes and the desired outcome of their own learning” (Oxford, 2008, p.52). Innumerable studies have been conducted to define and classify the language learning strategies (Naiman et al., 1978; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; O’Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Werden & Rubin, 1987), yet no consensus has been reached. While Naiman et al. (1978) define language learning strategies as the methods that a learner utilizes to get information, Werden and Rubin (1987) define them as tactics that help a learner develop a language system created on their own. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) approach the concept of language learning strategies as the certain behaviors that learners employ to understand, learn, and keep new information in mind whereas

Oxford (2008) claims that they are “the good-oriented actions or steps that learners take, with some degree of consciousness, to enhance their L2 learning” (p.41).

Like the disagreement on the definition of the language learning strategies, categorization is a problematic issue. Werden and Rubin (1987) put them into two broad categories: strategies that affect learning directly and those that affect learning indirectly. Naiman et al. (1978) created five broad categories: active task approach, realization of language as a system, realization of a language as a means of communication and interaction, management of affective demands, and monitoring of L2 performance. According to Oxford (1990), strategies can be divided into two as direct strategies (including memory, cognitive, and compensation) and indirect strategies (including metacognitive, affective, and social). Despite these differences in definition and categorization, the researchers all agree on the idea that language learning strategies are effective on the achievement of the students (Chen, 1990; Goh & Foong, 1997; Green & Oxford, 1995; Khaldieh, 2000; Wharton, 2000).

Self-efficacy belief that the students hold about themselves is another factor that comes to play in the process of learning language. Bandura (1986) defines self-efficacy as “people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (p.391) and considers it to be the central element in the Social Cognitive Theory. Self-efficacy is the determiner of such behaviors as choice behavior, quantity and quality of effort, determination shown while performing the task, and thoughts and emotional reactions of the learner (Pajares, 1996; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Therefore, it can

easily be derived that knowledge and skills needed to accomplish a task are not enough to be successful; self-efficacy is also required to perform well in a task.

Proving the Roman poet Virgil saying “*they are able who think they are*” and French novelist Alexander Dumas writing when a man doubts himself, “*he makes his failure certain by himself being the first person to be convinced of it,*” Bandura (1997) puts forward that self-efficacy is a factor that can help or hinder the learner’s progress.

Since Bandura introduced the concept of self-efficacy in 1977, educational researchers have investigated the role of self-efficacy in learning (Huang & Chang, 1996; Linnenbrick & Pintrich, 2003; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2007; Pajares, 2002a; Schunk & Pajares, 2001). These studies, despite the differences in the variables studied and in the results seen at the end, emphasize that self-efficacy is an indispensable part of learning and a good predictor for the success of the learner.

Language learning strategies and self efficacy beliefs of the learner are both influential factors that contribute to the learning process and the success of the students.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The main aim of this study was to investigate the role of university students’ English language self-efficacy beliefs and language learning strategy use in predicting proficiency scores of the students. Students’ self-efficacy beliefs regarding English language and the language learning strategy use were explored as an initial step. Then, in addition to English self-efficacy and language learning strategy use, the

number of years of English language learning, type of high school they graduated from, and whether they have been abroad were included as the predictor variables in the study to see whether they have influence on the proficiency scores of the students.

1.3. Research Question

The following is the research question formulated for the purpose of this study:

To what extent do the self-efficacy level of the preparatory school students, their language learning strategy use, type of high school that they graduated from, the number of years of English language learning, and whether they have been abroad predict the proficiency scores of the language preparatory school students?

1.4. Significance of the Study

English is a significant requirement in all of the universities in Turkey. Some of them have English a medium of instruction and others offer English instruction in some of their departments. Therefore, most universities have preparatory classes for the students. In these preparatory classes, the main aim is to provide the learner good learning experiences which will help them be proficient in English. In order to achieve that, learner characteristics, beliefs, and preferences should be taken into account. The present study is considered important as it provides an insight for the factors that is related to the proficiency of the students in English language. One of these factors is language learning strategies. Many research findings pointed out the value and necessity of language learning strategies, especially on achievement and

proficiency (Bremner, 1999, Green & Oxford, 1995; Ku, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Warthon, 2000; Yalçın, 2006; Yılmaz, 2010). Nevertheless, Chamot (2005) stated that the studies which present information about the impact of language learning strategies on achievement should be carried out with a diversity of learners because the only way to make language learners reach the success is to get a complete understanding of learning and teaching process.

Moreover, it is vital to see the preferences of the students in term of language learning strategies since these strategies are good sources that allow the teachers find out how their students understand, learn, and remember the information. Chamot (2005) claims that by the research studies, it is possible to get to know about the metacognitive, cognitive, social, and affective processes in learning which help us see the learner as a “whole learner” (Oxford, 1996). Raising the students’ awareness about the language learning strategies and training them about those strategies will help them to be better language learners. As it is stated in the literature, language learning strategy use is related to the success of English learners and it is also taken as a prospective predictor of proficiency in English.

The other factor influencing the English proficiency would be self-efficacy beliefs. Bandura (1997) suggested that students’ self efficacy beliefs, that is, their judgments of their capabilities to perform academic tasks, predict their capability to accomplish those task. In a way, students’ capabilities are affected by their opinions of their abilities. Pajares (2002b) support this idea stating that “the higher the sense of efficacy, the greater the effort, persistence, and resilience” (p.116). Several empirical findings also prove Bandura and Pajares right (Chen, 2007; Duman, 2007; Huang &

Chang, 2007; Mills, Pajares, Herron, 2006; Tılfarlıođlu & Cinkara, 2009; Wang, n.d.). However, the self-efficacy in English is a neglected concept that needs to be investigated in Turkish sample.

A close inspection of all related research results seem to indicate that the role of self-efficacy and language learning strategies in predicting achievement and proficiency cannot be ignored. Similarly, the number of years that students learn English or whether they have been abroad and the type of high school they graduated from are crucial factors that could contribute to their success. Therefore, these factors are also included within the predictor variables to find out whether students' proficiency scores can be explained by these factors. However, it is not clear which of these factors better predict the success of the students in English. There is a scarcity of studies done on the predictive effects of the language learning strategies, self-efficacy beliefs and some specific characteristics of the learner both abroad and in Turkey.

Furthermore, the findings of the present study can guide instructors as it presents important variables influencing the achievement. Therefore, the instructors who want their students be more successful can make use of the ways related to the influential variables. For instance, instructors can inform students of their capabilities and progress in learning, prepare level appropriate tasks related to the topic or set attainable goals for the activities so as to improve the students' self-efficacy. Besides, instructors can form language learning strategy instruction that can be the part of the curriculum. By the help of the findings of the study, strategies more beneficial for the learners can be taught in a more emphasized way.

Additionally, in the present study a new scale to measure English self-efficacy is introduced: English Self-Efficacy Scale (Wang, n.d.). It is hoped that this scale would help enhance the future research on self-efficacy in English.

For all these reasons, the study is important and it aims to contribute to the literature in terms of both language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs.

1.5. Definition of Terms

Self-efficacy: “People’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (Bandura, 1986, p.391).

Language Learning Strategies: “Specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferrable to new situations” (Oxford, 1990, p.8).

Proficiency Scores: the scores students got from the proficiency test that they took at the beginning of the term.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the previous chapter, an overview about the rationale of the current study is presented. In the forthcoming sections in this chapter, the language learning strategies and self efficacy beliefs are discussed under the light of previous literature. The first section contains information on the language learning strategies that are defined and categorized by many researchers. The second section is on self efficacy within the scope of social cognitive theory.

2.1. Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies have become the center of attention once the focus on teaching moves to learning. Researchers like Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) who carried out studies on learning strategies around 1970s help raise the awareness of the significance of the language learning strategies (Griffiths, 2004). Currently, there has been a notable increase in studies on language learning strategies which researchers have made innumerable attempts to define and categorize from then on.

One of the foremost researchers studying language learning strategies, Rubin (1975) defines the language strategies as “the techniques and devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge” (p.43). After studying the strategies of successful learners, in 1981, Rubin identified two types of learning strategies: strategies that “directly affect learning (clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inference, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization, monitoring)” and ones that “contribute indirectly

to the learning (planning, prioritizing, setting goals, self-management)” (as cited in O’ Malley & Chamot, 1990, p.3; Griffiths, 2004). Rubin (1981) proposed some techniques for the subcategories under the direct strategies:

- *Clarification/Verification*: asking for example of how to use a word/ expression, putting word in sentence to check understanding, looking up words in the dictionary, paraphrasing a sentence to check understanding
- *Monitoring strategy*: correcting errors in pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling, grammar or realizing the sources of these errors
- *Memorization strategy*: taking notes of new items with or without examples, giving contexts or definitions and finding some associations (semantic, visual, etc.)
- *Guessing/Inductive Inference*: using clues from the text to guess the meaning or ignoring difficult word order
- *Deductive Reasoning*: looking for and using general rules, comparing native/other language to target language to identify the similarities and differences, inferring grammatical rules by analogy, and finding meaning by breaking down the word into parts
- *Practice*: experimenting with the new sounds in isolation and in context, use mirror for practice, talking to self in target language, and drilling self on words in different forms

Like Rubin, Stern (1975) is an influential figure for the studies on language learning strategies with his articles on the strategies used by good language learners. Having created a list showing the qualities of a good language learner in 1975 (Griffiths, 2004), Stern resumed his studies on language learning strategies in 1992. According to Stern (1992), “the concept of learning strategy is dependent on the assumption that the learners consciously engage in activities to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques” (p. 261). Stern’s classification of the language learning strategies has five main parts:

- *Management and Planning Strategies*: person decides what commitment to make to language learning, sets oneself reasonable goals, decides on an appropriate methodology, selects appropriate resources, monitors progress, and evaluates his achievement in the light of previously determined goals and expectation
- *Cognitive Strategies*: clarification / verification, guessing/inductive inference, deductive reasoning, practice, memorization, monitoring
- *Communicative - Experiential Strategies*: circumlocution (using more words than necessary to express an idea), gesturing, paraphrase or asking for repetition and explanation
- *Interpersonal Strategies*: monitoring their own development and evaluating their performance by contacting and cooperating with the native speakers
- *Affective Strategies*: creating positive association towards the language, overcoming emotional difficulties by paying attention or pointing them out as they arise

An alternative categorization was presented by Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern and Todesco in 1978. Naiman et al. define the ways applied while learning a language as “techniques” because they are mostly focusing on the special aspects of the language learning (as cited in O’Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 6). The scheme proposed by Naiman includes “Sound acquisition (repeating aloud after a teacher, a native speaker, or a tape, listening carefully and talking aloud, including role playing), Grammar (following rules given in the text, inferring grammar rules from texts, comparing L1 and L2, memorizing structure and using them often), Vocabulary (making up charts and memorizing them, learning words in context, using new words in phrases, using dictionary when necessary and carrying a notebook to note new items), Listening Comprehension (listening to a record, radio, TV, movies, tapes and exposing oneself to different accents), Learning to talk (not being afraid to make mistakes, making contact with native speakers, asking for correction, memorizing dialogs), Learning to write (having pen pals, writing frequently, frequently reading what you expect to write), Learning to read (reading something every day, reading things that are familiar, looking for meaning from the context without using dictionary).” (Naiman et al, 1978, pp. 33-37)

O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo (1985) define the learning strategies as “operations and steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information” (p. 23). As the result of their studies, they specified 26 strategies which are categorized into three parts as metacognitive, cognitive, and social. Under the heading of “metacognitive strategies,” O’Malley et al. identified advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention,

self-management, advance preparation, self-monitoring, delayed production, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement. In the group of “cognitive strategies,” they suggested repetition, resourcing, directed physical response, translation, grouping, note-taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, keyword, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, and inference. There are two strategies in “social strategies” as cooperation and questions for classification (O’Malley et al., 1985, pp. 33-34).

Ellis followed a different way to categorize the strategies. Ellis (1985) views learning strategies in a general way and divides them into two: strategies for using and strategies for learning a language. Under the subset of strategies for learning a language, he put the communication strategies which he defines as the elements used for compensating inadequate information (1985). Strategies for learning a language provide learners linguistic and sociolinguistic abilities whereas strategies for using are used to learn effectively with the use of linguistic systems.

From the beginning of 1970s to the end of 1980s, language learning strategies were very popular and there were many attempts to define and categorize these strategies. Besides, it did not lose anything from its popularity in the 1990s and also made its way to the modern day, especially with the classification suggested by Oxford, which is the most used categorization in the studies done in recent times.

2.1.1. Oxford's Taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies

In 1990, Oxford provided a definition and a categorization for language learning strategies which is claimed to be the broadest classification of learning strategies (Ellis, 1994, p.539). Oxford (1990) provides a definition for language learning strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferrable to new situations” (p.8). For Oxford, learning strategies are necessary to develop communicative competence as these strategies lead students to active and self-directed learning. (Oxford, 1990). Oxford divides the language learning strategies into two parts; direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies directly concern the target language, whereas indirect strategies indirectly support language learning like planning (Griffiths, 2004). Under these two broad categories, Oxford classified the strategies into six parts, three for each (p. 17).

- DIRECT STRATEGIES
 - I. Memory
 - A. Creating mental linkages
 - B. Applying images and sounds
 - C. Reviewing well
 - D. Employing action
 - II. Cognitive
 - A. Practicing
 - B. Receiving and sending messages strategies
 - C. Analyzing and reasoning
 - D. Creating structure for input and output
 - III. Compensation strategies
 - A. Guessing intelligently

- B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing
- INDIRECT STRATEGIES
 - I. Metacognitive Strategies
 - A. Centering your learning
 - B. Arranging and planning your learning
 - C. Evaluating your learning
 - II. Affective Strategies
 - A. Lowering your anxiety
 - B. Encouraging yourself
 - C. Taking your emotional temperature
 - III. Social Strategies
 - A. Asking questions
 - B. Cooperating with others
 - C. Empathizing with others

In Oxford's taxonomy of language learning strategies, direct and indirect strategies support each other and carry different functions. Direct strategies necessitate mental processing (Oxford, 1990). However, the three groups under the direct strategies all perform this processing in different ways. Memory strategies provide assistance to learners to collect and recall the information (Oxford, 1990). Memory strategies include creating mental linkages (classifying the material into meaningful parts, relating a piece of information into another already in memory, using a new word in a meaningful sentence) making use of visual imagery and auditory links, structured reviewing and using physical response or sensation (Oxford, 1990).

