

**LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND  
SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS AMONG EFL INDONESIAN  
PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS**

Thesis submitted for the degree of  
*Doctor of Philosophy*  
at the University of Canberra

by

**Syafi'ul Anam**  
Faculty of Arts and Design  
University of Canberra

June 2016

# ABSTRACT

---

## **Language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs among EFL Indonesian primary school students**

Syafi'ul Anam

While there has been a great deal of research on learning strategies, little attention has been given to the strategy use of young children learning English as a foreign language. The role of self-efficacy also remains under-researched in the second/foreign language field, despite its importance and the recognition given in other research domains. The current study sought quantitative and qualitative evidence primarily on whether strategy use and self-efficacy for English and self-regulated learning are related, and whether these components of self-regulation are related to proficiency among young EFL learners in the Indonesian context.

The study adopted a sequential mixed methods design. The quantitative phase involved 522 sixth graders enrolled in twelve primary schools in the Indonesian province of East Java. They completed an Indonesian Children's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, a Children's Self-Efficacy in Learning English Questionnaire and sat an English test. The data analysis used descriptive statistics, parametric and non-parametric tests. In the qualitative phase, twelve students with different proficiency and self-efficacy levels were interviewed. The interview data were analysed using cross-case analyses.

It was found that students with a higher proficiency level used learning strategies more frequently, used more complex and practice-oriented strategies and were more thoughtful and flexible in their strategy choices than students with a lower proficiency level. Strategy use and self-efficacy varied between girls and boys and between students in rural, suburban, and urban schools. Self-efficacy in learning English was shown to be a significant predictor of proficiency. Students with higher self-efficacy displayed stronger interest, effort, and persistence in the course of foreign language learning. Moreover, students who held strong belief in their ability to do English tasks and to self-regulate their learning were more likely to exercise learning strategies more frequently than students possessing lower self-efficacy.

Broadly speaking, these findings provide empirical evidence that the use of learning strategies depends on students' belief in their ability to use the strategies. The qualitative dimensions of the research add to a better understanding of the roles the two self-regulation components play in young learners' EFL learning. For practitioners in EFL teaching, the findings underscore the necessity of making young students more aware of learning strategies and training them in using the strategies more flexibly and persistently. EFL teachers should also consider nurturing students' belief in their ability to regulate their own learning and perform English tasks.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

---

First of all, I would like to thank my primary supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Elke Stracke, for her relentless encouragement and expert advice throughout my PhD journey. Her supervision and support makes her as a role model to me. I also thank her for creating and patiently looking after a peer group of PhD students. I benefitted considerably from the many fruitful discussions I had with them. I am also very grateful to Dr. Jeremy Jones for his constant support and meticulous reading of the draft thesis.

My sincere thanks also go to Directorate General of Higher Education, Indonesian Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology, for the scholarship which has made my dream to pursuit a doctoral degree come true. I am also thankful to all the principals and teachers for their invaluable assistance during my data collection. To all the students who participated in my study, I am deeply grateful. Without their willingness to work with me, this project would never have been accomplished. My thanks also go to all my PhD student colleagues in the Faculty of Arts and Design, especially Fitri, Didin, Daflizar, Giang, Vinh, Andy, Meredith, and Jee Young, for sharing their experience and expertise. Beth Barber provided professional editing advice on my thesis writing. I am grateful for the suggestions she made regarding language use and expression.

Finally, I am deeply indebted to my loving family, my wife, Fitriya, and my son, Ezi, for their endless support and prayer. They have made me strong in the face of difficulties throughout my candidacy.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

---

ABSTRACT.....	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xiii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xv
CERTIFICATE OF AUTHORSHIP OF THESIS.....	xvii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Introduction.....	1
1.2. Background of the study.....	1
1.2.1. The introduction of English in Indonesian primary schools.....	1
1.2.2. English curriculum and teaching practices in Indonesian primary schools.....	2
1.2.3. Research interest area.....	5
1.3. Statement of the research problems.....	9
1.4. Purposes of the study.....	10
1.5. Research questions.....	11
1.6. Originality and value of the study.....	12
1.7. Organization of the thesis.....	13
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	15
2.1. Introduction.....	15
2.2. Self-regulated learning.....	15
2.3. Language learning strategies.....	18
2.3.1. Definitions and principal features of language learning strategies.....	18
2.3.2. Classification of language learning strategies.....	21
2.4. Self-efficacy beliefs.....	23
2.4.1. Definition of self-efficacy beliefs.....	23
2.4.2. Self-efficacy beliefs and other self-constructs.....	24

2.4.3. Sources of self-efficacy beliefs .....	25
2.4.4. Assessment of self-efficacy beliefs .....	27
2.4.5. Roles of self-efficacy in learning .....	28
2.5. Research on self-efficacy beliefs .....	29
2.5.1. Academic self-efficacy beliefs .....	29
2.5.2. L2 self-efficacy beliefs .....	31
2.5.3. Self-efficacy beliefs for self-regulated learning .....	31
2.6. Research on language learning strategies .....	32
2.6.1. Research on adult and adolescent learners' language learning strategies ..	33
2.6.1.1. Strategy use in relation to proficiency .....	33
2.6.1.2. Strategy use in relation to self-efficacy beliefs .....	37
2.6.2. Research on young learners' language learning strategies .....	40
2.6.2.1. Research on primary students' strategy use in contexts other than Indonesia .....	41
2.6.2.2. Research on primary students' strategy use in the Indonesian context .....	47
2.7. Conclusion .....	49
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....	51
3.1. Introduction .....	51
3.2. Research questions .....	51
3.3. Research approach: Mixed methods .....	52
3.3.1. Overview of mixed methods approach .....	52
3.3.2. Rationale for using a mixed methods approach .....	53
3.3.3. Research design .....	54
3.4. Quantitative phase .....	56
3.4.1. Participants .....	56
3.4.2. Instrumentation .....	57
3.4.2.1. The Indonesian Children's SILL .....	57
3.4.2.2. Children's Self-Efficacy for Learning English Questionnaire (C-SELEQ) .....	65
3.4.2.3. English proficiency test .....	70
3.4.2.4. Background information .....	71
3.4.3. Data collection procedure .....	71

3.4.4. Data analysis procedure .....	72
3.5. Qualitative phase .....	74
3.5.1. Participants .....	74
3.5.2. Instrumentation.....	75
3.5.3. Data collection procedure.....	77
3.5.4. Data analysis procedure .....	78
3.6. Conclusion.....	83
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS.....	85
4.1. Introduction.....	85
4.2. Quantitative results .....	85
4.2.1. Language learning strategy use frequency .....	85
4.2.1.1. Learning strategy use frequency among all participants.....	86
4.2.1.2. Learning strategy use among participants of different proficiency levels.....	88
4.2.1.3. The five most and least frequently used learning strategies .....	89
4.2.2. Self-efficacy beliefs in learning English .....	92
4.2.3. Differences in language learning strategies across gender and school location.....	93
4.2.3.1. Learning strategy differences between female and male students .....	93
4.2.3.2. Learning strategy differences between rural, suburban, and urban students.....	94
4.2.4. Self-efficacy beliefs across gender and school location.....	95
4.2.4.1. Differences in self-efficacy between female and male students ..	95
4.2.4.2. Differences in self-efficacy between rural, suburban, and urban students.....	96
4.2.5. Differences in language learning strategies across proficiency and self- efficacy .....	98
4.2.5.1. Learning strategy use between students with different proficiency levels.....	98
4.2.5.2. Learning strategy use between students with different English self-efficacy levels.....	100

4.2.5.3. Learning strategy use between students of different self-regulated learning efficacy levels .....	102
4.2.6. Predicting proficiency from self-efficacy and learning strategies .....	104
4.3. Qualitative results .....	109
4.3.1. Learning strategy choices .....	109
4.3.1.1. Cognitive strategies .....	109
4.3.1.2. Socio-affective strategies .....	116
4.3.1.3. Metacognitive strategies .....	120
4.3.2. Ways of strategy use .....	127
4.3.2.1. Combination of learning strategies .....	127
4.3.2.2. Flexibility .....	129
4.3.2.3. Purposefulness .....	131
4.3.2.4. Confidence .....	132
4.3.2.5. Thoughtfulness .....	134
4.3.3. Motivational behaviours .....	135
4.3.3.1. Attribution of success and failure .....	135
4.3.3.2. Effort in L2 learning .....	137
4.3.3.3. Persistence in the face of difficult tasks .....	139
4.3.3.4. Interest in L2 learning .....	140
4.4. Integration of quantitative and qualitative results .....	141
4.5. Conclusion .....	145
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS .....	147
5.1. Introduction .....	147
5.2. Learning strategy use among all students .....	147
5.3. Learning strategy use among students of different proficiency levels .....	151
5.4. Self-efficacy beliefs in learning English .....	152
5.5. Learning strategy differences across gender and school location .....	153
5.6. Self-efficacy beliefs across gender and school location .....	155
5.7. Relationships between strategy use and proficiency .....	156
5.7.1. Frequencies of strategy use and proficiency .....	156
5.7.2. Qualitative dimensions in strategy use among students of different proficiency levels .....	159
5.8. Relationships between self-efficacy beliefs and strategy use .....	162



5.8.1. Quantitative differences in strategy use across English self-efficacy levels .....	162
5.8.2. Quantitative differences in strategy use across self-regulated learning efficacy levels.....	164
5.8.3. Qualitative differences in strategy use across self-efficacy levels .....	165
5.9. Relationships between self-efficacy beliefs and proficiency.....	166
5.10. Conclusion .....	169
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....	171
6.1. Introduction.....	171
6.2. Summary of the research methodology .....	171
6.3. Summary of findings .....	172
6.4. Theoretical and pedagogical implications .....	175
6.4.1. Theoretical implications .....	175
6.4.2. Pedagogical implications.....	178
6.5. Research limitations.....	181
6.6. Future research recommendations .....	182
REFERENCES .....	185
APPENDICES .....	205
Appendix 1: Basic Competences of English for Primary school (Grade 6) in <i>Curriculum 2006</i> .....	205
Appendix 2a: The Indonesian Children's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (English version) .....	207
Appendix 2b: The Indonesian Children's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Indonesian version).....	209
Appendix 2c: The Indonesian Children's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Original and revised versions following pilot-testing) .....	211
Appendix 3a: Children's Self-Efficacy for Learning English Questionnaire (English version).....	213
Appendix 3b: Children's Self-Efficacy for Learning English Questionnaire.....	215
Appendix 4: Sample practice test of the YLE Starters .....	217

Appendix 5: Speaking scoring scheme.....	221
Appendix 6: Answer sheet of English test.....	223
Appendix 7: Informed consent form – Students.....	225
Appendix 8: Consent form and information sheet – Parents.....	227
Appendix 9: Interview Protocol.....	231
Appendix 10: Transcription conventions.....	235
Appendix 11a: A sample transcript (English version).....	237
Appendix 11b: A sample transcript (Indonesian version).....	241

## LIST OF TABLES

---

Table 1.1 Graduate competence standards of English for primary school level in <i>Curriculum 2006</i> .....	3
Table 3.1 Information on schools and participants for quantitative data collections .....	57
Table 3.2 Internal consistency reliability, communalities, cumulative extraction sums of squared loadings, and final EFA results of the Indonesian Children's SILL .....	62
Table 3.3 Items of the Indonesian Children's SILL with three-strategy category model.....	64
Table 3.4 Internal consistency reliability, communalities, MSA, cumulative extraction sums of squared loadings, and final EFA results of C-CELEQ.....	67
Table 3.5 Items of C-SELEQ after EFA.....	69
Table 3.6 Demographic information of the interviewees .....	75
Table 3.7 Sample initial codebook for interview analysis.....	79
Table 3.8 Sample cross-case comparative matrix of the interview data.....	81
Table 4.1 Frequency of learning strategy use by categories among all participants .....	86
Table 4.2 Five most frequent learning strategy items among all participants .....	87
Table 4.3 Five least frequent learning strategy items among all participants.....	88
Table 4.4 Learning strategy use by category among participants of different proficiency levels .....	89
Table 4.5 Five most used learning strategies among the participants of different proficiency levels .....	90
Table 4.6 Five most used learning strategies among participants of different proficiency levels .....	92
Table 4.7 Self-efficacy for learning English.....	93
Table 4.8 One-way ANOVAs with self-efficacy as dependent variables and gender as an independent variable .....	96
Table 4.9 One-way ANOVAs with self-efficacy as dependent variables and school location as an independent variable .....	97
Table 4.10 Mean scores, standard deviations, and mean differences for self-efficacy as a function of school location .....	97

Table 4.11 One-way ANOVAs with learning strategies as dependent variables and proficiency as an independent variable.....	99
Table 4.12 Mean scores, standard deviations, and mean differences for learning strategies as a function of proficiency .....	100
Table 4.13 One-way ANOVAs with learning strategies as dependent variables and English self-efficacy as an independent variable.....	101
Table 4.14 Mean scores, standard deviations, and mean differences for learning strategies as a function of English self-efficacy .....	102
Table 4.15 One-way ANOVAs with learning strategies as dependent variables and self-regulated learning efficacy as an independent variable .....	103
Table 4.16 Mean scores, standard deviations, and mean differences for learning strategies as a function of self-regulated learning efficacy.....	104
Table 4.17 Correlations between criterion and predictor variables and among predictor variables.....	106
Table 4.18 Summary of two–step hierarchical multiple regression analysis for variables predicting proficiency .....	107
Table 4.19 Cognitive strategies of high, moderate, and low groups.....	110
Table 4.20 Socio-affective strategies of high, moderate, and low groups.....	117
Table 4.21 Metacognitive strategies of high, moderate, and low groups .....	121

# LIST OF FIGURES

---

Figure 1 Flowchart of sequential explanatory mixed methods procedure ..... 55

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

---

- C-SELEQ—Children’s Self-Efficacy for Learning English Questionnaire  
EFA—Exploratory factor analysis  
EFL— English as a foreign language  
ESL—English as a second language  
KMO—Kaiser-Meyer Olkin  
L2—Second/foreign language  
MJSES—Morgan-Jinks Student Efficacy Scale  
NCLRC—National Capital Language Resource Center  
RQ—Research questions  
SILL—Strategy Inventory for Language Learning  
SLA—Second language acquisition  
VIF—Variance Inflation Factor  
YLE—Young Learner English

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

---

### 1.1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the problem examined in this study. It first explores English teaching in Indonesian primary schools to provide the contextual information of the study, sets the scene of this research, and shows why the topic of the current study is worth researching (1.2). It then presents an explicit statement of the problem (1.3), the purposes (1.4) and research questions (RQs) (1.5). Importantly, it delineates the contribution of this study to the L2 (second/foreign language) field (1.6). An outline of this thesis is provided at the end of this chapter (1.7).

### 1.2. Background of the study

#### 1.2.1. The introduction of English in Indonesian primary schools

English has been offered in primary schools in Indonesia as an elective and local subject since the early 1990s, based on the Education and Culture Minister's decree No. 060/U/1993. This means that the decision to provide English instruction in primary schools is school-based. It mainly stems from the belief that English is useful for the pursuit of further education (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan [National Education Standards Agency], 2006) and a foreign language is better learnt at an early age (Lestari, 2003). With local administration endorsement and parental pressure, English seems, unofficially, to have become a compulsory subject in many regions (Lestari, 2003).

The provision of English teaching in primary schools has been widely welcomed by schools and parents. Kasihani (as cited in Yulia, 2014) reported that most primary schools in many provinces had designated English as the local content subject and that most junior high school students had studied English since primary school. In general, English is taught at the higher Years (i.e. Years 4, 5, 6) of almost all public and private primary schools (Zein, 2011), there being a 70-minute lesson per week. In many urban schools, to meet the high demand of parents, English has been introduced in Year 1, and even kindergarten. Parents prefer to send their children to primary schools which include English in their curriculum structure (Lestari, 2003).

The inclusion of English in primary schools has driven parents to seek help from private English courses to expand the limited exposure time of formal school lessons. According to Djiwandono (2005), Indonesian parents recognize the practical importance of English for their children's education and future careers. Studying English in primary schools helps prepare children for studying English in secondary schools. From a study undertaken in a provincial city in Sumatra, Lamb (2004) indicated that almost 50 % of students were already taking private English tuition and had done so since primary school; moreover, they perceived the private tuition as more useful than formal school lessons. This figure, however, does not necessarily suggest the students' willingness to learn English, because their enrolment in the private courses could be their parents' initiative or pressure.

### **1.2.2. English curriculum and teaching practices in Indonesian primary schools**

The status of English as a subject in primary schools has changed along with other changes in the curriculum. Following the Education and Culture Minister's decree No. 060/U/1993, *Curriculum 1994* was the first curriculum which officially allowed the inclusion of English in primary schools' timetables as a local content subject. In 2006 the government issued a new curriculum, commonly known as *Curriculum 2006*. This curriculum strengthened its recognition of English as an elective subject through the designation of the Competence Standards and Basic Competences of English. In 2013 the government launched a new curriculum, labelled as K-13. Unlike the two previous ones, this curriculum did not stipulate English as either a compulsory or elective subject for primary schools. This policy triggered public criticisms and was seen as a setback. Following the criticisms, the government which took office in 2014 allowed primary schools to offer English if they had the resources and capabilities to do so (Muhammad, 2012). With this leeway, the regional authority in East Java province, the region where this study was conducted, decided to retain English in primary school timetables (Suyanto, as cited in Zein, 2012). A similar policy was followed by other regional authorities, such as that of Jakarta (Keteng, 2013). The government also suspended and is currently evaluating the implementation of the *Curriculum 2013*, and re-enacted *Curriculum 2006*. As this thesis is being written, there is no further information on the results of the 2013 curriculum evaluation.

*Curriculum 2006*, the one in place now, promotes the principle of student-centred learning. Teachers should place their students at the center of the instructional activities and encourage them to be actively involved in the activities, and students should become self-regulated



learners (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan [National Education Standards Agency], 2006). As for English, the curriculum is competence-based, and theoretically grounded on the communicative competence model introduced by Hymes (1972), and later taken up Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell (1995). With the implementation of the model, in the long run learners are expected to be able to communicate in English appropriately and effectively within various contexts. However, despite being based on student-centredness and communicative competence, the curriculum does not explicitly advocate teaching students about learning strategies and using strategies as a means of becoming self-regulated learners and effective language users.

The main purposes of learning English in Indonesian primary schools, as stipulated in the 2006 curriculum, are to develop students' basic communicative competence of the four language skills in simple contexts, and to grow their interest in learning English (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan [National Education Standards Agency], 2006). *Curriculum 2006* sets Graduate Competence Standards which act as guidance for English teachers in designing their local curriculum (see Table 1.1).

**Table 1.1 Graduate competence standards of English for primary school level in *Curriculum 2006***

<b>Skills</b>	<b>Graduate competence standards</b>
Listening	To understand very simple oral instructions, information, and stories within the context of classrooms, schools, and surroundings
Speaking	To express oral messages of very simple interactional and transactional discourse in the form of instructions and information within the context of classrooms, schools, and surroundings
Reading	To be able to read aloud and understand the meaning of instructions and information in very simple functional texts and pictorial descriptive texts about classrooms, schools, and surroundings
Writing	To write words, utterances, and very simple short functional texts with correct spelling and punctuation

The graduate competence standards are elaborated into basic competences which students are to achieve (see Appendix 1). The teachers are required to develop the designated standards into learning objectives in accordance with school and students' characteristics and needs. Further, the teachers are also responsible for selecting and creating instructional materials appropriate for the students given the students' ability and socio-cultural background (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan [National Education Standards Agency], 2006).

English teaching in primary schools may have begun two decades ago, but it has yet to improve (Madya et al., 2004). Indeed, many English teachers in Indonesia have applied various teaching strategies for the purpose of achieving the designated competences. For example, cooperative learning, which seems to be compatible with the Indonesian value of collectiveness or the so-called “*gotong royong*” (Bowen, 1986), has recently been opted for by a number of teachers to promote their students' communicative competence (see Kristiawan, 2013; Muamaroh, 2013). Even so, many others still hold tightly to the grammar translation method (Madya et al., 2004; Musthafa, 2010) and fail to pay due attention to their learners' differences (Mattarima & Hamdan, 2011). The teachers exercise dominant roles in the classrooms while the students spend most of their time listening to the teachers' explanations and, accordingly, have little time to practise English (Marcellino, 2005; Mattarima & Hamdan, 2011; Muflikah, 2008). Rote learning of abstract grammatical patterns and word lists (Djiwandono, 2005; Gustine, 2013; Kustati, 2013; Madya et al., 2004), which seems to fall short of joy and impose too great a burden on young learners, has also been a common teaching practice. Accordingly, learners have little or no place to promote their own learning and their motivation is undermined (Lamb, 2007). The teaching practices indicate that teachers seem to be inclined to focus on linguistic competence while ignoring other competences, like strategic competence (Yulia, 2014). Furthermore, teachers rely heavily on textbooks in choosing and presenting instructional materials (Lestari, 2003). That is why Exley (2004, p. 4) contended that “the curriculum was the textbook” for English teachers in Indonesian schools. Regrettably, the textbooks are commonly not good quality (Faridi, 2010) because they contain abundant grammatical and spelling errors, among other problems (Exley, 2004). The textbooks commonly used in Indonesian schools, like *Active English 6: A fun and easy English book* published by *Tiga Serangkai Pustaka Mandiri*, do not promote the knowledge of learning strategies.

Apart from the teaching practice problems, Indonesian students have very little exposure to English and there is no immediate need to use English for communicative purposes. Many of the students perceived English to be a difficult subject to learn: they also did not have confidence in their English ability and expectation of success (Lamb, 2002). Many other students were highly motivated to learn English, but their motivation to learn English in class eventually waned due to their teachers' personality and teaching techniques (Lamb, 2007). These situations and unfavourable dispositions will very likely affect the way the primary school students learn and perceive English. Therefore, to look deeper into how those students regulate their own learning and motivation is enlightening. Having information about the students' self-regulatory behaviours in learning English will enable teachers to be more aware of strategy knowledge and a sense of self-efficacy for their students. Such awareness will benefit the teachers in designing classroom instruction that equips the students with the knowledge of learning strategies, and helps them build confidence in their ability in learning English. Such instruction will certainly benefit the students who suffer from limited time of English tuition at school, the absence of immediate English use, and the perception that English is difficult. Moreover, the benefit would flow to the students' learning in private courses.

### **1.2.3. Research interest area**

Learning English as a foreign language (EFL) is laborious and, for many students, it is difficult. This seems to be the case in the Indonesian context. The language input the students receive mainly comes from classroom instruction. Although learning resources might be available online or in libraries, the students might not have access to them or if they do, they might not be interested in making use of them. The fact that there is no immediate use and benefit of the language they are learning, other than meeting school demands, is no doubt one of the reasons for low motivation of many Indonesian students. Their motivation could be even lower if they encounter difficult tasks which they are unable to complete. It is no surprise that their learning does not necessarily result in favourable outcomes for many students. Even though some students might achieve well in their EFL learning, many others struggle and even fail. The different outcomes quite possibly are related to the students' ability to manage and regulate their own learning.

Over the past several decades, the construct of self-regulated learning has induced the interest of researchers across a wide range of domains (Pintrich, 2003; Schunk, 2005; Winne, 2001;

Zimmerman, 2002). The researchers primarily have sought to identify variables other than skills which can help account for learning attainment and to inform what processes individuals should develop in order to be self-regulated learners (Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 2001). Considerable evidence from numerous studies, especially in the area of educational psychology, points to the necessity of possessing self-regulatory behaviours for academic success (Bernacki, Byrnes, & Cromley, 2012; Jiang, Song, Lee, & Bong, 2014; W. C. Liu et al., 2014; Magana, 2014; Parker, Marsh, Ciarrochia, Marshall, & Abduljabbar, 2014; K. Wilson & Narayan, 2014; Yip, 2012, 2013; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2014).

Self-regulated learning is defined as a learner's active process in regulating their cognition, motivation, and behaviours (Pintrich, 2000). The definition highlights the key role of individual learners in managing and controlling their own learning. Despite various comprehensive models of this construct, there is agreement that self-regulated learning is a multidimensional process which encompasses cognitive (e.g. strategy use and metacognition) and motivational (e.g. self-efficacy, task value, attribution) features (Boekaerts, 1997; Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 1995). This means that this construct should be viewed from not only a cognitive perspective but also a motivational one.

Strategies are a cardinal cognitive feature of self-regulation in learning. Learning strategies serve as a means by which learners are cognitively engaged in instructional activities (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003) and they, according to Zimmerman's SRL model (2002), manifest in a performance phase. Relatively consistent research findings across areas other than SLA suggest a major role for learning strategies in academic achievement (Magana, 2014; K. Wilson & Narayan, 2014; Yip, 2012, 2013; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990).

Strategies for learning have long been a crucial construct in the second language acquisition (SLA) field and seen as a key process of self-regulation for learning (Gao, 2007; Sperling, Howard, Staley, & DuBois, 2004; Zimmerman, 2001). Interest in the construct seems to have been driven by the assumption that language learners need to take on active roles in their own learning and, accordingly, equip themselves with learning strategies as a means of doing so. Scholars have contended that learning strategies will allow the learners to be capable of regulating their own learning processes (Griffiths, 2003b, 2013; Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Oxford, 2011b) and will promote their strategic competence (Little, 1996).

Following ground-breaking work on good language learners by Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975), a great deal of attention has been devoted to this construct despite much criticism over the classification systems and instruments used (see Dörnyei, 2005; Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006). The majority of strategy research has focused on identifying strategies associated with language ability and resulted in quite inconsistent findings, in particular when it comes to specific strategies and their use. Most studies have revealed that learners of varying language ability differ in the frequency of strategy use (Lai, 2009; Rao, 2012; Wahyuni, 2013; Wu, 2008), but there also have been many others that showed otherwise (Barkaoui, Brooks, Swain, & Lapkin, 2013; Murray, 2010; Nisbet, Tindall, & Arroyo, 2005; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Yabukoshi & Takeuchi, 2009). Apart from the inconclusive findings, some studies taking a qualitative approach (Bruen, 2001; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Vandergrift, 2003; D. Zhang & Goh, 2006; L. J. Zhang, Gu, & Hu, 2008) seem to consistently show that proficient learners are more flexible, purposeful, and appropriate in the strategies they choose and use to meet the task demands than their less proficient counterparts.

Regarding the inconsistent quantitative findings, it has been assumed that various factors other than language ability affect learners in selecting and using strategies (Murray, 2010). Accordingly, much empirical research has sought to look into the connection between strategy use and factors, like gender (Lan & Oxford, 2003; Liyanage & Bartlett, 2012), learning styles (Jie & Xiaoqing, 2006; L. L. C. Wong & Nunan, 2011), age or grade level (Chen, 2009; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007), beliefs (Yang, 1999), self-concept (H.-j. Liu & Chang, 2013) and cultural contexts (Joycey, 2008; Tercanlioglu, 2004). Recent research (Graham, 2007; Mizumoto, 2012, 2013; Su & Duo, 2012) has shown the link between strategy use and English self-efficacy beliefs. Despite being a crucial motivational process, self-efficacy has not received due attention in the strategy research tradition.

Self-efficacy, a concept drawn from Bandura's socio-cognitive theory, is a key motivational feature of self-regulated learning. It is defined as a subjective conviction of one's own competences in executing specific tasks (Bandura, 1993, 1997). This motivational process is believed to affect learners' thought and behaviours in that it drives them to exert more effort in the pursuit of designated goals, to persist in the face of difficult circumstances (Bandura, 1993, 1997), and to engage more in learning activities (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). Self-efficacy, then, might help account for the different performances of individuals who possess

the same skills and knowledge (Bandura, 1993) or, those of the same individuals on different occasions (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001).

Self-efficacy is domain-specific (Bandura, 1997). Research into self-efficacy has so far focused mostly on self-efficacy for self-regulation and academic self-efficacy. Self-efficacy for self-regulation refers to a person's perceived beliefs in their ability to employ strategies appropriately for the completion of given tasks (Bandura, 1997) while academic self-efficacy (e.g. maths, reading, English) is one's belief in their capability to complete specific tasks relating to a certain subject.

A number of investigations have reiterated the predictive value of academic or subject-specific self-efficacy for learning achievements across subjects other than L2 (Pajares, Britner, & Valiante, 2000; Yeo & Neal, 2006). Students who believed in their ability to perform academic tasks also self-monitor and evaluate their task performance more accurately (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001; Bouffard-Bouchard, Parent, & Larivee, 1991), employ more strategies, and adopt more intrinsic learning goals (Abdullah, 2008; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990). Students who were confident in their ability were also found to be more task-centred, goal-oriented, and less anxious with possible failures, while those who doubted their ability tended to envision failures and accordingly adopted performance-avoidance goals (Al-Harthy, Was, & Isaacson, 2010).

Unlike academic self-efficacy, the potential role of self-regulated learning efficacy has not been much explored. Some recent studies have suggested that students who hold strong beliefs in their capacity to regulate their learning effectively are likely to achieve better learning results (Caprara et al., 2008; Usher & Pajares, 2008), be more confident in performing academic tasks, and employ more strategies (Joo, Bong, & Choi, 2000). In addition, students with firm self-efficacy in self-regulated learning tend to envision positive outcomes, to be task-oriented, and less anxious (Usher & Pajares, 2008).

Despite a great deal of data from other research domains, self-efficacy has received only little attention in L2 research (Kim, Wang, Ahn, & Bong, 2015; Woodrow, 2011). A few existing L2 studies have suggested that students who believe in their capability are likely to be more self-regulated through the use of learning strategies (Graham, 2007; Mizumoto, 2012, 2013; Su & Duo, 2012) and have better L2 attainment than those who do not (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2007; Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011).

### **1.3. Statement of the research problems**

In spite of the vast body of research into learning strategies, to date, few studies have focused on young children's use of learning strategies (Gunning, 2011; Macaro, 2007); the few that have been done were mainly undertaken in second language contexts. The scarcity is quite possibly because of presumed difficulties in data collection, such as young children's inability to describe their learning processes (Gu, Hu, & Zhang, 2005). In Indonesia where English is a foreign language, such research has rarely been carried out, and particularly so in regard to young learners. One of the rare studies is Sugeng's (1997) work on primary school students' language learning strategies in conjunction with grade levels, gender, and language status (L1/L2). The observation technique used in the study seems to have effectively tapped the participants' overt learning strategies but not their mental strategies. The study's inclusion of certain behaviours, such as ridiculing and disturbing peers and looking bored, as learning strategies could undermine the validity of the findings in the study. Such behaviours do not reflect any strategic steps to aid language learning.

Most studies into strategy use undertaken so far have employed a quantitative approach: very few have followed either a qualitative approach or a combination of the two. The quantitative studies mainly used Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in various socio-cultural contexts without any adjustment of the items or re-evaluation of its construct validity. With such shortcomings being evident, researchers have called for more research which can present both qualitative dimensions of strategic behaviours (Rose, 2012a, 2012b; Tseng et al., 2006; Woodrow, 2005) and quantitative findings that are generated through sound data collection instruments. The calls are worthy of follow-up, particularly to address the inconclusive findings on the link between strategy use and proficiency.

Research into self-efficacy, similarly, has yet to receive due attention in the field of second/foreign language (L2) learning despite its importance. Unfortunately, some of the few L2 studies (e.g. Heidari, Izadi, & Ahmadian, 2012; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Su & Duo, 2012; Yang, 1999) administered what Bong (2006, p. 288) labelled "pseudo-self-efficacy scales" as the items of the scales do not reflect the principal features of good self-efficacy scales (see Bandura, 2006). Such scales might not only have low predictive powers (Bandura, 1986), but also may assess self-constructs other than self-efficacy (Bong, 2006), hence raising concerns over the validity of the findings.

Additionally, nearly all of the few existing L2 studies (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Mills et al., 2007) examining this construct that have used sound self-efficacy scales focus on whether perceived beliefs in the ability to perform specific English tasks are related to L2 achievements and learning strategies. Very few studies (e.g. Mills et al., 2007) have investigated the link between self-efficacy for self-regulated learning and L2 achievement. Consequently, little information is available about the role of English self-efficacy in L2 learning, not to mention that of self-efficacy for self-regulated learning among EFL young children. Just as in strategy research, qualitative investigations into self-efficacy are almost non-existent, and they have been done with adults or adolescent learners in non-L2 fields. Usher (2009, p. 278) contends that “qualitative inquiry can provide a better understanding of the genesis of self-efficacy beliefs”. Thus, a closer look at EFL young learners’ self-efficacy, especially its links to other variables, like learning strategies and proficiency, using a mix of quantitative and qualitative approaches is worthwhile.

#### **1.4. Purposes of the study**

In light of the above, the main purposes of the current investigation were to look into whether Indonesian primary school students’ language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs were related to each other, and whether these components of self-regulated learning were related to proficiency. Specifically, the study examined whether the students’ proficiency and beliefs in their capability to perform English tasks (English self-efficacy) and to regulate their own learning (self-regulated learning efficacy) mattered when they chose and used learning strategies. It also sought to probe how well three strategy categories (cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective) and self-efficacy beliefs predicted proficiency when gender, length of English study, and school location were controlled.

To this end, this study employed a sequential mixed methods design, in which the qualitative phase followed the quantitative one. The quantitative phase involved 522 sixth graders from twelve primary schools in the Indonesian province of East Java. The Indonesian Children’s SILL, Children’s Self-Efficacy for Learning English Questionnaire (C-SELEQ), and an English test were administered to elicit information on the students’ strategy use, self-efficacy, and English proficiency respectively. The data were then analysed using descriptive statistics (i.e. mean and standard deviation), Kruskal Wallis H test, Mann-Whitney U tests, hierarchical multiple regression and multivariate analyses of variance. In the qualitative



phase, twelve participants previously identified as having different proficiency and self-efficacy levels were interviewed. The interview data were then cross-case analysed.

### **1.5. Research questions**

The study aimed to answer the following research questions:

*In the quantitative phase:*

1. What language learning strategies do the EFL Indonesian primary school students report using?
2. To what extent do the students have self-efficacy in English and self-regulated learning?
3. What are the differences in learning strategy use and self-efficacy between female and male students and between rural, suburban, and urban students in Indonesian primary schools?
4. What are the relationships between the students' language learning strategies, self-efficacy and proficiency?
  - a. What are the differences in learning strategy use between high, moderate, and low proficiency students?
  - b. What are the differences in learning strategy use between students with high, moderate, and low levels of English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy?
  - c. To what extent do the students' self-efficacy and learning strategies predict their proficiency when gender, length of English study, and school location are controlled?

*In the qualitative phase:*

5. How can the students' motivational and strategic behaviours help explain the relationships between language learning strategies, self-efficacy and proficiency?
  - a. What language learning strategies do the students report using during the interview?
  - b. How do they use the strategies when they are engaged in English language tasks and learning English?
  - c. What motivational behaviours are indicative of the students' self-efficacy beliefs?

The next section will describe what distinguishes the current study from previous ones and what it contributes to the field of knowledge.

## 1.6. Originality and value of the study

One of the contributions of the current study lies in the topics being scrutinized. This study is one of very few investigations into children's strategy use in EFL settings, particularly in the Indonesian context. Similarly, the focus on self-efficacy for self-regulation makes this study distinct from other previous studies that mainly examined general or L2 self-efficacy. To my knowledge, this study could be one of the scant studies probing into the role of self-regulated learning efficacy in young learners' strategy use in an L2 field.

This study is one of the rare studies on learning strategies and self-efficacy which makes use of the qualitative approach to explicate the quantitative findings. Additionally, the Children's SILL and Usher and Pajares' self-regulated learning efficacy scale were adapted instead of simply using the originals. This study also used a self-developed English self-efficacy scale to ensure its context-specificity.

The current study also contributes to the understanding of the way Indonesian EFL learners regulate their cognition, behaviours, and motivation in the course of learning English. In particular, the strategies of *planning learning resources* and *identifying learning difficulties* elicited from interview data add to the repertoire of young L2 learners' learning strategies as neither are mentioned in previous studies or popular strategy questionnaires. The finding about *help-seeking* as the most frequent strategy underscores that the strategy might be typical of young learners across cultural contexts. That young learners with better proficiency were more flexible and thoughtful in strategy deployment and that the learners, regardless of their proficiency, displayed their purposefulness and ability to use a chain of strategies add to our understanding of learning strategy theories. The motivational role of self-efficacy in learning processes as suggested by both the quantitative and qualitative findings extends the applicability of self-efficacy theory to the L2 domain. More specifically, the evidence about the close link between self-regulated learning efficacy and learning strategies offers empirical support for the theoretical claim that learners' strategy use, to some extent, depends on their beliefs in the ability to use strategies.

## **1.7. Organization of the thesis**

This thesis consists of six chapters that are structured as follows:

Chapter 1 introduces the study. It first informs about the theoretical and empirical backgrounds relevant to the current study. Then there is a brief account of the gaps left by previous research in both self-efficacy and learning strategies, indicating the necessity of doing this research. The purpose of this study is proposed, followed by a presentation of the research questions. The context in which this study was carried out is also elaborated. The points of originality, as well as the significance, of this study are identified. The chapter closes with an explanation of how this study report is organized.

Chapter 2 provides a brief review of self-regulated learning theories, particularly in regard to language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs. Specifically, it considers numerous major findings from research studies on learning strategies and self-efficacy across domains and cultural contexts. Particular attention is given to findings resulting from research into L2 young learners' learning strategies and, as well, scant L2 research on self-efficacy. The review of the current literature then identifies gaps left by previous studies, which underlies the reason for undertaking the current research.

Chapter 3 describes the methodological approach adopted in the current study. It proceeds with a depiction of the mixed method research design chosen in this study, and its epistemological basis, and then provides the rationale behind the choice of the design. The research questions are restated in this chapter. Then there is an elaboration of the participants, instrumentation, data collection procedure, and data analyses in the two sequential phases (i.e. quantitative and qualitative phases respectively) of this study. The major instruments for quantitative data gathering, the Indonesian Children's SILL and C-SELEQ, are given more detailed explanation, especially relative to the results of factor analyses of the two questionnaires.

Chapter 4 presents a detailed account of the findings from the analyses of data collected from both quantitative and qualitative phases. It shows the most and least preferred strategies of the participants. The degrees of perceived beliefs in their capability to perform English tasks and regulate their learning are highlighted. It also presents the findings about differences in strategy use and self-efficacy as a function of gender and school location. The key findings

about the relationships of language learning strategies, self-efficacy beliefs, and English proficiency obtained from analyses of both quantitative and interview data are also described. A synthesis of the quantitative and qualitative findings is presented.

Chapter 5 discusses the synthesized findings presented in Chapter 4 and relates them to previous research and relevant theory. It focuses particularly on the interpretation of the links between learning strategies, self-efficacy beliefs, and English proficiency.

Chapter 6 contains a restatement of the findings and outlines the implications for the theory and research relating to self-efficacy and learning strategies. The limitations inherent in this study are noted, and suggestions for future research are set out.

References and appendices supporting the thesis manuscript are attached.

## **CHAPTER 2**

# **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

---

### **2.1. Introduction**

This chapter provides a review of theories and empirical research into language learning strategies and also self-efficacy beliefs. It begins with an overview of self-regulated learning (2.2), followed by a review of language learning strategy theory (2.3). It proceeds with a discussion on what self-efficacy beliefs are, from what sources of information they are formed, how they are assessed, and what roles they have in learning (2.4). An extensive review of previous research on self-efficacy beliefs in general academics and L2 learning is also described (2.5). A discussion of research on adults and young learners' strategy use conducted in both Indonesian and other L2 contexts closes the chapter (2.6).

### **2.2. Self-regulated learning**

The theory of self-regulated learning is mainly grounded in Bandura's (1986, 1997) social cognitive theory, particularly his triadic reciprocity model. This model postulates a reciprocal interaction between personal factors (e.g. cognition and affect), behaviours, and environmental factors. The interactive relation between the three sets of factors results in variations in degree of effect in particular instances, because one factor is having a greater effect than the two others (Bandura, 1986). This model views individuals with their cognitive and other personal factors as self-organizing, proactive, self-reflecting, and self-regulating rather than simply dependent on environmental factors (Pajares, 2008). Individuals have capabilities to self-direct their thoughts and behaviours, and organize their environment.

Self-regulated learning refers to the process in which learners activate and manage cognitions and behaviours systematically in order to accomplish designated learning goals (Zimmerman, 1986). Self-regulated learning is learning driven by learners' self-initiative, perseverance, and adaptive skills (Zimmerman, 2002), rather than being externally regulated (Boekaerts & Cascallar, 2006). This implies that learners actively initiate their efforts to achieve learning goals by exercising a high degree of control over their cognition, behaviour, and environment and that they attempt to reduce their dependence on external sources, such as teachers and parents.

Self-regulated learning is an overarching construct (A. D. Cohen, 2011; Griffiths, 2008). It encompasses learning strategies (Pintrich & Groot, 1990; Zimmerman, 1989a) and motivational processes (Zimmerman, 1989a). Learners who are self-regulated are able to monitor the effectiveness of such strategies, and are aware of how and why they choose to deploy specific strategies to cope with a given task (Zimmerman, 1990). In addition to strategy use, self-regulated learning involves motivational processes, such as perceived self-efficacy beliefs, goal orientations (Zimmerman, 1989b) and attribution (Schunk, 2008). Learners should be motivated and perceive themselves capable of using the strategies and executing a given task, and be aware of the goals they are to achieve. They should also attribute their learning outcome to factors within their control. Such motivational processes enable learners to better initiate and maintain their self-regulated learning (Lens & Vansteenkiste, 2008). Learners, therefore, are regarded self-regulated if they are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally engaged in their own learning process (Zimmerman, 1989a).

In academic settings, learners develop their self-regulatory strategies through four stages: observation, emulation, self-control, and self-regulation (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). In the observational phase, learners acquire strategies through social modelling or strategy instruction. Modelling, accompanied by feedback and reinforcement, helps the learners grasp the modelled strategies. The learners then begin imitating but not duplicating the modelled strategies as they are now in the emulative phase. In the third phase, self-controlled, students are able to employ the strategies to cope with given tasks independently, but are still unable to use the strategies effectively. The strategies have been internalized and are part of the learners' strategy repertoire. Finally, in the self-regulated phase, the learners are capable of using the strategies appropriately and flexibly across learning contexts. The learners are able to initiate strategy use, adjust it to meet the situational or task demands, and foster their self-efficacy. The stages of strategy development imply social (e.g. modelling and feedback), and personal influence (e.g. self-efficacy).