Cognitive strategies help learners to comprehend the new things learned and construct new forms (Oxford, 1990). These strategies make it possible for learners manipulate and transform the language by practicing (repeating, recombining, using

formulas or patterns, practicing with sounds and in real settings), analyzing and reasoning (comparing elements, translating, transferring), taking notes, summarizing, underlining, skimming and using print and non-print resources (Oxford, 1990).

Compensation strategies are performed to use the language when they do not have adequate knowledge in language (Deneme, 2008). The strategies like guessing from the context in listening and reading, using mime and gestures, using the mother tongue when necessary, using synonyms or pause words enable learners to use the language in spite of the fact that they do not have the necessary knowledge (Oxford,1990).

Indirect strategies are the support for the language learning. Three groups under this category give support for the learning differently. Metacognitive strategies help the students to control their learning. Metacognitive strategies involve paying attention to the task, self-monitoring, self-evaluating and planning and arranging the learning by setting goals, organizing, identifying the purpose of the task and seeking practice opportunities (Oxford, 1990). For Oxford (1990), metacognitive strategies are quite useful in developing language skills.

Affective strategies are about learner's directing the emotions and attitudes related to learning. Strategies like using music, laughter, deep breathing or meditation help students to lower their anxiety. In order to encourage themselves, students can use strategies like "rewarding," "taking risks wisely," or making positive statements (Oxford, 1990, p.21). Besides, "discussing the feelings with someone else, listening to one's body" or "using checklists" are the other strategies existing under the term affective strategies (Oxford, 1990, p.21).

Lastly, social strategies allow the students learn by communicating with the others (Deneme, 2008). Social strategies enable learner to communicate with the others through asking questions, working together with the other learners or the competent language learners, gaining cultural awareness and recognizing their own emotions and thoughts (Oxford, 1990). These two groups, direct and indirect strategies complement each other in a way. Therefore, learners need to apply both in order to be successful.

In the light of this information, it is possible to say that remarkable development has been observed in categorizing the learning strategies, starting with simple lists of strategies and moving to the ones more comprehensive and multi-leveled. Although definition and the categorization of language learning strategies differ from one researcher to the other, the similarities can also be noticed. As mentioned earlier, good learners use these strategies in one way or another. Thus, language learning strategies, no matter how they are classified or defined, are important factors in acquiring language.

2.1.2. Studies on Language Learning Strategies

Some factors influence the choice of the language learning strategies of the language learners. Therefore, language learning strategies are studied with relation to such variables as age (Chamot,1990; Oxford as cited in Oliver & Magogwe, 2007), gender (Goh & Foong, 1997; Oxford & Ehrman, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Politzer, 1983), nationality and cultural background (Griffiths & Parr, 2000; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985), motivation (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Tamada, 1996), personality types of learners (Oxford & Ehrman, 1990; Sharp, 2008) and proficiency levels

(Bremner, 1999; Green & Oxford, 1995; Ku,1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Wharton, 2000).

Among these factors influencing the language learning choice of the learners, proficiency level is the most studied one in relation to language learning strategies. Generally most of the studies (Green & Oxford, 1995; Khaldieh, 2000; Wharton, 2000) linked the increased proficiency level with greater strategy use. Goh and Foong (1997), who have done a study with Chinese students, stated that proficiency level has a significant influence on language learning strategies, especially two categories: cognitive and compensation. Chen (1990) focused on more specific relations between the strategy choices and the proficiency. Chen reported that students with low proficiency used more communication strategies than students with high proficiency did. In the study conducted in various cultural and geographical settings, Green and Oxford (1995) come to the conclusion that students who were successful reported “higher level of overall strategy use and frequent use of a greater number of strategy categories” (p.265). Park (1997) examined the relationship between language learning strategies and proficiency with 332 university students in Korea. He pointed out that level of language learning strategy use influence the success of the learner in TOEFL and social and cognitive strategies are more influential on the scores. Purpura (1997) conducted a study with 1382 participants from 17 centers from Spain, Turkey, and the Czech Republic. Participants were asked to answer 80-question cognitive and metacognitive strategy questionnaire and take 70-item test. The results showed that metacognitive strategies did not have effect on the test performance, cognitive strategies had no effect on

reading and grammar abilities and memory strategies had a negative effect on the test performance of the participants.

In 1998, Purpura investigated the strategy use and second language test performance of high and low-ability test takers with 1382 participants. Groups were formed with different models of strategy use and second language test performance and given a questionnaire and a language test. The results indicated that metacognitive strategy use and test performance models displayed similar factorial structures; yet cognitive strategy use models were different for each group. Bremner (1999) did a study with Hong Kong learners in order to investigate the association between strategy use and proficiency. He found out that proficiency scores of the students differ in relation to eleven strategies out of fifty: nine in cognitive, one in compensation, and one in social. Additionally, he stated that affective and memory strategies are used the least among Hong Kong students.

Wharton (2000) conducted a different study with bilingual learners in Singapore and it is proved that more strategy use leads to higher proficiency. Peacock and Ho (2003) carried out a study with 1006 students from different majors in Hong Kong. Results showed that there is a relationship between proficiency level and strategy choice and that cognitive and metacognitive strategies are used more by high-level students. Magogwe and Oliver (2007) conducted a study in Botswana to explore the relationship between the preferred language learning strategies, proficiency, and self-efficacy. They found that students of high proficiency use more strategies. That is, strategy use increases with the proficiency. Generally, it is agreed that using strategies has a positive effect on the proficiency of the learner.

In Turkey, studies generally focus on the strategy use of Turkish learners of English. Deneme (2008) conducted a study with 50 learners of English in Gazi University and found out that learners display high use of compensation and metacognitive strategies and moderate use of memory, cognitive, affective and social strategies. Another study was done by Yalçın (2006) showing that 334 students from Gazi University use overall strategies in medium level and that difference in social, memory, and metacognitive strategy use is related to the proficiency level of the learner. Yalçın also reported that compensation strategies are mostly related to the language learning experience of the students. Algan (2006) is the other researcher explaining compensation strategies, followed by metacognitive strategies, are the most frequently used one with the help of the data taken from 3 private and 3 public universities in Istanbul. According to Algan, among the learners from these universities, affective and memory strategies are the least used ones. Similarly, Yılmaz (2010) carried out his study with university students and found out that compensation strategies are the most preferred one and metacognitive strategies are the second in the list, yet again affective strategies are the least used ones. Besides, Yılmaz investigated the influence of gender on learning strategies and proposed that only affective strategy use differs with the gender.

Aslan (2009), who did his study with university students at Atılım University, came to the conclusion that strategies are influential on the success of the learner and females use more language learning strategies. Cesur (2008) carried out a study with 376 students from 8 different universities in Istanbul and found out that compensation and metacognitive strategies are the most frequently used ones by the

students, and cognitive, memory and metacognitive strategies are the ones closely related to the proficiency of the students. Cesur (2011) conducted another study with 368 students from 8 universities in Istanbul. Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning and the English language proficiency test were utilized in the data collection process. The results revealed that cognitive, memory and compensation strategies predict the reading achievement of the participants.

All in all, these aforementioned studies have provided plenty of information on language learning strategies and different factors that affect the choice of the language learners and proved that whatever the differences, learners in different countries and in different context use language learning strategies. Therefore, it can be stated that using language learning strategies is one of the necessary parts of language learning. Learners can choose different strategies owing to their characteristics, needs, proficiency levels or motivations in language classes.

2.2. Self-Efficacy Beliefs

The questions asking the reason why students choose some tasks and stay away from others, why they are successful in some but not in others, and why they approach some tasks with interest and others with panic have led the researchers to the study of students' self-beliefs. The idea that the beliefs the students develop about themselves are key elements for academic success or failure makes it possible to believe that self-efficacy is the vital part of the motivation (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Of all these self beliefs, self- efficacy is the most effective on learning process. Due to this fact, self-efficacy has come to forefront of language learning research studies as well. Bandura (1986) defines self-efficacy as "people's judgments of their capabilities to

organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances” (p. 391). Bandura introduced the construct of self-efficacy as a part of Social Cognitive Theory.

Social Cognitive Theory is a view about the human functioning emphasizing that humans can regulate their behavior (Bandura, 1997). That is, individuals “possess a system of self beliefs that enables them to exercise control over their thoughts, feelings and actions” (Pajares, 2002a). The core of this theory is formed by the interplay among personal, behavioral, and environmental influences, which is called as “reciprocal determinism” (Pajares, 2002a). These three factors work in accordance and influence one another in two directions as it is shown in the figure 1 below (Bandura, 1997). Because of this bidirectionality of influence, the individuals are both the “products” and “producers of their own environment and of their social systems” (Bandura, 1997, p. 6).

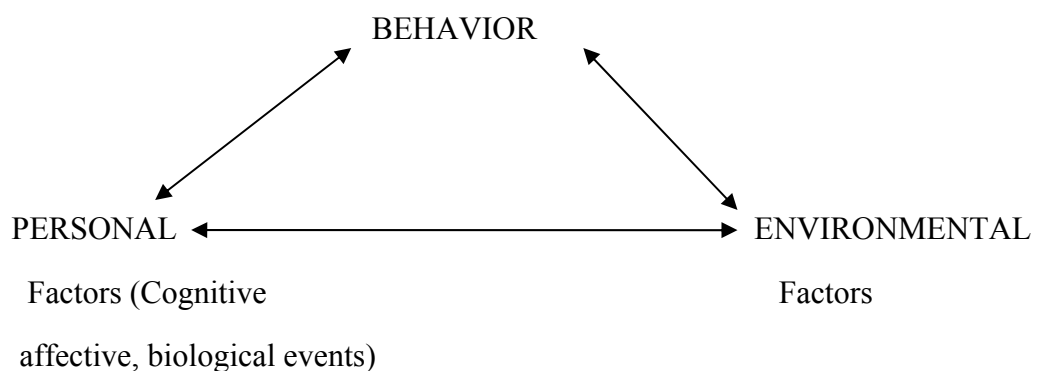


Figure 2.1: Bandura’s concept of triadic reciprocity

(Source: Adapted from Bandura, 1997, p. 6).

Behavioral, personal and environmental factors forming the reciprocal causation influence one another, yet it cannot be claimed that they are all of equal strength and they all occur simultaneously (Bandura, 1997). Personal and behavioral factors of reciprocal causation show the cooperation between thought, affect and action. That is, people's expectations, beliefs and goals affect how they behave and the effects of their actions determine their thoughts and emotional reactions. Environmental and personal factors display the interplay between personal characteristics and environmental influences. People's expectations, beliefs, and competencies are affected by their social environment and their characteristics get different reactions from the social environment. Behavioral and environmental factors have also interaction.

Social cognitive theory emphasizes the effective role of self-efficacy beliefs on human behaviors. Self-efficacy is the confidence in one's abilities to do something that one wants to do. Bandura (1997) claims that efficacy is not "a fixed ability", yet it is "a generative capability in which cognitive, social, emotional and behavioral sub-skills must be organized and effectively orchestrated to serve innumerable purposes" (p. 36). The matter is not possessing those sub-skills, using them appropriately under difficult circumstances is of more importance (Bandura, 1997). Mills et al. (2007) stated that "beliefs of personal efficacy are not dependent on one's abilities, but on what one believes might be accomplished with one's personal skill set" (p. 419). For this reason, people's behavior can better be anticipated by their beliefs instead of their real capabilities. As Bandura puts it, the goals learners set, the effort they use for achieving them and their willingness to continue in the face of

failure are all influenced by self-efficacy beliefs of learners. Therefore, this proves that self-efficacy beliefs are a critical element in human functioning.

2.2.1. Effects of Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is stated as related to learner's behaviors. One of them is choice behavior. That is, people tend to avoid the tasks that they believe they cannot manage and choose the ones they believe they can handle. This also affects their development since by avoiding the task; the individual cannot get feedback to counteract the negative self-efficacy beliefs (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). In addition to choice, self-efficacy is linked to the quantity of effort and determination. Ones with high self-efficacy are more apt to spend more effort for the task and to show more determination when faced with difficulties (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Not only quantity, but quality of the effort is also affected by self-efficacy in terms of the use of cognitive and processing engagement (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Apart from the choice behavior and the effort, self-efficacy influences the thoughts and emotional reaction of an individual. The ones with high self-efficacy level feel calm and tranquil while approach a challenging task (Pajares, 1996) while the ones with low self-efficacy can think the activity is more difficult than it really is (Pajares, 1996).

Self-efficacy theory is also concerned with the differences between individuals with high self-efficacy and ones with low self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1997), people cannot develop skills for every area of knowledge. Thus, different people get abilities for different skills and different self-efficacy levels for the same skill. High self-efficacy improves personal accomplishments and well-being as the ones with high self-efficacy see the task not as a threat but as challenge to be better whereas the

ones with low self-efficacy stay away from difficult tasks as they see them as threats (Bandura, 1997). Therefore, it is easy for ones with high self-efficacy to start the task as they believe in their abilities, yet it is not an easy task for the ones with low self-efficacy since they do not trust their abilities and worry about the failure just at the beginning. Ones who have higher self-efficacy beliefs about their capabilities, while performing a task, get engaged in the task easily, strive harder, continue to do it even if they confront difficulties and at the end do better. (Schunk & Pajares, 2001). Moreover, these individuals can get over the feeling of low self-efficacy after failure or difficulty (Herron et al, 2007). However, ones with low self-efficacy have weak commitment to their goal and they mostly focus on their personal deficiencies and the idea of failure. As a result, they go under a lot of stress and depression (Bandura, 1997). This may lead them to additional school problems, poor grades, conflict with teachers, failure on tests (Margolis & McCabe, 2011). Considering these, it is obvious that low self-efficacy would be some kind of an obstacle for the learners in the learning process. As they tend to stay away from the difficult tasks, they most probably do not participate into the activities in the classroom, so this hinders their learning.

2.2.2. Sources of Self-efficacy

According to Bandura (1997), there are four main sources of influence about people's beliefs of their efficacy: enactive mastery experience, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states. First way to create self-efficacy is through enactive mastery experiences. Enactive mastery experience which is about the personal experiences of success or failure is considered to be the most

influential source. Bandura (1997) clarifies it by saying that “successes rebuild a robust belief in one’s personal efficacy” and “failures undermine it, especially if failures occur before a sense of efficacy is firmly established” (p.80). That is, successful experiences promote self-efficacy whereas failure lowers it. After achieving a challenging task, especially under difficult circumstances, the self-efficacy is developed. On the other hand, if a person gets accustomed to easy and quick success, that person may overestimate his/her capabilities and as a result there occurs discouragement (Bandura, 1997).