All learners, to some degree, self-regulate their learning (Winne, 1995), but they may face difficulties or even failure in doing so. Age, which brings experience, may have an impact on self-regulatory capacity. For example, very young learners whose metacognitive functioning is still limited may find it difficult to self-regulate their learning (Flavell, 1979), whereas older and experienced learners may be more capable of self-regulating (Bandura, 1986). This

implies that self-regulatory capacity is at least dependent on cognitive and motoric development (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). However, even adolescents and adults may have difficulty or experience failure with self-regulated learning. The difficulty and failure may result from poor knowledge of self-regulatory processes, low self-efficacy beliefs, or low motivation of goal and outcome attainment (Zimmerman, 1989a). Additionally, learning contexts possibly can hinder learners' attempts to self-regulate their learning (Reeve, Ryan, Deci, & Jang, 2008), which means that teachers need to create a learning context which allows the learners to be actively engaged, thereby nurturing self-regulating capacity.

Self-regulated learning, a construct initially developed in educational psychology, has received growing attention from researchers in the L2 field. In the L2 context, researchers use various terms which seem to be compatible with the theory of self-regulation for learning, such as "self-regulated or autonomous L2 learning" (Oxford, 1999), "learner autonomy" (Benson, 1997; Broady & Kenning, 1999; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Little, 1999), "self-instruction" (Dickinson, 1987), "learner self-management" (Rubin, 2001), and "strategic self-regulated learning" (Oxford, 2011b). Notably, the theory of self-regulated learning has been selected as the underlying construct for some seminal work in L2 learning (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Griffiths, 2008; Oxford, 2011b; Ushioda, 2008).

In most language learning strategy research, and in this study also, self-regulated learning is not meant to replace learning strategies (Griffiths, 2008, 2013): rather, learning strategies are a means to or feature of self-regulation for learning (A. D. Cohen, 2011; Pintrich & Groot, 1990; Tseng et al., 2006; Winne, 1995; Zimmerman, 1989a). Additionally, self-regulated learning, according to Tseng et al. (2006, p. 81), can provide "considerably more 'leeway' for researchers" enabling them to look into features of self-regulation other than learning strategies.

Self-regulation in learning has been well documented in the field of L2 learning, as reflected in the abundance of strategy research and an increasing amount of self-efficacy beliefs research. The extant research on language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs has provided empirical evidence for the importance of self-regulation to successful L2 learning. The following sections provide theoretical and empirical reviews of both features of self-regulated learning.

## **2.3. Language learning strategies**

### **2.3.1. Definitions and principal features of language learning strategies**

Language learning strategy remains a difficult construct to define. O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, and Russo (1985, p. 22) contended that "there is no consensus on what constitutes a learning strategy in second language learning or how these differ from other types of learner activities". For this reason, it is considered "elusive" (Wenden, 1987, p. 7) and "fluid" (Gu, 2012, p. 331). Oxford (1990) also conceded that:

there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist; how they should be defined; demarcated, and categorized; and whether it is – or ever will be – possible to create a real, scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies (p. 17).

The definitional fuzziness does not justify the idea of replacing learning strategies with self-regulation, an idea that Tseng et al. (2006) advocated. The replacement will only lead to another fuzziness (Gu, 2012). The definitional fuzziness in learning strategy theory is actually "a natural occurrence" (Rose, 2015, p. 431) and not "serious enough to overthrow forty years of research on language learning strategies" (Gu, 2012, p. 331). This study, therefore, retains the concept of learning strategies and views it as a feature of self-regulation.

This section outlines some of the definitions and principal features of learning strategies proposed by prominent researchers. A pioneer in strategy research, Rubin (1975, p. 43) loosely defined learning strategies as "techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge". More than a decade later, Rubin (1987, p. 23) more specifically defined learning strategies as "strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly".

Grounded in cognitive theories, O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 1) described learning strategy as "the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information". This definition suggests particularly that a learning strategy involves not only mental actions but also overt behaviours that are used for information processing. O'Malley and Chamot further saw strategy use as following the logic rule of *if-then* statement, like "IF the goal is to comprehend and remember an oral passage, and I have a complete passage or thought expressed, THEN I will summarize the passage to ensure I understand it" (p. 52).



Oxford (1990) described language learning strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (p. 8). This definition is broader than the definition of O’Malley and Chamot (1990) because it includes various goals of strategy deployment – to learn in more effective, autonomous, and fun ways. This definition also hints at a deliberate and conscious selection and use of strategies. However, Oxford further noted that strategy use can be unconscious and automatic after long practice. In her other work, Oxford (1989, 2011b) explicitly stated the component of consciousness or awareness in strategy use.

Around the same time, A. D. Cohen (1990, p. 5) was considering learning strategies as “learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner”. Unlike the definition of Oxford (1990) and O’Malley and Chamot (1990), this definition appears to put an emphasis on the notion of consciousness.

In a later work, A. D. Cohen (2003, p. 280) defined language learning strategies as “the conscious or semi-conscious thoughts and behaviours used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language”. In this work, Cohen also distinguished language learning strategies from language use strategies based on the purpose of the strategies. The aim of language learning strategies is mainly to help learners improve their competence in the target language, whereas the aim of language use strategies is to assist learners to use the language. The differentiation between strategies for learning and using languages was criticized, however, by Oxford (2011b, p. 91) who argued that learners use a target language for the purpose of learning it, and that the dichotomy challenges what she called “long-established, research-based learning principles”.

Griffiths (2006, 2008) viewed language learning strategies as activities consciously chosen by learners for the purpose of regulating their own language learning. This definition implies that strategies are both mental and physical, and that consciousness is essential in strategy use. Referring to Wenden (1991) and Winne (1995), Griffiths (2006) underscored the notion that strategy use assisted the language learner to take control over their own learning. Despite being simple, the definition points straight to the nature of learning strategies (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014). Griffiths’ definition underlies this current study.

In his most recent work, A. D. Cohen (2011, p. 7) defined language learner strategies as “thoughts and actions, consciously chosen and operationalized by language learners, to assist

them carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very onset of learning to the most advanced levels of target-language performance”. The term “language learner strategies” is preferred in order to encompass strategies both for learning languages and for using languages. This term has been used by A. D. Cohen (2007) in his previous work and also by other researchers, such as Wenden (1991), Rubin (1987), and Macaro (2006, 2007). Consistent with his previous definition, A. D. Cohen underscored the element of conscious choice in learners’ actions to be considered strategic. He used the term “target language” (p. 8) instead of second/foreign language to refer to a language being learned, although the term L2 is also used in his entire work.

In Oxford’s (2011a, p. 167) latest definition, language learning strategies were seen as “the learner’s goal-directed actions for improving language proficiency or achievement, completing a task, or making learning more efficient, more effective, and easier”. Oxford appears to have emphasised the notion of goal orientation; students choose among a range of strategies and employ them for learning purposes.

Although there has been a lack of agreement on what language learning strategies are, most definitions share three common key features. First, learning strategies encompass not only mental procedures but also behavioural activities (Chamot, 2004; A. D. Cohen, 2011; Weinstein, Husman, & Dierking, 2000). Although Oxford’s (1990) definition does not explicitly mention mental and behavioural actions, instances of strategies in her model of language learning strategy classification suggest their presence. In other words, some strategies are mental and non-observable (e.g. evaluating the learning progress or making mental imagery of words), whereas others are behavioural and observable (e.g. seeking for assistance from peers or teachers). The inclusion of overt and covert strategies certainly refutes the idea that strategies are exclusively mental actions (Macaro, 2006): they are both behavioural and mental (Tseng et al., 2006).

Second, there is an agreement that the element of consciousness is essential in strategy use, although the precise degree of consciousness needed in order for a process to be considered a strategy remains debatable. Cohen (2011, p. 11) asserted that “language learning strategies are either within the focal attention of the learners or within their peripheral attention”. Similarly, Griffiths (2008) postulated that “although they are consciously chosen, the choice can operate anywhere on a continuum from deliberate to automatic...” (p. 87), which means that learners might be fully or just partially aware of strategies they are using. If learners use

strategies automatically and unconsciously, the strategies are simply common processes (A. D. Cohen, 2011, p. 11).

Third, strategy use is thought to be goal-oriented (Weinstein et al., 2000); its goal is mainly for effective language learning and self-regulated learning. Strategies are used by learners to help them learn more effectively and easily (Oxford, 1990, p. 8), particularly for performing given language tasks (A. D. Cohen, 2011, p. 7). Equipping learners with learning strategies helps foster their strategic competence (Little, 1996) and certainly develops their communicative competence (Little, 1996; Oxford, 1990). In addition, through strategy deployment the learners become more capable of taking charge of their own learning processes (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p. 133; Oxford, 1990, 2011b; Wenden, 1987, 1991). To promote self-regulated learning, teachers should train the learners how to plan their learning, choose appropriate strategies, reflect on learning outcomes, and evaluate strategies (Kirsch, 2012). Kirsch (2012) further asserted that even primary school pupils can be autonomous if they are helped to develop their learning strategies to cope with instructional tasks. Being more self-regulated in learning appears to be a broad and ultimate goal of learning strategy use.

### **2.3.2. Classification of language learning strategies**

Various classification models of strategy classification have been developed in the literature of language learning strategies. This subsection reviews prominent models. Rubin's model (as cited in Rubin, 1987) was based on the strategies associated with good language learners. In this model, language learning strategies are grouped into two broad categories: direct strategies and indirect strategies. The direct strategies include *clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, and practice*. The indirect strategies consist of *creating opportunities for practice and using production techniques* such as *using circumlocutions, synonyms, or formulaic interaction*. The shortcoming of this model is an overlapping of strategies in that some strategies can be classified into more than a single group (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002).

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) developed their model of strategy classification based on O'Malley et al.'s (1985) research in the learning strategies used by ESL (English as a second language) school students. Learning strategies in O'Malley and Chamot's model are classified into three categories: cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective. Cognitive strategies are strategies commonly used among language learners and involve manipulation

or transformation of the target language. *Resourcing, grouping, note-taking, elaboration, summarizing, deduction/induction, imagery, auditory representation and making inferences* fall into cognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies assist learners to regulate their own learning processes, particularly in coordinating strategy use. The strategies include *planning (advance organization, organizational planning, selective attention, self-management), monitoring (monitoring comprehension and production), and evaluating (self-assessment)*. And social/affective strategies are those helping learners to regulate emotions, motivation, and other affective factors and to learn through interacting with others. Instances of the strategies are *questioning for clarification, cooperation and self-talk*. The inclusion of social/affective strategies in the model was an expansion of a previous model made for the purpose of accommodating strategies which did not belong to either cognitive or metacognitive strategies.

Oxford (1989) believed that research in language learning strategies put over-emphasis on cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Therefore, she (1990) proposed a model that had learning strategies fall into six categories. The six categories consist of metacognitive, cognitive, memory, compensation, social, and affective. Unlike O'Malley and Chamot's (1990), this model differentiates memory strategies from cognitive ones because memory strategies, as Hsiao and Oxford (2002) contended, tend to involve only surface information processing and are used simply for memorization. This model also separates compensation strategies which are used by learners to make up their inadequacy of grammar and vocabulary knowledge from cognitive strategies. This category subsumes communication strategies. This model also treats affective and social strategies as distinct categories on the grounds that the two strategies are crucial in language learning, and thereby need to be given significant attention (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002).

Oxford's (1990) model, as represented by SILL, has been widely used. It is considered comprehensive (Radwan, 2011) and more consistent with learners' actual strategy use than other models (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002). This model is not based on a single theory, but instead draws upon an eclectic theoretical foundation that covers cognitivism, socioculturalism, and behaviourism (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014). Nevertheless, it lacks empirical support. Numerous studies seeking the factor structure of the SILL across learning contexts showed inconsistent findings. For example, Robson and Midorikawa's (2001) exploratory factor analysis (EFA) resulted in fifteen factors for Japanese university students while Heo, Stoffa, and Kush's

(2012) research into Korean immigrant students produced a single factor. Nyikos and Oxford's (1993) study indicated nine factors and therefore similarly failed to match Oxford's six-category model. The contradictory results might be due to different learning contexts (Tragant, Thompson, & Victori, 2013; Woodrow, 2005) and/or high correlations among the subscales of the SILL (Park, 2011). If the contradictory results were caused by high correlations, then the subscales might not be distinct constructs. Because of the conflicting results, Griffiths and Oxford (2014) have suggested that strategy researchers not use predetermined classifications. Taking the suggestion, the current study has based its analyses on the classification model resulting from the EFA using its own data rather than on existing classification models.

## **2.4. Self-efficacy beliefs**

### **2.4.1. Definition of self-efficacy beliefs**

Self-efficacy beliefs are rooted in Bandura's (1986, 1997) social cognitive theory, specifically the triadic reciprocity model. The model assumes an interplay between personal factors (i.e. cognitive and beliefs), behavioural patterns, and environment - as a direct response to behaviourism. Regarding the interactive relationship of behaviours and beliefs, this model postulates that "what people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave" (Bandura, 1986, p. 25). It is the triadic model that underlies the theory of self-efficacy beliefs.

Self-efficacy refers to "people's judgements of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). The definition hints at two distinctive features: emphasis on perceived capabilities to do a task; and, context specificity (Bandura, 2006; Bong, 2006). In an academic setting, self-efficacy can be viewed as learners' subjective judgment of their own capability in performing particular learning tasks. Simply put, it is an answer to a question 'can you do this specific task?'

Judgements of self-efficacy differ in three ways: level, generality, and strength (Bandura, 1986; Zimmerman & Cleary, 2006). The level of self-efficacy learners have may differ according to the assigned task's level of difficulty. Learners may feel more confident with their ability in summarizing a news story compared to a scientific journal article. Learners' self-efficacy also may differ in generality: Learners may perceive themselves as having a high sense of self-efficacy not only in one task or subject, but in others as well. Strength of

self-efficacy determines how perseverant and resilient learners are in coping with given tasks. Learners with high self-efficacy tend to be more persistent to accomplish designated learning objectives, despite difficulties. On the other hand, learners with low self-efficacy are less engaged in learning activities and more likely to give up easily in the face of difficult situations.

#### **2.4.2. Self-efficacy beliefs and other self-constructs**

Self-efficacy is different from related constructs, such as self-concept, self-esteem, outcome expectation and linguistic self-confidence, although it is often mistakenly considered similar. Clear distinctions of the self constructs are essential to avoid confusion and provide appropriate and sound measurements.

As was mentioned previously, self-efficacy is an individual's belief in his/her competences to organize and perform actions to achieve designated goals (Bandura, 1977, 1997). By comparison, self-concept is seen as an individual's general appraisal of himself/herself which results from personal experiences with her surroundings and evaluations of significant others (Bandura, 1986). Individuals judge their self-concept by comparing their performance with that of others or with their own in other areas (Marsh, Walker, & Debus, 1991), but they judge their self-efficacy by focusing on their perceived ability to perform a specific task under certain circumstances. Self-concept can be domain-specific, whereas self-efficacy is task-specific (Pajares, 1996). In other words, self-concept is a global assessment of competence (i.e. 'I am good at writing' or 'I am better than my peers in speaking English'), whereas self-efficacy refers to judgment of abilities to execute specific tasks within particular situations (i.e. 'I am sure I can write a job application letter' or 'I am confident that I can deliver a public speech in English'). In addition to conceptual differences, a research finding by Pajares & Miller (1994) that self-efficacy was more predictive of maths performance than self-concept suggests there may be an empirical difference between the two constructs.

Likewise, self-esteem is different from self-efficacy. Self-esteem refers to an individual's judgment of her self-worth (Pelham, 1995), based on her personal standards of worthiness and values given by society (Bandura, 1986, 1997). According to Zimmerman and Cleary (2006), self-esteem is an affective reaction about an individual's self-worth, whereas self-efficacy is cognitive appraisal of competence. Self-esteem represents how individuals feel about themselves and place values on themselves. Self-esteem can either be in global or specific domains (Bong, 2006), but it is not task-specific. Empirically self-esteem has been

found different from self-efficacy: self-efficacy appears to be a key determinant of performance while self-esteem is not (Mona, Baker, & Jeffries, 1995).

Self-efficacy should also be distinguished from outcome expectation. The former is a judgment of personal capabilities to execute actions in order to achieve specific goals, whereas the latter is a judgement of the eventual consequences actions will generate (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy, to some extent, affects outcome expectation (Pajares, 2008; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008). For example, students with high self-efficacy in delivering public speaking will expect successful presentation, whereas those with low self-efficacy will envision an unsuccessful presentation.

Self-efficacy also differs from self-confidence in that the latter refers to “self-perceptions of communicative competence and concomitant low levels of anxiety in using the second language” (Noels, Pon, & Clement, 1996, p. 248). Unlike self-efficacy which is context-specific, self-confidence is an enduring and stable personal trait comprising perceived L2 competence and L2 anxiety (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clement, & Noels, 1998). Further, the judgement of self-efficacy is mainly based on mastery experience, vicarious experience, and social persuasion (Bandura, 1997), whereas self-confidence is determined by the frequency and quality of previous contacts with the L2 community (Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994).

### **2.4.3. Sources of self-efficacy beliefs**

Learners develop their self-efficacy through interpreting information from four main sources. The first and most potent source is mastery experience, which is derived from successes in previous performances (Bandura, 1986, 1997). The mastery experience tends to have an enduring influence on learners’ self-efficacy (Pajares, 2008). Learners who successfully perform learning tasks will feel more confident in their ability, whereas those who fail will have doubts about their ability. For example, L2 learners who regard their previously completed grammar tasks as good will have higher confidence to do similar or related tasks. Thus, individuals’ previous successes will affect what subsequent actions they will do and how confident they are to execute the actions. Empirical evidence (Joët, Usher, & Bressoux, 2011; Usher & Pajares, 2006) supports Bandura’s hypothesis that mastery experience is the main source of self-efficacy.

Observing other people’s performance, or the so-called vicarious experience, also provides information for learners about their capabilities (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Seeing others do

challenging tasks successfully can increase a learner's confidence that they are capable as well; conversely, observing others fail despite persistent effort may decrease their beliefs in their own ability. Given this, children tend to build their sense of self-efficacy from their peers rather than from adults (Schunk, 2008). In other words, learners may think 'if my peers can do the task, so can I'; or 'if my peers cannot do the task despite persistent effort, neither can I'. Social models, therefore, play crucial roles in helping students develop their beliefs in their own capabilities, especially for those with low conviction of their own capabilities and limited experiences (Pajares, 2008).

Social persuasion is another source of information which can boost learners' beliefs in their capabilities. Verbal persuasion will effectively raise learners' confidence if they are expected to achieve realistic objectives (Bandura, 1986). Young students who are unable to make an accurate judgement of their performance need others' evaluative feedback and appraisal (Usher & Pajares, 2006). For this reason, teachers and parents should provide evaluative feedback which helps the students understand better their actual performance, rather than merely praise them (Joët et al., 2011). Parents, teachers, and significant others also need to be aware that verbal and nonverbal messages they provide to young learners can be either empowering or undermining the learners' confidence in their capabilities. Pajares (2008) mentioned a common example of a nonverbal message which likely discouraged the learners but teachers might not be aware of, that is, teachers' feedback with red pens.

Physiological and emotional states, such as anxiety, stress, fear, nervousness, sweating, can also provide information about learners' capabilities (Bandura, 1997). Learners may be aware of their self-efficacy through interpreting their bodily and emotional signals when faced with challenging academic tasks. For example, learners with low efficacy may view their trembling as an indicant of vulnerability to poor performance or, instead, as determination to succeed (Bandura, 1995); or students who feel less anxious when sitting a final English test may indicate that they are competent, which then can increase their self-efficacy.

The information from the four sources is interpreted by learners. The interpretation depends on such factors as prior attainment, perception of competence, task difficulty, expended effort and time, and types and intensity of emotional symptoms (Schunk, 1995). L2 research in self-efficacy supports Bandura's hypotheses of sources of self-efficacy and reveals other sources. Çakır and Alıcı (2009) showed that students developed their beliefs in their capabilities mainly through past successful experiences and social persuasions. A qualitative study by



Wang and Pape (2007) exploring the self-efficacy development of three young Chinese children learning ESL in the United States also concluded that the children's self-efficacy was built on diverse information, such as past experience, social persuasion, interest, attitude toward English, and task difficulty. Short tutoring, higher order thinking questions, explicit instruction of grammatical rules, and beliefs that languages are learnable have also been found to be the sources of self-efficacy (Matthews, 2010).

#### **2.4.4. Assessment of self-efficacy beliefs**

Measurement of perceived self-efficacy pertains mainly to questions or statements in a self-efficacy scale. Items of the scale should gauge accurately self-efficacy beliefs, instead of measuring other related constructs, such as self-concept, self-esteem, and outcome expectance (Bandura, 2006) (see section 2.4.2.). The items should meet four conditions. First, items should reflect context-specificity, indicating tasks and under what circumstances those tasks are to be performed (Bandura, 1997). Bong (2006) emphasised the notion of context-specificity to distinguish self-efficacy from self-esteem and self-concept which can be domain-specific. Second, scale items must focus on the judgement of confidences in capabilities (Bong, 2006), by using a phrase 'can do' instead of 'will do' (Bandura, 2006). Third, the items should not reflect emotional judgement, as found in self-esteem, and social comparison (Bong, 2006), but rather cognitive judgment (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002). Fourth, the items should be developed in reference to the predicted performance outcome to increase the predictive power of the scale (Bandura, 1997; Pajares, 1996).

Although Bandura (2006, p. 307) asserted that "there is no all-purpose measure of perceived self-efficacy", several L2 studies in fact have employed what Bong (2006, p. 288) labelled 'pseudo self-efficacy scales'. The scales measure general sense of efficacy and "decontextualize the self-efficacy-behaviour correspondence" (Pajares, 1996, p. 547), thereby lowering their predictive powers (Bandura, 1986) and quite possibly measuring other constructs (Bong, 2006). In a nutshell, the pseudo scales are not constructed based on Bandura's guidelines of self-efficacy scale construction. For example, none of the six scale items of self-efficacy in Yang's (1999) study of L2 learners' beliefs assess what they purport to assess, that is, the self-belief whether learners can successfully perform specific tasks under certain circumstances. For example, item 'I feel timid speaking English with other people' tends to represent English self-esteem in that emotional judgement of the self is involved. The scale item 'I believe that I will learn to speak English very well' also misses

two conditions: context-specificity and self-judged capabilities. The use of ‘will’ in the item indicates willingness, not judgement of capability (Bandura, 2006).

Similarly, Su and Duo (2012) and Magogwe and Oliver (2007), who sought to determine the relationship between self-efficacy and language learning strategies, administered the Morgan-Jinks Student Efficacy Scale (MJSES), which assesses students’ sense of their English ability and effort. No item in the scale reflects self-efficacy, despite an addition of a word ‘English’ to some items. Items like ‘I am a good English student’ or ‘my classmates usually get better grades than I do’ tend to measure academic self-esteem and self-concept respectively rather than self-efficacy. Other L2 studies (e.g. Heidari et al., 2012) have used the Persian adaptation of the General Self-efficacy Scale developed by Nezami, Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1996), that measures a general sense of competence in coping with difficulties and stressful experiences. The ten-item scale seems to assess self-beliefs in capabilities to cope with strenuous work and difficult situations across various domains of human functioning, thereby failing to reflect context-specificity.

It should be noted that a scale with skill-specific items, such as Rahimi and Abidani’s (2009) Questionnaire on EFL Learners’ Self-efficacy about Listening Skills, does not necessarily gauge self-efficacy (Bong, 2006). Items such as ‘I believe that my proficiency in listening skill will improve soon’ and ‘I am one of the best students in listening course’ fail to accurately tap judgment of self-efficacy. The items do not indicate features of tasks and under what circumstances the tasks are to be performed. Additionally, the comparative judgment, such as “better than” or “best of”, is not recommended in self-efficacy assessment, because self-efficacy is more affected by mastery experience rather than social comparison (Bong, 2006).

#### **2.4.5. Roles of self-efficacy in learning**

Self-efficacy is one of the most central human agency mechanisms (Bandura, 1989). The self-belief can exert influence on people’s behaviours through influencing the way they think, self-motivate, persist in the face of taxing or even distressful situations, and make important decisions (1977, 1986, 1993). Therefore, in academic settings, self-efficacy can allow learners to be more cognitively, behaviourally, and motivationally engaged in their learning processes (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). Learners with strong belief in the ability to perform certain language tasks will be more engrossed in their learning activities and expend more effort to cope with the activities. The learners also tend to be more resilient when faced

with adverse learning situations and difficult tasks, and consider such situations and tasks as challenges (Komarraju & Nadler, 2013).

Self-efficacy is also believed to play a pivotal role in self-regulation (Bandura, 1986, 1997). The self-belief can affect learners' motivation through self-regulatory processes, such as self-monitoring, goal orientation, self-evaluation, and strategy use (Zimmerman, 2000). That is why Caprara et al. (2008) posited that possessing self-regulatory skills is not of much help without the belief in the ability to use the skills persistently despite the presence of obstacles or attractive distractions. The belief gives learners "staying power" (Caprara et al., 2008, p. 526). Learners who lack such beliefs are less likely to resort to cognitively demanding strategies and quickly quit applying the strategies when facing obstacles (Usher & Pajares, 2008).

For these reasons, it can be argued that learners' academic success results from not only the skill and knowledge they have, but also from what they believe they can do (Pajares, 2002). The key role of perceived self-efficacy, therefore, may help explain why different individuals' performances can differ markedly although they possess similar knowledge and skills (Bandura, 1986, 1993) or why the same learners can perform differently on different occasions (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001). Empirical evidence on the role of self-efficacy beliefs are presented in the subsequent section.

## **2.5. Research on self-efficacy beliefs**

### **2.5.1. Academic self-efficacy beliefs**

Over the last two decades, a vast body of research has investigated the role of academic self-efficacy beliefs in educational spheres. Research has shown that students who have strong confidence in their academic competence tend to try to outperform their classmates whereas those who lack confidence tend to avoid performing tasks which might make them look incompetent (Al-Harthy et al., 2010; Lau, Liem, & Nie, 2008). Meanwhile, research on gender differences in self-efficacy has resulted in conflicting findings. For example, Joët et al. (2011) reported that boys had higher mathematics self-efficacy than girls, whereas Pajares and Valiante (2001) who looked into writing self-efficacy showed an opposite finding.

Results of past studies, primarily undertaken with college and secondary high school students, also have revealed that self-efficacy is a strong predictor of academic attainment across subjects other than L2 subjects (Afari, Ward, & Khine, 2012; Al-Harthy et al., 2010;

Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001; Diseth, 2011; Jiang et al., 2014; Komarraju & Nadler, 2013; W. Lee, Lee, & Bong, 2014; Pajares et al., 2000; Parker et al., 2014; C.-H. Wang, Shannon, & Ross, 2013; K. Wilson & Narayan, 2014; Yeo & Neal, 2006; Zimmerman, 2000). Importantly, academic self-efficacy has been found to be the most powerful predictor of achievement (Jiang et al., 2014; J. Lee & Stankov, 2013), confirming the well-established role that self-efficacy has across academic domains (Pajares, 1996). These findings correspond to those of a meta-analytic study by Multon, Brown, and Lent (1991) displaying significant relationships between self-efficacy and academic performance, regardless of subject, research design, and measurement technique.

Empirical studies have also underscored the role of academic self-efficacy in self-regulated learning. Students of strong self-efficacy were found more task-centred, persistent, able to self-monitor better (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001), and able to evaluate the outcome of their self-monitoring more accurately (Bouffard-Bouchard et al., 1991). The students were also more engaged in learning, adopting more intrinsic learning goals, and likely using more learning strategies (Abdullah, 2008). In terms of strategy choice, the students with firmer self-efficacy tended to apply deep strategies while their counterparts with lower self-efficacy preferred to resort to surface strategies (Prat-Sala & Redford, 2010).

In the same vein, Al-Harthy et al. (2010) disclosed that students who believed in their capabilities were task-centred, mastery-oriented, and were not worried about likely failure they might have. The students also tended to be more cognitively engaged in learning activities and valued the task at hand. Adversely, students who perceived themselves incapable seemed to be too concerned about failures and tended to adopt performance-avoidance goals. Recent studies (W. Lee et al., 2014; K. Wilson & Narayan, 2014) also supported the previous findings that high efficacy students are more skillful in planning, monitoring and evaluating their own learning processes.

A previous study by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1990) indicated that gifted students demonstrated higher verbal and mathematical self-efficacy and strategy use than regular students did. The students' verbal and mathematical self-efficacy also relates to their self-regulating strategies. Similarly, in Pintrich and de Groot's (1990) research, students who were confident that they were capable of doing academic tasks used more cognitive and metacognitive strategies as a means to self-regulated learning, were more cognitively engaged in their learning, and were more persistent in dealing with uninteresting tasks. The

authors contended that self-efficacy played a ‘facilitative role’ in that higher self-efficacy would lead to more cognitive engagement, as indicated in more cognitive strategy use, and the cognitive engagement then increased academic performance.

### **2.5.2. L2 self-efficacy beliefs**

Researchers in L2 learning have also found that self-efficacy in performing L2 tasks plays a role in reading and listening proficiency (Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006), writing achievement (Rahimpour & Nariman-jahan, 2010; Woodrow, 2011), and L2 achievement in general (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Liem, Lau, & Nie, 2008; Mills et al., 2007; Tilfarlioglu & Cinkara, 2009). Furthermore, L2 students who perceived themselves confident with their L2 ability were also found to be better at exercising greater control over their learning (Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011). They also put more effort and displayed strong interest and positive attitude toward parental pressure (Woodrow, 2011).

Self-efficacy in performing L2 tasks also relates to another motivational construct, attribution. Hsieh and Schallert (2008) contended that learners’ attribution of failure to factors within their control, such as lack of effort, resulted in higher self-efficacy in EFL learning, regardless of their learning achievement. Such attribution is particularly helpful to maintain unsuccessful learners’ beliefs in their capability to learn L2 successfully. Similarly, Hsieh and Kang’s (2010) study revealed that learners of different self-efficacy levels endorsed attribution differently for successful and unsuccessful outcomes. Higher self-efficacy learners tended to attribute their achievement to internal and personal factors, whereas the lower self-efficacy ones attributed them to external factors. Unlike their low self-efficacy counterparts, higher self-efficacy learners considered poor achievements to be something under their control.

Research with L2 learners has also provided evidence on the role of L2 self-efficacy in language learning strategy use. It will be presented in detail in section 2.6.1.2 and 2.6.2.1 because the link between the constructs is one of the foci of this study.

### **2.5.3. Self-efficacy beliefs for self-regulated learning**

Like academic self-efficacy, the belief in the capability to regulate one’s own learning processes, known as self-efficacy for self-regulated learning, has been increasingly recognized for its central role. In non L2 fields, empirical evidence has shown that it has close links with academic success (Caprara et al., 2008; Joo et al., 2000; Usher & Pajares,

2008) and other motivational constructs, such as academic self-efficacy, self-concept, goal orientation, and apprehension (Usher & Pajares, 2008). Self-regulatory efficacy was also found to be positively associated with cognitive and metacognitive strategy use (Joo et al., 2000). Additionally, as Bandura et al. (2003) revealed, it was helpful in managing learners' activities and feeling positively engaged in interpersonal relationships.

Learning contexts are believed to contribute to the degree of self-regulatory efficacy. In research by Caprara et al. (2008), Pajares and Valiante (2002) and Usher and Pajares (2008), students' self-efficacy for self-regulated learning was found to decline as they progressed through their schooling. The researchers argued that the decline was probably due to the increasing complexity of academic work the higher grade students had to deal with and the increased demand to be self-reliant.

Just as in other fields, a study with university students learning French as a foreign language by Mills et al. (2007), which to my knowledge is the only study on this construct in the L2 field, showed that self-efficacy for self-regulated learning was a strong predictor of language achievement. Its predictive ability was greater than that of self-efficacy to achieve good grades in French, French-related anxiety, and French learning self-concept. The students who were confident in their ability to self-regulate their own learning effectively were more likely to gain better foreign language achievement. The study also suggested that female students possess firmer beliefs in their self-regulatory abilities than their male counterparts.

## **2.6. Research on language learning strategies**

In the mid-1970s, Stern and Rubin inquired into what characteristics or behaviours made language learners successful. They noted that good language learners are those who are persistent in seeking opportunities to practise the target language, willing to use the language, and willing to take risks. The characteristics indicate that good language learners assume more responsibility and exercise more control over their own learning processes than do less successful learners. The characteristics of the good learners are presumably learnable; that is, the less successful learners can learn and adopt the characteristics successful learners possess to help them learn the target language more effectively and self-regulate their learning.

The seminal work of Stern and Rubin has inspired and laid the groundwork for subsequent research in the field of language learning strategies. The subsequent research has predominantly focused on adult and adolescent learners' strategy use, leaving only limited

evidence available on young learners' strategy use. In view of this, past studies on adult and adolescent learners' strategy use and those on young learners' are reviewed separately. Section 2.6.1 reviews studies on adult and adolescent learners' strategy use relative to their proficiency and self-efficacy beliefs. Section 2.6.2 provides a thorough review of research on young learners' strategy use conducted in both Indonesia and other contexts.

## **2.6.1. Research on adult and adolescent learners' language learning strategies**

### **2.6.1.1. Strategy use in relation to proficiency**

Most studies that have considered the link between strategy use and proficiency among adult learners have been questionnaire-based and simply sought to identify possible statistical relationships between learning strategies and proficiency. Some others have examined the qualitative dimensions of strategy use.

#### *Relationship between strategy use and proficiency*

Research on the relationship between strategy use and proficiency has not found a uniform pattern. A number of studies have provided empirical evidence that all strategy categories, irrespective of classification models, are significantly related to language proficiency (Chu, Lin, Chen, Tsai, & Wang, 2015; Khalil, 2005; Lai, 2009; Phakiti, 2003; Su, 2005; Wahyuni, 2013). For example, a study by Lai (2009), involving 418 Taiwanese EFL university students and using Oxford's SILL, revealed that more proficient learners used strategies of the six categories (i.e. memory, cognitive, metacognitive, compensation, affective, and social) with higher frequency than less proficient learners did. Similar evidence was reported by Wahyuni (2013) who looked into strategy use among university students in the Indonesian EFL context. The study, which also administered Oxford's SILL, showed a close link between the six strategy categories and English proficiency. It also further demonstrated that more proficient learners preferred metacognitive and cognitive strategies, whereas less proficient ones relied more on social and memory strategies.

Other research portrays slightly different findings showing that proficient learners differ from less proficient learners in the preference of some strategy categories or specific strategy items (Anam, 2011; Bremner, 1998; Bruen, 2001; El-Dib, 2004; Gharbavi & Mousavi, 2012; Green & Oxford, 1995; Nguyen & Godwyll, 2010; Olivares-Cuhat, 2002; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Phillips, 1991; Vandergrift, 1997, 2003; Wharton, 2000; Wu, 2008). Bremner (1998), for instance, examined possible associations between English proficiency and the strategy use of university students in Hong Kong by running two-phase analyses to seek the direction of

causality. Taking strategy use as a dependent variable, the study indicated significant differences in three strategy categories, with positive variations in cognitive and compensation strategies, and negative variations in affective strategies. Similarly, with strategy use taken as an independent variable, the findings suggested a significant correlation between eleven strategy items and proficiency.

A similar result was found in Anam's (2011) investigation into the reading strategies of Indonesian students undertaking an English major. The study demonstrated that proficiency significantly related to metacognitive, memory, cognitive, and compensation, but not to social and affective strategies. Likewise, working with 60 international students of Chinese in a Taiwan university, Chu et al. (2015) showed that L2 proficiency was significantly related only to compensation strategies. Their micro analysis of strategy items showed the preference of proficient learners for communication-oriented strategies, such as interacting with native speakers.

There are two points worthy of note in regard to the studies that have revealed the significant link between strategy use and proficiency. First, many of the studies underscored the importance of metacognitive strategies (e.g. Bruen, 2001; Gan, Humphreys, & Hamp-Lyons, 2004; Jurkovič, 2010; Nisbet et al., 2005; Phakiti, 2003; Vandergrift, 1997, 2003). For instance, Gan et al. (2004) found that successful learners were more metacognitive in that they were able to set clear learning goals, aware of the way to achieve the goals, and monitored their learning progress. By comparison, unsuccessful learners seemed to have difficulties in recognizing their learning problem and were unable to solve the problems appropriately. They also did not attempt to self-initiate learning to improve their language proficiency. Phakiti (2003) posited that metacognitive strategies allow the high achievers to be more aware of how and why they use other strategies and further acknowledged that metacognition is a key factor in determining the students' language achievement. Secondly, the linear relationship between proficiency and language learning strategies, either one or all categories, underscores the notion that quantity in strategy use matters. Quantity of strategy use, as Park (1997) contended, can be "a precondition for appropriate use of language learning strategies" (p. 216).

More complex patterns of strategy use have been observed in strategy research. In their large scale research on ESL university students in Puerto Rico, Green and Oxford (1995) noted a curvilinear relationship between L2 proficiency and learning strategies, with moderate



proficiency learners using learning strategies more frequently than their high and low proficiency counterparts. Such a pattern was also found in an observation by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) on ESL students of different culture and nationality in a US university. In an attempt to explain the curvilinear relationship, Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) and Oxford (1999) postulated that learning strategy use for high proficiency learners has been internalized and becomes automatic processes, so learners fail to verbalize their strategy use. Hong-Nam and Leavell further contended that the learners would only be conscious of their strategic behaviours if they had to deal with very difficult or new learning tasks.

Unlike most research findings presented above, some studies (Barkaoui et al., 2013; Murray, 2010; Nisbet et al., 2005; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Yabukoshi & Takeuchi, 2009) have indicated neither positive nor strong correlations between strategy use and proficiency. For example, Barkaoui et al. (2013), who looked into the strategic behaviours of 30 Chinese university students as they responded to integrated and independent speaking tasks of TOEFL iBT, found no relationship between reported frequency of the strategic behaviours and test scores. No or weak relationships observed in previous studies might be because of individual factors other than proficiency that affect strategy use and differences in the instruments used to assess both proficiency and strategy use. Therefore, further investigation of strategy use should involve other individual factors (Murray, 2010) and focus on the way the strategies are used (Yabukoshi & Takeuchi, 2009).

#### *Ways of strategy use*

Despite inconclusive findings in the relationship between the frequency of strategy use and proficiency, studies (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Bruen, 2001; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Khaldieh, 2000; Vandergrift, 1997, 2003; Vann & Abraham, 1990) have consistently shown that the major distinction between successful and unsuccessful learners lies mainly in the flexibility, purposefulness, and appropriateness of strategy choice and use in order to meet the task demands. For instance, Khaldieh (2000) who studied 43 American university students learning Arabic revealed that proficient learners used more diverse strategies, although less proficient learners were also active users of learning strategies. Proficient learners were more engaged in metacognitive strategies, such as planning the task completion, evaluating the progress, and monitoring errors. More importantly, proficient learners showed appropriate use of strategies, suggesting an effective approach to given tasks. A similar finding emerged from Bruen's (2001) study on Irish university students learning

German as a foreign language. The study pointed out that students with high proficiency were more able to use the strategies in a more structured way and apply them to meet various task demands and situations than their counterparts. Observing Canadian high school students learning French, Vandergrift (2003) also found that successful learners were more purposeful and flexible in approaching the task at hand by applying both bottom-up and top-down processes in dynamic combinations, whereas less successful learners tended to rely excessively on a bottom-up approach, with foci mainly on individual constituents of texts which impeded the learner's ability to keep up with incoming inputs.

From their case studies investigating successful and unsuccessful language learners' patterns of strategy use, Abraham and Vann (1987; 1990) provided insightful findings. In their first study, Abraham and Vann (1987) found that successful learners were more capable of choosing appropriate strategies and approaching given tasks in a flexible way. The researchers contended that the flexibility and appropriateness seemed to be the significant factors distinguishing the successful learner from the unsuccessful one. This result was supported by their subsequent study on two Saudi Arabian women taking an intensive ESL program (Vann & Abraham, 1990), which indicated the unsuccessful learners' inappropriate strategy use, despite their being active strategy users.

Apart from the mixed research results, the exact direction of cause-effect relationship in the studies is subject to a disagreement. Some researchers (Khalil, 2005; Lai, 2009; Nguyen & Godwyll, 2010) have viewed learning strategies as the result of improved proficiency, by taking the strategies as a dependent variable. Other researchers (e.g. Bremner, 1998; Jurkovič, 2010; Park, 1997) have preferred to see strategies as the cause of proficiency improvement. Bremner argued that research on the relationship between proficiency and strategies will bring value to learning processes only if it seeks to find out the effect of strategies on proficiency, not the other way around. Some others (e.g. Green & Oxford, 1995; MacIntyre, 1994; Wharton, 2000) have postulated a bidirectional relationship, meaning that strategies both result from and contribute to increased language proficiency. In this view, Green and Oxford (1995) suggested that:

...this relationship is best visualized not as a one-way arrow leading from cause to effect, but rather as an ascending spiral in which active use strategies help students attain higher proficiency, which in turn makes it more likely that students will select these active use strategies (p. 288).

As regards the inconclusive findings about the relationship between the frequency of strategy use and proficiency and the exact direction of causality, further research needs to be done by examining other learners' individual variables, like self-efficacy, which are believed to be related to strategy use.

### **2.6.1.2. Strategy use in relation to self-efficacy beliefs**

There has been a growing research interest in self-efficacy in the field of L2 learning in the past decade, but few studies have explored the relationship between learners' self-efficacy beliefs and their strategies either for learning languages in general or for learning specific language skills.

#### *Language learning strategies in general and self-efficacy beliefs*

M. S.-L. Wong (2005) studied learning strategies in relation to self-efficacy among 74 ESL graduate pre-service teachers in Malaysia. Using a self-developed self-efficacy scale and a strategy questionnaire, the study found a significant positive relationship between the two variables. The result was corroborated by interview data, suggesting that pre-service teachers with high self-efficacy used learning strategies with a greater range and frequency than their peers with low self-efficacy. Specifically, the high self-efficacy students had more specific plans, were more persistent, and exerted more effort to improve their language skills through more practice than their low peers. Another study by Yilmaz (2010) which also involved English major students in a Turkey university also revealed similar findings. In this study, the students were asked to rate their perceived competence in English from one to three to determine their self-efficacy levels and to complete Oxford's SILL to measure their strategy use. High self-efficacy students differed significantly from low self-efficacy students in cognitive, metacognitive and compensation strategies, in favour of students with high self-efficacy.