The second way is through vicarious experiences. Vicarious experience is the social comparison between the self and those who have similar capabilities (Bandura, 1997). In the circumstances in which there is “no absolute measure of adequacy” (p. 86), people should assess their capabilities by examining the attainments of others. What Bandura means by this is that if a person sees someone similar to himself/herself achieving something would think that s/he can also succeed in similar tasks. Similarly, witnessing the failure of a similar person in spite of the effort they show would lead to decrease in their self-efficacy (Brown & Inouye, 1978). The key element here is the similarity since one’s self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by the similar model, yet if the models are different from themselves, then beliefs of self-efficacy are not much influence (Bandura, 1997).

The third way to strengthen self-efficacy is verbal persuasion. Ones who are verbally encouraged by explaining that they have the ability to accomplish the given task would show greater effort, and this will promote their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). These encouragements should be “within realistic bounds” (Bandura, 1997, p.101).

Otherwise, the people who are unrealistically persuaded to be capable of overcoming the demands of the task may fail, which weakens their self-efficacy. As a result, they avoid trying again and the credibility of the persuader is damaged (Bandura, 1997). Besides positive and encouraging feedback, discouraging ones have stronger influence on one's self-efficacy as it is easier to weaken the self-efficacy with negative appraisal (Bandura, 1997).

The last source of self-efficacy is the psychological and affective state of the person. Bandura (1997) posits that such psychological, affective, and mood states as high anxiety, nervousness and tiredness can influence self-efficacy. These strong emotional states can provide hints about the success or the failure in the task. According to Bandura (1997), people have different point of view about the sources of their emotional arousal and how it will influence their performance. The ones who are tend to think that their emotional arousal stems from personal inadequacies will lower their self-efficacy while the ones who think that it is a normal reaction that everyone experiences will not. (Bandura, 1997). Negative thoughts and fears in one's capabilities can lower the self-efficacy beliefs of the person and create more stress and anxiety which lead to inadequate performance and failure (Pajares, 2002). Besides physiological and affective factors, mood is a factor in self-efficacy as positive mood improves the self-efficacy whereas the negative mood lessens it (Bandura, 1997). To sum up, it can be said that self-efficacy is the product of information taken enactively, vicariously, socially, and physically. After formed, self-efficacy improves the quality of human functioning.

2.2.3. Studies on Self-efficacy

As mentioned earlier, self-efficacy of individuals affects the choices they make, the effort they put on the task and their thoughts and emotional reactions. As self-efficacy is an influential factor in human behavior, it has been studied in relation to different variables such as career choices (Betz & Hackett, 1986), athletic performances (Feltz, 1982), interpersonal relationships (Kanfer & Zeiss, 1983), career planning (Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1984), self-regulation (Zimmerman, 2000) and teacher education (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990).

The other field that self-efficacy has been an appeal for many years is the academic achievement. Believing that self-efficacy is critical to academic achievement, researchers have done studies to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement of students. As the self-efficacy is context specific and subject-matter specific, relationship between academic achievement and self-efficacy has been studied in various educational fields from mathematics (Hackett & Betz, 1989; Norwich, 1987; Pajares & Kranzler, 1985; Pajares & Miller, 1994) and science (Andrew, 1998; Britner, & Pajares, 2001; 2006; Lawson, Banks & Logvin, 2006), to first language reading and writing (Pajares, & Valiante, 1997; Shell, Murphy, & Bruning, 1989; 1995). Language learning is another field that self-efficacy studies have been applied to, yet in a limited number. Both the achievement in general and the achievement in specific skills have been analyzed in relation to self-efficacy.

One of the studies that focus on specific skills in language learning was conducted by Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2006). In this study, the relationship between self-

efficacy, anxiety, and gender on the listening and reading proficiency of 95 college students enrolled in a French course in United States was examined. The results of the study indicated that there is a significant relationship between reading self-efficacy and reading proficiency for all students and there is a relationship between listening self-efficacy and listening proficiency only for female students. Chen (2007) investigated the effect of English listening self-efficacy, English anxiety, perceived value of English language and culture on EFL learners' performances. By completing the questionnaire with four self-report measures, 277 non-English university students from Taiwan participated in the study and the results indicated that English listening self-efficacy predicts English listening performance better than the anxiety, perceived value of English language and culture. Huang and Chang (1996) conducted a study on the relationship between reading and writing self-efficacy and achievement with four ESL students from highest level reading and writing classes. After the interviews, class observations, examination of writing assignments and two questionnaires, it was seen that students' self-efficacy is higher than their learning achievements and the participants' interest and the teacher's support influence their self-efficacy.

Chen and Lin (2009) tried to find out the predictors of achievement in English writing test. 120 students participated into the study by filling out the questionnaire and taking the writing test. The results indicated that high achievers have high level of self-efficacy, yet low level of anxiety. Similarly, Pajares, Johnson and Usher (2007) conducted a study to find out the influence of the sources of self-efficacy on students' writing self-efficacy beliefs. 1256 students from elementary, middle and

high schools participated in the study. The results revealed that students' perceived mastery experiences predicted the writing self-efficacy most. Girls had greater self-efficacy and lower anxiety, and elementary school students are more self-efficacious than the students in middle and high school. Moreover, there are other studies mostly focusing on the general success in language learning and self-efficacy. In a study conducted by Wang (n.d.), relationship between self-regulated learning strategies, self-efficacy beliefs and achievement was proven to be significant by examining the Chinese EFL students. Data were collected by two questionnaires and two written exams and one oral exam. In another study done by Mills, Pajares, and Herron (2007), the influence of self-efficacy and other self beliefs on achievement was investigated with 303 college intermediate French students. The result displayed that self-efficacy for self regulation is a strong predictor of the achievement and female students revealed greater self-efficacy for self regulation.

In Turkey, the number of studies on the relationship between self-efficacy and achievement or performance of the students is even more inadequate especially in terms of language learning. One of those studies was conducted by Rahimi and Abedini (2009) to investigate the relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs concerning listening comprehension and listening proficiency. 61 freshmen undergraduate learners of English participated in the study and the data were gathered by an author-designed self efficacy questionnaire and a listening pre-test adopted from paper-based Longman TOEFL. The results of the study showed that listening comprehension self-efficacy is significantly related to listening proficiency. The other study focused on the self-efficacy and success in English was done by

Tılfarlıoğlu and Cinkara (2009). The main aim of the study is to uncover out the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs of the EFL students and their general achievement in learning English. The data were collected from 175 students at Gazi University, Foreign Languages Department through the self-efficacy questionnaire adopted from Mills (2006). The results displayed that students with high English self-efficacy are more successful in English. The other words, there is a positive significant relationship between the English self-efficacy and the success of the students in English. Duman (2007) is another researcher who carried out a study to explore the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and the English performance of high school students. At the end of the study, it was seen that self-efficacy is an important factor in English performance.

These studies mentioned above give a great deal of information on self-efficacy and its relationship with performance in language learning. By examining all these, conclusion that can be reached is that self-efficacy is an undeniable factor in learning.

2.3. Language Proficiency

In most of the studies about language teaching and learning, researchers have been trying to find out the ways that can help foreign language learners be more proficient as being proficient in the language learned is a desired outcome. Language proficiency is, in general, about having sufficient command of language for a particular purpose or a measurement of how well an individual has mastered the language. However, language proficiency is also defined as “a idealized level of competence and performance, attainable by experts by extensive instructions”

(Omaggio, 1986, p.2), “being good, fluent, knowledgeable, bilingual and competent” (Galloway, 1987, p.25), “the ability or internalized knowledge that enables a person to function communicatively in a foreign language” (Sasaki, 1996, p.12), and “the ability to function in a situation that is defined by specific cognitive and linguistics demands, to a level of performance indicated by either objective criteria or normative standards” (Bialystok, 2001, p.18). Differences seen in the definition of the language proficiency lie in the views about the proficiency level expected from the learner since the purpose, in what situation and how the language will be used affect the idea of language proficiency.

Researchers’ views differ not only about the definition of language proficiency but also about the aspects of language they put emphasis on: structural aspects or the communicative function of the language. Galloway (1987) claims that proficiency is not about the knowledge of grammar, yet it is about the ability to use the language effectively in real life. Therefore, Galloway (1987) asks four questions: “why” to identify the function, “what” and “where” to identify the context and “how well” to identify the accuracy because proficiency comes in three parts as function, context/topic and accuracy (Heilenman & Kaplan, 1985). Similarly, Bialystok (2001) states both formal structure and communicative applications should be added to language proficiency. According to James (1985), proficiency is “a continuum” which has “isolated linguistic item at one end and individualistic language samples at the other and a variety of combination in between” (p.8). For Heilenman and Kaplan (1985), proficiency means neither perfection nor limitation of instruction to one level at a time; proficiency is the outcome of language learning which represents the

methods, sets of materials, classroom techniques, batteries of tests and psychological methods without lowering the value each of these things gives.

Language knowledge of the students has been distinguished and specific goals have been determined to form levels of foreign language proficiency. In general, there are three basic groups as beginner, intermediate and advanced (Harmer, 2007). Other terms like “false beginner, elementary, pre-intermediate and upper intermediate” are also used to exactly mean what kind of beginner or intermediate level students are mentioned.

- ***Beginner:*** *students in that level do not know any English,*
- ***False Beginner:*** *students in that level cannot use any English, but know quite a lot about the language that they can remember easily*
- ***Elementary:*** *students in that level can use English in a basic way, like forming simple sentences and joining simple speaking activities,*
- ***Pre-Intermediate:*** *students in that level have learned or encountered most of the basic structures and lexis of the language,*
- ***Intermediate:*** *students in that level achieved basic competence in speaking and writing, and ability to comprehend straightforward listening and reading.*
- ***Upper Intermediate:*** *students in that level have extended knowledge of grammatical construction and skill use*

- **Advanced:** *students in that level are competent in language and they can read unsimplified factual and fictional texts and communicate fluently, and achieved the accuracy and depth of knowledge of the language.*

(Harmer, 2007)

Even though there are differences in the definition or the focus of language proficiency for the researcher, it is obvious that language proficiency is and will continue to be an indispensable part of language learning studies and the terms to define the levels are just the guides to help to understand the language knowledge of the students.

2.3.1. Studies on Language Proficiency

Language proficiency is an important factor used in the studies related to language learning since the main demand is to produce students who are proficient in English language. Language proficiency has been studied in relation to many different variables such as age, gender, language learning styles, cultural background, motivation, attitude towards the language and faculty of study. Gu (2002), one of the researchers studying proficiency, conducted his research with adult Chinese EFL learners and displayed that females were more proficient in the language than the males and also students from arts faculty had better proficiency scores than the students from science faculty. Another study was done by Tamaka and Ellis (2003) with 166 EFL learners. In the study students were taken to 15-week study abroad program, and before and after the program their proficiency levels and their self-beliefs were analyzed. The results indicated that there was no relationship between

studying abroad and proficiency level of the students and no significant relation exist between students' self-beliefs and their proficiency levels. Bernaus and Gardner (2008) focused on another variable which can be related to the proficiency of the learners. In their study, they displayed that motivation and proficiency were related to each other in a positive way, whereas attitudes towards learning situation and language anxiety predict the language proficiency in a negative way. Magno (2010) studied language learning strategies and years of studying English as predictors of language proficiency. In his study, 302 Korean students aged 14-18 participated and the findings revealed that month spent in formal study of English predict the proficiency scores of the students and compensation strategies were also good predictors. Zabihi (2011) examined the relationship between personality traits and language proficiency with 168 participants from Mashhad. These participants were asked to take "five-factor inventory" and it was found out that there was a significant relationship between personality traits and proficiency, especially conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness lead to higher proficiency.

In Turkey, there is a scarcity of research done on the factors or the predictors of language proficiency. One of the studies was conducted by Kürüm (2007). He studied the effects of the motivational factors on language proficiency. The results indicated that motivation did not make difference in the proficiency level of the students. Erton (2010) conducted a study investigating the relationship between personality traits, language learning styles and the language proficiency. Freshman students from Bilkent University taking English course in their first year at the university participated in the study, and the results showed that there was no

significant relationship between learning styles of introvert and extrovert students and their success in language learning. İnal, Evin and Saracaloğlu (2003) carried out a study to see the predictive power of the variables like parents' education, attitude towards English, knowing second language, being abroad on the proficiency of the students by collecting data from 421 high school students. The results indicated that no relationship exists between the demographic variables such as gender, parents' education, knowing foreign language, being abroad and achievement; however, attitude towards language and achievement have a strong relationship.

Aforementioned studies demonstrated the relationships between various variables and language proficiency, some of which proved significant whereas some of which proved not. Even so, all these variables are important in the study of proficiency as it is known that language proficiency is related to these variables in one way or another.

2.4. Summary

Learning English is one the main concerns of university students as they are required to learn and use it throughout their educations at the university. However, it is known that success in language learning is affected by many factors from age to gender, from years of English language learning to whether they have been abroad, and from motivation to aptitude. Language learning strategy use and self-efficacy are the other two factors that can influence the success in language learning. Examining the literature provides information regarding the relationship between success in language learning and language learning strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs. The information given and the studies reviewed in the literature revealed that both

language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs are significant factors in students' achievement in language (Cesur, 2008; Chen, 2007; Green & Oxford, 1995; Khaldieh, 2000; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006; 2007; Wang, n.d.; Wharton, 2000).

In the current study, the variables of language learning strategy use and self-efficacy are brought together to investigate the relationship with success in language learning and the prediction of success by these variables and some other demographic variables.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

The purpose of this study was to investigate the role of language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs of the university language preparatory school students in predicting the English proficiency scores. In this chapter, the method conducted to accomplish this task is explained. The chapter begins with the overall research design of the study. It continues by presenting participants, data collection instruments utilized in the study, data analysis procedure, and the limitation of the study.

3.1. Design of the Study

In this study, correlational research design, which looks for relationship between a set of variables and is used to help explain important phenomena or to predict likely outcomes (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006), was utilized with a group of language preparatory school students at one of the private universities in Ankara. This research design was chosen for this study as it was aimed at examining the relationship between students' proficiency levels and other variables such as self-efficacy, language learning strategy use, being abroad, years of English language learning and type of high school and to explore which one of these variables predict the students' proficiency scores better.

3.2. Participants

The target population of the current study was 643 language preparatory school students at one of the private universities in Ankara. Among these students, 489 students participated in this study. Table 3.1 presents the information about the participants regarding gender, current department, and English level.