Consistent findings are also found in other studies on university students taking subjects other than English. After administering a self-developed self-efficacy scale and Oxford's SILL to 37 students of French in a US university, Gahunggu (2009) found a strong significant relationship between language learning strategies and self-efficacy. The finding indicated that students who believed in their ability to do language tasks successfully reported more strategy use. Regarding the finding, Gahunggu underlined the need for developing students' self-efficacy and training them in learning strategies to help attain their learning goals. Meanwhile, in Magogwe and Oliver's (2007) study of Botswanan ESL university students,

survey data resulting from Oxford's SILL and the modified MJSES showed a significant, but weak, relationship between learning strategies and self-efficacy. Supporting previous studies with L2 adult learners, Kim et al. (2015) found that there were significant differences in self-regulated learning strategies among Korean students with different English self-efficacy levels.

Two studies of secondary students in different contexts have resulted in similar findings (National Capital Language Resource Center, 2000a; Su & Duo, 2012). The National Capital Language Resource Center's (NCLRC) study, for instance, examined the association between self-efficacy and language learning strategies among high school students (2000a) in immersion programs in the United States. Results of questionnaire analysis showed that students who reported greater strategy use perceived themselves as effective and confident learners. NCLRC underlined that learning strategies needed to be explicitly taught and incorporated in assessment processes, and that teachers had to create instructional processes which nurtured learners' motivation. Similarly, in a study of 200 Taiwanese EFL high school students, Su and Duo (2012) employed the MJSES for assessing self-efficacy and Oxford's SILL for learning strategies. They found that the students had low but positive self-efficacy, and that they were medium users of learning strategies. The students' perceived self-efficacy was also found to be significantly correlated with learning strategies. This finding, according to Su and Duo, implies that the high self-efficacy students were more engaged in learning and expended greater effort through the use of learning strategies, whereas their low self-efficacy peers were less persistent in solving learning problems.

Contrary to most research findings conducted among secondary and university students, Bonyadi, Nikou, and Shahbaz (2012) who investigated 130 EFL first year university students in Iran indicated no significant correlation between strategy use and self-efficacy. The study did not provide any explanation for the absence of the association between the two variables. The students' strategy use and self-efficacy were found only to be significantly associated with their length of learning English; those who had learned English for a longer period of time felt more confident and reported using more learning strategies. The finding that there was no correlation between strategy use and self-efficacy might be due to the instrument which assessed global self-efficacy: in fact it did not tap self-efficacy.

### *Language learning strategies for specific language areas and self-efficacy*

Research on learning strategies for specific language areas relative to perceived self-efficacy shows similar findings (Graham, 2007; Heidari et al., 2012; Li & Wang, 2010). For example, reading strategies relative to self-efficacy were a focus in Li and Wang's (2010) study of 182 English major students in China. The study revealed that the students were fairly confident with their competence to perform reading tasks and that they were medium and high users of reading strategies. The study also found that reading self-efficacy was significantly positively associated with overall reading strategies and three strategy categories, namely metacognitive, cognitive, and socio/affective. From these results, the authors argued that high self-efficacy learners were likely more capable of regulating their own learning, such as goal setting, time arrangement, and material selections, and deployed strategies more appropriately. The learners were also better at coping with affective problems, such as anxiety and stress when faced with failure. The authors recommended that language instruction incorporate both cognitive and motivational processes.

In a recent study, Heidari, Izadi and Ahmadian (2012) explored how vocabulary learning strategies related to self-efficacy among English major students in Iran. Data were obtained from the Persian Adaptation of the General Self-efficacy Scale (Nezami et al., 1996) and the Vocabulary Learning Strategy Questionnaire (Lip, 2009). The results showed that students with high self-efficacy reported higher frequencies of the use of metacognitive, cognitive, social/affective, and determination strategies than their peers with low self-efficacy.

A close link between English self-efficacy and strategy use was also found in recent studies in the Japanese EFL context (Mizumoto, 2012, 2013). In Mizumoto's earlier study, university students who had confidence in their ability to cope with English tasks were more likely to apply deep vocabulary learning strategies and more flexible in their strategy use than those who doubted their ability: the latter tended to be passive strategy users and resort only to surface strategies. In his later study, Mizumoto showed that a self-regulated learning process involving strategy use could enhance learners' self-efficacy and accordingly improve their vocabulary knowledge. These findings led him to highlight the importance of incorporating instructions which can nurture both self-efficacy and self-regulation.

Unlike most studies which have been survey-based, Graham's (2007) research as well as Graham and Macaro's (2008) provided empirical evidence for the impact of listening strategy instruction on self-efficacy beliefs among adolescent learners of French. The students were

found to have higher self-efficacy in listening following strategy instruction, especially those who received more feedback. The results also indicated that the use of appropriate strategies led a learner to be more confident and resilient in coping with difficult tasks at hand.

Despite the largely consistent findings, some of the studies (Bonyadi et al., 2012; Heidari et al., 2012; Su & Duo, 2012; Yang, 1999; Yilmaz, 2010) employed self-efficacy scales which are not in accordance with Bandura's prescriptive guidelines (see section 2.4.4.), thereby raising concerns about the accuracy of the measurements. Moreover, none of the studies explored how self-efficacy in self-regulated learning relates to strategy use: all studies which used sound self-efficacy instruments focused only on self-efficacy in specific language tasks.

A further point of note is that most of the research was conducted with adult and adolescent learners and in second language contexts: very few were done with young learners. Studies on young learners' strategy use in relation to self-efficacy are reviewed in the next section.

### **2.6.2. Research on young learners' language learning strategies**

To date, although there have been many studies on adult or adolescent learners' strategy use, little research attention has been devoted to primary school students' strategy use (Gunning, 2011; Macaro, 2007). Most of the studies on young learner strategy use have been conducted in second language or immersion settings. The dearth of such research, as Gu et al. (2005) hypothesised, might be because of the difficulties in eliciting data from young learners or because of preconceptions of children's inability to elaborate their learning processes.

The existing studies have attempted to identify young language learners' strategies (Saville-Troike, 1988), examine the effectiveness of strategy instruction (Gunning, 2011), explore how learners develop their strategies (Chesterfield & Chesterfield, 1985; Kirsch, 2012) and look into how the strategies are related to such factors as proficiency (Gu et al., 2005; Gunning, 1997, 2011; Lan & Oxford, 2003; L. J. Zhang et al., 2008), self-efficacy (Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Purdie & Oliver, 1999), grades (Gu et al., 2005; Sugeng, 1997; L. J. Zhang et al., 2008), gender (Gunning, 1997, 2011; Lan & Oxford, 2003), L1/L2 (Sugeng, 1997) and cultural identity (Walters, 2007). To provide a thorough picture of young learners' strategies and indicate the position of this current research in the existing research carried out on this topic, the following section reviews studies conducted both in the L2 contexts other than the Indonesian, and in the Indonesian context.

### **2.6.2.1. Research on primary students' strategy use in contexts other than Indonesia**

#### *Strategy development*

An early study by Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) investigating ESL bilingual young learners in the United States showed that the children found learning strategies helpful for improving their verbal interaction. The most significant finding was that all the children generally had a similar pattern in their learning strategy development. They employed initially receptive strategies, like repetition and memorization, then strategies allowing them to initiate and maintain interactions, and finally monitoring strategies for grammatical errors. The pattern implied that metacognitive awareness and strategies were developed later in strategy development.

Using an ethnographic approach, Kirsch (2012) explored how six English primary pupils learning French, German, and Japanese developed their strategy repertoires. An interesting finding was that the young learners, aged 9 to 10, were able to develop various learning strategies despite the absence of explicit strategy instruction, thereby questioning the necessity for having such instruction. According to Kirsch, a strategic learning environment created by subject teachers other than foreign language teachers seemed to contribute to fostering the students' autonomy and metacognitive knowledge and skills, and these were then transferred to their language lessons. The subject teachers, so Kirsch found, encouraged the students to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning processes and manage their tasks themselves. This study lent support to claims in previous studies (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Gu et al., 2005; L. J. Zhang et al., 2008) that primary pupils are aware of their strategy use and able to verbalize about it. The findings led Kirsch to conclude that "strategies developed because children were encouraged to and needed to find ways to successfully participate in language learning activities and tasks in other curriculum subjects" (p. 394).

#### *Strategy identification*

In early research, Saville-Troike (1988) examined how bilingual children learned English in the United States. She found that young children used a number of intrapersonal learning strategies during a silent period, an early stage in SLA during which they were still unable to get involved in verbal interactions with English-speaking people around them. They used such strategies as repeating others' utterances, recalling, practising, and making new linguistic forms. Some of the young children observed were also able to self-regulate their strategy use.

A recent study by Kaur and Embi (2011) sought to identify learning strategies for four language skills among ESL primary school pupils in Malaysia, regardless of proficiency or other factors. In response to a bilingual Language Strategy Use Questionnaire, the students reported using strategies for reading and writing more frequently than for listening and speaking. Reading and writing were most preferred because they were perceived as more helpful for examinations, whereas listening and speaking strategies were given less attention due to the students' poor vocabulary and self-esteem. In terms of specific strategies, *using a dictionary* was the most frequently used strategy, while *making summaries of reading text* was the least. The finding was not surprising, regarding the students' limited linguistic knowledge.

#### *Strategy use in relation to proficiency*

Congruent with most research findings relating to adult learners (e.g. Lai, 2009; Wahyuni, 2013), studies of primary school students generally show that language learning strategies are significantly related to proficiency levels (Bai, Hu, & Gu, 2014; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Gu et al., 2005; Gunning, 1997, 2011; Lan & Oxford, 2003; L. J. Zhang et al., 2008). For example, a study by Lan and Oxford (2003) examined strategies for EFL learning among 379 Taiwanese primary school students. A strategy questionnaire adapted from Gunning's (1997) Children SILL, the so-called Taiwanese Children SILL, was administered to assess language learning strategies. The results indicated that compensation and affective strategies were the most used, whereas social and memory strategies were the least used. Significant differences were observed in the use of cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and affective strategies, with higher use of the four strategies among proficient learners. The effect of proficiency was also observed in the use of ten strategy items, such as *avoid word-for-word translation*, *figure out grammar rules*, and *guess meaning from context*.

Focusing on learning strategies for reading and writing tasks, Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) investigated third and fourth graders in French, Spanish, and Japanese immersion classrooms in the United States. The study employed a think-aloud-technique to elicit information on strategy use, along with teacher-rating to classify learners by proficiency. The study reported that high achievers tended to view a given text as a whole and made use of background-knowledge strategies, whereas their low peers seemed to rely more on phonetic decoding and were inclined excessively to attend to details. The high achievers also used a greater range of metacognitive strategies which enabled them to be more flexible in strategy use for coping



with the tasks at hand: the low achievers were unable to monitor and evaluate their strategy use despite being ineffective. Additionally, the ability to elaborate given texts also differentiates the high achievers from low achievers, favouring the high. One notable implication of the findings was that young learners could develop their metacognitive awareness at quite an early age, as was implied in their ability to elaborate their learning processes. This claim was then supported by subsequent studies (Gu et al., 2005; Kirsch, 2012; L. J. Zhang et al., 2008), that indicated that even lower primary school pupils were able to verbalize their thinking and learning processes.

In a similar vein, a study with 18 ESL Singaporean lower primary graders (Year 1 and 3) by Gu et al. (2005) showed that high achievers reported using a greater range of strategies than their low peers. The high achievers employed strategies typically associated with good language learners, such as predicting the incoming information in reading and listening texts and evaluate their prediction. The low achievers, on the other hand, used strategies ineffectively and over-relied on a bottom-up approach to comprehending the texts. Raising caution over the direction of causality, the authors contended that “...it is not clear whether the good learners’ more frequent use of learner strategies was due to their higher English language proficiency or whether their higher proficiency induced their deployment of these strategies” (p. 300-301). They drew no conclusion whether the relationship between proficiency and strategy use was unidirectional (see Bremner, 1998; Park, 1997) or bidirectional (see Green & Oxford, 1995; MacIntyre, 1994; Phillips, 1991; Wharton, 2000).

In a subsequent study, L. J. Zhang et al. (2008) explored strategy differences in ESL reading among 18 Singaporean students of different grades (i.e. fourth, fifth, and sixth) and of different proficiency levels. They used a think-aloud approach to collect the data on strategy use, as Chamot and El-Dinary did. Zhang et al. found that proficient learners used more metacognitive strategies, such as *self-initiation*, *planning* and *monitoring*, than did the less proficient learners. With better linguistic knowledge and metacognitive awareness, the proficient learners were able to orchestrate reading strategies through combining both top-down and bottom-up approaches to given reading texts. The proficient learners seemed to be aware of circumstances under which they selected and used the strategies. By comparison, the less proficient learners were heavily reliant on a bottom-up approach and did not maximize their schemata to help them comprehend given texts. The qualitative differences in reading strategy use supported the results of the statistical analysis displaying a significant

correlation between strategy use and proficiency. The findings of the statistical analyses in this study should be seen with caution though, due to the very small sample size, as was conceded by the researchers.

A study of 138 ESL primary learners in Canada undertaken by Gunning (2011) also investigated general strategy patterns among students of different proficiency. Data on strategy use were obtained from the Children's SILL 2.0 and oral proficiency from teacher-rating. Results showed that affective and compensatory strategies were the most common strategies used by the students regardless of proficiency levels, with memory and social strategies the least used, results which are consistent with the findings in her previous study (1997). Strategy items such as *When someone speaks to me in English, I listen attentively* and *When I don't know a word in English, I ask for help* are instances of the most used, whereas strategies like *I mime words to remember them* and *When I listen to or read a text, I write down the important information* were the least used. In terms of overall strategy use, no significant differences were observed between high proficiency students and intermediate proficiency students, or between intermediate proficiency students and poor proficiency students. Further, the students of high and low proficiency were found to differ only in the use of affective and cognitive strategies, signifying higher use of the two strategies by the proficient students. This finding is in part similar to that obtained from another ESL-context study of primary students by Magogwe and Oliver (2007). The study, which employed Oxford's SILL and teacher rating to determine proficiency levels, indicated that proficiency had a significant effect on overall learning strategies, with proficient learners using more strategies than their less proficient peers.

A recent large scale survey of ESL primary school students' writing strategies in Singapore was carried out by Bai et al. (2014). The study revealed that metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies were reportedly used with moderate frequency. In regard to metacognitive strategies, self-initiation strategies were the least used while planning strategies were the most used. All three cognitive strategies, consisting of *revising*, *text-generating*, and *resourcing*, were moderately employed, with *revising* being slightly more frequently used. The study also showed significant differences in *planning*, *text-generating*, *revising*, *monitoring*, and *evaluating strategies* between students with different proficiency levels. In terms of differences in strategy items, *planning*, *help-seeking*, and *affective*

*managing strategies* were most preferred by less proficient students, whereas *planning* and *text-generating strategies* were the most preferred by proficient students.

#### *Strategy use in relation to self-efficacy beliefs*

To my knowledge, there are two studies concerning the effect of self-efficacy on young learners' strategy use. Purdie and Oliver (1999) examined how self-efficacy and attitude related to learning strategies for 58 successful bilingual students, aged 9-12, in Australia. The study revealed that *learning with others* was the most frequently used while *remembering effectively* and *using mental processes* were the least used. The students' self-efficacy was found to be significantly related to cognitive and metacognitive strategies at a moderate to strong degree, but not to social mediation strategies. Multiple regression analysis indicated that only self-efficacy in writing was a significant predictor of strategy use.

In a study of ESL students in Botswana, Magogwe and Oliver (2007) investigated the effect of self-efficacy on strategy use. This study also portrayed a moderate significant relationship between overall strategy use and self-efficacy among primary school pupils, suggesting that the more confident the pupils perceived themselves, the more learning strategies they employed. However, the relationship between the two variables indicated a non-linear pattern when proficiency was added to the equation. The relationship between self-efficacy and learning strategies was weak and not significant for students with high proficiency, moderate and significant for those with intermediate proficiency, and strong and significant for those with poor proficiency.

#### *Strategy use in relation to 'liking of English'*

'Liking of English' is a key determinant of strategy use for young learners. Lan and Oxford (2003) found that there were significant differences between those who liked English and those who disliked English in strategy use. 'Liking of English' had significant effects on 18 strategy items, such as *finding a different way to say something*, *listening closely to English speakers*, *checking own progress in learning English*. Similarly, Gunning's (2011) research findings also suggested a significant effect of 'liking of English' on overall strategy use, with the mediation of school as a variable. The findings of the two studies equating 'liking of English' with motivation should be interpreted with caution, because motivation is a complex construct which cannot be simply assessed with a single binary question "Do you like English?".

### *Strategy use in relation to gender*

Four studies looking into the relationship between young learners' learning strategies and their gender have resulted in inconclusive findings. Research by Lan and Oxford (2003) indicated that male and female students had significant differences in their use of memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, and social strategies. The female students outnumbered the male students in each of the five strategy categories. Significant differences due to gender were also found in the use of 11 strategy items, with females using each of the 11 strategies more frequently than males. *Repeating new expressions, asking for help when not understanding, organizing time to study and looking for chance to practise English* are examples of the eleven strategies. The findings led Lan and Oxford to claim that female students had better metacognitive awareness and were more adroit at social interaction than male peers. Meanwhile, other studies, two in an ESL context (Gunning, 1997, 2011) and one in an EFL context (Sugeng, 1997), indicated different findings: they showed that gender had no effect on strategy choice. No explanations, however, were developed relating to the findings in the three studies.

### *Strategy in relation to grade level*

Grade levels seem to contribute to differences in strategy use among primary school students, as was found in two studies conducted in Singapore. Gu et al. (2005), who used the think-aloud technique to elicit data on strategy use among lower primary ESL pupils, revealed that the third graders were better at describing their mental processes than the first graders. The researchers postulated that the difference resulted from the third graders' higher awareness of mental processes, better verbal abilities and metalinguistic awareness. The third graders also generally reported using more learning strategies and combining some strategies flexibly to cope with given tasks. The first graders, on the other hand, used fewer strategies and occasionally seemed to stick to a single strategy, despite its ineffectiveness.

In their subsequent study of 18 Singaporean upper primary bilingual students, L. J. Zhang et al. (2008) found significant differences in strategy use between sixth graders and fourth graders, but not between the two groups and fifth graders. The sixth graders demonstrated more effective use of strategies, like *inferencing, relating to personal experiences* and *asking for help*. Furthermore, the higher grade students seemed to be more capable of deploying strategy use effectively and appropriately to meet task demands than their lower grade peers. The students of higher and lower grades also differed in their degrees of attention to reading

tasks, with the lower grade students having a shorter concentration span which hinted at their lower perseverance in coping with reading tasks. Regarding the findings, L. J. Zhang et al. predicted that proficiency level might also have contributed to the differences in strategy use.

#### *Strategy use in relation to cultural identity*

Unlike most learning strategy studies that downplay the role of sociocultural context, Walters (2007) investigated language learning strategies from a socio-cultural perspective. Her ethnographic case study of a small group of bilingual Bangladeshi pupils living in England revealed that the students' strategy use was related to the context in which they were learning. The students were found to learn a range of strategies to make them good and independent readers from various settings, such as homes, English schools, and local communities, and they made use of the strategies in their classrooms. An interesting finding is that the students used strategies in order to impress their teachers and even to mask the difficulties they had in reading. The students also employed the strategies as means to being recognized as part of the classroom community. For this reason, she noted that the strategy use not only helped the students learn English but also raised issues of identity and assimilation, thereby bringing about consequences on the way the students were perceived and assessed. The findings led Walter to conclude that the learners not only needed knowledge of learning strategies, but also opportunities for socialization and enculturation.

#### *Strategy instruction*

As part of a larger study, Gunning (2011) investigated the effectiveness of strategy instruction involving 27 ESL Canadian sixth graders in the treatment group and another 27 in the control group. The findings revealed that explicit strategy instruction raised students' strategy awareness and strategy use, regardless of their proficiency level. The strategy intervention also had a significant effect on the students' performance, as indicated not only in the increase in oral interaction results from pre-test and post-test, but also in their better results compared with those of the control group. Regarding the findings, Gunning noted the benefit of strategy instruction for successful learning.

#### **2.6.2.2. Research on primary students' strategy use in the Indonesian context**

Sugeng's (1997) study is one of the rare strategy studies done in the Indonesian EFL primary context. This study investigated how languages (Indonesian as L1 and English as L2), gender, and grade levels affected strategy use among 240 primary pupils in a private school in Indonesia. Most students were from middle class society. Using observations, the study

identified a range of learning strategies in use, with cognitive strategies the most frequently used and metacognitive the least. The results showed that language had a significant effect on metacognitive strategy use in that the students used more learning strategies in English lessons than in Indonesian ones. Sugeng argued that the students' excitement to learn a foreign language drove them to use more metacognitive strategies. Grades were also found to have a significant effect on affective strategy use, with students of grade six using the strategies more frequently than those of lower grades. Grades also had an effect on cognitive strategy use, with a curvilinear pattern in which the fifth graders used the strategies more frequently than the sixth and fourth graders. However, there were no significant differences in strategy use between male and female learners. Significant interaction effects were observed between gender and grades in metacognitive strategy use, suggesting that the higher the grades the boys belonged to, the more frequently they used such strategies. Gender had a significant interaction with language for metacognitive strategy use, with more frequent use of the strategies among female students in learning Indonesian and among male students in learning English.

Despite its overall findings, the study contained problems in terms of labelling what behaviours were considered to be strategies, and then grouping the labelled strategies into strategy categories. Sugeng considered *not paying attention, looking confused, showing ignorance, looking bored, ridiculing and disturbing peers* strategic and labelled them as negative affective learning strategies. This could be a serious flaw. None of these behaviours can help learners cope with tasks effectively, promote learning processes, or enhance communicative competence, which are the goals of strategies commonly suggested in the literature of language learning strategies. Additionally, classifying *self-correcting* and *paying attention* into cognitive strategies appears to be another likely flaw in the study. In language learning strategy research and educational psychology, these two strategies typically belong to metacognitive strategies. Two of the six metacognitive strategies observed in the study, *asking for clarification* and *asking questions*, could be more appropriately classified as social strategies, in line with O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) and Oxford's (1990) models. Such flaws perhaps reduce the validity of the findings of the study, thereby weakening the insights into Indonesian young learners' strategy use.

## **2.7. Conclusion**

To sum up, in this chapter I presented a theoretical review of self-regulated learning, language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs. I also provided an extensive review of the relevant research studies on self-efficacy beliefs and language learning strategies. The empirical review displays the inconclusiveness of the research findings, especially pertaining to (1) whether overall or just certain learning strategy categories, regardless of strategy classification models, significantly relate to proficiency and (2) whether strategy use and proficiency have a unidirectional or bidirectional association. I also reviewed research on how language learning strategies related to self-efficacy beliefs, a crucial motivational construct which still receives little attention in L2 research. I presented a review of limited studies on young learners' learning strategies, most of which were conducted in second language contexts or immersion programs.

In regard to the literature review, there remain gaps in strategy research. The relationship between language learning strategies and proficiency, especially among primary students in a foreign language context, is still worth investigating. Additionally, a further exploration of the role of self-efficacy beliefs, particularly self-regulated learning efficacy, in L2 learning is still necessary. This current study is intended to fill some of the research gaps. It does so primarily by examining not only how young learners' strategy use and self-efficacy relate to proficiency, but also how their self-efficacy in performing specific English tasks and in self-regulated learning determine their strategy use in the Indonesian EFL context.

## CHAPTER 3

# RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

---

### 3.1. Introduction

This chapter elaborates the research methodology applied in this current investigation. It restates the research questions, and then highlights the definition and paradigmatic foundation of a mixed methods approach and the rationale for choosing this approach in this study. The quantitative and qualitative phases, which involve participants, instrumentation, data collection and analysis procedures, are also described.

### 3.2. Research questions

The current study aimed to investigate Indonesian primary school students' language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs, with a particular emphasis on examining whether their strategy use, self-efficacy beliefs, and proficiency are inter-related. Specifically, the current study seeks to address the following research questions.

*Quantitative phase:*

1. What language learning strategies do the EFL Indonesian primary school students report using?
2. To what extent do the students have self-efficacy in English and self-regulated learning?
3. What are the differences in learning strategy use and self-efficacy between female and male students and between rural, suburban, and urban students in Indonesian primary schools?
4. What are the relationships between the students' language learning strategies, self-efficacy and proficiency?
  - a. What are the differences in learning strategy use between high, moderate, and low proficiency students?
  - b. What are the differences in learning strategy use between students with high, moderate, and low levels of English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy?
  - c. To what extent do the students' self-efficacy and learning strategies predict their proficiency when gender, length of English study, and school location are controlled?



*Qualitative phase:*

5. How can the students' motivational and strategic behaviours help explain the relationships between language learning strategies, self-efficacy and proficiency?
  - a. What language learning strategies do the students report using during the interview?
  - b. How do they use the strategies when they are engaged in English language tasks and learning English?
  - c. What motivational behaviours are indicative of the students' self-efficacy beliefs?

### **3.3. Research approach: Mixed methods**

#### **3.3.1. Overview of mixed methods approach**

A mixed methods approach was employed to address the research questions. The approach integrates components of qualitative and quantitative approaches. The mixing of the components takes place within different stages of the research process (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008), depending on the research design. So the research is not merely a multi-method study. A mixed methods approach is primarily employed to allow elaboration and corroboration of findings. Using findings from one method to elaborate and clarify the findings of another enables the researcher to view different facets of a phenomenon and obtain an enriched understanding of it (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989), thereby enhancing confidence in any conclusions (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007).

A mixed methods approach is based on pragmatism (Creswell, 2009, p. 11; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008, p. 11). The approach has emerged as a response to long standing paradigm debates between positivism/post-positivism and constructivism (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008). Pragmatism rejects the binary (either-or) choice between constructivism and post-positivism: instead it embraces relevant features of the two paradigms (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 87). In a pragmatic stance, "what works" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 43; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008, p. 16) to address research questions determines what methods are used in a study. Research questions are of primary importance in the selection of which method to use (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). In a nutshell, mixed methods researchers are not confined to a single paradigm; they can combine research approaches across paradigms if the combination of approaches is considered appropriate and has the potential to address the questions of interest (Fielzer, 2010).

The mixed methods approach has gained attention from researchers in various fields over the past two decades and, notably, has recently been used in research studies on language learning strategies and self-efficacy (Gunning, 2011; Lan, 2005; Wahyuni, 2013; M. S.-L. Wong, 2005). For example, in a study with Malaysian pre-service teachers, M. S.-L. Wong (2005) combined the administration of strategy and self-efficacy questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. She conducted the interviews to give more insights into the strategy use of the students who had different self-efficacy levels that had been revealed from the questionnaire responses.

### **3.3.2. Rationale for using a mixed methods approach**

The rationale for choosing a mixed methods approach is to enable a comprehensive analysis in order to address the research questions adequately. Relying on a quantitative approach has been considered inadequate in strategy research (Rose, 2012a; Tseng et al., 2006). Questionnaires, which have widely been used, tap only the quantity of strategy use, not the quality of it. Yamamori, Isoda, Hiromori, and Oxford (2003, p. 384) contended that “low reported strategy use is not always a sign of ineffective learning”. In regard to the shortcoming of the quantitative approach, Woodrow (2005, p. 96) argued that “there is a need for richer rather than more generalizable description of LLS use”. Applying a qualitative approach to complement and substantiate the quantitative one is, therefore, necessary to overcome the weaknesses of questionnaires, such as SILL (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014), and present a more comprehensive and reliable portrayal of strategy use (Rose, 2015). The qualitative approach is able to uncover the quality of strategy use, which is believed to matter in language learning (Rose, 2012a; Tseng et al., 2006): thus, it addresses the criticism raised by Tseng et al. (2006) and Woodrow (2005) on the inability of questionnaires to elicit the quality of strategy use.

In the self-efficacy research tradition, employing a quantitative approach is overwhelmingly popular, but it mostly generates numerical descriptions and predictions. In order to add a rich nuance to the quantitative findings, a qualitative approach is worth using in this study. In a nutshell, the combination of the two approaches can provide different, but complementary, dimensions of both strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs of the Indonesian primary school students.

### **3.3.3. Research design**

This research employed a sequential explanatory mixed methods design (Creswell, Plano Clark, Guttman, & Hanson, 2003). The design consisted of two distinct phases: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative data were collected and analysed prior to undertaking the same processes with the qualitative data (Creswell, 2009). This research project was designed to place more emphases upon the quantitative data, while the qualitative data were intended to support and explicate the quantitative data. Figure 1 below illustrates the mixed methods procedure of the current study.

The quantitative method aimed to identify self-reported language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs from the Indonesian primary school students participating and primarily examine possible relationships between the students' strategy use and their perceived self-efficacy and English proficiency. Subsequently, the qualitative method sought to provide an enriched understanding of the relationships between the three variables through an exploration of the students' strategic and motivational behaviours.

The quantitative and qualitative components were connected in the data collection and the discussion stages. In the data collection stage, the results of the quantitative data analysis were used as the basis for selecting participants for collecting the qualitative data. The results from both the quantitative and qualitative phases were then integrated and interpreted in the discussion chapter.

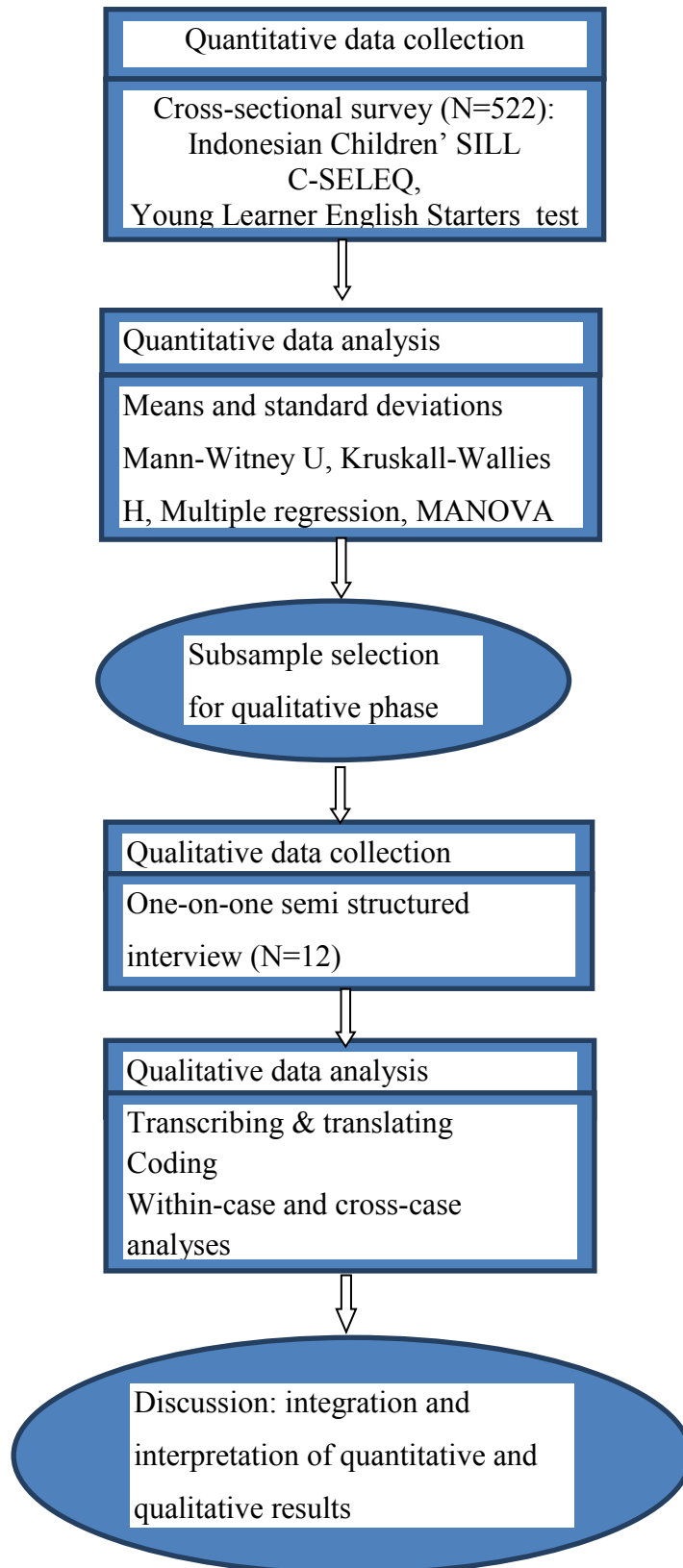


Figure 1 Flowchart of sequential explanatory mixed methods procedure (modelled on that of Plano-Clark & Creswell, 2008)

### **3.4. Quantitative phase**

The research design in the quantitative phase is cross-sectional. It focuses on variables of interest at a particular point in time (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). The data were elicited from participants of different schools through questionnaires and a proficiency test in a relatively short time. Details of the participants, instruments, and procedures of data collection and data analysis in the quantitative phase are elaborated below.

#### **3.4.1. Participants**

The participants involved in the first phase of this current study were students in grade six who were generally at the age of eleven years. All were enrolled in public primary schools in the Indonesian province of East Java. Sixth graders were selected for three main reasons. First, they had been exposed to English instruction for at least two years, because schools usually offer English lessons from grade 4 onwards. Second, students in grade six can be presumed more capable of articulating their English learning process, especially talking about their learning processes, than those of lower grades due to their experience and age. Third, the exclusion of other grades (for example, grades 4 and 5) was intended to make the characteristics of participants more homogeneous and avoid possible effects of grade and age difference on strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs.

All sixth graders in the twelve selected schools which were located in urban, suburban and rural regions were invited to take part in the study (see Table 3.1.). In fact 567 students, 225 boys and 342 girls (39.6% and 60.4% respectively) took part. There were 45 participants excluded from the dataset because of missing either the sessions of questionnaire completion or the English proficiency test: hence complete data from 522 participants were used in this study. The discrepancy in gender ratio was mainly because male students or their parents did not provide consent, or the students withdrew during the data collection processes. Of the 522 participants, 81 were enrolled in rural schools, 203 in suburban schools and 238 in urban schools. The number of students in a grade-six class of the primary schools in East Java varies with location: in urban areas schools generally have many more students than those in suburban and rural areas. Additionally, based on my personal observations, urban schools generally have better school facilities and higher-calibre teachers, and students in urban areas also have better and wider access to private English tuition.

**Table 3.1 Information on schools and participants for quantitative data collections**

Primary schools (PS)	Number of participants			Number of participants with complete data
	Male (M)	Female (F)	M + F	
Urban PS 1	19	42	61	61
Urban PS 2	43	40	83	80
Urban PS 3	27	24	51	46
Urban PS 4	18	38	56	51
Suburban PS 1	22	45	67	64
Suburban PS 2	27	43	70	62
Suburban PS 3	10	25	35	35
Suburban PS 4	14	39	53	42
Rural PS 1	12	13	25	24
Rural PS 2	9	7	16	16
Rural PS 3	10	9	19	18
Rural PS 4	14	17	31	23
Total	225	342	567	522

### 3.4.2. Instrumentation

In order to elicit quantitative data, the Indonesian Children’s SILL and the C-SELEQ were administered. In addition, for assessing proficiency a practice version of the Cambridge Young Learner English Starters (YLE) test was used. The three instruments are elaborated in detail below.

#### 3.4.2.1. The Indonesian Children’s SILL

##### *Overview of the Indonesian Children’s SILL*

The Indonesian Children’s SILL, a structured questionnaire, was used to assess the participants’ general L2 learning strategy use. A structured questionnaire has been the most widely employed instrument to identify language learning strategies (White, Schramm, & Chamot, 2007) and has, accordingly, become “the backbone of strategy research methodology” (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014, p. 3). The Indonesian language version of the SILL was administered because of the limited English comprehension of the participants (see

Appendices 2a and 2b for both the English and Indonesian versions respectively). It was adapted from Gunning's (1997) SILL for Children. Permission for translating and adapting the instrument was obtained (P. Gunning, personal communication, January 8, 2013). Gunning's SILL consists of 30 items with a five-point Likert scale. It was chosen because it had been designed for primary school students and had a strong internal consistency reliability of .96 (Oxford, 2011b, p. 163). Gunning's SILL has been employed in research on young learners' learning strategies in other EFL settings (e.g. Kurt & Atay, 2006; Lan, 2005) and was itself adapted from Oxford's SILL. Such an adaptation is recommended (Griffiths & Oxford, 2014) in order to address criticisms, such as those raised by Woodrow (2005), that the existing questionnaires might not be applicable to learners across cultural contexts.

Oxford's SILL has been extensively used in strategy research with approximately 10,000 learners throughout the world (Oxford, 2011b). Empirical evidence shows that Oxford's SILL for EFL learners has strong Cronbach's alpha reliabilities of .89-.90 when used in English, and of .91-.95 when used in translated versions (Oxford, 1999). A confirmatory factor analysis involving 510 college students as sample found the inventory more consistent with learners' strategy use than other strategy classification models (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002). It also has concurrent validity shown by positive significant correlations between strategy use with relevant constructs such as learning style, personality traits, and motivation (Oxford, 2011b).

Assessing perceived learning strategy use through the SILL is not without criticism despite its widespread use. Dörnyei (2005), among others, has argued that the SILL's measure of frequency is psychometrically inappropriate and its scale items are not cumulative because the SILL frequencies do not always have linear relationships. In response to Dörnyei's criticism, Oxford (2011b) argues that averaging the scale items is acceptable given that the sample is large and the scale has sufficient categories. Furthermore, the response categories of the SILL items actually have roughly equally-spaced gradations (never, rarely, sometimes, often, always). Summing or averaging evenly-graded Likert items, regardless of the response labels (e.g. never to always or strongly disagree to strongly agree) is required because Likert scales consist of several items (Brown, 2011; Carifio & Perla, 2007; Norman, 2010; Uebersax, 2006).

As did the original version, the Indonesian Children's SILL initially consisted of 30 items which fell into six strategy categories: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive,

social, and affective. Memory strategies refer to the way learners store and retrieve information at the surface processing level. *Saya mengkaitkan kata baru bahasa Inggris dengan kata yang telah saya ketahui* (item 1# *I associate new English words with what I already know*) is a sample of the memory strategies. Cognitive strategies, involving ten items, relate to manipulation or transformation of information by learners, as in the item *Saya mempraktikkan pengucapan huruf dalam bahasa Inggris* (item 8# *I often practise English alphabet sounds*). Compensation strategies cover items that ask about the way learners make up for their limitations in comprehension and production. One of its four items reads *Saya menggunakan bahasa tubuh ketika mengalami kesulitan menyampaikan pesan agar orang lain paham* (item 17# *When I have trouble making myself understood in English, I use gestures to express what I want to say*). Five questionnaire items of metacognitive strategies relate to the specific functions learners employ to regulate their learning: one used, for example, is, *Saya mengatur waktu untuk belajar bahasa Inggris* (item 20# *I organize my time to study English*). Three affective strategy items involve strategies used to regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes, such as *Saya memotivasi diri sendiri untuk bicara bahasa Inggris meskipun mungkin saya membuat kesalahan* (item 26# *I motivate myself to speak English even if I might make mistakes*). And, *Saya praktik bahasa Inggris dengan teman sekelas* (item 29# *I practise English with my classmates*) is one of the three social strategy items, which address the way learners learn through interaction with others.

Unlike Gunning's SILL which uses numbers 1 to 5, this questionnaire used a five-pictorial point scale in order to raise the interest of the young participants. The pictorial points involved five face icons: "a weeping face being never", "a frown face being usually not", "a plain face being sometimes", "a smiling face being often", and "a laughing face being always". Face icons and other pictorial responses, instead of numbers, are commonly used in research studies on young children and they have not resulted in response bias (Reynolds-Keefer, Johnson, & Dickenson, 2009). I translated the English version into Indonesian, and in order to enhance its accuracy the translation was reviewed by three Indonesian doctoral students who had good English proficiency.

#### *Validity and reliability of the Indonesian Children's SILL*

Prior to being administered in the main study, the content and face validity of the Indonesian Children's SILL was examined by expert reviewers. Two reviewers were selected because of their educational background and/or research expertise in language teaching. They were an



associate professor in TESOL who also served as the supervisor of the researcher, and an experienced English teacher of a primary school in Indonesia. Several improvements to the instrument were made in response to their feedback.

The Indonesian Children's SILL was also pilot-tested through two stages on 29 sixth graders not participating in the main study. Initially, two primary school students were asked to verbalize their understanding of each item of the Indonesian Children's SILL while completing their responses in writing. This was of help in identifying which items were difficult to understand. After this, the questionnaire was administered to the 29 sixth graders who were asked to complete the questionnaire and also to add any strategies which they usually used but were not included in the questionnaire. The results of the pilot-testing were used to revise the questionnaire. Minor changes involved rewording four items (items 14, 16 and 29) to make them more easily understood (see Appendix 2c for comparing Gunning's SILL and the Indonesian Children's SILL). For example, item 14 *I make an effort to understand the sense of what I read or what I hear without translating word for word* was reworded into *I try to understand what I read or what I hear without translating word for word* and item 29 *I work with my classmates to practise my English* was altered into *I practise English with my classmates*. Other minor revisions were made on items 2, 10, 12, 19, 25, 26 and 28. Item 26 *I am ready to take risks: guess the meaning of a word or sentence, try to speak English even if I make mistakes* was simplified and rewritten into *I motivate myself to speak English even if I might make mistakes*. I also changed item 12 *I practise what I learn with my parents* into *I practise what I learn with my parents or siblings* because the participants added a strategy, namely studying with their older siblings. No major changes were made such as omitting items or adding new ones.

The internal consistency reliability of the instrument was also measured using the pilot testing data. The resulting Cronbach's alpha was .69, which was not high, but acceptable.

Using data obtained from the main study, EFA was conducted to evaluate the Indonesian Children's SILL's unidimensionality and construct validity. There were three reasons for this. First, construct validity is the core validity issue of a questionnaire (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003). A self-report questionnaire which is translated into another language or administered to students of different cultures must be rigorously assessed for its validity (Balbinotti, Benetti, & Terra, 2007; Oxford, 2011b; Robson & Midorikawa, 2001). Secondly, language learning strategy studies (El-Dib, 2004; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Robson & Midorikawa,

2001; Yang, 1999) which have used EFA on Oxford's (1990) SILL, of which the Children's SILL is an adaptation, have resulted in various factor patterns and failed to replicate the six factors or categories postulated by Oxford (1990). Thirdly, to the best of my knowledge, the original Children's SILL (Gunning, 1997), which has been adapted in several studies, has never been factor-analysed, implying there is a lack of construct validity evidence relating to it.