Table 3.1

Frequency Table of the Participants for Gender, Department and Level

Characteristics	n	%
Gender		
Male	300	61.3
Female	189	38.7
Departments		
<i>Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences</i>	208	42.6
International Entrepreneurship	20	4.1
International Relations	68	13.9
Business Administration	63	12.9
Economics	57	11.7
<i>Faculty of Engineering</i>	206	42.1
Electric-Electronic Engineering	50	10.2
Industrial Engineering	47	9.6
Computer Engineering	53	10.8
Mechanical Engineering	56	11.5
<i>Faculty of Science and Letters</i>	23	4.6
Maths	8	1.6
History	9	1.8
Turkish Literature	6	1.2
<i>Faculty of Law</i>	30	6.1
Law	30	6.1
<i>Faculty of Fine Arts</i>	19	3.8
Art and Design	9	1.8
Industrial Design	1	.2
Interior Architecture	9	1.8
Missing	3	.6
Level		
Elementary	257	52.6
Pre-intermediate	96	19.6
Intermediate	45	9.2
Upper intermediate	91	18.6

Note: n=489

In this study, 139 (38.7%) of the participants were female, and 300 (61.3%) of the participants were male. In terms of the departments that the students have a right to attend, 23 (4.6%) of the participants were from Faculty of Sciences and Letters, 19 (3.8%) of them were from Faculty of Fine Arts, 30 (6.1%) were from Faculty of Law, 206 (42.1%) of them were from Faculty of Engineering, and 208 (42.6%) were from Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences. Three of the participants did not report their departments.

The largest proportion of participants was from the beginner group students; that is, 52.6% (257) of the participants. The pre-intermediate group students (96) formed 19.6% of the participants, the intermediate group students (45) made up 9.2%, and the upper-intermediate students (91) accounted for 18.6% of the participants. In addition, the age of the participants ranged from 16 to 25 ($M = 18.54$; $SD = 1.15$).

The university at which the data from the participants were collected offers scholarship to its students. Therefore, participants were also examined with respect to scholarship status (Table 3.2). 198 of the participants (40.9%) reported getting scholarship from the university; while 290 of the participants (59.3%) reported that they pay the school fee by their own means.

Table 3.2

Frequency Table of the Participants for Scholarship Status

Characteristics	N	%
Scholarship		
Yes	198	40.5
No	290	59.3
Missing	1	.2

Note: n=489

In the scope of research, years of English language learning, being abroad, and the type of high school they graduated from were also retrieved from the participants.

Table 3.3 displays the frequency statistics.

Table 3.3

Frequency Table of the Participants for Being Abroad and High School Type

Characteristics	n	%
Being Abroad		
Yes	145	29.9
No	342	69.9
Missing	1	.2
Type of High School		
Anatolian High	254	51.9
Private High	105	21.5
Regular High	121	24.7
Missing	9	1.8

Note: n=489

The number of years that the participants take English courses ranged from 0 to 15 ($M = 8.31$; $SD = 2.95$). Half of the participants graduated from Anatolian High Schools ($n = 254$; 51.9%). 121 (24.7%) of the participants graduated from Regular High schools, and 105 (21.5%) from Private High Schools. 9 (1.8%) of the participants did not report their type of high school. Moreover, 145 (29.7%) participants reported that they have been abroad before, yet 342 (69.9%) participants have not.

3.3. Representativeness of the Participants

To test the representativeness of the participants to the target population, chi-square test of goodness-of-fit was conducted by gender and level. The distribution of the target population by gender and level was received from the school administration. The first analysis was performed to test whether the proportion of male and female students as participants was representative of the proportion of male and female students in the population. As noted in Table 3.1, the observed frequency was 300 for males and 189 for females. The expected frequency was 389 for males and 254 for females. The result of chi-square test displayed that the number of male and female students as participants fits the number of male and female students in the population ($\chi^2(1, n=489) = .149, n.s.$).

The second goodness-of-fit analysis was run to test the representativeness of the distribution of the students by level. In the target population, there were 375 students in elementary group, 109 in pre-intermediate group, 53 in intermediate group, and 106 in upper intermediate group. Among the survey participants, 257 of them were from elementary group, 96 from pre-intermediate group, 45 from intermediate group, and 91 from upper intermediate group. The analysis was conducted utilizing these frequencies, and the results indicated that the distribution of the participants was representative of the population distribution ($\chi^2(3, n=489) = 6.74, n.s.$).

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

In order to collect data, two scales and a demographic information form were utilized in this study. Demographic form (Appendix A) was developed to get some information about the participants' age, gender, level of English, department, type of high school they graduated from, and the number of years that they took English language education and whether they have been abroad or not. In addition to demographic form, two scales were administered to the participants: Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. Furthermore, the English proficiency scores of the participants were obtained from the English proficiency exam done at the beginning of the year.

3.4.1. Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy

Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy (Appendix B) was designed by Wang in order to measure the English self-efficacy of EFL students. There are 32 items asking students their judgment about their own capabilities in English language. Four subscales are included in the questionnaire, namely self-efficacy for listening, self-efficacy for speaking, self-efficacy for reading, and self-efficacy for writing. It is a 7-point scale in which the students are asked to respond to 32 items ranging from "Definitely I cannot" (1) to "Definitely I can" (7). Internal consistency coefficient of the questionnaire in English was reported as .96 for the total scale. The coefficients for each subscale were appeared to be .88 for listening and reading, .89 for writing, and .92 for speaking (Wang, n.d.).

Owing to the fact that the original questionnaire is in English, it was adapted into Turkish by the researcher (Appendix C). In the translation procedure, firstly, three English teachers working at a private university as an instructor were asked to translate the instrument items into Turkish. From these translated items, clearest and best-stated ones were chosen to be included in the scale. Then, in order to examine the translation's validity, back translation of the version that best matches the original was done with the help of another group of three English instructors and was found satisfactory. For the validity issue, the questionnaire was pilot tested with 191 language preparatory school students. With the data taken from 191 students, the factor analysis was conducted. Results of the factor analysis suggested 6 factors with Eigenvalue over one, explaining 67.93% of variance (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the 32-item Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	15.36	47.99	47.99
2	1.81	5.65	53.64
3	1.37	4.29	57.93
4	1.11	3.48	61.41
5	1.06	3.31	64.72
6	1.03	3.22	67.93

These six factors suggested by the results of factor analysis were not similar to the factors in the original scale and the items in each factor did not have common qualities. However, the results of the reliability analysis provide high values for the scale itself and for the 4 categories in the scale. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the

self-efficacy scale was .94. Reliability for listening and speaking was .88, for reading .68 and for writing .89. Therefore, it was preferred to make some changes in five of the items in terms of wording. To illustrate, item 13 was “Can you make new sentences with the words just learned?” (Yeni öğrendiğiniz kelimeleri kullanarak cümle kurabilir misiniz?). This item altered into “Can you write new sentences with the words just learned?” (Yeni öğrendiğiniz kelimeleri kullanarak cümle yazabilir misiniz?). As the concept of “making sentences” could be both verbal and written, this might have led to confusion and misunderstanding. With the change in the wording, it was clear that the item was about writing. Another item that was chosen was item 16. The item was “Can you understand the English news on the Internet?” (İnternetteki İngilizce haberleri anlayabilir misiniz?), and it was transformed into “Can you understand the English news on the Internet when you read it?” (İnternette İngilizce haber okuduğunuzda anlayabilir misiniz?). The news on the net could be either listened or read, yet this was not clear in the first sentence. Therefore, change was made to show that it was about reading news on the net. Another example for the change in the wording was item 27 as it was one of the most problematic ones. This item had been “Can you understand numbers spoken in English?” (İngilizce olarak söylenen rakamları anlayabilir misiniz?) before it was changed into “Can you understand the English numbers when someone tells you?” (İngilizce rakamları söylendiğinde anlayabilir misiniz?). In the previous one, students may have focused on their knowledge about English numbers mostly, yet the emphasis in the latter was on the speaking aspect of the numbers. Similar changes were made in the wording of item 18 and item 32 in order to avoid the misunderstandings.

3.4.2. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

In order to measure the language learning strategy use and the choice of the participants, Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0, which was devised by Oxford (1990), was administered to the participants. This questionnaire has two versions: one for native speakers of English consisting 80 items and the other for learners of English consisting of 50 items. In this study, concerning the learners of English language, version for the language learners was utilized. The questionnaire has 50 items, all of which are categorized into six groups (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5

SILL Categorization of Strategies

SILL Parts	n of items	What strategies are covered	Strategy Group
Part A	9	Remembering more effectively	Memory
Part B	14	Using all mental processes	Cognitive
Part C	6	Compensating for missing knowledge	Compensation
Part D	9	Organizing and evaluating the learning	Metacognitive
Part E	6	Managing the emotions	Affective
Part F	6	Learning with others	Social

Note: n= the total number

SILL (Appendix D) is a self-report scale which was designed as a five-point rating scale in which participants are asked to respond to the items ranging from “Never or almost never true of me” (1) to “Always or almost always true of me” (5). SILL is the most widely used inventory to measure the strategy use of the learners and has been proved valid, reliable, and easy to use. Although Oxford and Burry-Stock claimed that reliability and validity of the inventory has been checked in multiple

ways and found reliable and valid (1995), in the confirmatory factor analysis study done by Hsiao and Oxford (2002) with 517 college EFL learners, it is asserted that model put forward by Oxford “has not yielded a fully acceptable fit to the data” (p.378). Oxford and Hsiao suggested that other classification models should also be considered. They specified five approaches that can be used “differentiating strategies for using a language from strategies for learning it,” “recognizing the importance of learning environment,” “slightly modifying the prevalent strategy classification theories by reclassifying particular strategies,” “ensuring that the language skills are obvious in each strategy item,” “creating task-based strategy inventory” (p.368, 2002).

Turkish version of SILL adapted by Cesur and Fel (2007) was used in this study. The reliability and the validity evidences of the Turkish version were provided by Cesur and Fel (2007) with 768 preparatory school students attending one of the seven universities in Istanbul: Yıldız Teknik University, Sabancı University, Bahçeşehir University, Bilgi University, Maltepe University, Istanbul University, and Bosphorus University. The result for the reliability of the inventory was found .92. Moreover, for each sub-category, the alpha value ranged from .59 to .86. Internal consistency reliability coefficients for each sub-category were as follows: .70 for memory strategies, .82 for cognitive strategies, .65 for compensation strategies, .86 for metacognitive strategies, .59 for affective strategies, and .61 for social strategies. Even though the values of reliability coefficient were acceptable, results of factor analysis indicated the 6-factor model did not fit the data. In the factor analysis study done by Cesur and Fel, principle component was used and the results revealed 10

factors with eigenvalues greater than one, none of which can be named meaningfully. After omitting three items (items 26, 36 and 43), factors were grouped into 6 factors. However, it was seen that the items of the inventory were scattered into factors in a disorganized way. As derived from the results, Turkish version of SILL (Appendix E) did not produce fully fit to the data.

3.4.3. Students' English Language Proficiency Scores

Students' English language proficiency scores were obtained in order to find out the predictors of English language proficiency. These scores were gathered by a proficiency exam done at the beginning of the year at the university. This proficiency exam was prepared by the Standards and Measurement Unit in the Foreign Language Department to assign the students in appropriate classes according to their English level. This unit is made up of four members who are experienced in testing. They are responsible for preparing all the exams throughout the year including the proficiency exam, preparing the test booklets for each class, assigning the invigilators, making sure that the test starts, proceed and finish smoothly without a problem, and grading and reporting the results.

This proficiency exam consists of three parts, first of which tests the students' proficiency in structure, listening, and reading. In this part of the exam, there are 125 multiple choice questions including 60 structure, 40 reading, and 25 listening questions. In the development phase, firstly, members of the testing unit prepare a table of specification, that is, they specify such grammar points as subject-verb agreement, tenses, adjectives-adverbs, modals, adjective clauses, noun clauses, indirect speech which are needed to be assessed. A pool of multiple choice questions

is generated by the members of the Standards and Measurement Unit; afterwards, the best ones are chosen to include in the exam. The final draft of the exam is examined by the members and by the Academic coordinator, who is an expert having a Ph. D. degree in the field of Assessment and Evaluation.

The second part is the writing part in which students are asked to write well-organized essay for one of the given topics. Three topics which are generally about current issues that students are most probably familiar with are chosen by the members of the Standards and Measurement Unit. In the exam, 45 minutes are given to the students to write an academic essay. After the exam, instructors mark the writing papers of the students based on a criteria developed by the unit. The students get points between 0 and 100.

The last part is the speaking in which students' abilities to talk about themselves, describe a picture by adding their ideas, and express their opinions on a given topic are tested. In this part of the exam, juries with two instructors are formed. Students are assigned into the juries equally and the lists with the timetables are hung both on the first floor and to the doors of the classes. Every jury takes the exam pack which consists of marking criteria, paper to take notes, CD of the pictures, and topic list in a bag to do the drawing. Moreover, interlocutors take a microphone to record the students' speaking. It takes about 3 minutes for one student to talk about his/herself, 3 minutes to describe the picture that he/she chooses from the list in a detailed way, and 4 minutes to discuss the question in the topic list. After the student chooses the topic from the bag, he/she has 1 minute to prepare and take notes, that's the reason why the last part of speaking exam is 4 minutes long. After the student goes outside,

the interlocutors decide on the grades separately based on the criteria provided by the Standards and Measurement Unit and then the average point is taken as the mark of the student.

All the parts are calculated separately with 100 as the top point, and the average is obtained afterwards. In the present study, averages of these three parts were used as the proficiency scores of the participants.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

In the data collection procedure, two steps are followed as the data set is two-folded. The first fold consisted of the proficiency scores of the students. At the beginning of the term students took language proficiency exam which is formed in three parts as use of English exam (reading, listening, and structure), writing exam, and speaking exam. The first part of the exam consists of multiple choice questions whose answers are filled in the answer sheet. In the other two parts, students' writings and their speaking abilities are evaluated by the instructors working at that university. The scores students got were calculated as their average point of proficiency. Not all the students took the examination, so this causes some loss in the data.

The second fold of the data included the implementation of the questionnaires. Therefore, as the second step, after receiving the permission from Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee, the questionnaire which consists of language learning strategy inventory, English self-efficacy scale, and questions on demographic information was distributed to the students in all classes within three days right after the proficiency exam. Instructors were invited to take the

pack of questionnaires and asked to distribute the questionnaire to students in their classes. The return rate was %84 as not all students may have attended the classes at the time of the distribution of the questionnaire. Data were gathered from 545 students, yet 56 of them cannot be taken to the data analysis as they did not take the proficiency exam at the beginning of the term.

3.6. Data Analysis

To investigate the role of the self-efficacy beliefs, language learning strategies, some of the demographic information in predicting the proficiency scores of the preparatory school students, multiple regression analysis was conducted. Multiple regression analysis enables researchers to determine a correlation between a criterion variable and the best combination of two or more predictor variables (Frankel & Wallen, 2006). Among the three methods of multiple regression, hierarchical regression procedure was preferred as the researcher can choose in which order to enter the predictor variables into the model. In the beginning of the analysis of the gathered data, initial analyses was performed by using PASW 18 in order to identify the nature of the distribution, accuracy of the data entry, and assumptions of the multiple regression analyses.

For Tabachnick and Fidell (2001, p.117), adequate sample size for multiple regression is $N > 50 + 8m$ (m: numbers of predictor variables). Therefore, data collected from 489 participants with 5 predictors were considered to be appropriate for the present study.

Furthermore, the assumptions of multiple regression analyses (normality, linearity, independence of errors, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity) were checked before testing the hypothesis. Then, hierarchical multiple regression analyses was performed to test the research hypothesis. In the first step, number of years of English language learning, whether they have been abroad and type of high school that the students graduated from were entered; English self-efficacy beliefs of the students were entered in the second step; and in the third step language learning strategies were added.

3.7. Limitations of the Study

The present study had several limitations which can influence the presented results. To begin with, the results of the study are limited to the sample inclusion. Since the data were gathered from the language preparatory school students at a private university in Ankara, the results can only display information about that group of students. Thus, it is not possible to generalize the findings to the other preparatory school students at other universities.

Another limitation of the present study is regarding the measurement technique. Self-reported questionnaires were used in data collection. These self-reported measurement tools are likely to be affected by the ideas of the students about themselves.

Another limitation is the question asking students how long they have been abroad. However, the answers to this question are not clear enough to use in the data. Therefore, the study was limited to question of being abroad or not.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The main aim of this study was to understand to what extent variables of self-efficacy, language learning strategies, number of years of English language learning, being abroad and type of high school predict the proficiency scores of the students. In the present chapter, firstly, results of the factor analysis and the reliability of each scale are reported. Secondly, descriptive statistics related to the variables are given. Then, the assumptions of multiple regression analysis were checked and the results were presented before testing the hypothesis. Finally, the results of hierarchical regression analysis with demographic variables, self-efficacy beliefs, and language learning strategies as predictors and the proficiency scores of the students as the outcome variable were presented.

4.1. Factor Analysis of Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy

Factor analysis for Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy was done with 489 participants of the present study. Factor analysis was implemented by using maximum likelihood analysis with direct oblimin rotation. Table 4.1 displays the eigenvalues and associated variance explained. Results revealed four-factor structure with eigenvalues greater than one. These four factors explained 61.49% of the total variance on English language self-efficacy. However, this four-factor structure was not interpretable.

Table. 4.1

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the 32-item Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	15.73	49.14	49.14
2	1.68	5.26	54.41
3	1.23	3.86	58.27
4	1.03	3.22	61.49

In addition, scree plot (Figure 4.1) suggested two-factor structure. Therefore, the solution of factor analysis was limited to two factors. Loadings of the factors in a two-structured form are given in Table 4.2.

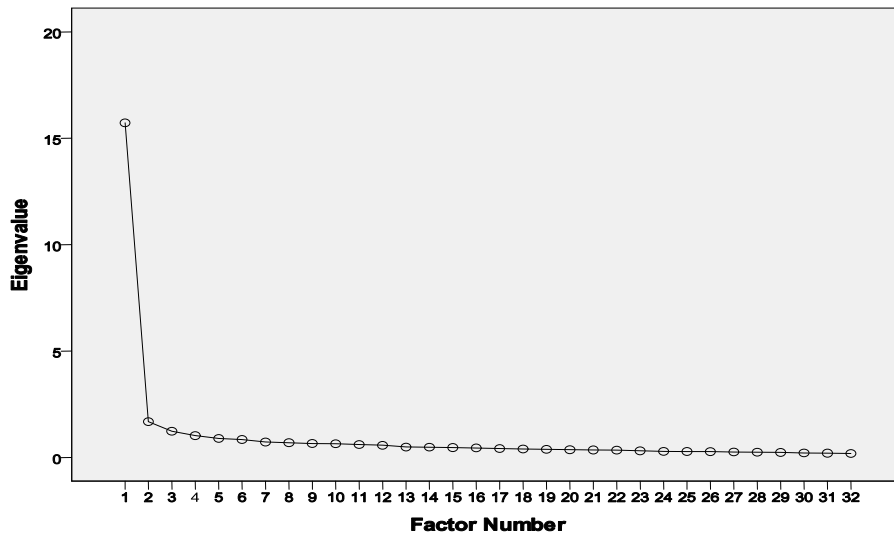


Figure 4.1 *Scree Plot of the 32-item Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy*

Table 4.2

Factor Loadings of 32-item Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy

<i>Items</i>		<i>Factor I Receptive Skills</i>	<i>Factor II Productive Skills</i>
22.	Can you understand English movies without Turkish subtitles?	.91	-.18
9.	Can you understand radio programs in English speaking countries?	.88	-.09
3.	Can you understand English TV programs?	.86	-.13
10.	Can you understand English TV programs made in Turkey?	.85	-.08
16.	Can you understand the English news on the Internet?	.83	-.05
25.	Can you read English newspapers?	.79	-.03
1.	Can you understand stories told in English?	.78	-.02
24.	Can you understand English songs?	.72	.03
28.	If you have access to internet, can you release news on the Internet?	.69	.10
29.	Can you understand English articles about Turkish culture?	.68	.09
26.	Can you find the meaning of new words by using English-English dictionaries?	.66	.01
8.	Can you tell a story in English?	.65	.18
18.	Can you make sentences with English phrases?	.64	.06
15.	If your teacher gives you a tape-recorded English dialogue about school life, can you understand it?	.59	.21
20.	Can you discuss in English with your classmates some topics in which all of you are interested?	.56	.33
21.	Can you read English short novels?	.55	.12
2.	Can you finish your homework of English reading independently?	.48	.19
12.	When you read English articles, can you guess the meaning of unknown words?	.47	.07
7.	Can you write English compositions assigned by your teachers?	.46	.29
32.	Can you understand new lessons in your English book?	.43	.33
14.	Can you write email messages in English?	.42	.37
5.	Can you write diaries in English?	.40	.29
4.	Can you introduce your school in English?	.39	.34

Note. $n=489$, items are listed according to their loadings. Boldface indicates highest factor loadings.

Table 4.2. (Cont.)

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor I Receptive Skills</i>	<i>Factor II Productive Skills</i>
30. Can you introduce yourself in English?	-.11	.81
19. Can you introduce your English teacher in English?	.01	.75
6. Can you give directions from your classroom to your home in English?	-.02	.55
31. Can you write an article about your English teacher in English?	.32	.50
23. Can you answer your teachers' questions in English?	.38	.49
17. Can you ask questions to your teachers in English?	.34	.49
13. Can you make new sentences with the words just learned?	.15	.49
11. Can you leave a message to your classmates in English?	.34	.44
27. Can you understand numbers spoken in English?	.09	.28

Note: n=489, items are listed according to their loadings. Boldface indicates highest factor loadings.

Two factors were interpreted as self-efficacy for receptive skills and self-efficacy for productive skills. Receptive skills, reading and listening, are the skills which provide the learner input about the language; whereas, productive skills, speaking and writing, are the skills which require the learner produce the language. Nations (2001) states that “receptive carries the idea that we receive language input from others through listening and reading and try to comprehend it, productive that we produce language forms by speaking and writing to convey messages to others” (p.24). Fifteen items (1, 2, 3, 9, 10, 12, 15, 16, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26, 29, and 32) were named “self-efficacy for receptive skills” since they are measuring self-efficacy levels about reading and listening skills. Eight items (6, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 30, and 31) were named “self-efficacy for productive skills” as they are measuring the self-efficacy

levels about writing and speaking skills. In addition, nine items (4, 5, 7, 8, 14, 18, 20, 27, and 28) with very low factor loadings were eliminated.

4.2. Reliability of Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy

In order to assess the internal consistency, reliability analysis was run by computing Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the subscales called "self-efficacy for receptive skills" was .94 and "self-efficacy for productive skills" was .87. Item-total correlations and Cronbach's alpha if item deleted were given in Table 4.3. Item-total correlations ranged from .53 to .78 for the "self-efficacy for receptive skills" and from .48 to .75 for "self-efficacy for productive skills." These findings suggested that all items were contributing satisfactorily to the subscales.

Table 4.3.

Item Total Correlation, Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for the items in Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy

<i>Item</i>	<i>Item Total Correlation</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</i>
Self-efficacy for Receptive Skills (Alpha = .94)		
Can you understand stories told in English?	.74	.94
Can you finish your homework of English reading independently?	.61	.94
Can you understand American English TV programs?	.74	.94
Can you understand radio programs in English speaking countries?	.78	.94
Can you understand English TV programs made in Turkey?	.76	.94
When you read English articles, can you guess the meaning of unknown words?	.53	.94
If your teacher gives you a tape-recorded English dialogue about school life, can you understand it?	.72	.94
Can you understand the English news on the Internet?	.76	.94
Can you read English short novels?	.63	.94
Can you understand English movies without Turkish subtitles?	.76	.94
Can you understand English songs?	.72	.94
Can you read English newspapers?	.75	.94
Can you find the meaning of new words by using English-English dictionaries?	.67	.94
Can you understand English articles about Turkish culture?	.72	.94
Can you understand new lessons in your English book?	.66	.94
Self-efficacy for Productive Skills (Alpha= .87)		
Can you give directions from your classroom to your home in English?	.48	.88
Can you leave a message to your classmates in English?	.66	.86
Can you make new sentences with the words just learned?	.56	.87
Can you ask questions to your teachers in English?	.70	.86
Can you introduce your English teacher in English?	.71	.86
Can you answer your teachers' questions in English?	.75	.85
Can you introduce yourself in English?	.65	.86
Can you write an article about your English teacher in English?	.67	.86

4.3. Factor Analysis of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Factor analysis for Strategy Inventory for Language Learning was implemented by using the data taken from 489 participants of the present study. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted by using maximum likelihood analysis with direct oblimin rotation to reveal the factorial structure of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. Eleven factors appeared according to the eigenvalues greater than one rule (Table 4.4). These eleven factors explained 28.43% of the total variance on language learning strategies. Nevertheless, this eleven-factor structure was neither the structure expected based on the grouping in the original scale, items of which are classified into six groups as cognitive, memory, compensation, metacognitive, social and affective by Oxford nor interpretable.

Table 4.4.

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance and Cumulative Percentages for Factors of the 50-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Factor	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	11.86	23.71	23.71
2	3.12	6.24	29.95
3	2.07	4.15	34.10
4	1.90	3.80	37.90
5	1.70	3.40	41.30
6	1.60	3.20	44.50
7	1.41	2.82	47.32
8	1.28	2.56	49.88
9	1.26	2.51	52.39
10	1.18	2.36	54.75
11	1.11	2.22	56.96

Moreover, scree plot, suggesting 6-7 factors, can be seen in Figure 4.2. Oxford (2002) proposed a 6-factor structure with the following factors: cognitive, metacognitive, memory, affective, social, and compensation strategies. Therefore, factor analysis was restricted to 6 factors and the solution (Table 4.5) was examined.

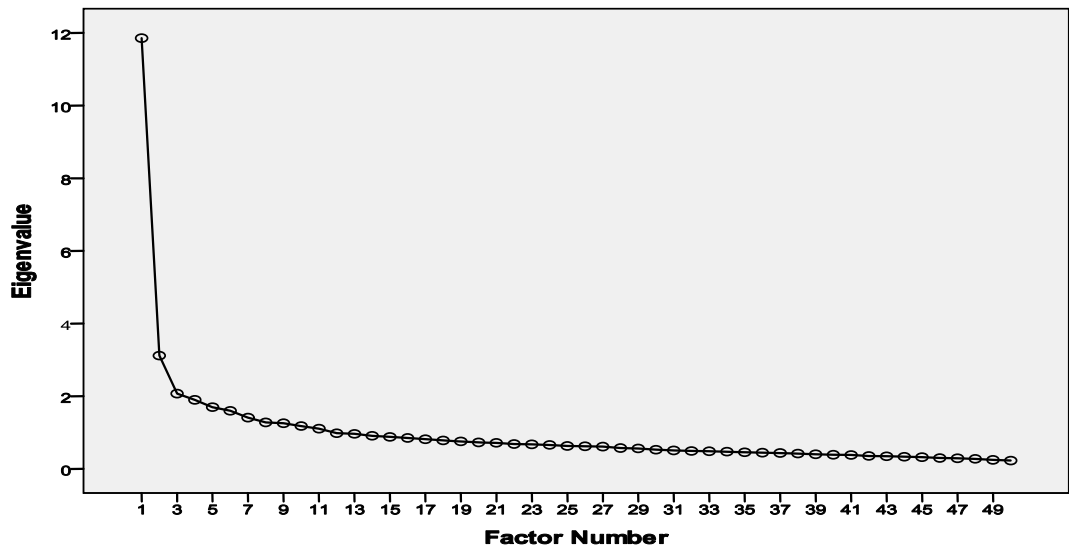


Figure 4.2 *Scree Plot of the 50-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning*

Table 4.5.

Factor Loadings of items in Strategy Inventory of Language Learning

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor I</i>	<i>Factor II</i>	<i>Factor III</i>	<i>Factor IV</i>	<i>Factor V</i>	<i>Factor VI</i>
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.	.72	-.15	.01	-.12	.10	-.21
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	.66	-.02	.10	-.08	.02	.04
14. I start conversations in English	.59	.07	.12	.20	.12	.10
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	.57	-.33	.04	-.04	.04	-.08
49. I ask questions in English.	.54	.03	-.01	-.21	-.01	.05
17. I write notes ,messages, letters, or reports in English.	.49	-.03	.02	.23	-.01	.33
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.	.47	.03	.15	.02	-.03	.12
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	.45	.14	.12	-.23	-.01	.08
16. I read for pleasure in English.	.44	-.17	.00	.10	-.03	.25
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	.43	.17	-.02	-.01	-.05	.20
47. I practice English with other students.	.40	-.04	.01	.02	.22	.01
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	.35	-.31	.04	-.22	-.01	.03
50. I try to learn about culture of English speakers.	.34	.01	.01	-.01	.22	.15
12. I practice the sounds of English.	.26	-.16	.20	.00	.07	.14
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	.19	-.10	.05	-.03	.08	.16
8. I review English lessons often.	.02	-.70	-.03	-.13	.01	.06

Note: n=489, items are listed according to their loadings. Boldface indicates highest factor loadings.