The Principal Axial Factor extraction method with Promax rotation was run through SPSS on the 30 items from the Indonesian Children's SILL. Low and moderate correlations were found among the items with correlation coefficients of .14 to .51. The result of the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) measure was excellent, with a value of .921. This was supported by the individual values of measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) which ranged from .886 to .946. Likewise, Barlett's Test was significant,  $X^2(120) = 2621.844$ ,  $p < .001$ , suggesting that the correlation matrix was different from the identity matrix. Both KMO and Barlett's test indicated that the data was appropriate for factor analysis.

An initial rotation resulted in a five-factor solution with a quite messy pattern. The pattern showed that 14 items either cross-loaded on two factors or loaded insignificantly on any of the factors ( $< .3$ ). The cross-loading and low-loading items (i.e. items 4, 5, 8, 9, 12, 13, 15, 17, 19, 20, 23, 25, 26, 30) were then removed through repeated exercises in subsequent rotations to discover a better factor solution. With regard to existing theories in learning strategies, the contents of the items, and the item loadings, a three-factor solution, which was the most interpretable and made sense, was obtained (see Table 3. 2 below).

**Table 3.2 Internal consistency reliability, communalities, cumulative extraction sums of squared loadings, and final EFA results of the Indonesian Children’s SILL**

Item No	MSA	Reproduced Communalities	CESSL (%)	Cognitive	Socio-affective	Metacognitive
Eigenvalues				5.854	1.446	1.120
Cronbach’s alpha				.858	.671	.729
2	.917	.537	33.007	.799		
11	.923	.415		.665		
10	.932	.355		.652		
1	.942	.411		.616		
3	.926	.393		.596		
7	.946	.422		.585		
6	.946	.418		.578		
14	.943	.406		.577		
16	.946	.388		.510		
18	.902	.266	38.477		.786	
27	.886	.387			.601	
28	.920	.439			.543	
29	.887	.594			.529	
21	.952	.420	42.100			.753
22	.919	.373				.500
24	.869	.512				.483

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation method: Promax. Rotation converged in 6 iterations. Measures of Sampling Adequacy (MSA). Cumulative extraction sums of squared loadings (CESSL).

For the three-factor solution, the number of factors extracted was based on the eigenvalue. Three factors were extracted with the rule of eigenvalue of >1, in which the eigenvalue of the factors 1, 2, and 3 were 5.854, 1.446, and 1.120 respectively. Table 3.2 above displays the rotated factor loading matrix for the Indonesian Children’s SILL items. Items 2, 11, 10, 1, 3, 7, 6, 14, 16 were assigned to factor 1, which concerned strategies involving mainly transformation of information, either simply for memorizing or comprehending. These items consisted of memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies in Oxford’s classification from which the items were developed. The factor was then labelled cognitive strategy factor. Items 18, 27, 28, and 29 fell into factor 2. The four items, which originally came from Oxford’s (1990) social, affective, and compensation strategy categories, focused on learning with

others and self-motivating; therefore, factor 2 was named socio-affective strategies. Items 21, 22, and 24, which dealt with planning and monitoring strategies, loaded onto factor 3. Factor 3 was named after Oxford's (1990) strategy category from which the three items were taken, namely metacognitive strategy factor. All items in each factor had pattern coefficients higher than .45, which were considered good. Thus, the three-factor solution seemed to be adequate and theoretically valid. In addition, the reliability coefficients were .858 for cognitive, .729 for metacognitive, and .671 for socio-affective, all of which were above the criteria of .6 for acceptance (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). The low coefficient of metacognitive was not surprising because Cronbach's alpha is sensitive to the number of items. Further, the moderate correlation between the factors and no cross-loadings suggested that discriminant validity was established.

The results of the EFA indicate that the Indonesian Children's SILL empirically failed to accord with Oxford's (1990) six-category-model and previous studies (El-Dib, 2004; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Robson & Midorikawa, 2001; Yang, 1999) using SILL. Thus, the three factors consisting of cognitive, socio-affective and metacognitive, along with their respective strategy items (see Table 3.3 below for details) resulting from the EFA were used to address the current study's research questions.

**Table 3.3 Items of the Indonesian Children’s SILL with three-strategy category model**

<b>No. item</b>	<b>Strategy item</b>	<b>EFA based-category</b>	<b>Initial category</b>	<b>Original no. item</b>
1	I make a drawing in my head to help me remember a new word	Cognitive	Memory	2
2	I try to find opportunities outside of school (sports, extracurricular activities, etc.) to practise my English		Cognitive	11
3	I read books or I play computer games in English		Cognitive	10
4	I associate new English words with what I already know		Memory	1
5	I associate the sound of a new English word with a sound of a word that I already know		Memory	3
6	When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people, in order to pronounce the words correctly		Cognitive	7
7	I repeat new expressions that I have learned		Cognitive	6
8	I try to understand what I read or what I hear without translating word for word		Cognitive	14
9	I guess the meaning of unfamiliar words which I hear or read from the context		Compensation	16
10	When I don’t know a word in English, I ask for help	Socio-affective	Compensation	18
11	When I succeed, I congratulate myself		Affective	27
12	I ask others to speak slowly or to repeat what they say if I do not understand		Social	28
13	I practise English with my classmates		Social	29
14	I look for occasions to speak English	Metacognitive	Metacognitive	21
15	When someone speaks to me in English, I listen attentively		Metacognitive	22
16	I analyse the errors I have made and try not to repeat them		Metacognitive	24

Note: EFA based category (categories resulted from the EFA), Initial category (categories used in the Children's SILL prior to the EFA), Original no. item (number of items in the Children's SILL prior to the EFA)

### **3.4.2.2. Children's Self-Efficacy for Learning English Questionnaire (C-SELEQ)**

#### *Overview of the C-SELEQ*

The C-SELEQ (see Appendices 3a and 3b for English and Indonesian versions) was applied to measuring participants' judgment on their abilities to do English tasks and to regulate their own learning. The questionnaire involved two subscales: (1) English self-efficacy and (2) self-regulated learning efficacy, with 10 and 7 items respectively. Because "there is no all-purpose measure of perceived self-efficacy" (Bandura, 2006, p. 307), the researcher developed the first subscale. The items of the first subscale (i.e. items no 1 to 10) were constructed to suit the specific task demands, as Bandura (2006, p. 308) recommends, to maintain the relevance of the scale items to the domain of functioning, that is, performing English tasks for EFL sixth graders. The task demands are typically encountered in Grade six English textbooks in Indonesian primary schools (Aditya, 2007; Kusuma, Djatmika, & Dwi, 2007). This subscale focused on perceived beliefs of efficacy in the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) and the two language components (grammar and vocabulary). An example is: *Saya yakin saya dapat memperkenalkan diri sendiri dalam bahasa Inggris di kelas (I am sure that I can introduce myself in English in class).*

The second subscale (items no 11-17) was an adaptation of Usher and Pajares' (2008) Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulated Learning Scale which was originally a subset of Bandura's (2006) Children's Self-Efficacy Scale. Permission for translating and adapting the scale was granted (E. L. Usher, personal communication, December 10, 2012). The adaptation was justified because self-regulated learning skills are generic skills applicable to different domains of functioning (Bandura, 2006, p. 308). The generic skills, like planning, monitoring, evaluating progress, self-motivating, and information processing, are used not only in English learning activities but also in other domains. The subscale consisted of seven items which assessed children's confidence in self-regulating their learning English. The subscale was modified by adding the word "English" to the items in order to fit the specific context under scrutiny as Usher & Pajares (2008) recommended. For example, the item *I am sure that I can study when there are other interesting things to do* was altered to *I am sure*

*that I can study English when there are other interesting things to do.* The subscale in Usher and Pajares' (2008) study demonstrated construct and concurrent validities through its correlations with related constructs, such as motivation, academic self-efficacy, self-concept and achievement and had an internal consistency reliability of .83.

Prior to being administered, the English version of the C-SELEQ was translated into Indonesian and the translation reviewed to ensure its accuracy. In administering the C-SELEQ, the participants were asked to rate their belief in the ability to cope with specific hypothetical tasks on a five-pictorial point scale, with a weeping face being "strongly disagree" to "a laughing face being "strongly agree" (see appendix 3a). Such a five point-interval for self-efficacy measurements has been used in other studies (e.g. Bong & Hocevar, 2002; Fertman & Primack, 2009) and found able to grasp subtle distinctions among individuals' perceived self-efficacy. For each participant, the score on each subscale was obtained by averaging the rating. The higher score the participants obtained, the stronger the participants' self-efficacy beliefs were.

#### *Validity and reliability of the C-SELEQ*

The C-SELEQ was also reviewed for content validity, and pilot-tested with the same 29 sixth graders for internal consistency and comprehensibility: no revision was necessary. From the pilot-testing result, the Cronbach's alpha of the scale as a whole was .82, and of its first and second subscales .77 and .70 respectively, indicating the internal consistency reliability of the instrument was good.

As with the Indonesian Children's SILL, the C-SELEQ was factor-analysed with the main study dataset. Factor-analysing the instrument was required primarily because a subscale (i.e. self-regulated learning efficacy) was adapted from another study, and another subscale (i.e. English self-efficacy) was self-developed. Results of the EFA provided the evidence needed for the unequivocal support for the unidimensional structures of the two subscales.

EFA, with Principal Axial Factoring as the extraction method and Promax oblique rotation, was used to identify the underlying structure of the 17 question items of the C-SELEQ. Prior to the EFA, correlation coefficients were examined and most variables were found to correlate reasonably well with others, there being only a few lightly below .3 but none above .9. The determinant of the correlation matrix was .001, which is greater than .00001. The

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and the Barlett's test of sphericity were also examined to check the appropriateness of factor analysis. The KMO value was .931, which is excellent. The MSA values for all individual variables were  $\geq .916$ , which are well above the threshold level of .5 (Field, 2009). Similarly, the Barlett's test  $X^2(78) = 2379.759$ ,  $p < .001$  was highly significant, showing that the original correlation matrix was significantly different from an identity matrix. These preliminary results verified the appropriateness of respondent data for factor analysis.

The Kaiser criterion (eigenvalues  $> 1$  rule) was used to determine how many factors needed to be extracted. The eigenvalues of more than 1 (i.e. 5.558 and 1.215) in Table 3.4 below indicated that a two-factor solution was appropriate.

**Table 3.4 Internal consistency reliability, communalities, MSA, cumulative extraction sums of squared loadings, and final EFA results of C-CELEQ**

Item	MSA	Reproduced Communalities	CESSL (%)	ESE	SRLE
Eigenvalues				5.558	1.215
Cronbach's alpha				.860	.774
Item 1	.927	.509	38.487	.627	
Item 2	.916	.434		.601	
Item 4	.936	.305		.490	
Item 5	.929	.511		.800	
Item 6	.941	.483		.659	
Item 7	.949	.479		.579	
Item 8	.934	.449		.542	
Item 10	.930	.386		.711	
Item 11	.928	.341	43.359		.566
Item 12	.921	.385			.635
Item 13	.936	.465			.621
Item 15	.918	.377			.693
Item 16	.920	.514			.598

Extraction method: Principal axis factoring. Rotation method: Promax. Rotation converged in 3 iterations. Measures of sampling adequacy (MSA). Cumulative extraction sums of squared loadings (CESSL). ESE (English Self-Efficacy). SRLE (self-regulated learning efficacy).

With two factors extracted and a cut of .45 for the inclusion of a variable in interpretation of a factor, item 3 (*I am sure that I can act out a dialogue about my favourite sports in English in*



*class*) and item 17 (*I am sure that I can participate in my English class*) did not load significantly onto either of the factors, suggesting a low contribution to the factors, so they were removed. Item 9 (*I am sure that I can ask for permission in English*) loaded onto factor 2, the factor onto which all other items loaded focused on self-efficacy for self-regulated learning. However, item 14 (*I am sure that I can remember information about my English lesson*), which was adapted from Usher and Pajares' Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulated Learning scale, loaded onto factor 1 where other items in the factor measured self-efficacy in performing English tasks. Regarding the conceptual framework of self-efficacy and the original scale of self-efficacy for self-regulated learning from which items 9 and 14 were adapted, item 9 should have assigned to factor 1 and item 14 to factor 2. Both items were then deleted. Thus, the final EFA resulted in items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10 being attributed to factor 1 which represented self-beliefs in ability to perform specific English tasks, and the factor was named English self-efficacy. Items 11, 12, 13, 15, 16 were attributed to factor 2 which reflected beliefs in own capabilities to regulate learning, and the factor named after its original instrument, self-regulated learning efficacy. The loadings of the items on their respective factors were .63 and .62 on average, with no loading being below .45, which was considered good according to Comrey and Lee (as cited in Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). That all items loaded significantly onto the respective factors meant that convergent validity was evident. The absence of cross-loading of the items also suggested discriminant validity. Furthermore, the reliability coefficients of factors 1 and 2, which were .860 and .774 respectively, exceeded the threshold of .6 for acceptance in exploratory research (Hair et al., 2006). The EFA result with a two-factor solution was consistent with the subscales already designated in the instrument: all items from subscale 1 loaded onto factor 1 and all items from subscale two on factor 2. Table 3.5 below provides details of all items associated with each of the two factors. Therefore, the self-efficacy beliefs to be analysed in the present study referred to the results of the EFA.

**Table 3.5 Items of C-SELEQ after EFA**

<b>Subscale</b>	<b>No. item</b>	<b>Item</b>	<b>Original subscale</b>	<b>Original no. item</b>
English self-efficacy	1	I am sure that I can introduce myself in English in class.	English self-efficacy	1
	2	I am sure that I can write sentences used to introduce myself in English.		2
	3	I am sure that I match pictures about sports with sentences describing them.		4
	4	I am sure that I can comprehend a short English text with pictures about sports.		5
	5	I am sure that I can understand English words about vegetables and fruits that my teacher reads aloud.		6
	6	I am sure that I can complete an English dialogue with expressions of likes and dislikes.		7
	7	I am sure that I can make English sentences in simple past form.		8
	8	I am sure that I can pronounce English words about animals.		10
Self-regulated learning efficacy	9	I am sure that I can finish my English homework on time.	Self-regulated learning efficacy	11
	10	I am sure that I can study English when there are other interesting things to do.		12
	11	I am sure that I can concentrate on my learning English.		13
	12	I am sure that I can arrange a place to study at home where I won't get distracted.		15
	13	I am sure that I can motivate myself to learn English.		16

### **3.4.2.3. English proficiency test**

A practice version of the Young Learners English (YLE) test was used to assess the participants' English proficiency. The YLE test, designed by the University of Cambridge ESOL examinations centre, was selected as the instrument to assess the participants' English proficiency. There were several reasons for making this choice. Firstly, it is one of very few available standardized English-as-foreign-language tests for young learners. Secondly, this paper-based test is intended to specifically measure how well primary school children perform in the four language skills: listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The question format, task types, children's cognitive and first language development, and other related aspects have been carefully considered in the YLE test design (University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES), 2007). Thirdly, the YLE test has been widely administered and gained an increasing number of test-takers (J. Wilson, 2007).

The YLE test comprises three levels: Starters, Movers, and Fliers. The YLE Starters (see Appendix 4 for sample of the test) was chosen giving regard to the presumed basic level of the participants' English proficiency and length of English learning. The reliability of the YLE's listening section and reading-writing section is good, 0.76 and .083 respectively, and that of the YLE's speaking section is based on inter-rater correlation (University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES), 2013). The YLE test is supported by sound arguments related to construct, test content and context-related aspects of validity (University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES), 2013). Cronbach's alpha was used to report the internal consistency of the YLE. The reliability coefficients of the YLE in the pilot-testing of the current study with 29 students were .851 for the listening section and .852 for the reading-writing section. The main dataset of the YLE test had reliability coefficients of .807 for the listening section and .837 for the reading-writing section. All reliability coefficients were good.

The listening section consisting of 20 items aimed to assess the participants' knowledge of lexical items, simple note-taking skill, and scanning skill. The reading-writing section involving 25 items asked the participants to comprehend simple sentences and short texts featured with pictures, then give written answers in single words. In the speaking section, the participants were scored on whether they were able to comprehend, to follow oral instruction, and to answer simple questions.

My scoring technique of the YLE test results mainly followed the University of Cambridge ESOL examinations' marking guidance (2011). First, for the listening section and reading-writing section, a correct answer weights one point and a wrong one weights zero. All the points of each section were then summed, with a maximum of 20 for the listening section and 25 for the reading-writing section. Second, the participants' speaking performance was marked based on the understanding they showed by responding to given instructions, on their pronunciation and intelligibility. To ensure the consistency of the marking and fairness to all participants, the examiners asked only questions available from the speaking scoring scheme and were required to ask only the questions as scripted (see Appendix 5).

#### **3.4.2.4. Background information**

Participants were also asked to provide their personal information pertaining to their gender, length of English learning, and school of origin. The background information, to be completed in the answer sheet of the English proficiency test (see Appendix 6), was taken into account in the quantitative data analysis. Additionally, the factual information, especially name and school of origin, was used in the identification of participants for interviews in the second phase.

#### **3.4.3. Data collection procedure**

All data collection processes were conducted after I received ethics approval from the University of Canberra. I distributed consent forms to the potential participants (see Appendices 7 and 8 for consent forms). All students who agreed to participate in the quantitative phase and had the consent forms signed by the students and their parents became the participants in the study. Prior to administering the questionnaires and the English test, I advised the students that the test and the questionnaires would not affect their course grades and would only be conducted for research purposes. Accompanied by English teachers of the respective schools, I administered the questionnaires and the listening section and the reading-writing section of the YLE test in the classrooms of the participating students. Subsequently, for the speaking section the participants were assessed by either their respective English teacher or me, based on the speaking scoring scheme (Appendix 5). The students who did not participate or those who were not called in to be assessed were kept busy by doing a practice exercise given by their respective teacher. In the school where the English teacher was not the examiner, I did the testing in another room designated by the

school. For the students who did not participate and those whose turn for the speaking test had not come, the teachers taught English lessons as usual.

Before assessing the participants' speaking skill, I briefed eight English teachers who wished to take part in the speaking assessment on the scoring procedure. The briefing was conducted one-on-one in the teachers' respective schools. To ensure their understanding, I then asked the teachers to mark a recorded speaking section test of two students participating in the pilot-testing. The marking results were then compared with mine to see if there was any discrepancy in the marking. Fortunately, no wide discrepancy was identified.

The administration of the questionnaires and test was conducted over a two-day period for each of the 24 classes in the twelve schools: in total it took me about two months to conduct the quantitative data collection. This was done in order to reduce possible boredom and fatigue the participants might face. The schools decided the exact dates and times of the administration. To make sure all participants understood all items in questionnaires, I encouraged the participants to ask for clarification. On day 1, the research participants were asked to fill out the Indonesian Children's SILL and the C-SELEQ within 40 minutes: many participants completed them in less than 30 minutes. On day 2, the participants sat the English proficiency test for the listening section and the reading-writing section within about 40 minutes followed by a one-on-one speaking test carried out for about 3-5 minutes. The approximate times included the preparation, distribution of questionnaires or test booklets, and completion of the questionnaires and test.

#### **3.4.4. Data analysis procedure**

Having collected the quantitative data, I analysed the data by using descriptive statistics, nonparametric and parametric tests, aided by Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 21. The use of the two parametric tests on the questionnaire data, which were ordinal Likert scales, is justified (Brown, 2011; Carifio & Perla, 2007; Howell, 2013; Larson-Hall, 2010; Norman, 2010) for two reasons. First, Likert scales, not Likert items, are made up of several items and accordingly the participants' responses can be treated as interval (Brown, 2011). Secondly, parametric tests are statistically robust to skewness and non-normality, which commonly occur in ordinal data within certain boundaries, such as data collected using a 5-to-7 point Likert response format (Carifio & Perla, 2007; Norman, 2010).

To address the first and second research questions, I ran descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics which included means and standard deviations provided the summary statistics of the data sets. I ran two non-parametric tests, Mann-Witney U and Kruskal-Wallis H tests, and one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to answer the third research question. One-way MANOVAs were also employed in order to deal with research questions 4a and 4b. This multivariate statistical technique provided information whether there was a significant difference between the groups of the students not only on the combined dependent variable, but also on the univariate results of each dependent variable. MANOVA was preferred instead of a series of analyses of variance because “it ‘controls’ or adjusts the risk of a type 1 error” (Pallant, 2011, p. 283). Another advantage of MANOVA is that it provides tests of the effect of one or more independent variables on a set of dependent variables within a single analysis. Separate one-way MANOVAs were used instead of a factorial MANOVA, because an initial test of a factorial MANOVA resulted in a violation of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices and markedly discrepant group sizes. Log-transforming non-normal variables even failed to improve the homogeneity of variance-covariance. Had the factorial test been run, robustness of the significance testing would not have been warranted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

A two-step hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to answer research question 4c. Multiple regression analysis is a widely used statistical technique to predict or explain one dependent variable (criterion) with two or more independent variables (predictors) (Hair et al., 2006). The relationship yielded by regression analysis does not, of course, suggest any causality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Self-efficacy for learning English, three learning strategies, and three control variables (i.e. gender, school location and length of study) as independent variables were used to predict the dependent variable, English proficiency.

A hierarchical regression procedure was chosen to examine the effect of a set of predictors sequentially because the predictive power of an individual predictor can be estimated above and beyond what other predictors explain (Petrocelli, 2003). Simply said, with this procedure, any possible effects of control variables can be accounted for and separated out from those of the primary predictor variables and the relative importance of each primary predictor can be explained separately. Further, with this kind of procedure, the order of predictor entry is

typically done on the basis of causal priority (Petrocelli, 2003), meaning that causes should be entered prior to effects (Cohen & Cohen, as cited in Petrocelli, 2003).

### **3.5. Qualitative phase**

The qualitative phase was intended to help explain the quantitative findings about the relationship between strategy use, self-efficacy, and proficiency. Elaboration of participants, instruments, and procedures of data collection and data analysis in the qualitative stage is presented below.

#### **3.5.1. Participants**

In the qualitative phase, stratified purposeful sampling (Patton, 2002) was used for participant selection. Twelve participants were selected for interviews on the basis of their English proficiency and self-efficacy (i.e. combination of English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy scores) obtained from the quantitative phase (see Table 3.6). The two criteria were considered to be salient characteristics which enabled a comparative analysis of the groups of the selected participants. In reference to proficiency and self-efficacy levels obtained in the quantitative phase, the participants fell into three groups: (1) high, (2) moderate, and (3) low. The high group consisted of participants with high levels of proficiency and self-efficacy: the moderate group involved those with moderate levels of proficiency and self-efficacy: and the low group included those who had low levels of proficiency and self-efficacy. The number of the interviewees seemed to be adequate to provide saturated information on the strategy use and self-efficacy of the participants, and accordingly there was no need to have additional interviewees (see section 5.4.4).

Each cohort consisted of four students, two male and two female, except the moderate cohort which had a male and three females. All the participants were eleven years old and in grade six. The participants came from four different urban and suburban primary schools. No rural primary school students were in this phase either because they or their parents did not give consent for an interview or they withdrew. The four schools offer English classes from year one, meaning that all participants had studied English for at least five years. The participants were generally from middle class and educated families, as indicated by their parents' occupation. The schools had language laboratories or multimedia rooms to support language teaching and their respective English teachers held a bachelor's degree in TESOL. The absence of participants from any rural region, low class families, and schools of poor quality

reduced the diversity of participants' backgrounds, meaning limited inference from the results.

**Table 3.6 Demographic information of the interviewees**

<b>Name</b>	<b>Proficiency</b>	<b>Self-efficacy</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Parents' occupation</b>
Nadine	high	high	female	state-owned company employee
Edi	high	high	male	state-owned company employee
Amel	high	high	female	self-employed
Ari	high	high	male	sailor
Fadil	medium	medium	female	self-employed
Joni	medium	medium	male	government employee
Nirina	medium	medium	female	government employee
Najwa	medium	medium	female	member of parliament
Natalia	low	low	female	private sector employee
Yuni	low	low	female	private sector employee
Roni	low	low	male	government employee
Bayu	low	low	male	state-owned company employee

### **3.5.2. Instrumentation**

In the qualitative phase, I collected the data through semi-structured, open ended interviews. This interview format was used to elicit in-depth information about the participants' language learning because of its flexibility in terms of topic coverage and detail depth and the degree of control (Nunan, 1992). With no predetermined responses, participants were able to provide a richer description of their strategic learning and motivational behaviours. According to A. D. Cohen (2011), a semi-structured interview enables researchers to seek further topics of interest which may have been unexpected. Researchers are also able to seek clarifications pertaining to various aspects of language learning, especially strategy use, from participants. Within strategy research traditions, semi-structured interviews can provide personalized information on learning strategy use which is not elicited from observations (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995).



The interviews in this study were guided by an interview protocol (see Appendix 9). This guide helped focus the interview and enhance the consistency of interviewing in that it ensured that relevant issues about strategy use and motivational behaviours were covered more or less systematically and with some uniformity. However, the guide still allowed for flexibility to seek further details that were salient to each individual participant. The protocol consisted of two sections; (1) questions about strategy use in specific language tasks; (2) questions about how students approach their language learning in general.

In the first section, participants were asked to think and verbalize the specific ways they would take when faced with given language tasks but were not being required to perform the tasks during the interviews. The tasks presented to the participants featured six language skills and components: reading, writing, speaking, listening, grammar, and vocabulary, as outlined in section A of the protocol. Prompts were given to obtain optimal responses from the interviewees (e.g. “Do you have specific ways which help you remember the new vocabulary words?” and “What will you do if you don’t understand words in the reading passage?”). The presence of given language tasks, although not actually performed, helped them elaborate their strategy use more accurately. According to Cohen (1987), if learners are not engaged in actual language learning or language use, learners might have difficulty in providing an accurate description of their strategic behaviors. Similarly, in their study, Oxford, Cho, Leung, and Kim (2004) noted that participants in some cases reported greater or lesser use of strategies in the absence of a task than in the presence of a task. Focusing on specific learning tasks also enabled interviewees to verbalize their task-related strategies, and not general strategic behaviors. Additionally, this kind of interview saved time and imposed less burden on the interviewees when compared with a think-aloud protocol. This interview format was modelled on the interview which has been successfully used in strategy research by O’Malley, Chamot, et al. (1985) and Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1986).

In this current study, however, I was occasionally insistent and urged the interviewees to reply, although I did not direct them to give or choose certain answers. In particular, this happened when the interviewees did not seem to have any idea how to answer the questions: I found I had to remind them of the nature of the tasks. This kind of interview should be carried out with caution, particularly for young learners, in order to lead to fruitful but ethical interviewing.

In the second section, the participants were asked to describe how they generally approached their English learning. The participants were prompted with questions such as “Have you ever got a bad score or been unable to answer your teacher’s questions? If yes, what did you feel then? What did you do to overcome such feeling?” Although question prompts were used, follow-up questions were raised to probe further the participants’ strategic and motivational behaviours as the interview proceeded.

The interview protocol was tried out in order to find out any possible problems or limitations within the interview design and to help predict the length of interview time needed in the main research project. The pilot-test involved interviews with two sixth graders who did not participate in the main research project and indicated that, in general, the young interviewees were able to comprehend the questions posed to them, despite occasional repeating of questions.

### **3.5.3. Data collection procedure**

Having selected the potential participants, I made school-visits and met them individually to confirm their willingness to be interviewed and arrange with their respective schools the schedule and place for interview sessions. When I met the participants, I advised them again that taking part in this research was voluntary and they were allowed to end the interview any time and refuse to answer questions. They were also informed that their personal identity would be kept confidential; pseudonyms and ID codes replaced their name and school.

On the schools’ request, and with participants’ permission, the interviews were conducted in the respective schools on the dates scheduled. The school teachers helped arrange language laboratories or multimedia rooms as the interview room to reduce the external noise and other distractors. Most of the interview sessions took place smoothly and with little disruptions except Joni’s and Roni’s interviews that were affected by the noise from an event outside the interview room. However, the noise did not bring about serious effects on the quality of the interviewing process; the transcription process was not hampered either because the interviewees and I simply spoke louder than normal.

The participants were interviewed on topics that were based on the interview protocol. Prior to posing the questions, I told the participants about the purpose of the interview. I also told them that the interview was not an examination and asked them to be at ease. The interviews lasted approximately for 30 minutes, except for the interviews of three participants, Yuni,

Roni and Edi, which took some 21, 42 and 51 minutes respectively. The differences in the length of interview could have been due to the length of the participant's response and/or the time needed to think over the answer. With regard to the participants' limited English speaking skill, all the interviews were carried out in Indonesian to make sure the interview ran well. With the permission of the participants and their parents, the interviews were audio-recorded throughout the activity.

The interviews were conducted in a relaxed and informal way. I got to know the participants prior to the interview sessions. I wore casual clothes and sat next to the participants. I also attempted to use informal language, gave responses that involved occasional smiles and nods of the head, and provided some drinks. By doing so, I was able to build a good rapport with the participants and make them feel at ease. I occasionally repeated the questions, reworded the questions or used transitional expressions to indicate the shift from one task to another (e.g. now we'd like to go on to...) to help the interviewees understand the questions better.

#### **3.5.4. Data analysis procedure**

Prior to the data analysis, all audio digital recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim according to a transcription procedure (see Appendix 10). The transcripts were then rechecked to ensure that there were no blatant mistakes during the transcription, especially in terms of the factual information provided by the interviewees, but not on the subtle nuance of expressions as is found in conversational analysis. The re-checking of the transcripts was expected to enhance the reliability of the findings. The Indonesian transcripts were then translated into English. The transcripts were organized for secure storage and easy retrieval. The transcripts were also labelled with certain attributes about the participants, namely a pseudonym, ID code (i.e. a combination of a capital letter and numbers representing school and participant number respectively, genders, and proficiency levels (e.g. Bayu/D-63/male/low proficiency). The length of the interview and the interviewer name were also added to each transcript label (for a sample transcript, see Appendices 11a and b for English and Indonesian versions). Pseudonyms were created and used both in the transcripts and audio files to protect the interviewees' confidentiality. Only the researcher had access to the personal identity of the participants. The data were saved in a password-locked folder for the security of the data and were backed up regularly to avoid possible risk of loss and corruption.

The qualitative data were analyzed in two stages: within-case and cross-case (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The cross-case comparison was preceded by individual or within-case analyses which consisted of coding the transcripts resulting in codes, aggregating the codes into categories, and collapsing the categories into themes.

In the within-case analyses, the interview transcripts were read through repeatedly in order to become immersed in and grasp the sense of the participant’s responses. The fact that I did the transcription and translation of the dataset on my own also helped me capture an initial picture of the data. Six transcripts were then coded by labelling certain segments of the transcripts (e.g. phrases or sentences) with an initial code (codes). The coding of the six transcripts was to develop an initial codebook, as shown in Table 3.7 below. The codes labelled to the transcripts derived from the literature and emerged from the data. Using the existing literature (Yin, 2003) in some way enhanced the consistency of the coding, thereby increasing the reliability of the study. I also kept revisiting the data and the codes, so that I could be sure that the codes accurately reflected the participants’ statements.

**Table 3.7 Sample initial codebook for interview analysis**

<b>Codes</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Example</b>
Repetition or rehearsal	participants say or listen to words and functional expression over and over for automation	“reading them over and over . saying the words again and again . I read again . I read books . then I say them again and again . that is all” (Nadine, turn 188)
Linguistic inferencing	participants make sense of unknown words based on the linguistic clues	“emh (5) reading the first and the last sentence will be helpful” (Nadine, turn 72)
Seeking opportunities for practising	participants self-initiate to seek opportunities to practise L2 outside the classroom	“I get my friends to talk with me in English during recess in the school café . we then speak in English” (Edi, turn 276)

Three other transcripts were then coded using the initial codebook. Only five new codes (e.g. *mind mapping* and *using synonym*) emerged from the addition of the three transcripts, and the revision of the coding framework was made accordingly. The revised codebook was then

applied to another three transcripts, but the coding only generated two new codes (i.e. *approximating the message* and *facing away from audience*), implying that the addition of the new dataset did not provide new significant insights. During the coding processes, the codes were constantly revisited and refined, resulting in some changes in codes, reflecting the non-linear nature of qualitative analysis. For example, I broke down the code of *performance monitoring* into the codes of *comprehension monitoring* and *error monitoring*, and, conversely, I also collapsed the similar codes of *previewing titles*, *previewing instructions*, and *looking through questions* into a new code, *advance organization*.

All the codes were then related to each other and aggregated into twelve categories. The categories involved cognitive strategies, social-affective strategies, metacognitive strategies, combination of learning strategies, flexibility, purposefulness, confidence, thoughtfulness, attribution, effort, persistence, and interest. The categories were then collapsed into three themes: learning strategy choices, the way of strategy use, motivational behaviours.

Having analyzed the individual cases, I proceeded to the main analysis, cross-case comparisons. Firstly, all the codes were assembled into a case-based matrix, which displayed cases (participants and groups) according to the three themes (see Table 3.8 below for a sample cross-case comparative matrix). This matrix was developed to aid a systematic comparison of the high, moderate, and low groups. Afterwards, the description of the three themes, as presented in section 4.3, was developed to present 1) learning strategy use among the high, moderate, and low groups, 2) the way the three groups used the strategies, and 3) motivational behaviours the groups exhibited. At this step, the themes were analyzed across cases; the categories emerging from the three groups of participants were compared and contrasted to find out similarities and differences among them. Additionally, quotations were identified and used as evidence to support the categories.

**Table 3.8 Sample cross-case comparative matrix of the interview data**

Categories, subcategories and codes	High group				Moderate group				Low group				Additional information	
	H1	H2	H3	H4	M1	M2	M3	M4	L1	L2	L3	L4		
<b>Learning strategy choices</b>														
<i>Cognitive strategies</i>														
seeking help	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	Used in various tasks, lower groups too dependent on it, mostly from teacher and parents
looking up dictionaries		√		√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	Various types of dictionaries, used in various tasks, mostly preferred if no access to help-seeking, lower groups too dependent on it
guessing based on non-linguistic clues	√	√	√	√	√	√			√	√	√	√	√	Used if dictionary and help-seeking not permitted, the participants begin to be aware of nonlinguistic clues to help understand a passage
linguistic inferencing			√	√				√						High group aware of linguistic clues, have broader vocabulary, lower groups leave the question blank in the same situation
practising for instructional purposes		√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	High and moderate groups applied it to more tasks
practising for non-instructional purposes	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√						High group take various forms of practice, moderate one practise reading
using learning resources	√	√		√							√			Moderate and low groups mainly use printed resources,



### **3.6. Conclusion**

This chapter has delineated the steps for undertaking the current study. This study aimed to look into the Indonesian EFL primary school students' strategy use and self-efficacy and mainly to determine if their strategy use, self-efficacy beliefs, and proficiency are related each other. To this end, a sequential mixed methods design was employed. In the quantitative phase, 522 sixth graders enrolled in twelve primary schools located in the Indonesian province of East Java took part. Prior to taking part in this study, the sixth graders, as well as their parents, signed consent forms indicating their willingness to be the participants. The participants filled out the Indonesian Children's SILL and C-SELEQ and sat an English test. Both questionnaires were factor-analysed to increase their construct validity. The results of the two questionnaires and the test were then analysed by using both descriptive and inferential statistics. In the qualitative phase, twelve participants with different proficiency levels were interviewed. The interview data were then cross-case analysed. The results obtained from both the quantitative and qualitative data analyses will be described in the next chapter.



## **CHAPTER 4**

# **RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS**

---

### **4.1. Introduction**

This chapter sets out the results generated from the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. It consists of three sections: quantitative results (4.2), qualitative results (4.3), and integration of both sets of results (4.4). The quantitative results section covers four parts presented in line with the order of the research questions. I elaborate the learning strategies the Indonesian EFL primary school students reported using and the degree of English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy they had. I also provide the results of the statistical analysis undertaken to determine whether there were differences in strategy use and self-efficacy between male and female students, between students in rural, suburban, and urban school, whether there were any significant differences in learning strategy use among students with different levels of proficiency and self-efficacy, and whether self-efficacy and learning strategies were predictive of proficiency.

The qualitative results section presents findings obtained from the analysis of the interview data collected from twelve participants whose proficiency and self-efficacy levels were high, moderate, and low. Various language learning strategies identified across the three groups are described, and then the ways the participants of the three groups employed their strategies are presented. The results on motivational behaviours which could be indicators of self-efficacy beliefs of the three groups are also given.

In this chapter there is a report of the synthesis of the results of the quantitative and qualitative analyses. This integration is a distinctive feature of the mixed methods approach that was employed in this current study. The last part of this chapter sums the main points made (4.5).

### **4.2. Quantitative results**

#### **4.2.1. Language learning strategy use frequency**

This section focuses on the reported frequency of strategy use to address the first research question, “What language learning strategies do the EFL Indonesian primary school students

report using?” It presents descriptive data of reported strategy use elicited from the Indonesian Children’s SILL completed by 522 participants by providing: (1) the frequencies of strategy use at category level and (2) the five most and least frequent strategy items used by all participants and among the participants of different proficiency.

#### 4.2.1.1. Learning strategy use frequency among all participants

Oxford’s (1990) labelling of frequency range was employed to determine the level of participants’ learning strategy use. The labelling covers the range of 1.0-2.4 as low use, 2.5-3.4 as medium use, and 3.5-5.0 as high use. As noted earlier, the analysis of strategy frequency was based on the result of the EFA, with three categories and 16 items. The items deleted in the factor analysis were no longer used in any further analysis.

The survey data (Table 4.1) showed medium-to-high frequency use of learning strategies at category level by all participants regardless of their proficiency. The socio-affective category was reported the most frequently used, with the mean score of 4.0. The metacognitive category (mean = 3.7) was the second most preferred: the cognitive category (mean = 3.1) was the least preferred. For overall strategy categories, the mean score of 3.6 indicates that the participants used learning strategies at the lower end of high level. Standard deviations on the three strategy categories and overall strategies ranging from .63 to .84 showed that the differences in use frequency among the participants were not widely discrepant.

**Table 4.1 Frequency of learning strategy use by categories among all participants**

Strategy categories	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Label
Cognitive	3.1	.72	medium use
Metacognitive	3.7	.84	high use
Socio-affective	4.0	.76	high use
Overall strategies	3.6	.63	high use

Note: *M* (mean), *SD* (standard deviation)

Looking at the most and least frequently used strategy items across the three strategy categories sheds light on the frequency patterns of the participants’ strategy use. The five most frequently used strategies were *seeking help* (item 10), *practising with classmates* (item 13), *praising oneself* (item 11), *asking others to repeat or speak slowly* (item 12), and *analysing errors and trying not to repeat them* (item 16), with mean scores of ranging from 3.9 to 4.0 (Table 4.2). Despite the high use, the frequencies of the five strategies by the

participants showed discrepancies, as is indicated by their standard deviations (i.e. 1.00 to 1.08). The first four strategies were socio-affective strategies, whereas the last was a metacognitive strategy. It seems quite normal that the young participants would *seek help* from others, especially help from adults or peers with better proficiency levels, when they encountered unknown words or other language learning difficulties. Heavy reliance on this strategy might be because it is simple and provides instant solutions. High reported use of *practising with classmates* could be because the learners usually did their homework together. In contrast, the frequent use of *praising oneself* seems surprising in that it suggests the young participants' strong awareness of self-motivation. This strategy could be of help to learners in recognizing their personal effort and building more confidence for subsequent task performances. Likewise, the participants' reported use of the strategy of *asking others to repeat or speak slowly* is interesting as its high use might imply the participants' developing the ability to monitor their understanding while communicating with others. This strategy use also reflects the participants' high confidence and awareness of ways of seeking better comprehension. It is noteworthy that the students also reported using a metacognitive strategy, namely analysing *errors and trying not to repeat them*. The frequent use of this strategy suggests that the young learners attempted to monitor and evaluate their learning processes.

**Table 4.2 Five most frequent learning strategy items among all participants**

Categories	Item	Strategy items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Socio-affective	13	I practise English with my classmates	4.0	1.02
	11	When I succeed, I congratulate myself	4.0	1.07
	10	When I don't know a word in English, I ask for help	4.0	1.00
	12	I ask others to speak slowly or to repeat what they say if I do not understand.	3.9	1.01
Metacognitive	16	I analyze the errors I have made and try not to repeat them	4.0	1.08

Note: *M* (mean), *SD* (standard deviation)

The five strategies least frequently used were cognitive strategies. Table 4.3 indicates that the least frequently used strategies had mean scores of 2.5 to 3.2 and standard deviations of .95 to 1.14, indicating that the strategies still fall into medium use and their frequency differences are fairly wide. The least frequently used strategy was *finding opportunities to practise*

*outside classroom* (item 2). This is possibly because of the students' lack of ability to self-regulate their learning, particularly in terms of taking initiative to seek or even create chances to practise English outside the classroom. *Reading books or playing computer games in English* (item 3) was also one of the least frequently used strategies. The participants did not often use the strategy quite possibly because they had minimal access to learning resources, especially those learners living in rural regions. Three cognitive strategies focusing on memorizing words, namely *associating words with background knowledge* (item 4 and 5) and *mental imagery* (item 1) were also reported to be less frequently used.

**Table 4.3 Five least frequent learning strategy items among all participants**

Categories	Item	Strategy items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Cognitive	4	I associate new English words with what I already know	3.2	.95
	1	I make a drawing in my head to help me remember a new word	2.9	1.15
	5	I associate the sound of a new English word with a sound of a word that I already know	3.1	1.05
	3	I read books or I play computer games in English	3.1	1.10
	2	I try to find opportunities outside of school to practise my English	2.5	1.14

---

Note: *M* (mean), *SD* (standard deviation)

#### **4.2.1.2. Learning strategy use among participants of different proficiency levels**

Table 4.4 below indicates the learning strategy preference by category among the low, moderate, and high groups. In the low group, the socio-affective category ( $M = 3.6$ ) was the most frequent and were in high use. The metacognitive category ( $M = 3.3$ ) was the second most frequently used and the cognitive category ( $M = 2.8$ ) was the least favoured. The moderate proficiency students used both the socio-affective and metacognitive categories as the first and second most preferred strategies: the mean scores were 4.1 and 3.8 respectively, and are considered high use. The cognitive category was less frequently used, with a mean of

3.2 which is considered moderate use. In the high proficiency group, two strategy categories (i.e. socio-affective and metacognitive) were reportedly used with high frequency, the former being the most frequently used. The mean scores of the the frequency use of the two strategies were 4.2 and 4.0 respectively. The cognitive category was moderately frequently used and was identified as the least preferred, of which the mean was 3.3. This description suggests that the most and least frequently used strategy categories were similar among the three groups, irrespective of their different mean score. Whether the differences in strategy use are significant is discussed in section 4.2.5.1 with the multivariate analysis of variance results.

**Table 4.4 Learning strategy use by category among participants of different proficiency levels**

Strategy categories	Low (n = 180)		Moderate (n = 177)		High (n = 165)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Cognitive	2.8	.67	3.2	.70	3.3	.66
Metacognitive	3.3	.84	3.8	.83	4.0	.66
Socio-affective	3.6	.84	4.1	.59	4.2	.59

Note: *M* (mean), *SD* (standard deviation)

#### **4.2.1.3. The five most and least frequently used learning strategies**

In general, the participants of different proficiency levels shared common preferences in learning strategy items. Table 4.5 shows that the high proficiency participants' five most frequent strategies were the same as their low and moderate proficiency counterparts'. The five strategies covered *analysing errors and not repeating them* (item 16), *practising with classmates* (item 13), *praising oneself* (item 11), *seeking help* (item 10), and *asking others to speak slowly or repeat* (item 12). Mean scores for the five strategies ranged from 4.0 to 4.3 for the high group, 4.0 to 4.1 for the moderate group, and 3.5 to 3.7 for the low group. In spite of being identical in the strategy preferences, the three groups were different in the frequency of the strategy use, as reflected by the mean scores. More specifically, the higher proficiency students used the strategies at a higher frequency than their lower proficiency counterparts.

**Table 4.5 Five most used learning strategies among the participants of different proficiency levels**

Proficiency	Item	Strategy items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Low	10	When I don't know a word in English, I ask for help	3.7	1.12
	11	When I succeed, I congratulate myself	3.7	1.06
	16	I analyze the errors I have made and try not to repeat them	3.6	1.13
	13	I practise English with my classmates	3.6	1.10
	12	I ask others to speak slowly or to repeat what they say if I do not understand	3.5	1.14
Moderate	10	When I don't know a word in English, I ask for help	4.1	.92
	11	When I succeed, I congratulate myself	4.1	1.00
	13	I practise English with my classmates	4.1	1.02
	16	I analyze the errors I have made and try not to repeat them	4.1	1.08
	12	I ask others to speak slowly or to repeat what they say if I do not understand	4.0	.94
High	16	I analyze the errors I have made and try not to repeat them	4.3	.89
	13	I practise English with my classmates	4.3	.76
	11	When I succeed, I congratulate myself	4.2	1.10
	10	When I don't know a word in English, I ask for help	4.1	.90
	12	I ask others to speak slowly or to repeat what they say if I do not understand	4.0	.82

Note: *M* (mean), *SD* (standard deviation)

Table 4.6 indicates that the least frequently used strategies were also quite similar for the participants regardless of proficiency level. The strategies of *associating sounds with prior*

*knowledge* (item 5), *understanding without translating word for word* (item 8), *associating words with prior knowledge* (item 4), *mental imagery* (item 1), and *seeking practice opportunities outside of school* (item 2) fell into the five least favoured among the low and moderate proficiency students. Strategy items 1, 2, 4, and 5 also occurred least frequently among the high proficiency students. Another strategy not frequently used by the high proficiency students was *reading books or playing computer games in English* (item 3), while the other strategy less frequently used by the moderate and low proficiency students was *understanding without translating word for word* (item 8). For the three groups, although the least frequently used strategies were nearly the same, their frequency levels were relatively different, as indicated by their mean scores. To be specific, the mean scores of the reported strategy use ranged from 2.1 to 2.8 for the low proficiency students, 2.7 to 3.3 for those with moderate proficiency, and 2.9 to 3.4 for the high proficiency. Obvious differences were evident between the low and high proficiency students, but not between the high and moderate.

**Table 4.6 Five least used learning strategies among participants of different proficiency levels**

Proficiency	Item	Strategy items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Low	5	I associate the sound of a new English word with a sound of a word that I already know	2.8	1.04
	8	I try to understand what I read or what I hear without translating word for word	2.8	.88
	4	I associate new English words with what I already know	2.8	.88
	1	I make a drawing in my head to help me remember a new word	2.6	1.12
	2	I try to find opportunities outside of school (sports, extracurricular activities, etc.) to practise my English	2.1	1.00
Moderate	8	I try to understand what I read or what I hear without translating word for word	3.3	1.08
	4	I associate new English words with what I already know	3.2	.98
	5	I associate the sound of a new English word with a sound of a word that I already know	3.2	1.03
	1	I make a drawing in my head to help me remember a new word	3.0	1.13
	2	I try to find opportunities outside of school (sports, extracurricular activities, etc.) to practise my English	2.7	1.12
High	4	I associate new English words with what I already know	3.4	.90
	5	I associate the sound of a new English word with a sound of a word that I already know	3.3	1.02
	1	I make a drawing in my head to help me remember a new word	3.3	1.05
	3	I read books or I play computer games in English	3.2	1.08
	2	I try to find opportunities outside of school (sports, extracurricular activities, etc.) to practise my English	2.9	1.13

Note: *M* (mean), *SD* (standard deviation)

#### **4.2.2. Self-efficacy beliefs in learning English**

This section provides results of the descriptive statistics in response to the second research question, “To what extent do the students have self-efficacy in English and self-regulated



learning?” As described in the previous chapter, the participants’ self-efficacy was assessed through the C-SELEQ. The questionnaire consisted of two subscales. After being factor-analyzed, the first subscale had 8 items measuring self-efficacy in performing specific English tasks, and the second included 5 items measuring self- efficacy in regulating their own learning. The responses to both subscales provided by the participants were then calculated to show their degree of self-efficacy.

Table 4.7 below displays means and standard deviations of the Indonesian EFL primary school students’ self-efficacy beliefs. On a 5-point scale, the scores of the first subscale ranged from 1.2 to 5. The average score for the first subscale was 3.8 and the standard deviation was .66, implying that the participants had fairly high English self-efficacy. Simply said, they were relatively confident that they could complete particular English tasks. The second subscale had a mean score of 3.8 and standard deviation of .64, with a score range of 1.3 to 5. It suggests that the participants felt confident with their ability to regulate their own learning. Taken together, the participants had strong self-efficacy for learning English, as indicated by the total score mean of 3.8.

**Table 4.7 Self-efficacy for learning English**

<b>Subscales</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>
English self-efficacy	3.8	.66	1.2	5
Self-regulated learning efficacy	3.8	.64	1.3	5
Overall mean score	3.8	.65		

#### **4.2.3. Differences in language learning strategies across gender and school location**

This section presents the results of Mann-Whitney U tests and MANOVAs to answer the third research question, namely whether there were differences in strategy use and self-efficacy as a function of gender and school location.

##### **4.2.3.1. Learning strategy differences between female and male students**

Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted to examine if female (n = 325) and male (n = 197) students differed in the use of cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive strategy categories. Through a visual inspection of histograms, the distributions of the use frequencies of the three categories were fairly similarly shaped, allowing for a comparison of the median

of strategy use for the two groups. Female students ( $Md = 3.22$ ) were significantly more frequent in cognitive strategy use than male students ( $Md = 3.00$ ),  $U = 26574$ ,  $z = -3259$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $r = .14$ . Female students ( $Md = 4.25$ ) were also greater for the frequency of socio-affective strategy use than male students ( $Md = 4.00$ ),  $U = 28353$ ,  $z = -2.205$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $r = .10$ . However, there was no significant difference in the frequency of metacognitive strategies between female ( $Md = 3.67$ ) and male students ( $Md = 4.00$ ),  $U = 29159$ ,  $z = -1.721$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $r = .07$ .

#### **4.2.3.2. Learning strategy differences between rural, suburban, and urban students**

Multiple Kruskal-Wallis H tests were also run to determine whether there were significant differences in the use of the three strategy categories between students enrolled in rural ( $n = 81$ ), suburban ( $n = 203$ ), and urban schools ( $n = 238$ ). As assessed by visual inspections of boxplots, the distributions of the strategy use frequencies were reasonably similar. The difference in the median of cognitive strategy frequencies was statistically significant for the rural ( $Md = 2.78$ ), suburban ( $Md = 3.33$ ), urban students ( $Md = 3.22$ ),  $X^2(2) = 28.603$ ,  $p < .01$ . Having determined the significant difference, multiple comparisons using Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted in order to see where the difference actually lay in the three groups. With a Bonferroni correction, the comparisons showed that the medians were significantly different between rural and suburban students ( $p < .01$ ,  $r = .30$ ) and between rural and urban students ( $p < .01$ ,  $r = .21$ ). The significant differences represented a moderate effect size for the rural-suburban students and a small one for rural-urban students, as indicated by the  $r$  values. However, no significant difference was observed between suburban and urban students ( $p > .05$ ,  $r = .03$ ).

There was also a statistically significant difference in socio-affective strategy use across the students from the three different school locations,  $X^2(2) = 18.686$ ,  $p < .01$ . The urban students had a higher median ( $4.25$ ) than both rural students ( $Md = 3.50$ ) and suburban students ( $Md = 4.00$ ). A post hoc analysis with a Bonferroni correction revealed statistically significant differences in the medians of the socio-affective strategy use between rural and suburban students ( $p < .01$ ,  $r = .20$ ) and between rural and urban students ( $p < .01$ ,  $r = .27$ ), but not between suburban and urban students ( $p > .05$ ,  $r = .05$ ).

A similar result was obtained in the comparison of metacognitive strategy use between the three student groups,  $X^2(2) = 49.736$ ,  $p < .01$ . In the follow-up multiple comparison analyses, rural students ( $Md = 3.00$ ) had significantly lower metacognitive strategy use than suburban

students ( $Md = 3.67$ ),  $p < .01$ ,  $r = .30$ . The rural students also reported significantly lower metacognitive strategy use than their urban counterparts ( $Md = 4.00$ ), at  $p < .01$ ,  $r = .40$ . The observed differences indicated moderate effect sizes. Meanwhile, the difference between suburban ( $Md = 3.67$ ) and urban students ( $Md = 4.00$ ) was not significant,  $p > .05$ ,  $r = .05$ .

#### **4.2.4. Self-efficacy beliefs across gender and school location**

The results presented in this section are also used to address research question 3, specifically differences in self-efficacy according to gender and school location.

##### **4.2.4.1. Differences in self-efficacy between female and male students**

One-way MANOVA was run to compare both the mean scores of English self-efficacy and those of self-regulated learning efficacy for male and female students. Prior to conducting the MANOVA, outlier detection and assumption evaluations were performed. Observations belonged to the groups: male ( $n = 197$ ) and female ( $n = 325$ ). As assessed by an outlier labelling rule of Hoaglin, Iglewicz, and Tukey (1986), no univariate outliers were detected in either of the two groups in the two self-efficacy scores. Similarly, there was no multivariate outlier detected, as measured by Mahalanobis  $D^2$  at  $p < .001$ . Based on the visual assessment of histograms, the two scores showed an approximately normal distribution. Scatterplots did not indicate any curvilinear shapes and all pairs of the dependent variables in the three groups were linearly related. For the homogeneity of variance-covariance assumption, the Box's M test value of .379, at  $p = .945$  which was not significant, showed that the entire variance-covariance matrices were equal across the groups, meaning that the assumption was met.

There was a statistically significant difference in the combined scores of English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy across gender,  $F(2, 519) = 6.549$ ,  $p = .002$ ; Pillai's Trace = .025, partial  $\eta^2 = .025$ . Using a Bonferroni adjusted  $\alpha$  level of .025, follow-up univariate ANOVAs revealed that both English self-efficacy ( $F(1, 520) = 10.569$ ;  $p = .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .02$ ) and self-regulated learning efficacy ( $F(1, 520) = 10.782$ ;  $p = .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .02$ ) were statistically significantly different between female and male students, in favour of female students (see Table 4.8). The significant differences suggest that female students felt more confident in the capability both in performing English tasks and regulating their own learning than their male counterparts.

**Table 4.8 One-way ANOVAs with self-efficacy as dependent variables and gender as an independent variable**

Variable	Levene's		ANOVA		Partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ )
	F (1, 520)	<i>p</i>	F (1, 520)	<i>p</i>	
English self-efficacy	.937	.334	10.569	.001	.02
Self-regulated learning efficacy	.026	.872	10.782	.001	.02

#### 4.2.4.2. Differences in self-efficacy between rural, suburban, and urban students

A one-way MANOVA was used to examine if students who came from rural ( $n = 81$ ), suburban ( $n = 203$ ), and urban schools ( $n = 238$ ) differed in their English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy. In preliminary analyses, neither univariate nor multivariate outliers were present in the three groups of students. The two dependent variables (i.e. English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy) in the three groups showed normal distribution and linear relationship. The assumption of the homogeneity of variance-covariance was also met, as indicated by the Box's M test value of 10.161 at  $p > .05$ .

The results of the analysis revealed that the students from schools of different regions differed in the overall self-efficacy scores,  $F(4, 1038) = 13.220, p < .0001$ ; Pillai's Trace = .097. As the partial eta squared showed, the effect of school location on self-efficacy was only 5%, which was small. Having noted the significant difference, analyses of variance were done to spot where the significant difference existed among the three groups of students. As Table 4.9 demonstrates, the result of the Levene's test was significant for both English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy, indicating that the assumption of equality of variance was met. The one-way ANOVAs showed that the significant difference lay in both English self-efficacy ( $F(2, 519) = 20.411; p < .0001$ ) and self-regulated learning efficacy ( $F(2, 519) = 8.450; p < .0001$ ). The effect of school location on English self-efficacy (partial  $\eta^2 = .032$ ) was greater than on self-regulated learning efficacy, which was 7 % and 3 % respectively.

**Table 4.9 One-way ANOVAs with self-efficacy as dependent variables and school location as an independent variable**

Variable	Levene's		ANOVA		Partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ )
	F (2, 519)	<i>p</i>	F (2, 519)	<i>p</i>	
English self-efficacy	2.914	.055	20.411	.000	<b>.073</b>
Self-regulated learning efficacy	.493	.611	8.450	.000	<b>.032</b>

Following the significant results of the ANOVAs, LSD post-hoc tests were run to locate the significant mean differences of the two self-efficacy scores between the three student groups. Table 4.10 indicates that average scores for English self-efficacy differed significantly between students from rural and suburban schools, between those from rural and urban schools, and between those from suburban and urban schools ( $p < .05$ ). In a similar but not identical pattern, there were statistically significant differences in self-regulated learning efficacy between rural and suburban students, between rural and urban students ( $p < .05$ ), but not between suburban and urban students. The linear trends suggest that students enrolled in urban primary schools felt more confident in their capability to do English tasks than those in rural and suburban schools; and those in suburban schools were more confident in their ability to perform English tasks than those in rural schools. Urban and suburban students also had higher confidence in their ability to self-regulate their English learning than rural students did.

**Table 4.10 Mean scores, standard deviations, and mean differences for self-efficacy as a function of school location**

Variable	R	S	U	Mean difference		
	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	R vs S	R vs U	S vs U
English self-efficacy	3.39 (.67)	3.69 (.68)	3.90 (.59)	-.31*	-.51*	-.31*
Self-regulated learning efficacy	3.61 (.62)	3.94 (.65)	3.91 (.65)	-.36*	-.30*	.03

Note: R (rural students), S (suburban students), U (urban students), *M* (mean scores), *SD* (standard deviation), \*  $p < .05$

#### **4.2.5. Differences in language learning strategies across proficiency and self-efficacy**

The results of the statistical analyses in this section address research questions 4a and 4b, whether strategy use varied by proficiency, English self-efficacy, and self-regulated learning efficacy.

##### **4.2.5.1. Learning strategy use between students with different proficiency levels**

One-way MANOVA was run to examine if there were differences in the use of cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive strategies among students with different proficiency levels: high ( $n = 180$ ), moderate ( $n = 177$ ), and low ( $n = 165$ ). To determine the proficiency level, a two-cut point of proficiency score dataset with equal percentiles (i.e. 33.33 %) was made. Scores of  $\leq 37$  were labelled low, scores of 38-49 intermediate, and scores of  $\geq 50$  high. In preliminary analyses, no univariate outliers were detected in the dataset. One observation was identified as a multivariate outlier in the moderate group, and the outlier was then deleted, leaving 176 observations in the moderate group. The three dependent variables in each of the three groups had normal distribution, except for social-affective in the moderate group being skewed. However, with respect to roughly equal sample sizes in each group and group sizes, MANOVA tests are still robust to the violation of normality (Mardia, as cited in Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The dependent variables in the three groups also had a linear relationship. For the homogeneity of variance-covariance assumption, the Box's M test value of 43.683 at  $p < .05$ , which was significant, showed the entire variance-covariance matrices were not equal across the groups, meaning that the assumption was violated. However, regarding the fairly equal sample sizes in this study, with the largest sample size being no more than 1.5 of the smallest, the violation of this assumption would not raise a serious concern nor invalidate the use of MANOVA (Hair et al., 2006).

With respect to the violation of the homogeneity of variance-covariance assumption, Pillai's Trace criterion was employed for significance testing because of its robustness to the violation (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Results from the one-way MANOVA demonstrated that there was a statistically significant difference among the students with different proficiency levels in the overall language learning strategies (cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive),  $F(6, 1034) = 17.273$ ,  $p < .0001$ ; Pillai's Trace = 0.182, partial  $\eta^2 = .091$ . Referring to J. Cohen's (1988) guideline, the partial  $\eta^2$  value suggested a moderate effect of proficiency on the overall learning strategies.

The significant result of the multivariate testing allowed for a further examination in relation to each of the dependent variables through ANOVAs. Prior to performing a series of ANOVAs, the homogeneity of variance assumption was evaluated for the three dependent variables. As can be seen in Table 4.11 below, only Levene’s test for cognitive was not significant ( $p > .05$ ), suggesting equality of variance for the variable. On the other hand, the homogeneity of variance assumptions for the two other variables, socio-affective and metacognitive ( $p < .05$ ) were not met. An examination of standard deviations, however, displayed that all the standard deviations were fairly equal, with the smallest standard deviation being far less than four times their corresponding largest (see Table 4.12), meaning that ANOVAs remained robust (Howell, 2007).

**Table 4.11 One-way ANOVAs with learning strategies as dependent variables and proficiency as an independent variable**

Variable	Levene’s		ANOVA		Partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ )
	F (2, 518)	<i>p</i>	F (2, 518)	<i>p</i>	
Cognitive	.38	.687	36.34	.000	<b>.12</b>
Socio-affective	11.1	.000	26.11	.000	<b>.09</b>
Metacognitive	5.75	.003	41.27	.000	<b>.14</b>

Multiple one-way ANOVAs were performed as follow-up tests to the MANOVA to pinpoint where significant differences lay among the proficiency groups. As can be seen in Table 4.11, with a Bonferoni-adjusted alpha level of .017, proficiency had a statistically significant effect on cognitive ( $F(2, 518) = 36.34; p < .0001$ ; partial  $\eta^2 = .12$ ), on socio-affective ( $F(2, 518) = 26.11; p < .0001$ ; partial  $\eta^2 = .09$ ), and on metacognitive ( $F(2, 518) = 41.27; p < .0001$ ; partial  $\eta^2 = .14$ ). Using J. Cohen’s (1988) guideline, the partial  $\eta^2$  in the univariate results indicated that proficiency had a moderate effect on cognitive and socio-affective, and a large effect on metacognitive.

The multiple ANOVAs with their significant results were followed up with Tukey’s HSD post-hoc tests to identify significant mean differences in the strategy categories among the three proficiency groups. Table 4.12 below shows that mean scores for cognitive were statistically significantly different between the low and moderate groups, and between the low and high groups ( $p < .05$ ). The mean scores of socio-affective differed significantly

between low and moderate and between low and high ( $p < .05$ ), but not between the moderate and high groups. Mean scores of metacognitive were statistically significantly different between the low and moderate, between the low and high, and between the moderate and high groups ( $p < .05$ ). The trend of the significant difference was linear, implying that students with moderate and high proficiency tended to use cognitive and socio-affective strategies more frequently than their low proficiency counterparts. High proficiency students were also more frequent in their metacognitive strategy use than moderate and low proficiency students; and moderate students also used metacognitive strategies more than low proficiency students did.

**Table 4.12 Mean scores, standard deviations, and mean differences for learning strategies as a function of proficiency**

Variable	L	M	H	Mean difference		
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	L vs M	L vs H	M vs H
Cognitive	2.79 (.67)	3.24 (.71)	3.39 (.68)	-.45*	-.60*	-.15*
Socio-affective	3.64 (.84)	4.09 (.72)	4.16 (.59)	-.45*	-.52*	-.07
Metacognitive	3.30 (.84)	3.80 (.83)	4.04 (.66)	-.51*	-.75*	-.24*

Note: L (low group), M (moderate group), H (high group), *M* (mean scores), *SD* (standard deviation), \*  $p < .05$

#### 4.2.5.2. Learning strategy use between students with different English self-efficacy levels

To examine whether there were significant differences in strategy use as a function of English self-efficacy, I ran the same statistical procedure as was used for strategy use by proficiency, namely one-way MANOVA. Cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive strategies were dependent variables, and English self-efficacy was an independent variable. Preliminary analysis showed that two out of 522 cases were observed as multivariate outliers and they were then removed from the dataset, leaving 520 available for the main analysis. The 520 cases consisted of 194 belonging to the low group, 156 to the moderate group, and 170 to the high group. The grouping was based on the results of a two-cut point of English self-efficacy scores, with  $\leq 3.5$  as low, 3.6-4.0 as moderate, and  $\geq 4.1$  as high for English self-efficacy



levels. The dependent variables had reasonably normal distribution and linearity. With the Box's M test value of 56.339 at  $p < .05$ , the assumption of the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices was not met, but it was not a serious issue given the relatively equal sample sizes.

The multivariate test indicated a significant main effect of English self-efficacy beliefs on the three learning strategies when the strategies were considered collectively,  $F(6, 1032) = 35.767$ ,  $p < .0001$ , Pillai's Trace = .344, partial  $\eta^2 = .172$ . The significant main effect means that learning strategy use varied significantly between the three groups with different English self-efficacy levels. The partial  $\eta^2$  value suggested a large effect of English self-efficacy on the combined strategies, according to J. Cohen's (1988) guideline.

The significant multivariate test result warranted the use of a multiple ANOVAs in order to locate where significant differences existed. Results of the multiple ANOVAs are presented in Table 4.13. Prior to running the univariate test, the assumption of variance was evaluated. Results of Levene's tests on socio-affective and metacognitive were significant, meaning that the assumption was not met. Despite the violation of the assumption, ANOVA was still robust because of nearly equal standard deviations of the dependent variables (see Table 4.14) (Howell, 2007). Follow-up ANOVAs (Table 4.13 below), using a Bonferoni correction, indicated that effects of English self-efficacy beliefs were significant for cognitive ( $F(2, 517) = 117.07$ ;  $p < .0001$ ; partial  $\eta^2 = .31$ ), socio-affective ( $F(2, 517) = 33.25$ ;  $p < .0001$ ; partial  $\eta^2 = .11$ ), and metacognitive ( $F(2, 517) = 55.59$ ;  $p < .0001$ ; partial  $\eta^2 = .18$ ). Referring to Cohen's (1988) guideline, effect sizes of English self-efficacy, represented by partial  $\eta^2$ , were large for cognitive and metacognitive, and moderate for socio-affective.

**Table 4.13 One-way ANOVAs with learning strategies as dependent variables and English self-efficacy as an independent variable**

Variable	Levene's		ANOVA		Partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ )
	$F(2, 517)$	$p$	$F(2, 517)$	$p$	
Cognitive	.64	.53	117.07	.000	<b>.31</b>
Socio-affective	12.40	.00	33.25	.000	<b>.11</b>
Metacognitive	2.99	.05	55.59	.000	<b>.18</b>

Subsequent to the univariate significant results, LSD post-hoc tests were run to spot significant mean differences in the three strategies between the three groups of varying English self-efficacy. As is evident in Table 4.14 below, cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive differed between the low and moderate, the low and high and, the moderate and high groups at  $p < .05$ . The significant mean difference reflected a linear trend. This means that students of high English self-efficacy were likely to use cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive strategies more often than their lower English self-efficacy counterparts, and that students with moderate English self-efficacy tended to use those three strategies more frequently than those with low efficacy did.

**Table 4.14 Mean scores, standard deviations, and mean differences for learning strategies as a function of English self-efficacy**

Variable	L	M	H	Mean difference		
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	L vs M	L vs H	M vs H
Cognitive	2.69 (.60)	3.10 (.64)	3.66 (.59)	-.41*	-.97*	-.56*
Socio-affective	3.64 (.84)	4.04 (.69)	4.24 (.58)	-.40*	-.60*	-.20*
Metacognitive	3.32 (.83)	3.68 (.78)	4.17 (.68)	-.36*	-.85*	-.49*

Note: L (low group), M (moderate group), H (high group), *M* (mean scores), *SD* (standard deviation), \*  $p < .05$

#### **4.2.5.3. Learning strategy use between students of different self-regulated learning efficacy levels**

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to assess whether there were differences in learning strategies (i.e. cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive) between the three groups of varying self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulated learning. Students with the self-regulated learning efficacy score of  $\leq 3.6$  were labeled low, those with the scores of 3.7-4.2 moderate, and those with the scores of  $\geq 4.3$  high. Just as with the previous MANOVAs, the assumptions of normality, linearity, and variance-covariance matrices were checked. Only the assumption of variance-covariance matrices was not met, as indicated by the Box's M test

value of 41.347 at  $p < .05$ . Detected outliers were deleted, leaving 175 cases remaining in the low group, 183 in the moderate group, and 158 in the high group.

The main effect of self-regulated learning efficacy was significant for the linear combination of the three strategy categories,  $F(6, 1032) = 31.774, p < .0001$ , Pillai's Trace = .312, partial  $\eta^2 = .16$ . The partial  $\eta^2$  showed that 16 % of variation in the learning strategy categories was accounted for by self-regulated learning efficacy, which is large according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines.

Prior to running a series of ANOVAs, the equality of variance assumption was evaluated. Levene's F tests showed that the equality of variance assumption in the three dependent variables was violated ( $p < .05$ ). Although the assumption was violated, no standard deviations were three times greater than their corresponding standard deviations, meaning that the robustness of univariate analysis of variance is warranted (Howell, 2007). Multiple ANOVA results (Table 4.15 below) showed that self-regulated learning efficacy had a significant effect on cognitive ( $F(2, 517) = 95.531; p < .0001$ ; partial  $\eta^2 = .27$ ), socio-affective ( $F(2, 517) = 35.107; p < .0001$ ; partial  $\eta^2 = .12$ ), and metacognitive ( $F(2, 517) = 53.338; p < .0001$ ; partial  $\eta^2 = .17$ ) strategy use. Using Cohen's (1988) guideline, the effect size of self-regulated learning efficacy was large for cognitive (partial  $\eta^2 = .27$ ) and metacognitive (partial  $\eta^2 = .17$ ), and moderate for socio-affective (partial  $\eta^2 = .12$ ).

**Table 4.15 One-way ANOVAs with learning strategies as dependent variables and self-regulated learning efficacy as independent variable**

Variable	Levene's		ANOVA		Partial eta squared ( $\eta^2$ )
	F (2, 517)	p	F (2, 517)	p	
Cognitive	4.649	.01	95.531	.000	.27
Socio-affective	9.634	.00	35.107	.000	.12
Metacognitive	1.887	.15	53.338	.000	.17

Finally, LSD post-hoc analyses were conducted to look into individual mean differences in the three learning strategies across the three groups with different self-regulated learning efficacy. Results of mean comparisons (Table 4.16) revealed that significant differences were obtained between the low, moderate, and high groups in the three strategy categories ( $p < .05$ ), except between the moderate and high groups in the socio-affective category ( $p > .05$ ).

**Table 4.16 Mean scores, standard deviations, and mean differences for learning strategies as a function of self-regulated learning efficacy**

Variable	L	M	H	Mean difference		
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>	L vs M	L vs H	M vs H
Cognitive	2.72 (.69)	3.17 (.53)	3.64 (.63)	-.45*	-.93*	-.47*
Socio-affective	3.63 (.82)	4.10 (.61)	4.23 (.68)	-.47*	-.60*	-.13
Metacognitive	3.31 (.81)	3.77 (.75)	4.15 (.74)	-.46*	-.85*	-.39*

Note: L (low group), M (moderate group), H (high group), *M* (mean scores), *SD* (standard deviation), \*  $p < .05$

#### 4.2.6. Predicting proficiency from self-efficacy and learning strategies

A two-step hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to address research question 4c, that is, whether English proficiency could be predicted as a function of self-efficacy and learning strategies when gender, school location, and length of English study variables were controlled. In this multiple regression analysis, proficiency was the criterion variable while gender, school location, length of English study, self-efficacy, and learning strategies were predictors. Gender, school location, and length of English study, which are believed to be associated with English proficiency, were entered into model 1 of the regression as control variables. In model 2, four primary variables of interest consisting of cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive, and self-efficacy for learning English were added to the regression equation. Self-efficacy for learning English was a combined variable of both English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy scores. It should be noted that combining the two self-efficacy scores into a single index was done because of the strong correlation between the two scores ( $r = .635$ ). This decision was made based on an initial run of hierarchical multiple regression analysis with English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy being treated as separate variables which indicated multicollinearity despite the variance inflation factor (VIF) values being well below the rule of thumb,  $> 10$ .

Prior to the multiple regression analysis, outliers and assumptions were evaluated. No observations were identified as outliers, meaning that all cases of 522 were involved in

further analyses. That all VIF values were well below the threshold of 10 in which the highest value of VIF was 1.72 means that no values were indicative of problematic collinearity. Scatterplots revealed that most residuals randomly scattered along the 0 point and formed an approximate rectangle, suggesting that the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were met. The value of Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.59, which was fairly close to the rule of thumb of 2 (Field, 2013), suggests that residual terms were not of alarm; therefore, the independence assumption seemed to be met.

A zero order correlation analysis between multiple regression variables was then performed to provide an initial idea of the relationship among the regression variables. Results of the inter-correlation analysis are reported in Table 4.17 below. The analysis showed that despite the significance of most correlations between the criterion and predictors and among the predictors, all correlation coefficients were below the high correlation cut-off point of .70 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Proficiency was significantly correlated with all predictor variables except gender, with  $r = .215$  to  $r = .486$ . This means that students who were more proficient were those who had studied English longer, those who had higher self-efficacy, as well as those who reported using cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive strategies more frequently. Students who studied in urban schools also tended to have better proficiency than those in rural and suburban schools. Significant correlations were also found between the predictor variables, except between school location and gender, and between length of English study and self-efficacy for learning English, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The significant correlations suggest that students who had stronger beliefs in their ability to learn English tended to report more frequent use of metacognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies; those who studied in urban schools were more likely to have higher self-efficacy and reported more frequent use of the three strategies; female students were more likely to feel more confident in their ability to learn English, use the three strategies more frequently, and have studied English longer than their male counterparts.

**Table 4.17 Correlations between criterion and predictor variables and among predictor variables**

	Proficiency	Urban	Suburban	Gender	Study length	Self-efficacy	Cognitive	Socio-affective
Proficiency								
Urban	.486*							
Suburban	-.196*	-.730*						
Gender	.005	-.057	.110*					
Study length	.215*	.139*	-.107*	.091*				
Self-efficacy	.455*	.149*	.014	.157*	.045			
Cognitive	.294*	.085*	.057	.134*	-.021	.514*		
Socio-affective	.300*	.142*	.019	.111*	.064	.424*	.316*	
Metacognitive	.394*	.210*	.010	-.078*	.013	.513*	.389*	.445*

Note: \* $p < .05$ , Urban (School location=urban), Suburban (School location=suburban), Gender (Gender=female), Self-efficacy (self-efficacy for learning English)

Table 4.18 below presents the results of the two-model hierarchical regression analysis. Model 1 with gender, school location, and length of English study in the regression equation was significant,  $R^2 = .313$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .308$ ,  $F(4, 517) = 58.988$ ,  $p < .05$ , indicating that the linear combination of the three predictors accounted for 31 % of variation in proficiency. School location made a unique significant contribution to the model, as was indicated by urban schools and suburban schools,  $\beta = .715$ ,  $t(517) = 13.347$ ,  $p < .05$  and  $\beta = .343$ ,  $t(517) = 6.394$ ,  $p < .05$  respectively. Length of English study also contributed significantly to the model,  $\beta = .153$ ,  $t(517) = 4.144$ ,  $p < .05$ , suggesting that students who had studied English longer were more likely to have better English proficiency. However, gender did not have a significant individual contribution to the model,  $\beta = -.006$ ,  $t(517) = -.154$ ,  $p > .05$ .

**Table 4.18 Summary of two-step hierarchical multiple regression analysis for variables predicting proficiency**

Model	Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE b</i>	$\beta$	<i>t</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	$\Delta R^2$
1						.313	.308	.313
	(Constant)	22.284	2.544		8.760			
	Gender	-.134	.873	-.006	-.154			
	Urban	16.477	1.234	.715*	13.347			
	Suburban	8.072	1.262	.343*	6.394			
	Length of study	1.654	.399	.153*	4.144			
2						.446	.438	.133
	(Constant)	-3.696	3.328		-1.111			
	Gender	-1.187	.817	-.050	-1.452			
	Urban	12.748	1.180	.553*	10.803			
	Suburban	5.196	1.179	.221*	4.406			
	Length of study	1.637	.360	.152*	4.544			
	Cognitive	.658	.474	.054	1.389			
	Socio-affective	.571	.575	.038	.994			
	Metacognitive	1.194	.575	.088*	2.075			
	Self-efficacy	5.455	.833	.282*	6.545			

Note: \* $p < .05$ , Urban (School location=urban), Suburban (School location=suburban), Gender (Gender=female), Self-efficacy (Self-efficacy for learning English)

In model 2, all four predictors of interest (i.e. self-efficacy for learning English, cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive) were added to the regression equation, making the total number of predictors eight. The eight predictors accounted for approximately 45 % of variability in proficiency, adjusted  $R^2 = .44$ ,  $F(8, 513) = 52.081$ ,  $p < .05$ . Specifically, the linear combination of the four primary predictors increased an extra 13.5 % of variability and the  $R^2$  increase was significant. The predictors added to better predictive power beyond what was contributed by the predictors already entered in model 1. Specifically, urban schools, suburban schools, and length of study remained significant predictors of proficiency, accounting for 55%, 22%, and 15 % respectively of variance in proficiency. Further, the predictor variables of interest which significantly predicted proficiency were only self-

efficacy for learning English,  $t(513) = 6.545, p < .05$ , and metacognitive strategy category,  $t(513) = 2.075, p < .05$ , which uniquely explained 28 % and 9 % respectively of the variability in proficiency. Socio-affective and cognitive strategy categories were not significant predictors of proficiency. The results indicate that proficiency significantly related to self-efficacy for learning English and metacognitive strategies. It is noteworthy that out of the four primary variables of interest, self-efficacy for learning English was the strongest predictor of the proficiency. Zero-order correlations between proficiency and self-efficacy for learning English ( $r = .455, p < .05$ ) and between proficiency and metacognitive ( $r = .394, p < .05$ ), whose coefficients were higher than those of correlations between proficiency and other predictors except urban and suburban schools, lent support to the regression results. What seems surprising from the regression model is that location of school was the strongest predictor of English proficiency.

This section has described the results of the quantitative data analyses. It has shown the Indonesian primary school students' learning strategy preferences and perceived beliefs in self-efficacy. Specifically, the empirical evidence shows that self-efficacy and strategy use relate to gender and school location, and that self-efficacy, strategy use, and proficiency relate to each other. The following qualitative results will provide a richer understanding of the strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs among the young students of different proficiencies, thereby being able to explicate the relationships between the variables under scrutiny.



### **4.3. Qualitative results**

This section elaborates the results of the interview analyses, which mainly aimed to address the research question: "How can the students' motivational and strategic behaviours help explain the relationships between strategy use, self-efficacy and proficiency?" It is noted that the interviews were done with twelve of the participants who had different proficiency and self-efficacy levels. The interviewees were categorised into: high, moderate, and low.

#### **4.3.1. Learning strategy choices**

Learning strategies the participants employed were indicative of their strategic behaviours. A total of 38 learning strategies were identified from the interviews. The overall results indicated the variety of learning strategies used by the participants. The learning strategies were then categorised into: cognitive, socio-affective, and metacognitive. The similar and different patterns of strategy choices among the three groups are elaborated below.

##### **4.3.1.1. Cognitive strategies**

Cognitive strategies generally involve a transformation of the target language or application of specific techniques to memorize simple information or make up limited knowledge. The interview data provide evidence on how participants of different groups reported using cognitive strategies to cope with given language tasks. Similarities and differences in the strategies chosen by the participants are shown in Table 4.19 below.

**Table 4.19 Cognitive strategies of high, moderate, and low groups**

<b>Strategies</b>	<b>High</b>	<b>Moderate</b>	<b>Low</b>
repeating or rehearsing	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine,	Fadil, Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Bayu, Natalia, Roni, Yuni
observing objects while memorizing	Ari		Roni
creating images	Edi		
mind mapping	Amel		
using songs	Amel		
guessing based on non-linguistic clues	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni	Bayu, Natalia, Roni, Yuni
linguistic inferencing	Ari, Edi, Nadine	Najwa	
analysing expressions	Ari, Edi		
approximating the message	Ari		
using gestures		Nirina	
using synonyms	Amel		
practising for instructional purposes	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Najwa, Nirina	Natalia, Roni, Yuni
practising for non-instructional purposes	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Joni, Nirina	
taking notes	Edi	Fadil, Najwa, Nirina	Roni
translating	Amel, Edi	Fadil, Joni	
using learning resources	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Bayu, Natalia, Roni, Yuni,

*Repeating or rehearsing* is one of the most preferred cognitive strategies, being reported by most interviewees of the three groups. This strategy is mainly aimed at facilitating better comprehension and memorizing words or utterances for automation. The interviewees opted for this strategy possibly because it was simple and easy in use. Nirina, for example, explained that she reread her notes to assist her recall, understand English lessons or solve

problems in a given task. Nadine also used this strategy for memorizing words, “read them over and over . say the words again and again . I read again . I read books . then I say them again and again . that is all” (turn 188). This strategy was also used by Ari when engaged in a reading task. He read the questions and passage back and forth to ensure the accuracy of his answers. Nadine and Edi also listened to the materials on CD repeatedly when they could not make sense of them if re-playing the CD was permitted. Although all participants indicated their preference in the strategy of *repeating*, the participants of high and moderate groups applied the strategy to more various tasks.

Roni, a low group participant, reported using a cognitive strategy of *observing objects while memorizing* to help him remember the words: “I look at the fan . look at the objects in the classroom” (Roni, turns 405 and 407). Similarly, Ari, a high group participant, also observed the objects while he was memorizing the English words of the objects: “look at the objects . memorize the words and their meaning” (Ari, turn 190). Such a strategy might be of some help especially for young learners who need the presence of concrete objects to facilitate the processing of new information.

The strategy of *creating images*, either mental or real, was used by Edi to memorize new words. This high group participant said that “I close my book . ooh this is a whiteboard . ooh this is a table . ooh this is . while imagining the objects in my house” (Edi, turns 148 and 152). In addition to creating mental pictures, Edi also reported drawing real pictures to help him memorize words: “let’s say . the English word for *kabel* is cable . then I write the word cable and draw it” (Edi, turn 158). He purposefully made both visual representations in his mind and real pictures of relevant objects to aid the storage of new information. This strategy could be useful among those who tend to learn better through visualization.

*Mind mapping* and *singing songs* were the cognitive strategies reported by another high group learner. Amel said that she would make a mind map to assist her understand and memorize the grammatical patterns explained by her teacher. She also would sing songs to help her memorize words. She found the two strategies, taught by her tutor at a private English course, were of help to cope with given tasks. Unlike mind mapping, which seems to be complex, using songs is easy and a fun way for young learners in vocabulary learning.

Unlike *repetition* and *observing objects while memorizing*, *using songs*, *mind mapping*, and *creating images* were reported only by the participants of the high group. For young learners,

these strategies, especially *mind mapping*, were in some way more complicated than *repetition*. It seems that the high group students may have been aware of alternative strategies they could use or, perhaps their better proficiency simply allowed them to employ such strategies. What is evident is that the high group students did not rely on a single strategy to help them memorize words or functional expressions but sought other ways which were of additional help. Their knowledge of learning strategies might derive from instructional activities, as in Amel's case, in which she learned how to memorize using mind mapping and songs, or simply emerge from their own creativity which developed along with their on-going learning process.

All participants reported using the strategy of *guessing based on non-linguistic clues* to make sense of unknown words or to grasp the general idea of a passage. For example, Fadil observed the pictures to assist her to understand the meaning of unknown words in a writing task. She stated that "I look at the picture . well because the pictures indicate the word" (Fadil, turns 79 and 81). In another instance, Edi made use of pictures to help him predict the content of a given reading text better. He explained "I will look at the picture . then I will look at the situation around the picture" (Edi, turn 24). The presence of pictures in a text seemed to be helpful for the participants, particularly when they were not allowed to consult a dictionary or get help. As with other tasks, participants said they would employ this strategy when doing a listening task. Ari, for instance, said that he would see if the pictures present in the text related to the questions. The common practice of using pictures to help predict implies that all participants, despite their young age and proficiency differences, were already aware of the valuable function of non-linguistic clues (i.e. pictures) in a text.