Table 4.5. (Cont.)

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor I</i>	<i>Factor II</i>	<i>Factor III</i>	<i>Factor IV</i>	<i>Factor V</i>	<i>Factor VI</i>
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English	.13	-.65	.01	-.08	.12	-.07
10. I say or write new English words several times.	-.08	-.54	.03	-.10	.03	.09
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	.19	-.48	-.05	-.25	.13	-.09
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	-.04	-.40	.11	.06	.11	.01
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	.15	-.30	.16	.10	-.05	.24
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	.02	.07	.85	-.03	-.08	-.10
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	-.05	-.06	.80	.01	-.04	-.10
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	-.07	.08	.54	.02	.17	.06
7. I physically act out new English words.	.14	-.08	.47	.03	.12	-.02
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	-.02	-.15	.33	-.07	-.12	.14
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	.14	.11	.26	-.19	.05	.02
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	-.09	-.14	.10	-.55	.05	.00

Note: n=489, items are listed according to their loadings. Boldface indicates highest factor loadings.

Table 4.5. (Cont.)

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor I</i>	<i>Factor II</i>	<i>Factor III</i>	<i>Factor IV</i>	<i>Factor V</i>	<i>Factor VI</i>
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	-.13	-.07	.03	-.45	.12	.11
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	.06	.01	.05	-.42	.07	.15
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	.38	-.09	.12	-.42	-.09	-.04
38. I think about my progress in learning English.	.28	-.25	.05	-.41	.00	.02
48. I ask for help from English speakers.	.21	-.09	-.04	-.40	.13	-.06
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me to do better.	.22	-.24	.10	-.34	-.17	.23
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	-.05	-.17	.14	-.22	.21	-.09
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	-.08	-.06	.00	-.10	.68	.00
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	.09	.00	.02	.03	.64	.02
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	.07	-.12	.08	-.11	.33	.09
1. I think of relationships between when I already know and new things I learn in English.	.04	-.17	.16	.04	-.09	.48
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.	.17	-.13	.19	.09	.04	.48
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	.13	.13	.09	-.28	-.12	.47
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing into parts that I understand.	-.02	-.10	.13	.05	.14	.46

Note: n=489, items are listed according to their loadings. Boldface indicates highest factor loadings.

Table 4.5. (Cont.)

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor I</i>	<i>Factor II</i>	<i>Factor III</i>	<i>Factor IV</i>	<i>Factor V</i>	<i>Factor VI</i>
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	.00	.13	-.10	-.03	.10	.44
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	.05	-.19	-.01	-.15	-.05	.41
24. To understand unfamiliar words, I make guesses.	.04	.05	.14	-.35	-.15	.40
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	.20	.17	.05	-.21	.06	.33
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.	.05	-.02	-.02	-.08	.03	.32
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	.10	-.25	.05	.02	.16	.27
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	.11	.20	.12	-.04	.13	.25
20. I try to find patterns in English.	.15	-.12	.16	-.04	.05	.24

Note: n=489, factors are listed according to their loadings. Boldface indicates highest factor loadings.

Eleven items (numbered 11, 14, 15, 17, 30, 35, 36, 37, 47, 49, and 50) were named as “Creating Opportunities.” Five items (2, 6, 8, 10, 33, and 34) were given the name “Rehearsal Strategies” and six items (3, 4, 5, 7, 9, and 25) were named as “Memory Strategies: Associations and Visualization.” The factor formed with items 31, 32, 38, 39, 42, 45, and 48 was named as “Metacognitive Regulation” whereas the factor with items 41, 43, 44 was named as “Affective Strategies”. The last factor including 10 items (1, 13, 18, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27, 28, and 29) was called “Deep Processing Strategies.” On the other hand, seven items (12, 16, 19, 20, 26, 40 and 46) were eliminated due to the fact that they either did not load on a specific factor or did not measure similar strategy points with the other items in the same factor. It is

noteworthy that the factorial structure displayed similarities with the factorial structure presented by Cesur and Fel. However, Cesur and Fel (2007) did not name the factors.

4.4. Reliability of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Cronbach's Alpha coefficients ranged from .62 to .85 for the subscales of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. More specifically, alpha coefficient for Creating Opportunities was .85; for Rehearsal Strategies .76; for Memory Strategies .74; for Metacognitive Regulation .78; for Affective Strategies .62 and for Deep Processing Strategies .77. Item-total correlations and Cronbach's alpha if item deleted were given in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6.

Item Total Correlations and Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted for the 43-item SILL

<i>Items</i>	<i>Item Total Correlation</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</i>
<i>Creating Opportunities (alpha = .85)</i>		
I try to talk like native English speakers.	.52	.84
I start conversations in English	.59	.84
I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	.39	.85
I write notes ,messages, letters, or reports in English.	.54	.84
I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	.69	.83
I look for people I can talk to in English.	.65	.83
I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	.59	.84
I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	.48	.84
I practice English with other students.	.48	.84
I ask questions in English.	.57	.84
I try to learn about culture of English speakers.	.46	.85
<i>Rehersal Strategies (alpha = .76)</i>		
I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	.33	.76
I use flashcards to remember new English words.	.40	.76
I review English lessons often.	.63	.69
I say or write new English words several times.	.52	.72
I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	.53	.72
I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	.63	.69
<i>Memory Strategies: Association and Visualization (alpha = .74)</i>		
I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	.61	.67
I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	.60	.67
I use rhymes to remember new English words.	.44	.72
I physically act out new English words.	.50	.70
I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	.39	.73
When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	.36	.74

Table 4.6. (Cont.)

<i>Items</i>	<i>Item Total Correlation</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</i>
<i>Metacognitive Regulation (alpha = .78)</i>		
I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me to do better.	.53	.75
I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	.57	.74
I think about my progress in learning English.	.61	.74
I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	.48	.76
I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	.43	.77
If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again	.49	.76
I ask for help from English speakers	.46	.76
<i>Affective Strategies (alpha = .62)</i>		
I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	.37	.65
I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	.50	.49
I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	.48	.45
<i>Deep Processing strategies (alpha = .77)</i>		
I think of relationships between when I already know and new things I learn in English.	.48	.76
I use the English words I know in different ways.	.55	.75
I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	.42	.76
I find the meaning of an English word by dividing into parts that I understand.	.44	.76
I try not to translate word-for-word.	.35	.77
I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	.39	.76
To understand unfamiliar words, I make guesses.	.52	.75
I read English without looking up every new word.	.34	.77
I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	.47	.76
If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	.54	.75

4.5. Descriptive Statistics

Independent variables of the study – number of years of English language learning, being abroad, high school type, language learning strategies, and self-efficacy beliefs – and dependent variable, proficiency scores, were observed according to their mean and standard deviation (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7

Descriptive Statistics for the Research Variable

<i>Variables</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
Proficiency Score	33.3	24.0	92	0	92
Years of English Lang. Learning	8.3	3.0	15	1	15
Self-efficacy for Receptive Skills	4.5	1.0	4.9	2.1	7
Self-efficacy for Productive Skills	5.1	1.0	4.9	2.1	7
Create opportunities	2.8	.7	3.6	1.1	4.6
Rehearsal	3.1	.8	3.7	1.2	4.8
Memory	3.0	.8	4.0	1.0	5.0
Metacognitive regulation	3.5	.7	3.6	1.4	5.0
Affective	1.9	.8	4.0	1.0	5.0
Deep Processing	3.0	.8	4.0	1.0	5.0

Note. $N = 489$

The results pointed out that the participants reported relatively higher number of years of English language learning ($M = 8.3$, $SD = 3.0$) in a range from 1 to 15. About self-efficacy, results revealed that participants judge themselves more capable in productive skills ($M = 5.1$, $SD = 1.0$) than in receptive skills ($M = 4.5$, $SD = 1.0$). By analyzing the results for the language learning strategies, it is possible to say that participants mostly favor metacognitive regulation strategies ($M = 3.5$, $SD = .7$). The second place in the list goes to rehearsal strategies ($M = 3.1$, $SD = .8$). Deep processing ($M = 3.0$, $SD = .8$) and memory strategies ($M = 3.0$, $SD = .8$) get the same frequency of use among the participants. Strategies to create opportunities ($M = 2.8$,

$SD = .7$) and affective strategies ($M = 1.9, SD = .8$) are the least used ones by the participants of the present study.

Correlation of independent and dependent variables with each other was examined. All the correlations among the variables were significant ($p < .01$). The strongest correlation was observed between the receptive skill self-efficacy and productive skills self-efficacy ($r = .76, p < .01$). That is, students who have high self-efficacy about their abilities in receptive skills tend to have high self-efficacy about their abilities in productive skills in English. The moderate positive correlation was seen between the receptive skill self-efficacy and proficiency scores of the students ($r = .61, p < .01$). Students who have high self-efficacy about their abilities in receptive skills tend to get higher proficiency scores. 61 % of the difference in proficiency scores can be explained by receptive skill self-efficacy. The weakest correlation was detected between memory strategies and proficiency scores ($r = .01, p = .01$) and between meta-cognitive regulation and proficiency scores ($r = .01, p = .01$). The details can be seen in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Intercorrelation of the Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Proficiency score	---									
2. Years of English Lang. learning	.42	---								
3. Being Abroad	-.23	-.12	---							
4. Receptive Skills	.61	.32	-.15	---						
5. Productive Skills	.43	.24	-.08	.76	---					
6. Opportunity	.21	.06	-.10	.54	.52	---				
7. Rehearsal	-.22	-.16	.13	-.02	.13	.43	---			
8. Memory	.01	.02	-.05	.24	.25	.43	.36	---		
9. Metacognitive	.01	-.05	.05	.22	.29	.55	.52	.41	---	
10. Affective	-.07	-.07	-.04	.07	.10	.34	.37	.28	.36	---
11. Deep Processing	.32	.12	-.08	.57	.50	.56	.29	.41	.46	.27

N = 489, all coefficients are significant at $p < .01$

4.6. Assumption Check for Multiple Regression Analysis

Prior to analysis, main assumptions for multiple regression analysis which are normality, linearity, independence of errors, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity were checked.

Normality of residuals was examined by using frequency histogram and normal p-p plot for residuals (Figure 4.3).

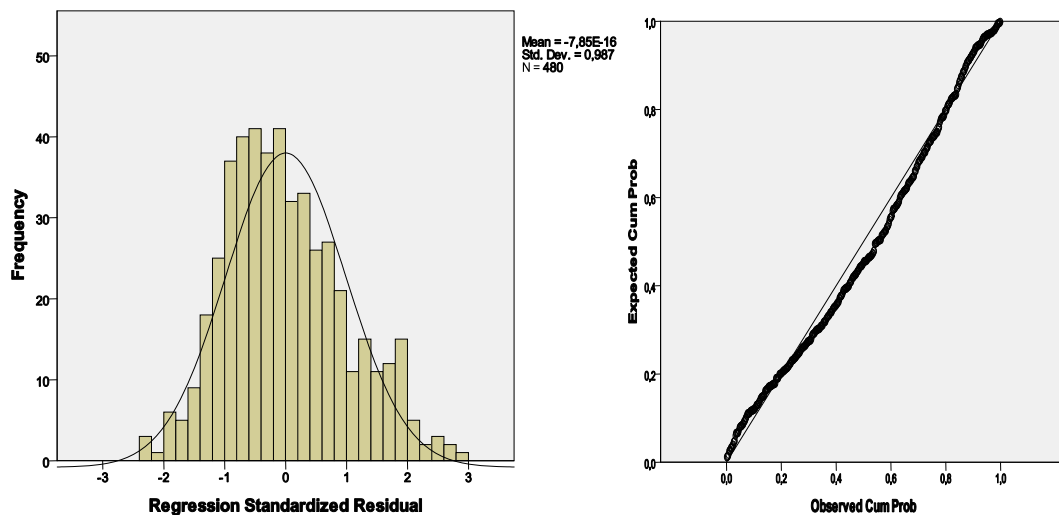


Figure 4.3. *Normality Histogram and Normal P-P Plot of Standardized Residuals*

The shape of the histogram and the p-p plot indicated that the normality assumption was met. Normality is observed when the values of skewness and kurtosis are zero (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The findings were very close to zero, so it can be assumed as normal. The p-p plot was also examined to check the normality. In p-p plot, the points would be on diagonal going from lower left to upper right (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This kind of shape was detected in the p-p plot with

some minor deviations which was because of “the random processes” according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, p.81). Therefore, normality of the residuals was deemed acceptable.

Linearity was also checked by examining the scatter plots. Linearity means that “there is a straight-line relationship between the variables” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p.83). Scrutinizing the scatter plots of the variables showed that the assumption of linearity was met. The Durbin and Watson test was applied to test the independence of errors. The test value was 1.94, which is close to 2.0 as it is within the acceptable range (Field, 2005).

The other assumption which should be met prior to the main analysis was the assumption of homoscedasticity. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), homoscedasticity is met when “standard deviations of errors of prediction are approximately equal for all predicted dependent variable scores” (p.127). Serious violation of homoscedasticity is seen “when the spread in standard deviations of residuals around predicted values is three times higher for the widest spread as for the narrowest spread” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p.127). This assumption was checked by examining the scatter plot in Figure 4.4, and it is assumed that there is no violation of homoscedasticity.