Unlike their low group counterparts, three high and one moderate group participants used the strategy of *linguistic inferencing*. They made use of their partial knowledge of the target language to guess the meaning of unknown words. Najwa, for example, recognized the meaning of the word "longest trousers" in a given writing task by observing the words proceeding and following it: she said "I will read the words following it . the words before it" (Najwa, turns 74 and 76). Similarly, Edi made an educated guess based on the clue available, that is, words around the unfamiliar word. He said "let's say this blank . the word before it is 'meat' . it is food . so it must have something to do with eating" (Edi, turn 64). Nadine, who also used this strategy, said that it helped her to understand the meaning of words when not allowed to ask for help or look the words up in a dictionary. Ari, another high group learner,

also used this strategy to help him find the meaning of unknown words in several language tasks such as reading, writing, and listening tasks. He said “well I observe previous words . ‘longest trousers’ means ‘long pants’ . and look at the sentence around it” (Ari, turn 122). The instances suggest that the participants were more aware of and better able to make use of linguistic clues to help them to understand new information. In addition, they might be more adept at compensating for their limited knowledge than their low group counterparts. Instead of guessing smartly, the low group students tended to leave the questions blank or ignore the unknown words although this might affect their understanding if they were not allowed to ask for help or open dictionaries; This was indicated in Bayu’s reply “I skip the questions if I cannot answer” (Bayu, turn 34).

Unlike other participants who relied on seeking help or consulting dictionaries, Edi also *analysed expressions* of English to ensure the dialogue script was correct. He explained:

from the script . like . *we have to much eat* eh *we have to eat much vegetables* . if there is an utterance like *we have to eat much vegetables* . as the words are jumbled . so it means . we have . I think it will be *we have to eat so much vegetables* . that is the way I write it . if it is correct (Edi, turn 96)

Ari, another high group participant, also reported using this strategy by checking the grammatical accuracy of the messages he would send via Facebook to his pen pals. There is no evidence that other participants used such a strategy. The two instances might suggest that both of the high group participants had “adequate” knowledge of the target language which enabled them to take this route to their language learning.

Three participants reported other cognitive strategies when they were asked what to do if they forgot some utterances or words while they were performing a dialogue in class. Ari *approximated the message* by expressing the forgotten utterances in his own words after he predicted and understood what his partner previously uttered. Under the same circumstance, Amel would *use synonyms* while Nirina would *use gestures* to replace English words or utterances which they had forgotten.

*Practising for instructional purposes*, similar to *formally practising* in Oxford’s (1990) strategy model, is a strategy which all participants preferred to do school-related language tasks. Edi talked about how he prepared a performance for his speaking task. He practised speaking in front of a mirror at home to help him be more confident when performing in front

of the class. Low and moderate group participants, like Roni and Nirina, behaved similarly when asked what to do to prepare for the same speaking task. They rehearsed a dialogue performance with their respective partner. Najwa specifically added that during the rehearsal she focused not only on memorizing the dialogue script but also on pronouncing the utterances and turn-taking. Practising with others was found useful for the participants, especially in checking the accuracy of pronunciation, as was indicated by Nirina. However, high and moderate group participants (i.e. Nadine, Edi, Amel, Fadil, and Najwa) reported using the strategy of *practising for instructional purposes* for other language tasks, such as doing grammar practice tests and vocabulary tasks.

*Practising for non-instructional purposes*, quite similar to *naturally practising* in Oxford's (1990) model, is a strategy reported only by high and moderate group participants. Unlike *practising for instructional purposes*, this strategy is a way of improving the target language in a broad sense in non-instructional contexts. The high group students tended to make extra effort to improve their English although they were not specifically asked to do so by their teachers. For example, when asked how he improved his English, Joni replied "reading and drawing pictures and explaining ehh making a story based on the pictures" (Joni, turn, 254). In a similar situation, Nadine explained the way she overcame her weaknesses in listening skills by practising listening to English materials from CDs and YouTube at home. She seemed to be aware of the limited time for learning English at school or private tuition centres, so that she practised listening to any resources available at home. Likewise, Edi reported occasional practice of English writing by composing stories based on pictures in magazines. It seems that he could make use of any resources available to support his learning and that he sought opportunities to practise. Edi practised a lot to improve his English; he said

well I frequently read English books . English magazines . when I was child . I had a collection of magazines about animals. like butterfly . sparrow . the magazines were bilingual . the Indonesian text was written in black . while English text in blue . I used to read the magazines to my maid's baby (smiling)" (Edi, turn 210).

When asked about how to understand and memorize a grammar lesson, participants of different groups replied that they used the strategy of *taking notes*. Fadil, for instance, stated that he would "take notes . important words . I will forget them if I just listen . if I take notes

I can review them again” (Fadil, turns 163, 165, 167). The learner seemed to be aware of why and how to organize information to facilitate his language learning, at least at his level as a young learner. Unlike the high group learners, Roni did not mention specifically what to take as a note and what to do with the note (Roni, turns 399, 401). Taking notes was also used in coping with a listening task, as was indicated by Edi who explained:

I will take notes if permitted by the teacher . like question number one . what is the name of Nick’s teacher? Miss blah blah blah . let’s say the name is Nina . then I write Nina . again if permitted (Edi, turn 128)

Participants also reported using the cognitive strategy of *translating*. When asked how to prepare their dialogue performance, Fadil, Amel, and Joni replied that they would write a script in Indonesian and then translate it into English with the aid of dictionaries or the Internet. Amel also reported using this strategy when she was to do a writing task. She would translate important words in a cloze procedure text by thinking over their meaning and without consulting a dictionary. In a quite similar way, Edi used the strategy of translating into the target language as a way to improve his English; he stated that “I also have *Bobo* magazine . as you know *Bobo* magazine is written in Indonesian . I then translated it” (Edi, turn 182).

All participants reported using the cognitive strategy of *using learning resources* to help them learn or cope with English tasks. The most common form of resources used by participants of all groups was a dictionary, either print or electronic. An easy-to-find resource, a dictionary was used in most cases when the participants could not seek help from others. Online/offline games with English instructions were another form of learning resources widely used. The availability of game applications provided opportunities for learning English in a fun way. Edi said that he learned English from games by comprehending the conversation in the games. Joni also tried to understand the instructions for a game by searching for meaning on the Internet while Yuni and Nadine used some clues in the game to understand it. Despite the absence of an explicit purpose for learning English through games, their efforts might result in new knowledge of the target language, such as new vocabulary. Unlike moderate and low group participants, high group participants used a greater range of learning resources, such as the Internet, movies, social media, and audio English materials and they explicitly mentioned that using the resources was to assist their learning. Nadine explained that she not only used course books and exercise books but also browsed the

Internet when correcting the errors in her work. She sought alternative materials from the Internet or YouTube to improve her listening skill. Edi made use of audio materials, guided by his parents, to practise listening at home. The prevalence of social media also inspired Ari to use it as means of learning English. Communicating with his pen pals overseas via Facebook was one of his ways of practising English.

The cognitive strategy preferences noted above indicate that low and moderate group participants tended to rely on less taxing strategies (e.g. repetition), whereas high group participants sought and exercised complex strategies, (i.e. linguistic inferencing) which require wider knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Inadequacy of the knowledge might have hindered low and moderate group participants from using such strategies. The strategy choice (e.g. using more variant learning resources and practising for non-instructional purposes) also suggests that high group participants were likely to exercise more confidence and self-initiative to improve their English than their lower group counterparts.

#### **4.3.1.2. Socio-affective strategies**

Socio-affective strategies assist learners to take control of their affective factors (such as motivation, anxiety, and attitudes) and to learn with or from others. The interview data revealed that the participants of the three groups shared some similar but also had some different preferences in socio-affective strategy use, as shown in Table 4.20 below. For example, *asking for clarification* is a common socio-affective strategy among all participants. This strategy was used when participants did not understand a particular topic in their English lesson: no participants reported using such a strategy while they were engaged in ‘real’ oral communication using the target language. For instance, Edi and Roni would ask their teacher to repeat her explanation about simple present tense if they did not understand. In the same vein, Najwa would ask for clarification from her teacher but only if her friend could not explain it to her.



**Table 4.20 Socio-affective strategies of high, moderate and low groups**

Strategies	High	Moderate	Low
asking for clarification	Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa	Roni
asking for correction	Amel, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa	Bayu, Roni
cooperating with peers	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Bayu, Roni, Natalia, Yuni
seeking help	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Bayu, Yuni, Natalia, Roni
practising with more proficient others	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine		
making positive statements	Amel, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Bayu, Roni, Yuni
facing away from the audience	Ari, Nadine	Fadil	
fancying positive things	Amel		
relaxation		Fadil, Najwa, Nirina	Yuni
using fun and non-conventional resources	Ari, Edi, Nadine	Joni	

The strategy of *asking for correction* was used by participants of the three groups mainly when they were engaged with classroom-related tasks. Amel, for example, would ask her tutor and parents to check the accuracy of her dialogue script for her speaking task, whereas Bayu would get his older brother to do so. Fadil would ask her parents for correction while she was memorizing words. Likewise, Nadine would use this strategy when she prepared her speaking task at home; she said “I practise while my family are watching me . they may correct my pronunciation” (Nadine, turn 128).

Another socio-affective strategy reported by most participants was *cooperating with peers*. The participants of all groups reported using this strategy when given a speaking task. They said that they would work with their partners to prepare a dialogue script and practise it prior to performing in the class. All high group participants, however, not only used the strategy

when they were assigned to doing classroom-related tasks but also when they practised English for non-instructional purposes. Amel, for instance, asked her friends to make questions for her and got her friends to check whether she pronounced English words correctly. In another instance, Edi got his friends to practise speaking: he said “I do a lot of practices . speaking with friends in English . like with Hendra . he has a good English command as well . I often speak English with him” (Edi, turn 212).

Another popular strategy in this category for all the young participants was *seeking help* from peers or more proficient others. For instance, participants of high group, like Edi and Amel, preferred the strategy of getting help from their teacher when faced with unknown words in a reading or listening text. Edi said “I kind of prefer asking my teacher for help . because the teacher has quite broad knowledge . if I ask the teacher I need not look up the words in my dictionary . if I ask her . she will immediately help me“ (Edi, turns 38 and 40). Other students of low and moderate groups, such as Bayu and Fadil, used the same strategy when asked how they proceeded when encountering unknown words. In spite of other options available (e.g. asking peers or consulting a dictionary), Bayu, Roni, Nadine, Joni, Edi, Amel, and Fadil all preferred seeking help from teachers because they assumed that their teachers were knowledgeable. Nadine also added that she might get wrong answers when she used the dictionary inaccurately. Unlike most participants, Najwa preferred asking friends instead of teachers when faced with unknown words in the class. Najwa replied “ask my friend . I don’t need to ask my teacher if my friend knows [the meaning of the words]” (Najwa, turns 32 and 34). She preferred asking friends because she found it easy to do so although she was aware of possible wrong answers being provided by her friends. It is possible that she felt uneasy and nervous about getting help from her teacher. Most participants also reported getting help from parents or older siblings when troubled with unfamiliar words at home. Seeking help was one of the most preferred strategies overall, and all children used it perhaps because the participants did not need to expend much effort but could obtain instant and quite probably accurate results.

*Practising with more proficient others* was another socio-affective strategy mentioned in the interview data. High group participants, Nadine, Ari and Edi, reported using the strategy mainly for improving their speaking ability. Edi said that he sought to speak in English not only with his English teacher but also any teacher whom he thought could and was willing to speak English with him. He also attempted to practise speaking the target language with his

parents and older brother at home. Additionally, he got his parents to help with his learning English; he explained “if unsure I will ask my parents to guide me . like ‘what is this my son?’ ‘this is blackboard’ . ‘ooh no . this is whiteboard’ . then I keep it in my mind” (Edi, turn 154). This behaviour was mirrored when I administered questionnaires and prior to interviewing by his initiative to speak English with me. Likewise, Nadine and Amel tried to improve their English by practising with her older sibling or tutor.

*Making positive statements* either in the mind only or expressed orally is one way most participants of the three groups took to cope with the feeling of sadness or disappointment due to poor results of tests. They encouraged themselves to study harder to gain better results, as indicated by Edi’s remark “well . I will study harder for the upcoming tests . and my motto is ‘tomorrow’s test result should be better than yesterday’s” (Edi, turn 348). Likewise, Joni, Fadil and Roni would use this strategy to boost their confidence prior performing their dialogue in the class.

Apart from making positive statements, a speaking task given to the participants elicited several other socio-affective strategies, namely *fancying positive things*, *facing away from audience* and *relaxation*. When asked what to do to overcome anxiety and build up confidence prior to performing a dialogue in the class, Najwa and Nirina replied that they would take a deep breath while Fadil, Nirina and Yuni said they would utter a prayer. Under the same circumstances, Amel would think of something positive and fun, whereas Ari, Nadine, and Fadil would face away from the audience or friends or act out their performance as if there was no one observing them. The variety of strategy use by the participants to cope with the same problem seems to indicate that learning strategies are personal approaches to learning tasks in that the individual participants choose a specific way which they perceive might be of help for them.

*Using fun and non-conventional resources* was another strategy reported by the interviewees of high and moderate groups to increase their motivation. The learners sought and used various resources to regulate their feeling, make their learning fun, and increase motivation. For example, Nadine listened to music prior to and not during learning the target language to better concentrate on learning when she did undertake it. Edi used a similar approach when he played games to get rid of boredom and fatigue while he was learning. Through games as a learning resource, he wanted to gain both fun and learning experience. Edi also bought and read English magazines to keep him motivated: he said “the purposes are twofold . learning

English and . refreshing . the stories are entertaining . like *The Lucky Straw* . *Jerami Keberuntungan*” (Edi, turn 402). Similarly, Nadine and Joni made use of the Internet, especially YouTube, as a means of boosting their motivation for learning. Further, Joni argued he could learn English as well as play at the same time by using the Internet. Ari reported using a computer program which he could use to practise speaking. Ari also watched children’s English movies on YouTube and television for learning English as well as reducing the boredom which otherwise bogged down his learning.

Despite the similarity with their lower group counterparts, the high group students displayed a wider range of ways to help them deal with anxiety and boost motivation. The findings imply that the high group were more capable of identifying the source of affective problems and a way to cope with problems that arose. Additionally, they had stronger confidence and were willing to take initiative to learn with and learn from others who had better proficiency than they did.

#### **4.3.1.3. Metacognitive strategies**

Metacognitive strategies are typically used by language learners to take control of their own learning by planning, arranging, and evaluating their learning processes toward communicative competence (Oxford, 1990). All participants of different groups reported using metacognitive strategies, although there were some similarities and differences in the strategy choice, as can be seen Table 4.21.

**Table 4.21 Metacognitive strategies of high, moderate, and low groups**

<b>Strategies</b>	<b>High</b>	<b>Moderate</b>	<b>Low</b>
advance organization	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Bayu, Natalia, Roni, Yuni
directed attention	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Bayu, Natalia, Roni, Yuni
selective attention	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Nirina	
structuring physical environment for learning	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Natalia, Roni, Yuni
organizing time	Edi, Nadine	Najwa, Nirina	Bayu
setting learning goals and objectives	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Roni, Yuni
planning learning resources	Ari, Edi, Nadine		
seeking opportunities for practising	Ari, Edi, Nadine		
error-monitoring	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Bayu, Natalia, Roni, Yuni
identifying learning difficulties	Amel, Ari, Edi, Nadine	Fadil, Joni, Najwa, Nirina	Bayu, Natalia, Roni, Yuni
evaluating performance and learning processes	Ari, Edi, Nadine	Najwa	
comprehension monitoring	Ari, Nadine		

All participants mentioned that they would make an *advance organization* when they were to cope with language tasks. The strategy of advance organization, or *planning for language tasks* in Oxford's (1990) strategy model, helps the learners plan what to do to be better-prepared for doing the tasks. This strategy takes various forms, such as previewing pictures, title, instructions, and questions. Several participants of different groups reported that they would look through questions and pictures before doing a listening task. The participants seemed to plan what they were going to listen to and predicted the possible answers. Edi, for instance, said "let's say this question what is the name of Nicks' teacher? the word Ms

indicates that the person must be female . she can be Ms Liza Ms Nana . Ms Dini” (Edi, turn 110). In a similar vein, Nirina explained that “I will read the questions . because the answers of the questions will be played then I will look at the questions and I can answer them” (Nirina, turns 100 and 102). In another instance, participants, such as Amel, Joni, and Nirina, previewed the instructions before reading through the other parts of a given task in order to know what to do with the task.

*Directed attention* is one of the most common metacognitive strategies aused by the participants for allocating and maintaining their attention to the general aspect of a given task (e.g. reading and listening tasks) and ignoring irrelevant distractors. All participants reported they would use this strategy to assist them to comprehend the content of the listening and reading texts when they were to do tasks. This strategy was also chosen by several participants of different groups when they were asked what they would do when their teacher gave a question to their classmate. Nadine, for example, replied “pay attention to it . so that I will know the answer if the question is the same” (Nadine, turn 316). The participants used the strategy to keep focused on their learning, although they were not directly involved in the classroom interaction. In another instance, Edi employed this strategy while he was engaged with a grammar lesson. He said “I will pay attention to my teacher while she is explaining simple present . I will attend carefully so that I can understand well” (Edi, turn 130).

*Selective attention* was reported by high and moderate group participants. Given a listening task to be answered by writing down names and numbers, Edi, Amel, and Nadine explained that they would attend to specific information of the listening text, namely names and numbers. In another instance, Nadine, Amel, Ari, and Nirina used this strategy when they were asked to do a reading task in an examination with limited time. Instead of reading the whole passage, they would read the questions first then find the answers in the passage to save time, as was explained by Nadine “I read . I read . look at the questions . then find the answers in the passage” (Nadine, turn 48). The evidence suggests that the participants seemed to be aware of the task demands and how to cope with them more effectively. They did not need to focus on every word and all details in the text for the completion of the given task.

Interview data also provided evidence how most participants attempted to *structure their physical environment for learning*. When asked what they would do to help them concentrate when learning at home, the participants (e.g. Edi, Roni, and Nirina) replied that they would

arrange their study room to be conducive to learning, such as shutting the door, turning off the TV, turning on the lamp and air-conditioner. By comparison, although Bayu realized that he could not concentrate when other family members were around, he did nothing to help himself study well, like studying in another room. Interestingly, Najwa and Ari mentioned that they were not disturbed by the people around them while studying and did not think they needed to study in a quiet place. Both perhaps had high tolerance ambiguity so that they could concentrate despite the presence of other people around them.

In addition to arranging a learning space, several participants also reported using the strategy of *organizing time* for learning or task completion. For example, Nadine reported making a schedule for learning English and making use of her free time to study. Along with Nirina and Najwa, Edi did time planning during the completion of a given task: he said “I will answer easy questions . then I will make use of the remaining time to answer difficult questions” (Edi, turn 74). Just as the participants of high group, to help him get better prepared Bayu also organized and allocated his time to study the lesson which would be discussed in the next meeting.

*Planning learning resources* is another metacognitive strategy reported by participants of high proficiency. Edi, Nadine, and Ari took the initiative and sought alternative learning resources, such as the Internet, magazines, CD, songs and social media. These high group participants sought resources which could support their learning English although the resources were not directly related to their classroom tasks. They also found the alternative resources quite helpful and interesting. Edi, for example, mentioned that “I usually run out of materials to read . few to read . what is available is only *Bobo* magazines . that’s why I sometimes buy *Fun* magazines” (Edi, turn 389).

Another type of metacognitive strategy reported by several participants was *setting learning goals and objectives*. Najwa, Nadine, Edi, Amel, Yuni and Fadil explained that they studied English mainly for communicating with foreigners, future career, and pursuit of further education. Edi, for example, described his personal reason of studying English:

I can communicate with foreigners . I can understand and give responses if asked . secondly . I want to be a drummer . a drummer sometimes tours overseas like England . Australia . we have to speak English there . if we cannot speak English we will get confused . we have to have our dictionary with us all the time . it is

certainly troublesome . if we can speak English we don't need to do so . because we understand . all will be easy (Edi, turn 266).

Furthermore, Najwa and Edi set both long-term and broad learning goals as well as short-term and specific ones which were directly related to their English tasks. Najwa explained “well this semester I have to understand *simple past . simple present . simple continuous tense . superlative . comparative* . well at least I know about *present . future . and past tenses*” (Najwa, turns 372, 374). Similarly, Edi expected to get higher scores in the English course than in any other courses. He also set a goal while engaged with the completion of a given task: he said “I will do the easy questions first . after that I will answer the hard ones in the remaining time” (Edi, turn 44).

High group participants also *sought opportunities for practising* their English in and out of school settings. Edi, for instance, said “I get my friends to speak English with me during recess in the school café . we then speak in English” (Edi, turn 276). He further stated that he always attempted to speak English with his English teachers and family members. He also practised listening by getting his parents to make questions based on listening materials. This strategy was also used by Nadine, another high group learner. She spent her free time practising English, particularly listening which she thought was her weakness, by making use of the learning resources available at home, such as the Internet. Ari, also, initiated opportunities by creating ways to improve his English, such as watching English cartoon movies without subtitles, practising speaking with a computer application, and exchanging written messages via Facebook with his pen pals abroad.

The metacognitive strategy of *error-monitoring* was also reported during task completion. All participants explained that they would recheck their answers to a given task prior to submitting their work to their teachers, or recheck the accuracy of their dialogue script. They all seemed aware why they had to make sure of the correctness of their answers. For instance, Edi said “I will check the answers if they are correct in order to obtain a perfect score” (Edi, turn 48). Like Edi, Nirina also monitored possible errors she might have made; she said “I will check again . to see if my answers are wrong or I write incorrectly” (Nirina, turns 48 and 50). Furthermore, all participants described they ensured the accuracy of their dialogue script: most of them used the strategies of looking up words in a dictionary, rereading or seeking help.



All participants used another form of self-monitoring strategy, *identifying learning difficulties*. When asked about their difficulties in learning English, the participants mentioned the skill area of English which they considered most difficult and the way to overcome the difficulty. For example, Najwa replied “speaking . because name is pronounced neim . it differs from Indonesian . perhaps because what is written is different from how it is pronounced” (Najwa, turns 270 and 272). She further said that she studied English dialogues to overcome the difficulty. Similarly, Nirina, Joni, Roni, and Fadil thought that English pronunciation was difficult. Fadil, for instance, said “because they must be accurate . the spellings are the same . they are pronounced differently. their meanings also differ” (Fadil, turn 235). Memorizing, consulting a dictionary, or seeking help from teachers assisted these participants to cope with the difficulty.

*Evaluating performance and learning progress* is another metacognitive strategy which high and moderate group participants reported using. They seem to show a better ability to oversee how well they were progressing in their learning process, in particular the completion of a given task. Nadine self-evaluated not only her learning progress but also the effectiveness of her learning strategies. She explained that she had made good learning progress as indicated by the way she spoke and did language tasks and that her strategies, such as reading books, were helpful to facilitate her learning. Furthermore, Nadine involved a more proficient other, namely a teacher, to evaluate her learning progress on her own initiative: she recounted “I ask my teacher to give me questions of lessons which have long been taught and has just been taught to see if I still remember” (Nadine, turn 252). Edi, who also belonged to the high group, considered his English was quite good so that he set a higher standard for the English class and showed his friends how to do a given task. Najwa, a moderate group participant, also self-evaluated her English ability based on the grade she had gained. She assumed that she was not good at English and occasionally gained poor marks because English was complicated.

*Comprehension monitoring* was reported by participants of high proficiency. When asked what to do to complete a writing task in the form of cloze procedure, Nadine said “I read it . as for the missing words I look at the picture . then I fill in the blank . then I continue reading the text (Nadine, turn 70). This excerpt suggested that she monitored her comprehension by reading through a passage with some missing words and the alternative answers which were

accompanied with pictures back and forth. Similarly, Ari read the title, passage, and questions back and forth when he was to cope with a reading task.

The metacognitive strategy preference above indicates that the moderate and high groups differed from the low group. Only the participants of the high group used the strategies of *monitoring comprehension*, *seeking opportunities to practise* and *planning learning resources*. Furthermore, the strategies of *organizing time*, *selective attention*, and *evaluating performance and learning processes* were employed by the high and moderate groups. The presence of the strategies only among the moderate and high group participants seems to indicate that they actively expended more effort to improve their English and that they might have wider knowledge of how to learn or perform language tasks more effectively and how to oversee their learning progress.

The description in this section shows that the participants of the high, moderate, and low groups used various learning strategies to aid them in learning English, in particular completing language tasks. The three groups shared preferences in various learning strategies. *Repeating*, *seeking help*, *using learning resources* and *directed attention* were the most common strategies for most participants regardless of group. The moderate group reported slightly more variety of learning strategies than the low one. *Translating*, *practising for non-instructional purposes*, and *organizing time* were the strategies which the moderate used but the low one did not. The high group, however, tended to use a greater range of strategies and apply them to more tasks or wider contexts than either the low or moderate groups. The main difference which the high group exhibited lies in their strategy choice which involved “adequate” knowledge of the target language (e.g. *linguistic inference* and *approximating the message*), self-initiative to perform non-classroom-related practices (e.g. *seeking opportunities for practice*), and ability to oversee their own learning or task completion activities (e.g. *selective attention* and *evaluating performance and learning progress*).

A number of strategies that were not covered in the Indonesian Children’s SILL, both before and after factor analysis, and Oxford’s (1990) strategy model were identified from the interview analysis. These strategies include the cognitive strategy of *using songs*, the affective strategies of *relaxation*, *facing away from the audience*, *using fun and non-conventional learning resources*, the metacognitive strategies of *planning learning resources* and *identifying learning difficulties*. These strategies add to the repertoire of language

learning strategies. Looking into the way the strategies are employed, as presented in the following section, provides a clearer insight into the strategic behaviours across the three groups.

#### **4.3.2. Ways of strategy use**

Analysis of the qualitative data resulted in five categories concerning the ways learning strategies were used by the high, moderate, and low groups. The five categories are combination of learning strategies, flexibility, purposefulness, confidence, and thoughtfulness. The ways the strategies were used represented the students' strategic behaviours. This section presents the similarities and differences in the ways participants of the three groups employed their reported strategies.

##### **4.3.2.1. Combination of learning strategies**

All participants, regardless of group, indicated their relative ability to use a combination of learning strategies. They used two or more strategies to cope with particular language tasks. Low group participants reported using a chain of specific ways when they had certain tasks. For example, to help him complete a listening task, Bayu would *preview the questions* then *listen attentively* to the text. He would also *look up* the meaning of unknown words in a *dictionary* after the playing of the CD was over.

Moderate group participants, such as Fadil and Najwa, also reported using a combination of learning strategies. Fadil explained that he did the vocabulary task by memorizing words of classroom objects: “take notes . then understand them . memorize them . look at the notes again . understand them . then I don't look at them . then I ask my parents if I am right” (Fadil, turns 185-189). Further, when asked how to make sure that he pronounced the words correctly, he replied “ask . my parents if at home” (Fadil, turns 193 and 195). The extracts show that Fadil would use a number of strategies to do the specific task: cognitive strategies of *taking a note* and *reading a book*, and the social strategy of *asking for correction*. Joni, another moderate group participant, also would employ various strategies to help him perform his speaking task. He would *cooperate with his partner* to compose a dialogue script in Indonesian. He would also *translate* his Indonesian script into English using a dictionary. He then memorized it through *repeated reading*.

Like their lower group counterparts, high group participants were able to use strategies in combination to cope with a specific task. For instance, for memorizing words of objects in a classroom, Edi described what he did.

I will take notes what are explained by my teacher like the words whiteboard . fan . table . then I will read the words over and over . memorize them at home . after that I close my book . ooh this is whiteboard . oh this is table . ooh this is . while imagining the objects in my house . if unsure I will ask my parents to guide me . like “what is this my son?” “this is blackboard” . ‘ooh no . this is whiteboard” . then I will keep it in my mind (Edi, turns, 148, 152, 154)

This extract indicates how Edi would use various strategies in combination, namely cognitive strategies of *taking notes*, *repetition*, *mental imagery*, and social strategy of *cooperating with significant others*. Amel, another high group participant, also described how she prepared her speaking task performance by using a range of learning strategies. She would write a dialogue script in Indonesian and then *translate* it into English with her partner. To ensure the accuracy of her script, she would *consult a dictionary*, *check it out on the Internet*, or *seek help from her tutor or parents*.

Despite the fact that all participants combined strategies to cope with certain tasks, only moderate and high group participants reported using a cluster of strategies for more tasks. Bayu, Natalia and Yuni, who were low group participants, were dependant on the strategy of *repetition*, that is, they reread a list of words until they memorized them. Yuni, for example, said “I will read them over and over until I know them by heart” (Yuni, turn 130). On the other hand, their moderate and high group counterparts orchestrated various strategies to aid them to memorize the words. For example, Najwa and Nirina resorted to a combination of *note-taking*, *repeating*, and *asking for correction*.

Additionally, the types of the strategies combined by the students differed. This is mirrored from the way they checked the accuracy of a dialogue script they would memorize and perform. Low and moderate group participants (i.e. Fadil, Bayu, Roni, and Najwa) mentioned that they would *ask for correction* from parents or siblings and *use a dictionary*; for example, Fadil said “look them up in my dictionary . ask my parents (Fadil, turns 99 and 101). Conversely, their higher group counterparts would use a combination of a cognitive strategy of *analysing expressions* and a social strategy of *asking for correction* or a combination of a cognitive strategy of *using e-learning resources* (i.e. the Internet) and *looking up words in a*

*dictionary*, and a social strategy of *asking for correction*. Nadine, Edi, and Amel clearly described how they would check the script, as illustrated in the excerpts below:

I look up the words in my dictionary . I also check it out on the Internet . I usually ask my brother to correct it (Nadine, turns 114 and 116)

from the script . like . *we have to much eat* eh *we have to eat much vegetables* . if there is an utterance like *we have to eat much vegetables* . as the words are jumbled . so it means . we have . I think it will be *we have to eat so much vegetables* . that is the way I write it . if it is correct . I ask my partner (Edi, turns 96 and 98)

well I will surf on the Internet or consult my dictionary . ask my teacher (Amel, turns 186 and 188)

The difference in choice of strategies to combine indicates that high group participants tended to prefer and were able to use not only simple strategies requiring less cognitive effort (e.g. *asking for correction* and *consulting a dictionary*) but also strategies involving more active use of the target language (e.g. *analysing expressions* and *using e-learning resources*).

#### **4.3.2.2. Flexibility**

Flexibility refers to the use of strategies in non-predictable sequences (Oxford, 1990): the participants choose certain strategies and shift from one strategy to another if necessary to meet either task or situational demands. Here all participants of each of the three groups selected and combined a number of strategies to cope with a given task, but this does not necessarily mean that they were flexible in their strategy use.

High group participants demonstrated more flexibility in strategy use and were more aware of alternative strategies than their lower counterparts. The segments below indicate how the high group participants seemed to be able to orchestrate their strategy use to meet the task demand:

I read books and a dictionary . if still unclear I ask my brother to explain (Nadine, turn 176)

I will listen carefully and then bear what I listen in my mind . if I fail to understand I will ask my teacher to repeat once again (Edi, turn 106)

talk about it with him [partner] . it [the script] is wrong if the language is not appropriate . If I cannot . I will ask my teacher (Ari, 136 and 138)

[In an exam situation] observing the title first . to know the title of the passage . observing the picture . I read the passage . answer the questions . [in a non-exam situation] read the questions first . to save the time (Amel, turns 18, 20, 26, 28, 30, 44, 46)

Nadine indicated her flexibility in using strategy by shifting from *using resources* to *seeking help*. Similarly, Edi would *ask for clarification* if he found *direction attention* ineffective. Ari also would *seek help* if *cooperating with peers* and *analysing expressions* were of no help. Amel also demonstrated flexibility in strategy use by using different approaches to cope with the same task in different situations. Using the *selective attention* strategy, she would prefer reading the question instead of the passage first and proceed to find the answer in the passage when asked to do a reading task in an examination. She did this to save her time. However, she would approach the reading task the other way around if she had more time and was not in an exam situation.

Najwa, a moderate group participant, indicated some degree of flexibility in strategy use in one way, despite her apparent inflexibility in another way. When asked what she would do if she was stuck with unknown words and not permitted to look up a dictionary or seek help, she replied “I will do other questions first . I will read the previous parts . the words following them first . to know the meaning of the sentence” (Najwa, turns 68, 72, 74, 78). Najwa would use a metacognitive strategy of *organizing time* in which she skipped the question with unknown words and proceeded to other questions. She would then use a strategy of *linguistic inferencing* when she finally had to deal with the question containing the unknown words. However, she was also inflexible and unaware of effective alternative strategies in another instance, namely when asked what to do if she forgot parts of a dialogue while performing in the class. She said “I will grap and read the script . well I just guess thoughtlessly” (Najwa, turns 150 and 152). She would do “wild-guessing” about what she would say to replace the forgotten utterances if she was not allowed to read the script.

Other moderate group participants also seem to have been less aware of alternative strategy use. Joni would quit his performance in front of the class if he failed to recall some expressions of his dialogue which he forgot. In the same circumstance, Fadil would prefer

skipping the forgotten expressions of her dialogue instead of opting for alternative strategies, such as *using body language* or *approximating the message*, which could help her perform well. When encountering unfamiliar words in their reading and writing tasks, Nirina and Joni would also leave the questions unanswered if they were not permitted to ask for help or consult a dictionary.

Like most of the moderate group participants, the low group participants indicated some inflexibility in strategy use. They tended to be too dependent on certain strategies and unaware of a wide range of other possible strategies. Natalia, Roni and Bayu would leave questions unanswered if they were not allowed to seek help or open dictionaries to find the meaning of unknown words during the completion of reading, writing, or listening tasks. Under the same circumstance, Yuni would leave the questions blank or simply answer them without thinking. Unawareness of strategy use was also reflected in the way Roni and Yuni would cope with their speaking task problem, namely forgetting certain expressions of their dialogue scripts. They did not choose any learning strategies which possibly could assist them to maintain their speaking performance. Roni would quit her dialogue performance, while Yuni would skip the forgotten expressions. They seem to have been unaware of alternative strategies which were required in the completion of language tasks or fail to shift to another strategy because of their low proficiency.

#### **4.3.2.3. Purposefulness**

Purposefulness can be viewed as the awareness of why learners select and use certain strategies to cope with assigned tasks. The notion of purposefulness was outlined by Oxford (2011b), meaning that learners choose and use strategies for particular purposes. All participants regardless of their proficiency levels indicated some degree of purposefulness in their strategy use. Nadine and Ari, for example, preferred to *seek help* from teachers when stumbling upon unknown words. The high group participants argued that asking teachers provided them a clearer solution and this was more effective than seeking help from friends and/or consulting a dictionary. Similarly, Edi would practise acting out a dialogue in front of a mirror in order to lower his anxiety in the actual performance, as seen in his reply “I practise in front of a mirror . in order not to get nervous in the class” (Edi, turns 90 and 94). Amel was also goal-driven when she employed learning strategies. If she had to do a reading task in a limited time, instead of reading the passage first she would preview and attempt to

understand the questions followed by finding out their respective answers in the passage to save her time.

Purposefulness was also reflected in moderate group participants' reported strategy use. Assigned to doing a reading task, Najwa would recheck her work before submitting. She used the strategy of *error-monitoring* to see if there were errors in her work. Fadil, Nirina and Joni would use the strategy of *seeking help* from teachers when encountering unfamiliar words because they would get clearer results compared to asking friends. In another instance, Fadil was goal-driven when she did *note-taking* during her grammar class; she said "I will forget them after a while if I just listen . if I take notes I can look at them again" (Fadil, turn, 167).

Low group participants also used their reported strategies in purposeful ways. For example, Roni said "because wrong answers will result in . result in poor scores" (Roni, turn 119) when asked why he checked his work before submitting it. This excerpt shows that Roni's use of *error-monitoring* was driven by his intention to minimize possible mistakes in his work. Bayu, another low group participant, also suggested his purposefulness in *seeking help* from teachers. He argued that asking his teacher would help him to understand well.

#### **4.3.2.4. Confidence**

Confidence is another category which shows how participants use certain learning strategies. Referring to D. Zhang and Goh (2006) and Wahyuni (2013), this study views confidence as how frequently learners use particular strategies. With regard to the quantitative data, the quantity of strategy use is reflected by words of frequency (e.g. often, frequently, and usually) and repeated use of strategies for different language tasks.

High group participants seemed to use particular learning strategies confidently. They exhibited some confidence in the use of a wide range of learning strategies. Nadine, for instance, often used the strategy of *practising for instructional purposes*. She said "I also practise at school . I often do it" (Nadine, turn 272). Nadine's confidence in *using e-learning resources* was also indicated in her reply "I usually look for the answer in books . in exercise books . then if I don't find them I check them out on the Internet too (Nadine, turn 310). Amel was confident in using the cognitive strategy of *translating* because she used the strategy across different language tasks. She translated important words in a cloze procedure text she dealt with; she translated a dialogue script from Indonesian into English; and she



translated English instructions in games she played. Similarly, Ari recounted that he occasionally exchanged messages in English via Facebook with his pen pals and rechecked his work prior to handing it to his teacher, suggesting his confidence in *seeking opportunities for practice*, *practising for non-instructional purposes*, and *monitoring errors*. Edi, another high group participant, also used various learning strategies, such as *using e-learning resources*, *seeking opportunities for practice*, *practising for non-instructional purposes*, and *cooperating with more proficient others*, in a confident manner, as indicated by the frequency words (in italics) in his description below:

I *frequently* read English books . English magazines . when I was child . I had a collection of magazines about animals. like Butterfly . Sparrow . the magazines were bilingual . the Indonesian text was written in black . while English text in blue . I *used to* read the magazines to my maid's baby (smiling) . I do a lot of practices . speaking with friends in English . like with Hendra . he has a good English command as well . I *often* speak English with him . I *most frequently* get my parents . mom and dad . to ask me some questions based on listening texts . then my mom or dad play an audio recording in their laptop for me (Edi, turns 210, 212 and 272).

Confident use of certain learning strategies was also identified from the moderate group participants. Najwa exhibited her confidence in using the strategy of *error monitoring* when she rechecked to see if she made errors in her work. That she also usually previewed the instruction, title and pictures in a reading text to grasp the general idea suggests that she used the strategy of *advance organization* confidently. Likewise, Fadil used the strategy of note-taking when she coped with different tasks. She opted for the strategy to aid her in comprehending what her teacher explained about grammar lessons and to memorize a list of words. The other two moderate participants also reported using the strategies of *seeking help* and *consulting a dictionary* on various occasions, particularly when they encountered unknown words.

The low group learners seemed to be confident in their strategy use, especially in *seeking help* and *consulting a dictionary*. They reported using the two strategies across different language tasks. For instance, Bayu got help from his teacher when he got stuck with unfamiliar words in a reading text or did not understand a grammar lesson. He also sought help from his elder brother when he found difficulties in doing homework, like asking for

checking the accuracy of his dialogue script for a speaking task. He used this strategy because he could obtain instant, and very likely accurate, answers without expending much effort. In another instance, Roni looked up a dictionary when he found unfamiliar words or when he tried to ensure the accuracy of his dialogue script for a speaking task. He also made use of the dictionary to help him pronounce English words correctly.

#### **4.3.2.5. Thoughtfulness**

Another category identified relative to the way the participants used learning strategies is thoughtfulness. Thoughtfulness is reflected in the extent to which participants are thoughtful in determining whether the strategy they opt for is effective or helpful in certain circumstances. High subgroup participants seemed to use learning strategies in a thoughtful manner and to self-evaluate the effectiveness of their selected strategies. Nadine, for example, said “I usually look for the answer in books . in exercise books . then if I don’t find them I check them out on the Internet too . I will ask for help (Nadine, turns 310 and 312). She seems to be thoughtful about which strategy she opted to use for her task completion. Similarly, Edi was thoughtful in his strategy choice in memorizing words, as is implied in his replies, “let’s say . the English word for *kabel* is cable . then I write cable and draw it . if unable to draw I will simply write the words . I write down the word cable for *kabel* . flower for *bunga*” (Edi, turns 158 and 160). There is no evidence in the interview data to suggest that the participants of the high group used the strategies in a thoughtless way. This could be because they were more aware of a greater number of learning strategies they could opt for in order to cope with the tasks at hand and, moreover, their better proficiency enabled them to use the strategies which were more cognitively demanding.

Moderate proficient participants occasionally seemed to lack thoughtfulness in the use of certain strategies. That Fadil approached a reading passage by reading every word to help her understand and answer given questions although she was aware that she did not have enough time to do so reflects her failure to give much thought to strategy use. Najwa also indicated lack of thoughtfulness in using certain strategies. She used the strategy of *repeating* to help her pronounce words properly, but she simply pronounced the words just the way she liked, without in any way checking the accuracy, consulting a dictionary or getting help. Najwa further said that she would just make some thoughtless guessing if she forgot some words or expressions in her dialogue script and she seemed to pay less attention to how effective her approach was as a means of helping her succeed in her performance.

Lack of thoughtfulness was indicated in the way low group participants used particular strategies. For instance, Yuni would use the strategy of *guessing* when she found unknown words in a reading text and did not think further if the guessing is accurate or not. She simply said “I will answer it without thinking” (Yuni, turn 52). When asked what to do if he encountered unknown words but was not allowed to ask for help or consult a dictionary, Roni replied that he simply wrote the answer and did not care whether it was correct or not. In the same vein, Natalia used the strategy of *seeking help* if she forgot some expression of her dialogue. This strategy choice could be thoughtless because the friend whom she asked might not remember or know the expression and her asking might interrupt their performance. In another instance, she relied only on the strategy of *seeking help* from friends to compensate for her limited vocabulary, especially when she was engaged in a reading activity. Being too dependent on peers whose English proficiency was possibly not good suggested she used the strategy without considering its effectiveness.

In brief, the three groups generally were goal-driven and aware of the reasons for opting for certain strategies. They were also able to combine a range of strategies to help them cope with single language tasks. However, the high group seemed to be more flexible, thoughtful, and confident in exercising their preferred strategies, whereas the lower groups tended to be overly dependent on certain strategies and also use the strategies less thoughtfully. These findings are interesting as they provide insights into learning strategy use among learners of different proficiency and self-efficacy levels. Other similarities and differences among the three groups are noted, as presented in the subsequent section.

### **4.3.3. Motivational behaviours**

The interview data analysis revealed four categories: attribution of success and failure, effort in L2 learning, persistence in the face of difficult tasks, and interest in L2 learning. The four categories were collapsed under one theme, motivational behaviours. The motivational behaviours, indicated by the participants’ approaches to specific language tasks and English learning in general, might well be indicative of self-efficacy among the participants across the high, moderate, and low groups.

#### **4.3.3.1. Attribution of success and failure**

Attribution is the perceived reason causing success and/or failure. It is believed to affect the level of confidence learners have in their ability to do particular tasks and vice versa

(Bandura, 1986). It is also associated with language proficiency (Peacock, 2010). The attribution is found in the participants' answers to the question of what was likely to make them get good grades or poor grades in English lessons.

The participants' answers indicated a common attributional factor, namely effort. As regards good grades, all students regardless of their self-efficacy and proficiency seemed to unanimously ascribe them to effort. Yuni, Nirina, and Amel, who belonged to low, moderate and high groups respectively, answered that they achieved good grades because they had studied hard, which is indicative of effort expenditure. Likewise, nearly all the students attributed poor grades to how much effort they expended. They all contended that the responsibility for the poor grades rested with them. For instance, Joni, a moderate group participant, mentioned the reason for getting poor grades was lack of learning hard and it was his own fault. Similarly, Bayu perceived that his lack of attention during English class was the cause of poor grades.

The students' main attribution of their grades to effort indicates that the perceived cause was within their control and internal to them (Weiner, 1976). Effort is something malleable. This means that the students might believe that they will succeed as long as they exert much effort. Attributing poor grades to lack of effort means that the students do not place the blame for their failures on other individuals, but on themselves. For them, successes and failures in language learning are the students' own responsibility.

In addition to effort, language ability was perceived as another reason for gaining good grades by Nadine and Bayu, who fell into different groups. Attributing to ability can be seen from Nadine's reply " ehh maybe I have known more . I am more knowledgeable because of taking a private English tuition" (turn 222). The attribution to language ability is quite revealing although it only emerged from two participants. Language ability is a stable internal factor, which is controllable (Weiner, 1976). Being controllable, the ability can improve although it might take time.

Other causes attributed to poor and good grades were external factors. Nadine attributed her good grades to the support of her parents and teachers, which is an environmental and external factor. This factor is certainly beyond the control of the student. Similarly, Ari, who was from the high group, was the only one who thought that poor grades were due to task difficulties. Asked about the perceived cause of poor grades, he replied that "the task is

difficult . and answer choices are too . options in multiple choice questions like A B C usually look similar” (turn 354). However, he further contended that he was responsible for the poor grades unless the questions were incorrect or his teacher marked his work incorrectly. Just like the environmental support, task difficulty is an uncontrollable factor.

#### **4.3.3.2. Effort in L2 learning**

Effort in L2 learning refers to effort participants exert to improve their English. In light of Bandura’s (1986) and Linnenbrink and Pintrich’s (2003) view that self-efficacy affects effort expenditure, the amount of effort in L2 task performance could be the clue to the participants’ beliefs of self-efficacy. The interview data revealed the effort which participants of the three groups made in the course of their language learning.

Participants of the high group appeared to put considerable effort into their English learning, as can be seen from their learning activities. Edi actively sought opportunities to practise outside the classroom although he was not assigned this task by his teacher. He described how he strove to improve his English, especially outside the classroom.

I used to read the magazines to my maid’s baby (smiling) . I do a lot of practices . speaking with friends in English . like with Hendra . he has a good English command as well . I often speak English with him . I most frequently get my parents . mom and dad . to make questions based on listening texts . then my mom or dad play an audio material in their laptop for me . initially the material can be played more than once . but it is then played once . if I don’t understand I don’t know what to do (Edi, turns 210, 212, 272).

The quotation shows that Edi’s effort in learning included getting his friends and teachers to speak English with him during recess time. At home, he spent time reading English magazines and retelling the stories. Aware of his perceived weakness in listening, he also asked his parents to make questions based on listening texts. Just as Edi did, Nadine perceived that listening was the most difficult skill to learn, so she did a lot of practices by studying listening lessons on CD and YouTube. Likewise, Ari who used Facebook to communicate with his pen pals overseas and watched English cartoon movies without subtitles showed the great effort expended to improve his English.

The extent of the effort made by the high group was also evident in their reported frequency of opportunities seized to learn English. Ari and Nadine, for example, reported that they studied English three or four times a week, either at home, private tuition centres or school. Additionally, unlike most of their lower group counterparts, when they encountered unknown words or utterances in a given task they exerted effort through inferring the meaning of the words based on the linguistic or non-linguistic clues. They did not merely rely on seeking help from others or consulting a dictionary, which are simple strategies that do not require much cognitive effort.

The high group participants also made effort during instructional processes through being highly attentive. They listened carefully to what their teacher was explaining and thought over the answers for questions addressed to their classmates. The students tried to stay focused on their learning activities despite not being directly involved with their teacher in the classroom interaction. For example, Ari mentioned that “I keep silent while listening to my teachers asking my friend a question... if he is unable to answer I will raise my hand (turns 281 and 283). Similarly, Nadine showed her active involvement and attention in classroom interactions by raising her hand if she was sure she could answer the questions, or letting her friends know their errors and showing them how to fix them.

Participants belonging to the moderate and low groups also put forth some effort in their English learning. They took a range of specific actions which they perceived as helpful in coping with the tasks. For instance, when facing the speaking task, they tried to get well-prepared by writing up a dialogue script, using a dictionary or the Internet and getting more proficient others to check the accuracy of the script, and rehearsing the dialogue with their partners. They also built up their confidence prior to performing the dialogue by making positive statements or thinking that they could perform well. Most of the participants also indicated that they were attentive during classroom activities or language task performances. They paid close attention to texts read out by their teachers or to their teachers’ explanations of grammar lessons: they listened to their teachers asking questions to their classmates and thought over the answers. However, several others, such as Najwa and Natalia, conceded that they occasionally did not give due attention to their teachers’ explanations or the language tasks at hand and did off-task activities instead.

Despite the fact that they made some attempt for completion of tasks and for learning English in general, the moderate and low group learners seemed to put in less effort when compared

with their high group counterparts. They sought to learn English only if they had assigned tasks. They also did not report any activities which involved seeking opportunities to practise English in a naturalistic way, like getting others to speak English with them. They tended to learn only what they were supposed to, namely classroom-related tasks. Additionally, they simply left assigned tasks uncompleted or carried out the tasks thoughtlessly if they were not allowed to use either or both the strategies of *seeking help* and *consulting a dictionary*.

#### **4.3.3.3. Persistence in the face of difficult tasks**

Persistence in the face of difficult tasks is how determined and resilient the participants are in their attempts to cope with language tasks and any associated discouragement during learning activities. Existing literature suggests that self-efficacy beliefs are related to persistence in a task performance (Bandura, 1986; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Zimmerman & Cleary, 2006); in other words, persons who persist longer in a difficult situation might possess strong self-efficacy. Participants of the three groups showed different degrees of persistence, as was evident in the interview data. All participants of the low group were not persistent in the course of learning English. For instance, when encountering unknown words or difficult questions and were not allowed to seek help or look up dictionaries, Bayu and Natalia would leave questions unanswered, while Roni and Yuni would simply answer without thinking. Their low perseverance can also be seen in their preference for easy questions instead of difficult ones, as is indicated by Natalia's replies below.

I which one do you prefer . easy or difficult tasks?

P easy tasks

I why easy ones?

P because they are easy to do (Natalia, turns 218 and 220)

In the moderate group, Najwa and Nirina, for example, preferred taking easy tasks. They argued that easy tasks were faster and easier to do. However, Joni and Fadil preferred difficult tasks because the tasks were challenging and useful for their learning. Regarding the benefit of facing harder questions, Fadil said "to enable us to evaluate ourselves . easy tasks for little children . older children shouldn't be given easy tasks" (Fadil, turn, 184). In another instance, Najwa, Joni, and Nirina showed they were less persistent by their decision to leave questions blank when they did not understand the questions. They would also give up and quit their dialogue performance if they did not remember some part of the dialogue script.

When faced with the difficulty in comprehending questions, they did not seem to exert much effort to find a successful coping mechanism. Nirina, further, envisioned failure and was less confident when she had to do hard questions.

Different from their lower group counterparts, the high group participants showed a high level of perseverance in their learning English. They all indicated their preference for coping with hard tasks rather than easy ones. Regarding this choice, Edi, for example, argued that “ehhh challenging so that I can update my knowledge . I find the difficult questions challenging . full of tension . we will feel great” (Edi, turns 362 and 370). Edi also seemed to persevere in his attempt to improve his speaking skill by getting other people, especially his peers, to speak English with him, although some of them did not respond. Nadine specifically exhibited her confidence when facing difficult questions by being optimistic and envisioning success in doing the questions. Instead of being discouraged, she would keep striving to solve the problems because of her conviction of her English ability. She explicitly noted that she had studied hard, by doing such as taking a private course and practising with her family.

#### **4.3.3.4. Interest in L2 learning**

Interest in L2 learning is defined as the extent to which the participants are enthusiastic in task performances and like learning the target language. Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2003) and Schunk and Zimmerman (1997) underlined the idea that interest in tasks relates to self-efficacy regardless of there being no conclusive causal order. Students might be interested in learning because they perceive themselves capable of achieving well, or the other way around. The three groups seemed to differ in how much they were interested in English. Most participants of the low group had only marginal interest in studying English. Bayu, Natalia, and Yuni explicitly contended that they were not very interested in learning English because of such factors as the difficulty of pronunciation and their limited vocabulary. Their low level of interest can also be assumed from the low frequency of their attempts to learn English outside the school. Bayu and Yuni studied English once a week while Natalia admitted never doing so.

Most moderate group participants had less interest in English because they found English complicated. For example, when asked whether he liked English, Fadil replied “not much...because some are complicated . well what is complicated is sometimes the accuracy of the words . the use of the words must be correct as well (Fadil, turns 201, 203 and 205).



Interestingly, in spite of their low interest they were aware of the importance of learning English. Najwa, as others, realized that English was an international language and that acquiring it would enable her to communicate with foreigners. For them, acknowledging the importance or value of tasks or things does not necessarily give rise to interest.

Quite differently, the high group participants appeared to like and enjoy English learning: they found it fun and interesting. Their strong interest might result from their awareness of the benefit of learning English and their ability to make use of alternative learning resources. Ari, for example, enjoyed learning English through watching movies without English subtitles, Facebooking with pen pals overseas, and playing online games. Another high group participant, Nadine, explicitly expressed her interest in English; she said “I like . it is fun . I can learn a new language . I can learn new things . it is helpful . very helpful for people talk to those who cannot speak Indonesian (Nadine, turns 192, 194, 196, 198). Likewise, Edi was highly interested in English because he wanted to be able to communicate with foreigners, to secure a scholarship and a good future job, and certainly to play games with English instructions. For Edi, online games and English magazines were intended not only for learning but also for fun.

The findings resulting from the interview data show the strategic and motivational behaviours of students of different proficiency and self-efficacy. The findings seem to provide a clear picture of the inter-relationships between strategy use, self-efficacy and proficiency. The inter-relationships indicate that students with a higher proficiency level were 1) the students who used a greater range of learning strategies and used them flexibly, confidently, thoughtfully, and 2) the students who held firm self-efficacy, as is indicated by their effort, persistence, and interest in language learning. To help readers easily grasp the development and relationships shown by the research results, results of quantitative and qualitative data analyses will be incorporated in the following section.

#### **4.4. Integration of quantitative and qualitative results**

The quantitative findings revealed that at category level the participants were generally high users of strategies, with socio-affective strategies the most-frequently used and cognitive strategies the least. In line with the category level, four out of the five most frequent strategy items were socio-affective, namely *practising with classmates*, *seeking help*, *asking others to repeat or speak slowly*, and *praising one-self*. Another frequently used strategy item fell into

the metacognitive category. By comparison, all the least frequently used strategy items were cognitive strategies aimed at assisting memorizing simple information (i.e. *mental imagery* and *word association*) and *practising outside of classrooms*.

Turning to the results of the qualitative analysis, a total of 38 strategies were identified from the interview data. The strategies were then collapsed into three categories consisting of cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective. Some of the strategies were not covered in the Indonesian Children's SILL or even Oxford's (1990) strategy model. The strategies include the cognitive strategies of *observing objects while memorizing* and *using song*, the socio-affective strategies of *relaxation*, *facing away from the audience*, *using fun and non-conventional learning resources*, the metacognitive strategies of *planning learning resources* and *identifying learning difficulties*. These strategies suggest there is a considerable variability in the way the young learners cope with given tasks and regulate their learning. Expanding the Indonesian Children's SILL is therefore necessary.

Self-efficacy was also a variable of particular interest. Measured through the C-SELEQ, on average the participants had relatively strong English efficacy beliefs and self-regulated learning efficacy. In other words, they were quite confident in their ability to perform English tasks and regulate their own learning.

The current study demonstrates significant differences in strategy use and self-efficacy as functions of gender and school location. Female students outnumbered their male counterparts in the use of cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective strategy categories. Female students also possessed higher self-efficacy in English and self-regulated learning. In regard to school location, urban and suburban students reported greater use of the three strategy categories and held firmer English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy than rural students.

Primarily, this study examined the relationship between learning strategies, self-efficacy, and language proficiency. A link between learning strategy use and proficiency could be observed in the results of both the quantitative and qualitative data analyses. The descriptive analysis revealed that students of varying proficiency levels shared some similarities and differences in their reported use of the three strategy categories. They had the same general pattern of preferences in their strategies, with the socio-affective category being the most preferred and the cognitive category the least. Similar patterns were also observed in their preferences of

the strategy items. The participants of the three groups reported using socio-affective strategies of *seeking help*, *praising oneself*, *practising with classmates*, and *asking others to repeat or speak slowly*, along with the metacognitive strategy of *analysing errors and trying not to repeat them* as the most frequent strategies. The pattern of the least frequently used strategy items among the three groups is also identical. All the least frequently used strategies were cognitive strategies, and they were mainly for memorizing simple information (e.g. *mental imagery* and *word associations*) and *practising outside the classroom*. Despite the identical pattern of strategy preferences, the students' frequency of the use of the strategies was quite different, especially between the low and high group groups. Additionally, the high group reported *reading books and playing games* as one of the least preferred strategies, while their lower counterparts reported trying to *understand without translating word for word* as being the least preferred.

The differences in the frequency of strategy use seen from the descriptive statistics were supported by the MANOVA results. The MANOVA results indicated that the students of different proficiency differed significantly in their use of overall learning strategy categories. The follow-up ANOVAs showed that the three groups differed in their use of the three strategy categories. More importantly, the effect size of proficiency on strategy use was moderate for cognitive and socio-affective categories and large for metacognitive category. The post-hoc tests supported the descriptive statistics in the sense that students with low proficiency differed from those with moderate and high proficiency in each of the three categories, while the moderate and high proficiency students only differed in the metacognitive category.

The result of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis also provides empirical evidence of the relationship between strategy use and proficiency. Unlike in the MANOVA, this multiple regression analysis used strategies as the independent variables. With gender, school location, and length of study being controlled, metacognitive strategies were a significant predictor of proficiency and explained about 8% of variance in proficiency, while socio-affective and cognitive strategies were not.

Qualitative data also helped explain the relationship between strategy use and proficiency, although these data did not indicate whether strategies affected proficiency or the other way round. The qualitative data revealed that students who had better proficiency used a greater range of strategies than those with lower proficiency. This difference might result from the

greater awareness of the proficient students of how to regulate their learning and cope with their language tasks more effectively. The higher proficiency students not only differed from the lower proficiency in the number of strategies used but also in their preference for strategy types. The differences in the types of strategies seemed to be the distinctive feature of the students with different proficiency. The strategies which required better knowledge in L2 vocabulary and grammar, greater effort, more confidence and initiative to improve their English were only associated with the higher proficiency students. *Linguistic inferencing, practising for non-instructional purposes, seeking opportunities for practice, and evaluating performance and learning progress* are the examples of the complex strategies. By contrast, less taxing and less complex strategies, such as *repeating, seeking help, and using learning resources*, were shared by students of all proficiency levels.

Additionally, the way students of different proficiency levels used learning strategies also suggests the relationship between strategy use and proficiency. The low, moderate, and high proficiency students were essentially aware of the reasons for choosing and using particular strategies, and they reported using a number of strategies to help them perform a single language task. However, despite these similarities, the high proficiency students had more flexibility, thoughtfulness, and confidence in their strategy use than did their lower counterparts. In brief, both quantitative and qualitative results suggest that the students who were more proficient were different from those less proficient in their reported frequency of use and preference for types of learning strategies, but also the way the learning strategies were used.

As with proficiency, self-efficacy beliefs also related to learning strategy, as was observed in the results of the one-way MANOVAs. Students who had higher sense of English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy used learning strategies with greater frequencies than did their lower counterparts. The students were different not only in their overall learning strategy categories, but also in the three strategy categories (i.e. cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective). The results suggest that the students' beliefs in their ability to perform English tasks and to use the strategies in some way affect their strategy use. The effect sizes of the self-efficacy beliefs were large on the overall learning strategies, and on the cognitive and metacognitive categories, whereas their effect on the socio-affective category was moderate.

The hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that self-efficacy for learning English, which is the combined score of English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning, was a significant predictor of proficiency. This suggests that students who had strong beliefs in their ability to perform English tasks and regulating their learning were likely to have better proficiency.

The quantitative findings were confirmed by the results of the interview analysis. The interview analysis showed that the students, regardless of proficiency and self-efficacy levels, shared the same attribution tendency. All of them attributed their success in language learning to their own effort and attributed their failure to their lack of effort. However, the students with different proficiency and self-efficacy still had notable differences. The students with higher proficiency and self-efficacy expended more effort to improve their English or to cope with language tasks and displayed strong interest in learning English. They were also more resilient and persistent in the course of learning English, especially in coping with difficult language tasks. By comparison, although students with lower proficiency and self-efficacy also, in some way, put forth some effort in their learning processes, they tended to opt for specific actions or strategies that were less taxing and fewer compared to those of the higher counterparts. The lower proficiency and self-efficacy students also showed less persistence and were easily discouraged. Further, they were much less interested in learning English despite their acknowledging the importance of acquiring English. In short, the qualitative findings seem to both confirm the quantitative findings and add further insights and understanding to our knowledge of the relationship between learning strategy, self-efficacy, and proficiency.

#### **4.5. Conclusion**

It should be recalled that the purposes of the current research were to examine strategy use and self-efficacy among the Indonesian EFL primary school students, and primarily determine how the strategy use, self-efficacy, and proficiency relate each other. This chapter has highlighted the reported frequency of use of learning strategies, among all students and students of different proficiency levels. This chapter also presented the statistically significant differences in learning strategies and self-efficacy as a function of gender and school locations, and the significant relationships between learning strategies, self-efficacy beliefs, and proficiency. Qualitative findings on the strategic and motivational behaviours of the students of different proficiency and self-efficacy were also showcased. Additionally, this

chapter reported a synthesis of the quantitative and qualitative findings. Several key findings that resulted from the synthesis will be discussed in light of the existing literature in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER 5

# DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

---

### 5.1. Introduction

This study set out to identify the strategy preferences reported by the Indonesian primary school students, to assess the self-efficacy beliefs the students held, to examine if there were differences in strategy use and self-efficacy across gender and school location, and, primarily, to examine the inter-relationship between their learning strategies, self-efficacy and proficiency. In this chapter the synthesized findings of both quantitative and qualitative data analyses presented in section 4.4 are discussed in light of previous research and relevant theories. The chapter first presents a discussion of the learning strategy use of all students (5.2) and the students of varying proficiency levels (5.3). The findings about the students' degree of self-efficacy for English and self-regulated learning are also discussed (5.4). Then the findings about strategy differences by gender and school location (5.5) and about self-efficacy differences by gender and school location (5.6) are discussed. This chapter then discusses the relations between learning strategies and proficiency (5.7), between learning strategies and self-efficacy (5.8), and between self-efficacy and proficiency (5.9). A brief summary of important points is provided at the close of the chapter (5.10).

### 5.2. Learning strategy use among all students

The learning strategies overall were reported to be used with a fairly high frequency ( $M = 3.6$ ) by all the six graders participating in the study, meaning that they *usually* used the strategies (see sections 4.2.1.1 and 4.2.1.2). This finding concurs with that of Gunning (1997) who studied ESL primary school students in Québec and reported a moderately high level of strategy use. The participants' use of learning strategies was higher than that of young learners in past studies carried out in EFL contexts (Lan, 2005; Lan & Oxford, 2003) and in ESL contexts (Gunning, 2011; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007), which was at a moderate frequency with means ranging from 2.8 to 2.9 on a 5-point scale. The difference between the finding of this study and that of the previous studies with young learners might result from the differences in the questionnaires used. Although the current study and two previous studies with Taiwanese students administered an adapted version of Gunning's (1997)

Children SILL, the SILL in this current study comprised only 16 items resulting from the EFA instead of 30 items as was used in the previous studies.

Compared to adult learners also, the participants of this study reported using strategies at higher frequencies. The strategy use among EFL adult learners has been found to be moderate (Khalil, 2005; Lai, 2009). In addition to the difference in the number of the questionnaire items, the possibility that adult learners were more careful in labelling their learning behaviours as strategies or that they were less conscious of strategies following repeated use of the strategies may be other reasons for the different findings.

At category level, socio-affective strategies were the most preferred for the participants of this study. On the one hand, this finding is in part consistent with previous studies with young learners (Gunning, 2011; Lan, 2005) reporting that affective strategies were the most frequently used. This type of strategy was also among the most preferred strategies in another study by Lan and Oxford (2003). The similar finding revealed by the studies across learning and cultural contexts implies that learners of young age possibly are not only aware of the necessity to cope with their anxiety and boost their motivation but also know well how to do so. In the social part of socio-affective strategies, the finding appeared to align well with the studies by Magogwe and Oliver (2007) and Victori and Tragant (2003), which reported the prevalence of social strategies among young and adolescent learners. However, this finding does not accord with that of other studies, for example Gunning (2011) and Lan and Oxford (2003) showing that social strategies were one of the least frequently used strategies. The high use of social strategies among the current study's participants is a good signal, meaning that they were not only quite confident in learning with or from peers or proficient others, but also were aware of the need and benefit of learning with others. The likely reason for the popularity of social strategies among primary learners is their young age, as suggested in the study conducted by Magogwe and Oliver (2007). Their study, which examined learning strategies across ages in Botswana, showed that young students reported more frequent use of social strategies than their older counterparts, implying that social strategy use decreases as age increases. Another possible reason is that the cultural value of collectiveness Indonesian people hold (Bowen, 1986) might affect the students' preference to learn with/from others.

Moderately high use of metacognitive strategies suggests that the young students made an effort to regulate their learning, regardless of whether their effort was effective or not. This is in line with previous studies (Gunning, 2011; Lan & Oxford, 2003) that have indicated that



metacognitive strategies are one of the preferred strategies among young learners studying second/foreign languages. The finding here, however, does not confirm the results of Sugeng's (1997) study which also examined Indonesian primary school students' strategies and reported that metacognitive strategies were the least frequently used. The low level of metacognitive strategy use in Sugeng's study was no surprise because classroom observations which he used to collect the data are less effective in identifying metacognitive strategies because they are mainly unobservable processes.

Cognitive strategies were the least frequent among the participants of this research. This does not support Sugeng's (1997) research which indicated an opposite finding. The contradictory findings are reasonable because of the different data collection techniques used. Classroom observations that Sugeng applied tended to effectively identify overt strategic behaviours, which mainly fell into cognitive strategies. The result of the current study, however, is similar to what Lan & Oxford (2003) found in their study with Taiwanese primary school students, reporting that cognitive and memory strategies were the least preferred. Recall that the items of the cognitive strategy categories in this study involved a number of cognitive and memory strategy items in Gunning's (1997) Children SILL, which was adapted by Lan and Oxford's study. Quite possibly the children in this study chose to use cognitive strategies the least because the strategies involve deliberate manipulation of the target language. Such manipulation could be hard for young children who have inadequate knowledge of L2 vocabulary and grammar and are less familiar with the strategies. In other words, the children who resort to using some cognitive strategies are likely to be those who have adequate L2 knowledge and strategic knowledge at their disposal.

At the strategy item level, the socio-affective strategies of *seeking help* and *practising with classmates* were most favoured among the participants; the mean scores were 4.0. The participants' preference for help-seeking was identical with that of EFL/ESL primary school students in other studies (Gunning, 1997, 2011; Lan, 2005; Lan & Oxford, 2003). Qualitative data in this study which showed that seeking help from more proficient others or peers was used by all interviewees regardless of their proficiency and self-efficacy levels also supports this survey finding. They mainly relied on their teachers as the source persons because they perceived the teachers as more knowledgeable in the target language. Seeking help as a favourite way to cope with learning problems is not surprising for young learners across cultural and learning contexts because they can obtain instant and possibly correct outcomes

and did not expend much effort. The frequent help-seeking does not necessarily mean that the students are passive and not smart. The help-seeking denotes that the students of a young age have knowledge of persons who can possibly provide help, knowledge of the time when they need help, and courage to express their need for help instead of simply giving up (Newman, 2002). This strategy is basically positive, unless students use it excessively and downplay alternative strategies which might be more effective.

*Practising with classmates* found to be one of the most frequent strategies in use is also of interest. Cooperative learning which has been promoted in Indonesian schools (Kristiawan, 2013) might well have created plenty of opportunities for the students to learn with their classmates. The young students might also feel more comfortable and less threatened when learning with peers rather than older people. The frequent use of practising with classmates appears to be a positive sign for the students because language learning involves not only cognitive processes (MacWhinney, 1997) but also social processes (Norton & Toohey, 2001). In spite of their frequent practising with classmates, the students still need to be urged to apply the strategy to wider contexts. This is because, as the interview data suggests, most students only practised what was related to classroom tasks.

The study found *mental imagery* ( $M = 2.9$ ) and *seeking practice opportunities* ( $M = 2.5$ ) the least frequently used strategies. This finding is in line with that of Lan and Oxford's (2003) research, which showed that *mental imagery* was one of the least frequent strategies. The unpopularity of making mental pictures is possibly because the students are not familiar with various ways of memorizing words because of their L2 learning experiences. They might rely more on *repeating or rehearsing* ( $M = 3.3$ ) and be unaware of other possible memorizing strategies (e.g. songs, mind mapping). This is suggested by the higher mean score of this strategy than that of other memory-related strategies. The qualitative results also support this argument. Repetition, generally associated with Asians' learning approach (K. R. Lee & Oxford, 2008), was reported by all the interviewees. Confirmed by my personal experience, *repetition* seems to be prevalent in English classrooms in the Indonesian contexts because their English teachers, as Ivone (2005) argued, commonly teach through drilling, and the emphasis of English learning in the primary or high schools is vocabulary and grammar mastery. It is, therefore, a challenge for the teachers to enable their young students to be capable of exercising other memory-related strategies, such as song and mental imagery

which are believed to improve language ability and make learning more fun (Millington, 2011; Munsakorn, 2012).

As was mentioned previously, *seeking opportunities to practise outside the classroom* was also one of the least frequently employed strategies ( $M = 2.9$ ). This suggests that the young students lack initiative and/or opportunities for practising English. English is a foreign language which is not used in their surroundings, and this perhaps caused them to less frequently practise English outside the classroom. For some students, their limited language ability coupled with a lack of confidence might also be a hindrance in practising outside the class.

### **5.3. Learning strategy use among students of different proficiency levels**

The Indonesian Children's SILL data revealed that the students, regardless of their proficiency levels, shared nearly identical patterns of strategy preference (see sections 4.2.1.3 and 4.2.1.4). They were in favour of *getting help from others*, *complimenting themselves on their task accomplishment*, *asking others to repeat or speak slowly*, and *practising with their classmates*. They also frequently attempted to monitor their task performance through *analysing errors and trying not to repeat them*. Interestingly, *seeking help* was the most favoured strategy for the low and moderate proficiency students. Although it made sense for young learners to prefer seeking help, the lower proficiency students seemed to be excessively dependent on others' help when they encountered learning problems. Indeed, this strategy was also frequently used by the high proficiency students, but not their most frequent one. This could be because the high proficiency students did not simply rely on others but sought other ways to cope with their learning difficulties as well. As the qualitative findings suggest, the lower proficiency students would simply give up or make wild guesses if they were not allowed to ask for help or consult a dictionary, whereas the higher proficiency students would guess based on linguistic or non-linguistic clues.

That the metacognitive strategy of *analysing errors and trying not to repeat them* was one of the most frequently used strategies for all students is another interesting point. Even more interestingly is that this strategy was the most favoured for the high proficiency students, implying their better metacognitive knowledge. The high use of this strategy might suggest the effort made by the students across proficiency to oversee their own task completion. The popularity of this strategy quite possibly results from common practices among Indonesian

teachers to remind their pupils to check their work before handing it in or from grammar-focused lessons emphasizing accuracy.

Just with the most preferred strategies, the least preferred ones were quite identical among the low, moderate, and high proficiency students. These students deployed infrequently *mental imagery* and *word associations* for vocabulary memorization. Quite possibly, many of the students do not realize there are alternative ways of memorizing words other than repetition. They might also be less capable of making use of their background knowledge to allow them to make an association of words with other words or sounds they have known either in L1 or L2. In addition to the memory-related strategies, the students were found to lack initiative to *find opportunities to practise their English outside of the classroom*, which is not surprising for young learners. This strategy ranked at the very bottom of the sixteen strategies listed in the questionnaire for the students of all proficiency levels. The young students might find the strategy intimidating due to their limited L2 knowledge. Lack of school support for students to practise outside the classroom and the status of the students as EFL learners might also explain why this strategy was the least used.

What is noteworthy here is that, despite the nearly identical preferences for the strategies the frequency with which the strategies were used remained different: the higher proficiency students reported more frequent strategy use. It is also important to bear in mind that the findings resulted from descriptive statistics, namely mean scores, thereby being applicable only to the sample. These results were simply to demonstrate the most and least used strategies among the students of different proficiency levels. Statistically significant differences in the strategy preference across proficiency are discussed in section 5.7.1.

#### **5.4. Self-efficacy beliefs in learning English**

The questionnaire data revealed that on average the students possessed fairly strong beliefs in self-efficacy in learning English, as shown in Table 4.7. Specifically, the students demonstrated fairly high confidence in their capability to regulate their own learning ( $M = 3.8$ ,  $SD = .6$ ) and in completing English tasks ( $M = 3.8$ ,  $SD = 6$ ). Simply put, they might say “I can do it”. It is quite surprising that the Indonesian young learners, who learn in teacher-dominated learning environments (Karli, 2009), felt confident with their capability, particularly in self-regulation. Similar findings were observed in previous work on children’s self-efficacy conducted in Western countries (Joët et al., 2011; Usher & Pajares, 2008). That

the Indonesian students possess quite firm self-efficacy, as do their counterparts from other cultural backgrounds, is particularly interesting as previous work (Eaton & Dembo, 1997; Leung, 2001; Mau, 2000) has indicated that Asian students were found inferior to Western students in self-efficacy.

Compared to older students participating in previous studies, the students in the current study had firmer self-efficacy. For, example, in Gahunngu's (2009) study, university students who studied French as a foreign language had weak self-efficacy for performing language tasks, with the mean of 2.4 on a 6-point scale. Studies (Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Usher & Pajares, 2008) which specifically compared students of different ages have also demonstrated that young learners surpass their older counterparts in self-efficacy beliefs.

A possible explanation for this finding is that young students are less reticent in judging their capability. This does not necessarily mean that the young students over-rated their ability to perform given tasks. Early adolescents, like the students in this study, were less likely to make an overestimation of their competence. This is because, as Schneider (2008) contended, children's metacognitive ability improves as they grow older. Needless to say, regardless of the students' fairly strong self-efficacy, it is still important for teachers to assist them to enhance their sense of self-efficacy, particularly learners with low self-efficacy, and to enable them to make more accurate assessments of their self-efficacy.

### **5.5. Learning strategy differences across gender and school location**

As reported in section 4.2.3.1, the Mann-Whitney U tests showed that female students outnumbered male students in socio-affective and cognitive strategy use. This finding does not support the findings in Sugeng's (1997) study, which was also conducted in an Indonesian primary school context. That study indicated no link between gender and strategy use. The different findings might stem from the different strategy assessment technique used and/or the socio-economic background of the participants. The current study employed a self-reporting questionnaire while Sugeng's used observations. Unlike Sugeng who took participants from one urban private school and middle class families, this study involved participants from various social-economic backgrounds enrolled in several schools in urban, rural and suburban regions. This study's finding, however, is consistent with that of Lan and Oxford (2003) who conducted their study in another EFL context, Taiwan. The significant difference in strategy use might suggest that female students tend to be more cognitively and

socially engaged in learning than their male counterparts (Gemici & Lu, 2014; Rovai & Baker, 2005). As Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2003) posited, students' engagement can be viewed, among others, in term of their strategy use. In view of social cognitive theory, the different engagement itself could be the result of various factors, such as environmental supports or cognitive and affective dispositions, rather than of biological qualities.

Meanwhile, the Kruskal-Wallis H tests displayed differences in cognitive, socio-affective and metacognitive strategy use between students from rural and urban and rural and suburban schools, but not between suburban and urban students (see section 4.2.3.2). Different degrees of engagement among the students in the three groups could be an explanation for the difference in strategy use. Compared to rural students, students in urban and suburban schools might be more engrossed in learning through employing more strategies to cope with their language tasks. Their higher engagement might result from, such as, better school environment and supportive teachers (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; Gemici & Lu, 2014). Based on my personal observation, urban and suburban primary schools in Indonesia generally are characterized by better school amenities, learning resources and teacher quality than rural schools; these certainly give the urban and suburban students an advantage. Quality teachers in urban and suburban schools are likely more supportive. They can give their students challenging and authentic language tasks which indirectly encourage them to exert intensive effort and employ various strategies, and the teachers provide support to them to accomplish the tasks.

Another possible explanation of the significant strategy differences is family support. Families play important roles in children's academic achievements (Steinberg, 1996). Families of urban and suburban students are perhaps more supportive for their children than those of rural students. Urban students, involved in the interview session here, revealed that their parents and older siblings were willing to accompany them when doing English tasks and provide help if needed; they even became partners in speaking practices. This kind of family support might be limited for rural students, especially for those whose parents or siblings have very little English. The urban and suburban students also have easy access to the Internet either at home or school, which allows them to learn English through YouTube or social media. Such Internet-based learning strategies might not be an option for rural students due to limited access to the Internet.

## **5.6. Self-efficacy beliefs across gender and school location**

The results of our study demonstrated a statistically significant difference between male and female in both English self-efficacy and self-efficacy for self-regulated learning (see section 4.2.4.1). The results concur with previous studies on gender differences in self-efficacy for self-regulated learning (Mills et al., 2007) and general academic self-efficacy (Pajares et al., 2000); it is reported that girls hold firmer self-efficacy than boys. In view of socio-cognitive theory, gender differences are attributed to the interaction of environmental and personal factors rather than to biological qualities (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Differences in self-efficacy by gender in this study possibly related to attitude towards language learning. As Clark and Trafford (1995) found, girls tend to approach their L2 tasks more seriously and expend more time on them while boys tend to be careless and spend less time. Or, the difference may be simply because of gender-linked conceptions (Pajares, 2002); it is perceived that girls have better language aptitude than boys, and language learning is more suitable for girls (Clark & Trafford, 1995; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000).

This current study also found statistically significant differences in both the combined self-efficacy scores, and English self-efficacy and self-efficacy for self-regulated learning separately as a function of school location (see section 4.2.4.2). Urban and suburban students were superior in terms of confidence in their ability to perform English tasks and self-regulation to their rural counterparts. More importantly, school location had moderate effects on the self-efficacy beliefs, suggesting a meaningful practical significance.

In view of Bandura's triadic reciprocity, such differences could be the result of English proficiency and/or environmental factors. With regard to the finding of this study that proficiency was related to school location, proficiency is also likely to play a part in the degree of self-efficacy. It may be reasonably thought that urban and suburban students who were more proficient than rural students also felt more confident in their English ability as well as the ability for self-regulation.

Environmental factors could be teachers, schoolmates, school facilities, and families. Teachers in Indonesian urban or suburban primary schools, who normally have graduated from English teaching departments, might have better approaches to teaching English to young learners than their rural counterparts, who usually have no English teaching

qualification and are teachers of other subjects. Urban teachers, for example, possibly are more capable of providing positive feedback on their students' English task performances or giving them fairly difficult tasks which can be accomplished with reasonable effort. As regards the link between proficiency and school location, students in urban and suburban schools might have an edge on rural students because they have more classmates who achieve well in English. As a result, they have more chances to observe their peers succeed in doing given English tasks; through such observations, the students might get more convinced that they can do successfully what their peers do. Feedback, previous successful accomplishment, and observing others' successful accomplishments are key factors in raising self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Joët et al., 2011). Furthermore, although the results cannot be compared directly to those of the current study, the role of environmental factors was underscored by Wright's (1999) study, which demonstrated the significant influence of teachers, classmates, and school facilities on attitudes towards L2 learning.

## **5.7. Relationships between strategy use and proficiency**

### **5.7.1. Frequencies of strategy use and proficiency**

The MANOVA, with strategy use set as the dependent variable and proficiency as the independent variable, showed that the students who had different proficiency levels differed significantly in their overall strategy use in favour of the higher proficiency students (see section 4.3.1.1). This linear relationship corroborates with much strategy research involving participants across ages (e.g. Lai, 2009; Lan & Oxford, 2003; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007). In other words, curvilinear relations in which moderate proficiency students report more frequent strategy use, as was indicated in several studies (Green & Oxford, 1995; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Phillips, 1991), were not observed in the current study.

The follow-up analyses of variance further indicated that the students were different in the three strategy categories, namely socio-affective, cognitive, and metacognitive. The tests indicated a general trend that students who had better proficiency tended to report higher frequency of use of the three strategy categories than did their lower proficiency counterparts. This trend possibly reflects that 1) the higher proficiency students are more aware of any possible affect problems and the ways to deal with them, as well as of the necessity of learning from/with others, 2) they have greater awareness and capability to manipulate or



transform information for their task completion, and 3) they are better at planning and overseeing their own learning processes.

In spite of the different strategy classifications and the number of strategy items in the instrument, this finding, at least, to some extent accords with past studies (Gunning, 2011; Lan, 2005; Lan & Oxford, 2003; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007) with primary school students in both ESL and EFL contexts. The previous studies yielded significant differences in the overall strategy use, as well as all or several categories of strategies, as a function of proficiency, with students of high proficiency levels reporting more frequent strategy use.

This current study showed that the effect sizes of proficiency on the overall strategies and the strategy categories ranged from .09 to .14, as was indicated by their partial  $\eta^2$ . Comparatively, the effect size of proficiency on strategy use observed in Gunning's (2011) study, which also ran MANOVA, was .06 which is lower than those in the current study. Assuming that learning strategies are a complex construct which is affected by a range of factors (e.g. motivation, learning styles, gender, age), the magnitude of the effect of proficiency on strategy use is moderately large. Interestingly, the effect size of proficiency on metacognitive is large compared to that of proficiency on the other strategy categories or the overall strategies. This means that proficiency has a stronger relation with metacognitive strategies than with the other strategy categories.

Quite similar to the MANOVA, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis indicated a relationship between strategy use and proficiency (see section 4.2.6). The regression analyses, which set learning strategies as the independent variable, showed that metacognitive strategies were the significant predictor of proficiency, whereas socio-affective and cognitive strategies were not. This suggests that the students who made more effort in regulating their learning through the use of metacognitive strategies would likely outperform their peers who did not. Specifically, the students' proficiency, to some extent, could be attributed to their attempts to plan and monitor their learning processes by such means as looking for occasions to speak English, listening attentively, analysing errors and trying not to repeat errors.

Compared to other studies which also put learning strategies as a predictor variable, this finding agrees with that of Jurkovič (2010) and Nisbet, Tindall, and Arroyo (2005) who looked into the effect of learning strategies on L2 achievements among Chinese university

students. The agreement of the finding in this study and the past studies, despite the fact that the studies were conducted with students of a different age and in different contexts, suggests the major role of metacognitive strategies in learning foreign languages.

Needless to say, the role of metacognitive strategies has been recognized in the body of theoretical and empirical literature on language learners' metacognition and strategic learning (Thompson, 2012; Vandergrift, 2003; Vandergrift & Goh, 2011; Wenden, 1998). Emphasising the importance of metacognitive strategies, O'Malley, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985, p. 561) argued that "students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishment, and future direction." With the strategies at their disposal, the learners can manage and regulate their cognitive processes, behaviours, and learning environments. The finding of the present study, as well as that of previous studies, lends support to this claim that metacognitive skills are crucial for the improvement of language ability and, in the long run, for learners' self-regulation (Dörnyei, 2010; Zimmerman, 1989a).

The disclosure that cognitive and social strategies were not significant predictors of proficiency did not support the finding of Park's (1997) study of Korean university students. A likely explanation for this may be that other aspects of strategic behaviours, such as differences in the preference for particular strategies and the way learning strategies were used, rather than simply the frequency of cognitive and socio-affective strategy use, might contribute to the language proficiency of the primary school students.

It is worth noting that the directions in both the MANOVA and multiple regression analysis were simply theoretical orientations and did not suggest causality. However, if the findings that socio-affective and cognitive strategies were not significant predictors of proficiency and that proficiency affected the two strategies instead are true, it means that higher proficiency has allowed the students to employ the two strategies more frequently, not the other way round. In other words, knowledge of some learning strategies comes after better language proficiency. This claim seems to make sense because some cognitive strategies, such as synonym, mind mapping, or analysing expressions, require better linguistic knowledge. Thus, training in such strategies might give less benefit to low proficiency students.

Admittedly, relying merely on the frequency of strategy use makes the quantitative representation about the relationship between strategy use and proficiency look superficial.

The interview data, therefore, is essential for shedding light on the nature of the relationship between strategy use and proficiency that has been suggested by the statistical analyses.

### **5.7.2. Qualitative dimensions in strategy use among students of different proficiency levels**

The analyses of the interview transcripts revealed that the students of low, moderate, and high proficiency shared various similar strategies (see sections 4.3.1 and 4.3.2). The kinds of strategies are labelled as bedrock strategies (Green & Oxford, 1995) or core strategies (Griffiths, 2003a). The students attempted to improve their English or cope with language tasks by exercising various strategies, such as *repetition*, *using dictionaries*, and *practising and preparing given tasks in advance*. The young students also demonstrated their relative agency to manage their learning through *structuring their physical learning environments*, *being attentive to their teachers' instruction and ignoring possible distractors* while doing given tasks. They were also aware of and able to discuss their problems in the course of learning English through *asking for correction, clarification and help*, which certainly benefits teachers to offer individual assistance or to design lesson plans. These strategic actions seem to prove that young students, regardless of language ability, are developing their potential to regulate their learning.