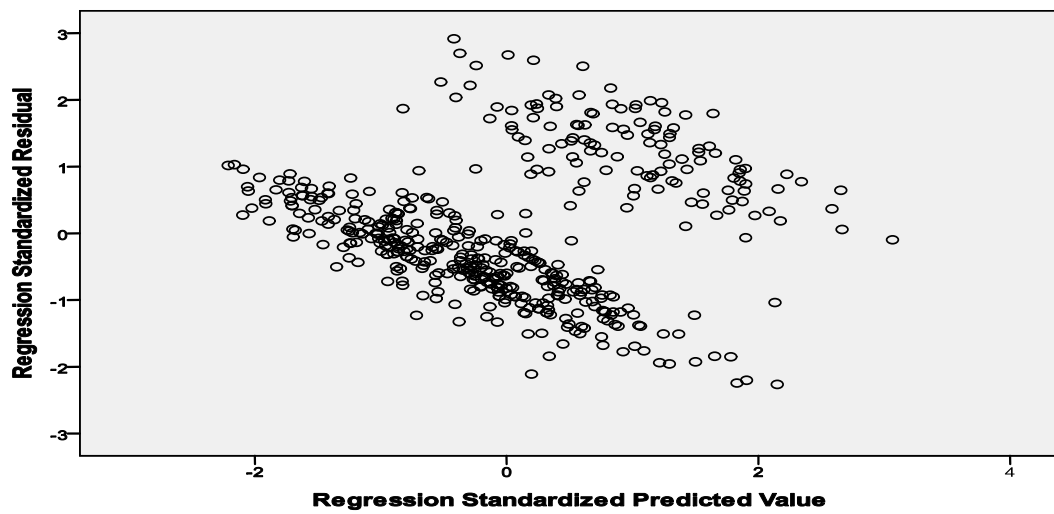


Figure 4.4. Plot of Predicted Values of the Proficiency Scores against Residuals

Lastly, correlation matrix (Table 4.8) was examined in order to diagnose multicollinearity. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that problem in multicollinearity occur when the variables are highly correlated with each other and the critical value given is .90. Examining the correlation matrix displayed no violation of multicollinearity as there were not any variables correlated with each other in .90 or above. Furthermore, VIF values, which is also used to detect the multicollinearity, were less than 10. The values ranged from 1.03 to 2.51 in the present set of data, so there appeared no violation.

4.7. Predicting Proficiency Scores by Previous English Experiences, Language Learning Strategies and Self-Efficacy Beliefs

A hierarchical regression analysis was employed to determine whether adding information related to the number of years of English language learning, being abroad, type of high school, language learning strategies, and self-efficacy beliefs improved prediction of English proficiency scores. In the first step, years of English language learning, being abroad, and type of high school were entered. Two self-efficacy variables (efficacy for receptive skills and efficacy for productive skills) were added in the second step, and six language learning strategies (creating opportunities, rehearsal, memory, metacognitive regulation, affective, and deep processing) were entered in the last step.

Table 4.9 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B) and standard error of B ($SE B$), the standardized regression coefficients (β), the squared semi-partial correlations (sr_i^2), t value, R^2 , and also tolerance and VIF values are given in the table.

Table 4.9

Hierarchical Regression Results of Previous English Experiences, Self-Efficacy Beliefs and Language Learning Strategies on Proficiency Scores

Variables	R^2	B	$SE B$	β	t	sr^2	VIF
<i>Step I</i>	.23						
Years of English Lang. Learning		2.77	.37	.34	7.54*	.11	1.26
Being Abroad		9.03	2.15	.17	4.21*	.04	1.03
Private vs. Regular		-9.33	3.15	-.17	-2.96*	.02	2.00
Private vs. Anatolian		-2.70	2.52	-.06	-1.07	.00	1.69
<i>Step II</i>	.45						
Self-efficacy for Receptive Skills		13.30	1.26	.57	10.56*	.19	2.51
Self-efficacy for Productive Skills		-2.00	1.28	-.08	-1.56	.01	2.37
<i>Step III</i>	.49						
Creating Opportunity		-.77	1.68	-.02	-.46	.00	2.36
Rehearsal		-4.07	1.36	-.13	-2.99*	.02	1.75
Memory		-3.03	1.21	-.10	-2.51*	.01	1.39
Metacognitive Regulation		.38	1.52	.01	.25	.00	1.84
Affective		-.94	1.08	-.03	-.87	.00	1.28
Deep Processing		2.74	1.36	.09	2.02*	.01	1.98

Note: $n = 480$, $*p < .05$.

According to the results, R was significantly different from zero at the end of each step. After the first step, with years of English language learning, being abroad and type of high school in the equation, $R^2 = .23$, $F(4, 467) = 35.16$, $p < .05$. 23% of the variance was explained by years of English language learning, being abroad, and type of high school. Examining the results of each variable shows that being exposed to English more ($\beta = .34$, $p < .05$), going abroad ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$) and being a private school student than a regular high school student ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .05$) contributed to the proficiency scores of the students, yet being a private school student or an Anatolian high school student ($\beta = -.06$, $p = .283$) made no difference in the proficiency scores.

In the second step, after adding self-efficacy beliefs related to receptive and productive skills, $R^2 = .45$, $F(2, 467) = .65.61$, $p < .05$. Self-efficacy beliefs of the students accounted for 23% of the variance. Addition of self-efficacy resulted in significant increase in R^2 . Self-efficacy for receptive skills contributed to the proficiency scores of the students ($\beta = .57$, $p < .05$) whereas self-efficacy for productive skills did not improve the proficiency scores ($\beta = .08$, $p = .119$).

In the third step, with categories of language learning strategies, $R^2 = .49$, $F(6, 467) = 37.06$, $p < .05$. Addition of language learning strategies did improve R^2 , but only 4% of the variance was explained by the language learning strategies. Rehearsal strategies ($\beta = -.131$, $p < .05$), memory strategies ($\beta = -.98$, $p < .05$) and deep processing strategies ($\beta = .094$, $p < .05$) significantly contributed the proficiency scores of the students. However, creating opportunities ($\beta = -.02$, $p = .65$), metacognitive strategies ($\beta = .011$, $p = .805$), and affective strategies ($\beta = -.033$, $p = .384$) made no contribution to the proficiency scores of the students.

After the third step, with all the independent variables added into the equation, R^2 became .49, indicating that 49% percent of the variability in the proficiency scores is predicted by years of English language learning, self-efficacy beliefs and language learning strategies. When squared semi-partial correlations were examined, the findings showed that the contribution of self-efficacy for receptive skills was the largest among the 12 predictors ($sr^2 = .19$). Other predictors contributed relatively lower than self-efficacy for receptive skills. Being exposed to English more ($sr^2 = .11$), going abroad ($sr^2 = .04$) and being a private school students than a regular high school students ($sr^2 = .02$) contributed to the proficiency scores. As for the language

learning strategies, the better contribution was made by Rehearsal Strategies ($sr^2 = .02$), followed by deep processing strategies ($sr^2 = .01$). and memory strategies ($sr^2 = .01$).

4.8. Summary

In conclusion, it can be said that the number of years of English language learning, whether they have been abroad and high school type that the students graduated from were significant predictors of English proficiency scores. As experience increases, students' success in proficiency exam increases. That is, students who have got more years of English education through their primary, secondary and high school years become more successful in English proficiency exam. Moreover, students who have been abroad before have higher English proficiency scores. As another significant predictor, high school type shows that graduates of private high schools are better in English proficiency exam than graduates of regular high school. In addition, self-efficacy for the receptive skills was the best predictor of proficiency scores. In other words, students who believe that they are good at reading and listening skills are better in the proficiency exam. That is, the higher self-efficacy level they have about their ability in reading and listening, the higher grades they get in English proficiency exam. Finally, among the learning strategies, rehearsal, memory and deep processing affected the prediction of the proficiency scores of the students. As the rehearsal and memory strategy use increases, the success in English proficiency exam decreases whereas the use of deep processing strategies increases the English proficiency. That is, the more deep processing strategy the students use, the better they are in English proficiency exam.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In the present study, the relationship of years of English language learning, being abroad, type of high school, English self-efficacy beliefs, and language learning strategies was investigated among the university students. The main purpose of the study was to find out whether proficiency scores of the students can be predicted by the number of years that students study English language, being abroad, the type of high school they graduated from, English self-efficacy, and language learning strategies. In this chapter, the findings of the study were discussed relying on the literature and the recommendations for further studies were stated.

5.1. Discussion of the Results

Results of the current study indicated that years of English language learning, being abroad, type of high school; self-efficacy, and language learning strategies are important factors in the English language proficiency of the students, which is noted also in the literature. In term of language learning strategies, the findings of the present study were mostly consistent with the previous studies. The previous studies (Bremner, 1999; Green & Oxford, 1995; Ku, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Park, 1997; Wharton, 2000) evidenced that language learning strategies are important predictors of proficiency. Likewise, in the present study language learning strategies were found to be related to proficiency scores of the students. Moreover, it was discovered that memory, rehearsal and deep processing strategies were better

predictors. Despite the fact that the titles of the categories are different, it can be defended that the items in these categories are mostly items of cognitive strategies and memory strategies which were supposed to be the best predictors of proficiency by Bremner (1999), Cesur (2008), Goh & Foong (1997) and Peacock & Ho (2003) and Yalçın (2006). The underlying reason for this can be that Turkish students learn mostly by memorizing instead of trying to understand the underlying logic. In order to keep the new structures or words in mind, they mostly perform rote learning. However, reaching a higher English level enables them to use cognitive strategies, especially the ones which require certain level of linguistics knowledge and vocabulary. Therefore, it is not surprising that memory, rehearsal and deep processing strategies are related to proficiency.

In addition to language learning strategies, self-efficacy beliefs were found significant in the present study. Reviewing the literature proved that the findings in the present study were consistent with the previous studies. Some of the previous studies focused on specific language skills like listening, speaking, writing or reading (Mills & Pajares & Herron, 2006; Rahimi & Abedini, 2009) and in all of these studies, it is evidenced that self-efficacy is related to student's achievement in the specific English skills. Moreover, some of the studies (Chen, 2007; Duman, 2007; Tılfarlıoğlu & Cinkara, 2009) displayed that students who have high self-efficacy are more successful in English. In the present study, self-efficacy in English was appeared as one of the good predictors of English proficiency, and it in a way proved the previous studies right. In the present study, English self-efficacy was examined in two categories as self-efficacy for receptive skills and self-efficacy for productive

skills, and it is uncovered that students who have higher self-efficacy about their reading and listening skills were more successful than the other, yet self-efficacy for productive skills was not one of the factors that lead to success. The core reason for this can be that items regarding the self-efficacy for productive skills are mostly simple activities like introducing themselves or their teachers in English or leaving message to their classmates in English. Therefore, students from either high level or low level believe that they have the ability to achieve those tasks. In contrast, items concerning self-efficacy for receptive skills are relatively harder asking students if they can understand an English movie without a subtitle or read an English newspaper. Due to the task given in the questionnaire, students' self-efficacy beliefs appeared to be higher in productive skills regardless of their proficiency levels, so this can be reflected in the results related to the proficiency.

The other result of this study is that years of English language learning and being abroad are chief factors in English language proficiency as it is expected. As it has been also shown in some studies (Grandman & Hanania, 1991; Mango, 2010), years of language learning and travelling or living abroad have an influence on the language proficiency of the students. This result is not surprising as the years of English education can make some improvements in the English level of the students and the more English language education they get, the more knowledgeable they become about English. Influence of being abroad is not unexpected since communicating with native speaker of the language and being obliged to use the language in daily life not only improve the students' English level but also increase their self-confidence.

In conclusion, years of English language learning, being abroad, self-efficacy beliefs and language learning strategies were significantly correlated with the language proficiency of the students. That is, each of these variables influences the proficiency scores of the students in one way or the other. More specifically, self-efficacy for receptive skills was the factor that had a strongest relationship with the proficiency. Following self-efficacy for receptive skills, years of language education and being abroad was seen as influential factors. Memory strategies, rehearsal strategies and deep processing strategies were the other factors that had little but noticeable relationship with proficiency of the students.

5.2. Recommendations for Further Research

Based on the findings of this study, some suggestions for the future studies can be made. Firstly, this study was done at one of the private universities in Ankara, yet it should be replicated with diverse sample of language learners from different universities, both state and private, to gain more information about the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs, language learning strategies, and proficiency of the students. However, in order to conduct a study with variety of students from different universities, researchers should develop a common proficiency exam that can be applied to the students from various universities.

The present study was limited with the following variables: years of English language learning, whether they have been abroad or not, type of high school that the students graduated from, self-efficacy beliefs, and language learning strategies. Future studies can include other variables like motivation, parents' English level, and faculty of study at the university (Social Sciences or Applied Sciences) to get more

information about the factors affecting proficiency. In addition, variables of this study can be observed longitudinally such as one data set from the proficiency at the beginning of the year and from one at the end of the year.

In the present study, variable “being abroad” is simply about whether students have ever been abroad or not and even if the period of spending time abroad was asked to the students, answers are not clear and appropriate to use in the data. This question can be added with divided periods that students can mark.

In the present study, Turkish version of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning was used and it was seen that factor analysis suggested different categorization from the original one. Therefore, factor analysis of this questionnaire can be replicated with different groups of Turkish students to check the categorization, validity and reliability.

Similarly, Questionnaire of English Self-Efficacy was adapted into Turkish for this study, yet factor analysis suggested different categorization from the original one. Studies can be done on this questionnaire to check the validity and reliability of it.

It may also be advised that researchers for the future studies should try investigating the factors related to the self-efficacy of the students in language learning or the ways to enhance the self-efficacy of language learners since there is a scarcity of research in that field.

Lastly, researchers may replicate the study in specific skills in language. One of the skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking) can be investigated in relation to the strategies and self-efficacy beliefs for the specific skill that is chosen to look into, or

the relationship between proficiency and the variables studied in the present study can be taken for only one specific skill.

5.3. Implications for Practice

Some implications can be derived from the findings of the current study. Firstly, self-efficacy was proved to be influential on the success of the students, and it is obvious that self-efficacy is predictive of academic performance. Since self-efficacy is related to the proficiency of the students, the learning environment can be used to improve the self-efficacy of the students. Appropriate learning environment and experiences encourage the students and enhance their liking of the subject and in return students may feel more self-efficacious. To create the appropriate learning environment can be made possible by following some ways. For instance, students may be informed of their capabilities and progress in learning and also provided feedback and motivated positively. Moreover, specific short-term goals instead of general long-term goals increase the students' self-efficacy more, since they are seen "challenging but attainable" (Pajares & Schunk, 2002). By comparing their progress to their goal, they can gain an idea of progress and feel self-efficacious. As Pajares and Schunk (2002) also stated, teaching students strategies that they can use improve their self-efficacy as they believe that they have the means to achieve the given task. Teachers can plan moderately challenging tasks, not simple and not too hard, use peer models, teach learning strategies, give importance to student choice and interest, encourage students to try, stress recent success, give feedback (Margolis & McCabe, 2011) to improve the students' self-efficacy, which can help them be successful at the end.

Furthermore, language learning strategy instructions can be applied in the classroom. These language learning strategies can contribute to their learning process, enable students to study on their own and increase their success in the language they have learned. Therefore, students and teachers should be aware of the strategies and the ways to use them, and learners should be given the strategies and helped to choose the ones appropriate for them because it is not the number of the strategies used that counts but the appropriateness of them for the students. Green and Oxford (1995) explains in their study that effective learners use some strategies less when they are in higher levels because every task requires different strategies. Therefore, it is better to teach the students how to use the strategies and how to adapt them into different tasks. Moreover, based on the finding of this study, some specific strategy groups are more influential for the students, so there may be focus on these strategies more.

Data collection for the present study was done in the first week of the term before the instruction began at the university. Therefore, students' level of proficiency that they acquired at high school was the actual thing that was measured with the exam. It was seen that graduates of Private and Anatolian high schools have better proficiency scores than the graduates of Regular high school. Therefore, at regular high schools more importance should be given to the language education and adequate and appropriate learning experiences should be provided to the students.

Moreover, in order to make the language education at regular high schools equal to the one at private high schools, studies should be carried out. Techniques, materials and methods used in the private schools can be adapted and utilized at regular high schools. Curriculum specialists can investigate the effective models used at private

high schools and adapted them to form better curriculum for the high schools. Moreover, curriculum specialists can make the language learning strategy instruction part of language curriculum. Each activity done in the classroom can include different strategies that can guide the students. In that way, students can learn the strategies during the process of learning.

Another finding of the study is about the years of language learning. It was displayed that students who got more years of language education were better in the proficiency exam. Hence, in order to ensure that the students are exposed to language more, language education should be started at earlier ages. Earlier language education gives students a chance to enhance their cognitive and communicative skills, and it broadens their minds with different cultural knowledge. Consequently, educational policies should be revised.

Universities should be responsible to compensate for the inadequate knowledge of their students in terms of language learning strategies. Because of that reason, they should prepare “Language Learning Strategy Instruction” or the first week of the term should be spared only for guidance. That is to say, students, when they started the language program at university, firstly should be trained by special programs. These programs can include showing the students the reasons to study language, explaining them the aims in language education, guiding them to form goals for themselves, teaching them techniques that they can make use of while learning the language, the ways to plan their learning and to plan their time effectively. With the help of this program, students can get to learn how to learn better.

Furthermore, universities' "Learning and Student Development Offices" can prepare training programs, seminars or workshops both for the instructors and for students to guide them about the language learning strategies or the techniques to use to improve the self-efficacy level of the students. Besides, volunteer students or instructors can be selected to help the students who are not successful in language learning.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC FORM

BÖLÜM III Kişisel Bilgiler

Anketin bu bölümündeki sorularda ilgili seçeneklerden durumunuza uygun olanı seçiniz.

1. Cinsiyet:

- Kadın Erkek

2. Doğum yılınız: _____

3. Kurunuz:

- AF A B C

4. Burs durumunuz:

- Burslu Bursuz

5. Eğitim hayatınız boyunca, kaç yıl İngilizce dersi aldınız? _____ yıl

6. Mezun olduğunuz Lise Türü

- Fen lisesi Düz Lise Meslek lisesi
 Özel Lise Anadolu Lisesi Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi
 Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz):

7. Üniversitedeki bölümünüz: _____

8. Daha önce yurtdışında bulundunuz mu?

- Hayır Evet (Ne kadar süre ile? _____)

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE OF ENGLISH SELF-EFFICACY (ENGLISH)

English Self-Efficacy

Below are 32 questions regarding the self-efficacy. Please read the following questions carefully and make an accurate evaluation of your current command of English no matter whether you are doing it or not. These questions are designed to measure your judgment of your capabilities, so there are no right or wrong answers.

	I can't do it at all	I can't do it	Maybe I can't do it	Maybe I can do it	Basically I can do it	I can do it	I can do it well
1. Can you understand stories told in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Can you finish your homework of English reading independently?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Can you understand American English TV programs?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Can you introduce your school in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Can you write diaries in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Can you give directions from your classroom to your home in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Can you write English compositions assigned by your teachers?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Can you tell a story in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Can you understand radio programs in English speaking countries?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Can you understand English TV programs made in China?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Can you leave a message to your classmates in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. When you read English articles, can you guess the meaning of unknown words?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	I can't do it at all	I can't do it	Maybe I can't do it	Maybe I can do it	Basically I can do it	I can do it	I can do it well
13. Can you make new sentences with the words just learned?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Can you write email messages in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. If your teacher gives you a tape-recorded English dialogue about school life, can you understand it?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Can you understand the English news on the Internet?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Can you ask questions to your teachers in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Can you make sentences with English phrases?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Can you introduce your English teacher in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Can you discuss in English with your classmates some topics in which all of you are interested?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Can you read English short novels?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Can you understand English movies without Chinese subtitles?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Can you answer your teachers' questions in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Can you understand English songs?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Can you read English newspapers?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Can you find the meaning of new words by using English-English dictionaries?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Can you understand numbers spoken in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. If you have access to internet, can you release news on the Internet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Can you understand English articles about Chinese culture?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Can you introduce yourself in English?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Can you understand new lessons in your English book?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE OF ENGLISH SELF-EFFICACY (TURKISH)

İngilizce Özyeterlik

Aşağıda, İngilizce yeterliğinize dair 32 ifade bulunmaktadır. Her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyup, kendinizi “Kesinlikle yapamam (1)”dan “Kesinlikle yapabilirim (7)”e uzanan yedili değerlendirme ölçeğinde değerlendirmeniz beklenmektedir. Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur. Lütfen size en uygun derecelendirmeyi işaretleyiniz

	Kesinlikle yapamam	Yapamam	Belki yapamam	Belki yapabilirim	Biraz yapabilirim	Yapabilirim	Kesinlikle yapabilirim
1. İngilizce anlatılan hikayeleri anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Kendi başınıza İngilizce okuma ödevini bitirebilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. İngilizce TV programlarını anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Okulunuzu İngilizce tanıtabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. İngilizce günlük tutabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Okulunuzdan evinize giden yolu İngilizce tarif edebilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Öğretmeniniz tarafından verilen İngilizce kompozisyon yazma ödevlerini yerine getirebilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. İngilizce hikaye anlatabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. İngilizce konuşan ülkelerde yayınlanan radyo programlarını anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Türkiye’de yapılan İngilizce televizyon programlarını anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Sınıf arkadaşınıza İngilizce mesaj bırakabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. İngilizce makale okuduğunuzda, bilmediğiniz kelimelerin anlamını tahmin edebilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Yeni öğrendiğiniz kelimeleri kullanarak cümle yazabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. İngilizce e-posta yazabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Kesinlikle yapamam	Yapamam	Belki yapamam	Belki yapabilirim	Biraz yapabilirim	Yapabilirim	Kesinlikle yapabilirim
15. Öğretmeniniz okul yaşamıyla ilgili İngilizce kaydedilmiş bir konuşma kaydı verirse anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. İnternetteki İngilizce haber okuduğunuzda anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Öğretmenlerinize İngilizce soru sorabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. İngilizce deyimler kullanarak cümle yazabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. İngilizce öğretmeninizi İngilizce tanıtabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Hepinizin ilgilendiği konularda sınıf arkadaşlarınızla İngilizce tartışabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. İngilizce kısa romanları okuyabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. İngilizce filmleri Türkçe altyazısız anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Öğretmenlerinizin sorularını İngilizce cevaplayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. İngilizce şarkıları anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. İngilizce gazeteleri okuyabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. İngilizceden İngilizceye olan bir sözlük kullanarak bilmediğiniz bir kelimenin anlamını bulabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. İngilizce rakamları söylendiğinde anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. İnternette İngilizce haber yayımlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Türk kültürü hakkında yazılmış İngilizce makaleleri anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Kendinizi İngilizce tanıtabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. İngilizce öğretmeniniz hakkında İngilizce bir kompozisyon yazabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. İngilizce kitabınızdaki yeni konuları okuduğunuzda anlayabilir misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (ENGLISH)

Language Learning Strategies

Abelow are 50 statements regarding the language learning strategies in language learning. Please read the statements carefully and mark the number from 1 (Never or almost true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me) which is most suitable for you. (Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL), from R. Oxford, 1989)

	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
PART A	1	2	3	4	5
1. I think of relationships between when I already know and new things I learn in English.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I physically act out new English words	1	2	3	4	5
8. I review English lessons often.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	1	2	3	4	5
PART B	1	2	3	4	5
10. I say or write new English words several times.	1	2	3	4	5

	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
11. I try to talk like native English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I practice the sounds of English.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I start conversations in English	1	2	3	4	5
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I read for pleasure in English	1	2	3	4	5
17. I write note, messages, letters, or reports in English.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I try to find patterns in English.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing into parts that I understand.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	1	2	3	4	5
PART C	1	2	3	4	5
24. To understand unfamiliar words, I make guesses.	1	2	3	4	5
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	1	2	3	4	5

	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	1	2	3	4	5
PART D	1	2	3	4	5
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me to do better.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I think about my progress in learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
PART E	1	2	3	4	5
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	1	2	3	4	5
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	1	2	3	4	5

	Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Usually true of me	Always or almost always true of me
PART F	1	2	3	4	5
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again	1	2	3	4	5
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I practice English with other students.	1	2	3	4	5
48. I ask for help from English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
49. I ask questions in English.	1	2	3	4	5
50. I try to learn about culture of English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING (TURKISH)

Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri

Aşağıda, dil öğreniminde kullanılan stratejilerle ilgili 50 ifade bulunmaktadır. Her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyup, “Hiçbir zaman (1)”dan “Her zaman (5)”a kadar uzanan beşli değerlendirme ölçeğini kullanarak size en uygun derecelendirmeyi işaretleyiniz.

	Hiçbir zaman doğru değil	Nadiren doğru	Bazen doğru	Sık sık doğru	Her zaman doğru
1. İngilizce’de bildiklerimle yeni öğrendiklerim arasında ilişki kurarım.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri hatırlamak için bir cümlede kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri akılda tutmak için kelimenin telaffuzuyla aklıma getirdiği bir resim ya da şekil arasında bağlantı kurarım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Yeni bir kelimeyi o sözcüğün kullanılabileceği bir sahneyi ya da durumu aklımda canlandırarak, hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Yeni kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için, onları ses benzerliği olan kelimelerle ilişkilendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için küçük kartlara yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Yeni kelimeleri vücut dili kullanarak zihnimde canlandırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
8. İngilizce derslerinde öğrendiklerimi sık sık tekrar ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Yeni kelime ve kelime gruplarını ilk karşılaştığım yerleri (kitap, tahta ya da herhangi bir işaret levhasını) aklıma getirerek, hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Yeni sözcükleri birkaç kez yazarak, ya da söyleyerek, tekrarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Anadili İngilizce olan kişiler gibi konuşmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Anadilimde bulunmayan İngilizce’deki “ th /θ / hw ” gibi sesleri çıkararak, telaffuz alıştırmaları yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Bildiğim kelimeleri cümlelerde farklı şekillerde kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
14. İngilizce sohbetleri ben başlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
15. T.V.’de İngilizce programlar ya da İngilizce filmler izlerim.	1	2	3	4	5

	Hiçbir zaman doğru değil	Nadiren doğru	Bazen doğru	Sık sık doğru	Her zaman doğru
16. İngilizce okumaktan hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
17. İngilizce mesaj, mektup veya rapor yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
18. İngilizce bir metne ilk başta bir göz atarım, daha sonra metnin tamamını dikkatlice okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Yeni öğrendiğim İngilizce kelimelerin benzerlerini Türkçe’de ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
20. İngilizce’de tekrarlanan kalıplar bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
21. İngilizce bir kelimenin, bildiğim kök ve eklerine ayırarak anlamını çıkarırım.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Kelimesi kelimesine çeviri yapmamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Dinlediğim ya da okuduğum metnin özetini çıkarırım.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Bilmediğim İngilizce kelimelerin anlamını, tahmin ederek bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
25. İngilizce konuşurken bir sözcük aklıma gelmediğinde, el kol hareketleriyle anlatmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Uygun ve doğru kelimeyi bilmediğim durumlarda kafamdan yeni sözcükler uydururum.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Okurken her bilmediğim kelimeye sözlükten bakmadan, okumayı sürdürürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Konuşma sırasında karşımdakinin söyleyeceği bir sonraki cümleyi tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Herhangi bir kelimeyi hatırlayamadığımda, aynı anlamı taşıyan başka bir kelime ya da ifade kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
30. İngilizce’ mi kullanmak için her fırsatı değerlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Yaptığım yanlışların farkına varır ve bunlardan daha doğru İngilizce kullanmak için faydalanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
32. İngilizce konuşan bir kişi duyduğumda dikkatimi ona veririm.	1	2	3	4	5
33. “İngilizce’yi daha iyi nasıl öğrenirim? “ sorusunun yanıtını araştırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
34. İngilizce çalışmaya yeterli zaman ayırmak için zamanımı planlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
35. İngilizce konuşabileceğim kişilerle tanışmak için fırsat kollarım.	1	2	3	4	5
36. İngilizce okumak için, elimden geldiği kadar fırsat yaratırım.	1	2	3	4	5

	Hiçbir zaman doğru değil	Nadiren doğru	Bazen doğru	Sık sık doğru	Her zaman doğru
37. İngilizce’de becerilerimi nasıl geliştireceğim konusunda hedeflerim var.	1	2	3	4	5
38. İngilizce’mi ne kadar ilerlettiğimi değerlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
39. İngilizce’mi kullanırken tedirgin ve kaygılı olduğum anlar rahatlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Yanlış yaparım diye kaygılandığımda bile İngilizce konuşmaya gayret ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
41. İngilizce’de başarılı olduğum zamanlar kendimi ödüllendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
42. İngilizce çalışırken ya da kullanırken gergin ve kaygılı isem, bunun farkına varırım.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Dil öğrenirken yaşadığım duyguları bir yere yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
44. İngilizce çalışırken nasıl ya da neler hissettiğimi başka birine anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Herhangi bir şeyi anlamadığımda, karşımdaki kişiden daha yavaş konuşmasını ya da söylediklerini tekrar etmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Konuşurken karşımdakinin yanlışlarımı düzeltmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Okulda arkadaşlarımla İngilizce konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5
48. İhtiyaç duyduğumda İngilizce konuşan kişilerden yardım isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
49. Derste İngilizce sorular sormaya gayret ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
50. İngilizce konuşanların kültürü hakkında bilgi edinmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5