Apart from their shared strategies, students who were more proficient employed a greater range of strategies than those who were not. The higher proficiency students used nearly twice as many strategies as their lower counterparts. This finding was in line with the findings of other qualitative research with primary school students which have shown that high achieving students use a larger number of strategies (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999). More strategic actions taken by the higher proficiency students are indicative of their broader strategic knowledge, which possibly results from richer learning experiences. Such experiences might come from, among other things, the private English tuition that most of the higher proficiency students have. Amel, for example, learnt about the way of memorizing vocabulary through *mind mapping* and *using songs* not from her school teacher but from her English tutor.

In addition to the number of strategies, the differences between the students lay in the types of strategy items they deployed. Learning strategies which were cognitively demanding or required better knowledge of the target language tended to be prevalent among students with

higher proficiency. *Linguistic inferencing* was an example of the complex strategies, which assisted higher proficiency learners to comprehend texts better. By comparison, in the absence of non-linguistic clues the students with limited knowledge of L2 grammar and vocabulary seemed to simply rely on making wild guesses instead of making inferences based on the linguistic clues when they came to unknown words. It is quite possible that the students' limited language ability did not allow them to use such a strategy. Another example relates to *the use of learning resources*. The higher proficiency students were more resourceful in that they made use of more varied resources (e.g. the Internet, book, dictionary, social media), whereas most of those with the lower proficiency tended to rely mainly on school textbooks and dictionaries.

The difference in relation to proficiency is even more obvious in metacognitive strategy use. Unlike their lower proficiency counterparts who solely learned what and when they were supposed to learn, students with higher proficiency were better at managing their own learning both inside and outside the classroom through planning for learning activities and monitoring their learning progresses on their own initiative. For example, such students actively *sought out opportunities to improve their English* such as getting friends or family members to speak with them, reading books in their free time, and exchanging messages in English via social media. They also *oversaw their comprehension of given texts during task completion* and *evaluated their learning progress*. In the strategy research literature, such actions are attributes of good language learners (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). Additionally, the higher proficiency students were more effective in task completion in that they focused more on the information in a text that was needed to answer questions, whereas the lower proficiency tended to cling to detailed information in a text. The higher proficiency students' preferences of specific strategy items appear to be another distinguishing characteristic of their strategic behaviours.

Qualitative differences about the way learning strategies were deployed also help explain the relationship between strategy use and proficiency. In fact, most of the students, regardless of their proficiency, were able to use a series of specific strategies to help complete tasks assigned to them. They seemed to realize that they had to apply various strategies for their task completion. However, the types of strategies, rather than simply a combination of strategies, made the students who were proficient differ from those who were not. The higher proficiency students not only employed less taxing strategies (i.e. *consulting a dictionary* and

*asking for correction*) but also cognitively demanding strategies (i.e. *analysing expressions* and *mind mapping*) and practice-oriented ones.

The students of all proficiency levels were also aware of the reasons for choosing and using particular strategies. They were not only able to verbalize what strategies they opted for, but also had reasons of choosing the strategies. For example, a low proficiency participant had a clear purpose for re-checking his work before submitting it, namely reducing any likely errors. By comparison, a high proficiency participant would simply jump to preview the questions and look for her respective answers straightaway when she had limited time; but, if she had much time or was not in an examination, she would prefer reading the whole text first. These examples seem to indicate that the students' deliberateness and goal-orientation in their strategy use, both of which are essential for any learning actions to be considered strategic (A. D. Cohen, 2011; Griffiths, 2008). Furthermore, the students' explicit reasons in their strategy preference might mirror their self-regulatory capacity (Zimmerman, 1990) and metacognitive knowledge, particularly the strategic knowledge (Wenden, 1998).

Regardless of their similarities, the students had different confidence levels in their strategy deployment, as indicated by the quantity of strategies used (Wahyuni, 2013; D. Zhang & Goh, 2006). The students who were more proficient tended to use a greater range of strategies confidently, including strategies with active use of the target language. This might result from their perception that the strategies were of help for their task completion or language learning in general. Conversely, their lower counterparts only showed a confident use of certain strategies, which was possibly caused by their limited repertoire of learning strategies.

In addition, the students differed in their degree of flexibility and thoughtfulness when they used the strategies. The high proficiency students displayed flexibility in that they not only used a range of any possible strategies but also shifted from one strategy to another to meet task or situational demands. They also exhibited more thoughtfulness when they chose and used particular strategies than did their lower proficiency counterparts. They seemed to be better at monitoring and evaluating if the strategies they used were effective under certain circumstances. By comparison, despite their ability to use a series of strategies to cope with a particular task, the lower proficiency students were less flexible when they were engaged with learning tasks. They tended to rely too much on particular strategies and at times were less thoughtful regardless of whether the strategies were effective or not. For example, when encountering unknown words, they were inclined to either *seek the help of others* or *use a*

*dictionary*. Or, they did not use any strategies at all when strategies could have been of help for their task completion. If they were not allowed to *seek help* or *look up words in a dictionary*, they would simply guess without thinking or just leave the questions in the task unanswered. These differences corroborate past research which has consistently revealed that higher proficiency students approach their language tasks in more flexible and thoughtful ways (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Vandergrift, 2003). As regards the current finding, along with the findings of other research, it could be argued that degree of flexibility and thoughtfulness in strategy use is another characteristic distinguishing higher proficiency students from their lower proficiency counterparts.

The qualitative differences suggest a difference in the task and strategic knowledge the students possessed. The students with higher proficiency were better at identifying what types of learning tasks they encountered and what the task demanded from them. The students were also better at selecting learning strategies to cope with given tasks, overseeing whether their strategy use worked well and using alternative strategies if need be. On the other hand, lack of the task and strategic knowledge might have hampered the students with low proficiency from taking strategic actions which met the task demand.

Interestingly, the young Indonesian students gained their strategic knowledge not through explicit strategy instruction (see section 1.2.2). The students' age of 11, which belongs to the Piagetian formal operational stage, might allow them to be self-regulated. At this stage, children are developing their ability to regulate their own cognitive processes (Fox & Riconscente, 2008). Their strategic knowledge also might grow out of their learning experiences, which could take place in English or other subject matter classrooms.

## **5.8. Relationships between self-efficacy beliefs and strategy use**

### **5.8.1. Quantitative differences in strategy use across English self-efficacy levels**

The one-way MANOVA result indicates that there was a significant difference in the overall learning strategies as a function of English self-efficacy (see section 4.2.5.2). This suggests that the students' conviction of their capability in English task performance influenced their strategy preference. The evidence is consistent, not only with those of previous studies in the SLA area (Gahunggu, 2009; Li & Wang, 2010; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; National Capital Language Resource Center, 2000a, 2000b; Purdie & Oliver, 1999; M. S.-L. Wong, 2005), but also with those of studies in other fields (Abdullah, 2008; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons,

1990) which have revealed a close link between self-efficacy in task performance and learning strategy use. Any comparison of the current study's finding with those of Magogwe and Oliver (2007), who also focused on primary school students, should be done with caution because of measurement issues: it is quite possible that the instrument they used might not assess self-efficacy but other self-beliefs (see section 2.4.4).

The subsequent ANOVAs, aimed at looking closer into strategy differences by categories, showed that the students with different beliefs in self-efficacy differed in cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective strategies in favour of those with stronger self-efficacy. The significant difference in metacognitive strategies suggests that the primary school students with stronger beliefs in their capabilities in task performance were more self-regulating through seeking more learning opportunities especially outside classrooms and monitoring their learning processes than those who did not. This is possibly because the students with higher self-efficacy were more resistant from interesting distraction activities and resilient in the face of difficulties or failures. This finding seems to support past research findings that students possessing stronger beliefs in their capabilities would be better at self-monitoring (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001) and have better control of their own learning (Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011).

Similarly, cognitive strategy differences as a function of English self-efficacy indicate that the students with firmer self-efficacy may be more actively engaged and persistent in exercising more various cognitive strategies to cope with given tasks. Compared to their low-self-efficacy counterparts, the high self-efficacy students might rely not only on repeating for memorizing vocabulary but also on associating with what they have known or learned. The high self-efficacy students also might be more effective in reading or listening, as indicated by the qualitative evidence of their ability to decode the texts using a top-down approach. This finding corresponds with what Li and Wang (2010) found, namely that students with higher self-efficacy tended to use cognitive strategies more frequently and adapt them to meet task demands.

The difference in socio-affective strategies also suggests that English self-efficacy might drive students to feel more confident about participating in classroom interactions and regulating their feelings. Specifically, the students with stronger beliefs in their capability were possibly more eager to practise with their peers and less ashamed of seeking help. These students might also be better at enhancing their motivation and confidence, which is

consistent with Li and Wang's (2010) observation that high-self-efficacy students were more effective at coping with negative feelings.

### **5.8.2. Quantitative differences in strategy use across self-regulated learning efficacy levels**

Furthermore, results from another one-way MANOVA, as well as those of its follow-up ANOVAs, indicated a close link between self-efficacy for self-regulated learning and proficiency (see section 4.2.5.3). The statistical analyses revealed that students who were confident in their ability to regulate their own learning and those who were not confident were different in the overall learning strategy use and the three strategy categories (i.e. cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective). This might suggest that the students who have firmer self-efficacy for self-regulation were more metacognitive in that they made more effort to plan ahead and monitor their learning than those who do not. Their firmer beliefs might enable them to persist in practising outside the classroom despite a lack of support and to be not easily discouraged by the learning errors they made. The students with firmer self-efficacy were possibly also more cognitively engaged through more frequent use of cognitive strategies. Further, they were likely more confident to learn from or with peers or more proficient others and better at regulating their affects.

This close link observed in this study provides empirical evidence for Usher and Pajares' (2008) assumption that the use of learning strategies is determined by the beliefs in the ability to use them. The role of self-regulated learning efficacy in L2 strategic learning has not been described. However, studies in non-SLA domains (Bandura et al., 2003; Usher & Pajares, 2008; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994) have demonstrated that students with stronger confidence in self-regulation often use more learning strategies, set higher task goals, are more self-evaluative and feel positive in their interpersonal relationships, whereas those plagued by doubt in self-regulating ability use fewer learning strategies, avoid challenging goals, and are somewhat apprehensive.

The evidence might imply that students need to possess not only the knowledge of learning strategies, but also the confidence that that they are able to choose and use them appropriately and persistently. The students might not use particular strategies that they believe would be helpful simply because they are not confident in their ability to do so. Additionally, it is very likely that strategy use does not always meet the students' expectations because the strategies



which the students opt for fail to help with task completion. The students might not choose certain strategies (e.g. *seeking practice opportunities outside the classroom*) to avoid encountering unfavourable conditions if they used the strategy, like being considered a show-off or attracting peer disapproval. In such a circumstance, the students need strong self-efficacy in order to persist with the strategies.

### **5.8.3. Qualitative differences in strategy use across self-efficacy levels**

A notable qualitative pattern of strategy use among students with varying self-efficacy levels emerged from the interview data (see section 4.3.1). The pattern is helpful to explain the quantitative finding that strategy use relates to self-efficacy. Students who held firmer self-efficacy demonstrated a greater repertoire of learning strategies than those who held weaker beliefs. The students of higher self-efficacy exercised simple and complex cognitive strategies and used these to cope with a greater variety of learning tasks. For example, all students regardless of their self-efficacy level preferred asking for help or consulting a dictionary if they encountered unfamiliar words; when they were not allowed to do so, the high self-efficacy students persistently sought ways to figure out the meaning of unfamiliar words through guessing after observing the context clues, whereas their lower counterparts tended to give up. The different strategy preferences are consistent with the findings of previous studies (Mizumoto, 2012, 2013; Prat-Sala & Redford, 2010) that high self-efficacy students were more likely to use deep strategies while their low self-efficacy counterparts preferred surface strategies.

The higher self-efficacy students were better at planning and monitoring their learning and task performance than their lower counterparts, as was observed in other studies (Bouffard-Bouchard, 2001; W. Lee et al., 2014; K. Wilson & Narayan, 2014). The students of higher self-efficacy demonstrated stronger willingness to practise in and outside the class and sought various resources to support their practice. When completing given tasks, they set goals through doing easy questions first and attending to general information instead of every single detail in a text, and oversaw their comprehension. Such strategic planning allowed them to complete their tasks more effectively. Indeed, the lower self-efficacy students also planned ahead for their learning, like organizing their physical environment to be conducive for learning. However, they did only classroom-related tasks and practised when they were assigned to.

The students with higher self-efficacy seemed to be more capable of taking control over debilitating affective problems than those with low self-efficacy. They took more actions to boost their motivation and cope with their stress or anxiety. This might be because they were more aware of both the potential problems and the ways to handle them. Further, the students with higher self-efficacy were more confident to get those who were more proficient to practise with them.

Above all, the quantitative and qualitative findings meet the theoretical expectation that self-efficacy is theoretically believed to affect students' self-regulatory skills or learning strategies (Bandura, 1993; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003; Zimmerman, 2000). The evidence outlines the motivational role of self-efficacy in strategic learning and corroborates the argument that students not only need skills or strategies but also motivational beliefs for successful attainment (Bandura, 1993; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Pintrich & Groot, 1990). Students select and apply a range of specific actions to help them learn English because they believe in their own capabilities to do so and envision the success of their actions. This means that possessing strategic knowledge does not help much in the absence of self-efficacy belief. In short, self-efficacy can make the difference in strategic learning.

### **5.9. Relationships between self-efficacy beliefs and proficiency**

The finding from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis demonstrated that self-efficacy for learning English predicted English proficiency (see section 4.2.6). This means that Indonesian primary school students who held strong beliefs in their own capabilities to do various English tasks and to regulate their learning would likely have better English language ability. This finding is not of surprise given the consistent findings of previous studies about the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and proficiency or learning achievement in either L1 or L2 (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Mills et al., 2007; Pajares & Johnson, 1996; Pajares & Valiante, 2001; Tilfarlioglu & Cinkara, 2009). Specifically, the evidence that self-efficacy in learning English predicted proficiency is consistent with Hsieh and Schallert's (2008) and Woodrow's (2006) findings that self-efficacy is one of the strongest predictors of L2 learning achievement. The predictive superiority of self-efficacy over other variables, like cognitive and metacognitive strategies, confirms the vital role of this motivational process in language learning.

A possible explanation for the relationship between self-efficacy and proficiency is that the students' strong conviction of their own ability to learn English drives them to be more committed to the pursuit of the task accomplishment, to seek more various ways to accomplish the tasks, and not prematurely to avoid difficult tasks. These behaviours might then in the long run enhance their language ability. This explanation derives from Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1993) theory that people who hold a strong sense of self-efficacy will exert more effort, persist longer when encountering difficulties, prefer more challenging tasks or goals, envision successes and perform better. Clearly from this perspective, self-efficacy beliefs contribute to the students' motivation, a key factor of successful language learning.

The findings emerging from the interview data could be of help in understanding the statistical relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and proficiency. The interview data were obtained from twelve participants who were labelled as low, moderate, and high students on the basis of their accumulated scores of English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy and their score of English proficiency test elicited in the quantitative data collection phase. Similarities and differences in the motivational behaviours were identified among the students belonging to the high, moderate, and low groups when they approached their language learning or attempted to cope with their tasks. The motivational behaviours involve attribution of success and failure, effort in L2 learning, persistence in the face of difficult tasks, and interest in L2 learning.

How the students attributed their success and failure in learning English was similar. All students, whether they had high or low self-efficacy and proficiency, unanimously took the view that their learning success was a result of their effort and their failure was due to their lack of effort. Few students attributed their success and failure to ability and external factors (i.e. support from significant others and task difficulty) in addition to effort. These findings are quite interesting because they in part contradict previous research evidence. The latter showed that learners who were successful or held firm self-efficacy were more likely to attribute their success to internal or controllable factors, such as effort and ability, whereas learners who were less successful or did not have firm self-efficacy attributed to external and uncontrollable factors, like task difficulty and help from others (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Hsieh & Schallert, 2008; Williams, Burden, Poulet, & Maun, 2004). The contradictory findings might be due to data collection techniques used; those of previous research were obtained from questionnaires while those from this study from interviews. With regard to this, caution

is needed in generalizing attribution research findings across contexts. Apart from the contradictory findings, effort attributions made by all students in the current study are “healthy attributions” (Hsieh & Schallert, 2008, p. 528), meaning that the students had a sense of control and personal agency. Such a sense, according to Hsieh and Kang (2010), can help them envision higher expectations of future success and avoid a feeling of helplessness.

All students in the three groups made some effort in the course of their English learning. For example, they organized in advance their task performance and were attentive to their teachers or language tasks, suggestive of their attempt to keep themselves engaged in their learning activities. However, the students of the high group seemed to put in more effort and be persistent when they attempted to cope with language tasks. Unlike their lower level counterparts, the students actively looked for opportunities to learn and practise English outside the classroom and made use of such various means as magazines, YouTube or Facebook. They also preferred more difficult tasks and did not prematurely give up when faced with such tasks. The high effort and persistent learning behaviours are instances of motivational behaviours, which Bandura (1977) and Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2003) assumed to be affected by self-efficacy and to affect achievements. This finding agrees with that of Wang and Pape’s (2007) qualitative study on Chinese ESL learners claiming that the learners would be persistent when they were convinced of being able to do a given task and that persistence was indicative of self-efficacy.

Students of the higher group also displayed a greater interest in learning English and found learning English fun and beneficial, whereas their lower subgroup counterparts were less interested in learning English although they realized the importance of doing so. It is likely that the students who were confident with English ability might like learning English because they were sure of being successful. On the other hand, those who were not confident might dislike learning English because they felt they did not have the skills and feared failure. The students’ learning interest mirrors their motivational engagement, which might well be determined by their beliefs of self-efficacy (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). This evidence seems to confirm Bandura’s (1993) argument that people who view themselves capable of performing given tasks will be more engrossed and interested in their activities.

Apart from attribution, the marked differences in the students’ persistence, effort, and interest in learning English explicate qualitatively the link between self-efficacy and proficiency. Those motivational behaviours which are believed to be the subsequent behaviours of self-

efficacy would eventually pay off. In other words, students who hold strong beliefs in their ability will persist longer, expend more effort to cope with challenging tasks, and keep interested in learning; as a result of these behaviours they achieve better proficiency. These findings suggest that to help promote students' language ability, teachers need to teach their students the way to regulate their motivation in the pursuit of their language learning especially in the face of difficult situations or attractive distractors.

### **5.10. Conclusion**

This chapter has discussed the synthesized findings of both quantitative and qualitative data analyses. It has also discussed, among other matters, the key role of metacognitive strategies and self-efficacy in learning English, as well as that of proficiency, English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy in strategy use. Similarities and differences between the findings of this study and those of previous studies were observed and arguments were offered to address these.

The next chapter will present a summary of the key findings, implications for theory and pedagogy, recommendations for future studies, and final conclusion. In particular, section 6.4.1 underlines that this study furthers understanding of young learners' strategic behaviours, and that both quantity and quality of strategy use matter. It provides further insights into students' strategy use and how it depends on their conviction in their ability to use the strategies and that their self-efficacy for learning English determines their language ability.

## CHAPTER 6

# CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

---

### 6.1. Introduction

This last chapter recapitulates what this research was intended to accomplish and how it was conducted (6.2). The major findings of the current research are reiterated (6.3). The theoretical implications of the findings, particularly insights provided about the key role of English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy in language learning, are brought to the readers' attention (6.4.1), and the implications for practice in the field of L2 learning are covered (6.4.2). The limitations of the current research study's methodology are acknowledged (6.5). Given the findings and the limitations of this study, directions for future studies are suggested (6.6).

### 6.2. Summary of the research methodology

The current study aimed to probe language learning strategy choices and self-efficacy beliefs, among EFL sixth graders enrolled in Indonesian primary schools, where English was an optional subject, despite being very popular and treated as if compulsory. Specifically, this study sought to investigate 1) learning strategies the young students reported using; 2) the belief the students had in their ability to complete specific English tasks and self-regulate their learning; 3) the differences in strategy use and self-efficacy in relation to gender and school location; and mainly 4) the inter-relationship between learning strategies, self-efficacy and proficiency. The investigation of both learning strategies and self-efficacy was expected to provide insights into young learners' learning strategies, as well as their self-efficacy, which have yet to receive due attention.

A mixed methods approach was used, which made it different from most previous research which was quantitative. There were two sequential steps, with the qualitative phase following the quantitative phase. In step 1, 522 students from twelve schools located in rural, suburban and urban regions completed the Indonesian Children's SILL, C-SELEQ, and a proficiency test. The two questionnaires went through rigorous assessments, namely EFA, to enhance their validity. Descriptive statistics, Kruskal Wallis H tests, Mann-Whitney U tests,

multivariate analyses of variance and hierarchical multiple regression analysis were used to analyze the quantitative data. In step 2, twelve students, who had different proficiency and self-efficacy levels, were interviewed, and the findings were used to support the inter-relationship between self-efficacy, learning strategies and proficiency that had been observed in the quantitative phase. The interview data were then analyzed using cross-case analyses.

### 6.3. Summary of findings

In line with the research questions in section 1.5, this section sums up the key findings.

#### *Learning strategy preference (RQ 1)*

The young Indonesian students, regardless of proficiency, used learning strategies as a means of assisting their task completion or language learning in general despite the absence of any strategy training. This was evidently the case because of 1) their moderately high use of the overall learning strategies ( $M = 3.6/SD = .63$ ) and 2); in terms of strategy categories their high use of both socio-affective and metacognitive strategies ( $M = 4.0/SD = .76$  and  $M = 3.7/SD = .84$  respectively), and also their moderate use of cognitive strategies ( $M = 3.1/SD = .72$ ). The moderate-to-high use of the strategies suggests the effort the students would make to be self-regulated in the course of language learning, regardless of the effectiveness of their strategic effort.

A closer look into the strategy items revealed that *seeking help*, *practising with classmates*, *asking others to repeat or speak slowly*, *praising one-self*, and *analysing errors and trying not to repeat them* were the most favoured strategies and that *mental imagery*, *sound/word association*, *reading/playing games in English*, *seeking opportunities for out-of-classroom practices* were the least favoured ones. Although most strategy choices might come as no surprise, the evidence that *praising one-self* and *analysing errors and trying not to repeat them* were among the most preferred still seems noteworthy in that the students at young age were already aware of the necessity of controlling their affects and learning.

The students with different proficiency levels were almost identical in the five most and least preferred strategies. Their most preferred strategies were *analysing errors and not repeating them*, *practising with classmates*, *praising oneself*, *seeking help*, and *asking others to speak slowly or repeat*, while their least preferred included *word/sound associations*, *mental imagery*, and *seeking practice opportunities outside of school*. The only different choice was that the remaining least preferred strategy for high proficiency students was *reading books or*

*playing computer games in English* while the other least used strategy for moderate and low proficiency students was *understanding without translating word for word*. Despite the nearly identical strategy choices, the frequency with which particular strategies were used remained different, in favour of those with higher proficiency. This means that frequency of strategy use matters and possibly becomes a pathway to appropriate use of learning strategies (Park, 1997). The qualitative evidence revealed strategies which have not been covered in previous studies, namely *planning learning resources* and *identifying learning difficulties*.

#### *Self-efficacy beliefs in learning English (RQ 2)*

The students felt confident in their ability to perform various English tasks, such as introducing oneself or comprehending a short text. They also held firm beliefs that they would be able to regulate their own learning, like controlling debilitating affective problems and attractive distractions in the course of their language learning. Simply stated, they would say 'I basically can do it' (Heidari et al., 2012, p. 176).

#### *Differences in strategy use and self-efficacy by gender and school location (RQ 3)*

There were significant differences in strategy use and self-efficacy depending on gender and school location. Girls outnumbered boys in the frequencies of cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective strategy use. Girls also held higher English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy than boys. Students from urban and suburban schools reported more frequent use of the three strategies than those from rural schools. Urban and suburban students were also more confident in their ability to perform English tasks and to regulate their own learning than their rural counterparts. The effect sizes of gender and school location on the strategy use and self-efficacy varied from small to moderate.

#### *Learning strategies and proficiency (RQ 4 and RQ 5)*

Results of a one-way MANOVA and its subsequent ANOVAs revealed that students who had different proficiency levels differed significantly in the overall strategy use, as well as in the use of the three strategies categories (i.e. cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective), in favour of those with higher proficiency. Interestingly, a stronger link was found between metacognitive strategies and proficiency, as indicated by the effect size. This evidence is in line with the results from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis showing metacognitive strategies to be a significant predictor of proficiency while the other two strategies were not. This finding underscores the crucial role of metacognitive strategies in language learning. These statistical relationships were supported and explicated by the qualitative findings.



Indeed, the students of different proficiency levels shared similar strategies, which Green and Oxford (1995) called bedrock strategies. However, it would appear that the higher proficiency students employed a wider range of strategies which were more cognitively taxing and attributed to good language learner characteristics. More importantly, they tended to be more thoughtful and flexible in their strategy choice and use. In a nutshell, not only the frequency of strategy use, but also strategy types and the way strategies are used become the distinguishing features of the proficient students' strategic behaviours.

#### *Self-efficacy and learning strategies (RQ 4 and RQ 5)*

The univariate and multivariate analyses of variances showed significant differences in the overall strategies and the three strategy categories as a function of both English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy. This suggests that students who possessed a firm conviction of their ability to perform English tasks and to regulate their own learning tended to use learning strategies more frequently than did their weaker counterparts. The high self-efficacy students seemed to be more engaged through their higher use of cognitive strategies and greater effort in managing their own learning and in learning from/with others. Specifically, this finding offers empirical evidence that students' strategy selection and use depend on their confidence in the ability to employ the strategies. Needless to say, strategy use does not always pay off due to factors such as competing attractions, lack of support or resources, or disappointment following unsatisfactory results from past strategy use. In line with Linnenbrink and Pintrich's (2003) model of the role of self-efficacy, strong beliefs in capability are the basis for the internal drive of the students so that they are persistent and keep exercising the strategies they assume help in their language learning. This persistence was obvious in the high self-efficacy students who sought more various learning resources outside the school or asked others to practise speaking despite being unwelcome or even mocked by peers.

#### *Self-efficacy and proficiency (RQ 4 and RQ 5)*

The multiple regression analysis revealed that self-efficacy for learning English and metacognitive strategy use were significant predictors of proficiency, which is certainly consistent with most previous research. Students who possess firm beliefs in the ability to do given language tasks and self-regulate their learning achieve more than those who do not. What bears noting is the predictive superiority of self-efficacy over other variables, outlining the crucial role it plays in the motivational process in language learning, as suggested in

literature reviewed in Chapter 2 (Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Mills et al., 2007). Support for this quantitative finding is evident in the interview findings which showed that those who perceived themselves as having high self-efficacy were more interested in learning, persistent and made greater effort in language learning, particularly in task completion. This suggests that students with higher self-efficacy have greater motivational engagement than their counterparts with lower self-efficacy, and this will result in a higher level of proficiency.

## **6.4. Theoretical and pedagogical implications**

### **6.4.1. Theoretical implications**

The key findings lead to several theoretical implications in the fields of language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs. First, the wide range of strategies students put into practice, as well as the way they apply the strategies, unravelled during this research offers information and understanding about young children's strategic behaviors in a foreign language context. The strategies, which were similar to those used by children in other studies, such as *help-seeking*, indicate that they are likely applicable to young children across cultural settings. The strategies resulting from interview analyses and not mentioned in previous works or instruments (see Gunning, 1997; Oxford, 1990) such as the strategies of *planning learning resources* and *identifying learning difficulties* add to the known repertoire young children use as strategies for learning a foreign language. The strategies need to be taken into account by those who are interested in developing any new strategy questionnaire or expanding the existing ones.

Secondly, the findings of the interview analyses which indicate that the higher proficiency students were more flexible and thoughtful in the way they applied learning strategies than their lower proficiency counterparts nuance our insights into young learners' strategic behaviours. The findings support those of several past studies (Bruen, 2001; Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Vandergrift, 2003; L. J. Zhang et al., 2008) which have attended specifically to how strategies are employed and the findings were used to explain the nature of the relationship between learning strategies and proficiency. Flexible and appropriate use of learning strategies has been consistently considered a key distinguishing feature of successful learners and more important than simply employing strategies frequently. It is no wonder that some survey studies (Nisbet et al., 2005; Yabukoshi & Takeuchi, 2009) have proposed such qualitative differences in their speculative explanations when statistically significant relationships of the two variables were not observed. This finding, furthermore, can be seen

as evidence that, in some respects, children of primary-school age have already developed their metacognitive knowledge. The children knew not only the purpose and demands of the tasks assigned to them but also what strategies should be taken, and how and when the strategies should be applied to specific language tasks.

Thirdly, gender differences in self-efficacy and strategy use in favour of female students lend support to previous studies (Lan & Oxford, 2003; Mills et al., 2007) and accordingly add to the conflicting findings of studies on the role of gender in the two areas. The findings should be read with caution in that the differences possibly stem from environmental, cognitive and behavioural factors rather than biological characteristics (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). In addition to gender, school location plays a part in self-efficacy and strategy use: students in urban and suburban schools were superior in both strategy use and self-efficacy over rural students. Differences in school location might mean differences in environmental support and events which language learners encounter. The influence of such environmental factors on motivational and cognitive behaviours, such as self-efficacy and strategy use, is consistent with Bandura's (1997) triadic reciprocity model.

Fourthly, the relationship between self-efficacy for learning English and proficiency is evident in this study. This evidence provides further insights into the crucial role self-efficacy plays in language learning, a matter which has previously lacked appreciation from SLA researchers. As Bandura (1993) claimed, students' conviction of their competence, along with their competence itself, determines their successful academic achievement in that their conviction pushes them to invest more effort and persevere more in the face of challenges. Previous empirical L2 studies, either administering a sound scale (e.g. Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Mills et al., 2007) or a scale which may have validity issues (e.g. Magogwe & Oliver, 2007), have consistently indicated that high self-efficacy is associated with high proficiency, and this certainly accords with similar findings in other domains (e.g. Al-Harthy et al., 2010; Pajares & Valiante, 2001; Yeo & Neal, 2006). Unlike these previous studies which merely gave statistical evidence, the present study shows the qualitative dimensions of the way students with different self-efficacy levels approach their language learning, with the high self-efficacy students being found more self-regulated, persistent, and interested in learning. Using these qualitative dimensions as a means of elucidating the statistical relationship between the two constructs seems to be more robust rather than merely making speculations

based on existing theories. In this respect, this study is quite distinct from most previous research in this area.

Fifthly, the findings that both English self-efficacy and self-regulated learning efficacy were related to strategy use nuance our understanding of the role of the motivational process in strategy use. This finding is consistent with that of past survey studies (Gahunggu, 2009; Heidari et al., 2012; Su & Duo, 2012) that point to the relationship between either English self-efficacy or general self-efficacy and language learning strategies. Specifically, the finding that self-efficacy for self-regulated learning affects strategy use is quite revealing as the role of this type of self-efficacy had not previously been discussed in L2 learning strategy literature. This empirical evidence lends support to Bandura's (1986) theoretical claim that beliefs in self-efficacy affect people's thoughts and behaviours and in particular to Usher and Pajares' (2008) argument that learners' strategy use is determined by their self-efficacy in self-regulated learning. This means that, with a firmer conviction in their ability to use strategies, language learners can put various strategies into practice persistently and this can help them pursue their learning goals. More importantly, the qualitative findings posited that students with firmer self-efficacy employed more various strategies persistently and flexibly, and many of which were cognitively and affectively taxing. For the students, self-efficacy is very likely to be an internal drive to exert more effort and engage in learning activities (Bandura, 1993; Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003), which is manifested in strategy use.

The instruments used in this investigation have methodological implications for strategy research. The rigorous assessment of the Children's SILL's validity through EFA made this study distinct from most previous research which simply adopted Oxford's (1990) SILL and did not report the validity of the instrument based on their own data. The three-factor solution (i.e. cognitive, metacognitive, socio-affective) generated by the EFA is consistent with O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) strategy classification. The empirical support is crucial to enhancement of the construct validity of the SILL, which accordingly raises the validity of the finding amid the lack of theoretical consensus in strategy classifications (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990) and the inconsistent results of previous SILL studies examining that issue (Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Robson & Midorikawa, 2001; Yang, 1999). Furthermore, the use of task-based interviews, which is relatively rare in strategy research, proved to be effective. The technique revealed not only what strategies students opted for but also how they might apply the strategies, suggesting that, at least to some extent, it has functioned like

think-aloud protocols used in previous strategy studies (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Gu et al., 2005; L. J. Zhang et al., 2008). Although it might not provide as much detailed information as the think aloud approach, because in actuality students did not do the task, it exposed students to a lesser burden during the interview session.

#### **6.4.2. Pedagogical implications**

The findings of the current study have practical implications for Indonesian EFL classrooms: there is a need to promote strategic knowledge and self-efficacy. From the understanding about the relationship between learning strategies and proficiency, training in learning strategy use seems to be warranted. Although the students in this study displayed some degree of strategic knowledge despite not receiving any explicit strategy training, such training would possibly have benefited them, especially those with low proficiency. Strategy training would help them be more cognizant of their learning processes, particularly metacognitive activities, and better at strategy use (Goh, 2008).

Various models of strategy training (Chamot, 2005; Gunning & Oxford, 2014; Oxford, 2011b) have been introduced to help language learners learn and they could well be adapted to training strategies for Indonesian primary school students. The strategy training focuses on equipping learners with the ability to plan and monitor their own language learning and particularly to cope with their tasks effectively. The training should cover not only strategies associated with proficient learners but also those used by learners of any proficiency level. For example, *seeking help* was one of the most favored strategies, so language teachers need to assist their students to solve problems on their own through a training of adaptive help-seeking (Newman, 2002).

To make strategy training effective, as Veenman, Hout-Wolters, and Afflerbach (2006) advised, teachers need to integrate it into regular classroom activities; they need to inform the students about the benefits of learning strategies, and provide plenty of time and opportunities for students to exercise the strategies. Teachers can also use tangible and visual tools to make the presentation of the strategies more interesting for young learners; Gunning and Oxford (2014), for example, used posters. With respect to the relationship between self-regulated learning efficacy and learning strategies, the teachers should enhance the students' confidence in their ability to use the strategies when they train them. This motivational

process, which has been overlooked in the existing strategy training models, needs to be incorporated into the training.

The absence of English as a subject in the Indonesian primary schools' national examination should leave teachers wide room to exercise their creativity in designing lessons which accommodate strategy training. *Curriculum 2006* expects both teachers and schools to develop their own local curriculum and lessons. Designing lessons which include strategy training is certainly challenging for the teachers. That neither 2006-national curriculum nor existing English textbooks for primary schools covers learning strategies, to the best of my knowledge, makes it more challenging. English teacher educators and teacher training universities, therefore, must make the pre- and in-service teachers aware of the importance of strategies and equip them with the know-how of strategy training. This can be done by inserting the know-how into teaching methodology units for pre-service teachers and workshops for in-service teachers as well.

To support strategy training, the Education and Culture Ministry needs to advocate the necessity of strategic knowledge and incorporate it into the curriculum. During the evaluation of the suspended *Curriculum 2013* in progress it is a good point in time for the government to do this. The upcoming revised curriculum needs to make strategy training part of it. The curriculum can be the reference for textbook writers in designing the materials presented in English textbooks, and these are what English teachers tend to rely on.

A second implication is that promoting self-efficacy is necessary because of the relationship between self-efficacy and proficiency. Initially EFL teachers need to be made aware of what this motivational process is, why it is important in language learning, and how it can be nurtured. It is in part the responsibility of teacher educators and teacher training universities to make this happen. The teacher educators should equip both pre-service and in-service English teachers with the know-how of nurturing self-efficacy.

The teachers should not only raise but also sustain their students' self-efficacy beliefs. This effort should be addressed to both students who might already possess firm confidence in their ability and those who lack it. The first and possibly most important step teachers need to take is training their students in how to evaluate their own perceived competence in performing specific tasks. This is certainly crucial for young learners who are considered to have inadequate capability of making judgments of their ability to cope with tasks (Bandura,

1997). Better self-evaluation will help prevent the students from avoiding tasks thought difficult, although they, in actuality, have the skill to complete.

The teachers then need to design instructional activities which can bolster a sense of self-efficacy, for example, students are given tasks with reasonable difficulty levels (Walters, 2007). For the students, failing or seeing others fail in doing tasks because they are too hard can undermine their confidence and be detrimental to their motivation; tasks that are too simple, on the other hand, will not drive the students to exert much effort. Students, therefore, should be assigned to tasks which they have the potential ability to complete successfully on their own or under the guidance of more proficient others. Being successful or watching peers be successful in task completion, which Bandura (1977) called mastery experience and vicariousness respectively, will raise their self-efficacy.

Another example of what teachers can do is providing feedback or persuasion, which is a main source of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). In L2 teaching, feedback is mainly concerned with language accuracy. The feedback can take the form of explicit correction, recasts, or prompts (Lyster, 2002). Teachers should go beyond that by giving encouragement and attributional feedback. As young children are motivationally vulnerable (Heyman, Dweck, & Cain, 1992), the feedback should be accurate and positive. It means that the children need to be taught to ascribe their success or failure in language learning to effort and ability and not to external factors beyond their control (Hsieh & Kang, 2010). This attribution will make them study harder and become confident that their effort will pay off. Thus, feedback should be provided not only to improve their target language accuracy but also nurture their self-efficacy.

Teachers can also bolster self-efficacy through strategy instruction. Empirical research (Graham, 2007) has demonstrated that training students about learning strategies can raise not only their strategic knowledge but also their self-efficacy. The improvement of self-efficacy is a by-product of strategy training. This makes sense because students who know how to cope with tasks effectively will be more confident of completing the tasks.

The third implication emerges from the findings that school location was related to proficiency, self-efficacy, and strategy use. There is a need for the improvement of English teaching, particularly in rural schools. One way to do this is by improving the quality of English teachers through professional development programs. The foremost foci of such

programs are English proficiency and pedagogical skills of the teachers. This is because a large number of English teachers, as Zein (2011, 2012) noted, do not have a qualification to teach English. Those teachers generally have poor English proficiency, limited knowledge of EFL teaching methodology, not to mention limited knowledge of teaching English to young learners (TEYL). Another way to improve English teaching is through the provision of adequate learning resources, with a priority given to rural schools. Rural schools need to be equipped with English magazines or storybooks, dictionaries, and audio-visual English materials in order to reduce the disparity between rural and urban schools in terms of school facilities.

### **6.5. Research limitations**

A number of caveats regarding the methodology adopted in this study need to be considered. The research design of the quantitative part of this study is correlational in nature. The direction of the causal relations, like the strategy being affected by proficiency or the other way around, is simply the theoretical orientation grounded on the existing literature. Accordingly, no causality inference can be made. This is also the case for the qualitative part of the study which is a snapshot of the phenomena of strategy use and self-efficacy among Indonesian students of different proficiency and self-efficacy levels taken through interviews at a specific time. Both the unwillingness of low proficiency students with high self-efficacy and high proficiency students with low self-efficacy to be involved in the qualitative phase meant I interviewed only high proficiency students with high self-efficacy, moderate proficiency students with moderate self-efficacy, and low proficiency students with low self-efficacy. This certainly made it difficult to determine whether strategic behaviors were related to either self-efficacy or proficiency, or both. To disentangle the causal relationships of the variables being scrutinized in this study, a longitudinal or true experimentation design should be used.

I have tried to make the participants for the quantitative part of this study representative of the whole population, namely Indonesian sixth graders, through recruiting quite a large number of sixth graders from twelve public primary schools located in rural, suburban and urban regions in East Java province. However, generalizing the findings to the whole population of Indonesian sixth graders or students of lower grades, not to mention students from different countries, should be done with caution due to the diversity of the population in terms of culture, geographical locations, ethnicity, and socio-economic backgrounds.



Moreover, the results of the qualitative part of this study obtained from only twelve interviewees were not generalizable and from the outset the aim was not for generalizability but explaining the quantitative results.

Scoring of the speaking section was done by only one assessor, either the English teacher or myself as researcher. This method was chosen in order to reduce the participants' anxiety and save time but it might have affected the reliability of the test results. Nevertheless, I attempted to make the speaking section test reliable through using a quite rigid, detailed scoring scheme and briefing the teachers in using the scheme. Also, I ran MANOVA and hierarchical multiple regression analysis using proficiency scores which excluded the speaking scores, simply to check whether the results were consistent with the results obtained from the tests using proficiency scores which included speaking scores. The results of the tests, both with and without speaking scores, included as part of proficiency scores were quite similar, thereby raising confidence in the quantitative results reported. The only major difference was that metacognitive strategy use was not a significant predictor in the regression analysis with proficiency scores which excluded speaking scores. The difference does not necessarily mean that the speaking scores were not reliable.

Of course, I also have to acknowledge the possibility that participants were untruthful or self-overrated in the completion of the questionnaires, which is an inherent drawback of self-reported instrument. Efforts were made to minimize the effect of such a possibility by telling participants prior to the questionnaire completion to fill in the questionnaires honestly and that the questionnaires would not affect their lesson grades.

## **6.6. Future research recommendations**

This study provides a better understanding of EFL young learners' strategic behaviours and self-efficacy beliefs in the Indonesian context. However, there remain potential new lines of inquiry that future studies could explore. The question of the cause-effect direction pertaining to the relation of learning strategies and proficiency, in this study as well as previous research, should be addressed with a longitudinal research design. Future longitudinal research can estimate with greater certainty the causal effect of a specific or group of learning strategies on language proficiency.

Regarding the empirical evidence provided on the relationship between self-regulated learning efficacy and learning strategies, follow-up research would be of value. The follow-up research could focus on developing a strategy instruction model which includes the activity of raising self-regulated learning efficacy and examining the effectiveness of such a model. This kind of study can provide further evidence not only on the effect of learning strategies on language ability but also on that of self-efficacy for self-regulated learning on strategy use. The inclusion of a self-efficacy nurturing step would make the study different from previous ones which have looked into whether strategy training could increase either proficiency (e.g. Gunning & Oxford, 2014) or self-efficacy in language skills (e.g. Graham, 2007).

The results of this study reveal that young learners have exhibited a certain degree of strategic behaviours even though they did not receive any explicit strategy training. Following the results, further studies using an ethnographic approach would help a great deal to inform how young children independently develop their strategic knowledge. Such an approach could nuance the strategy research tradition which has been dominated by survey research.

The results of this study on self-efficacy among EFL young learners should be considered preliminary; future investigations which contribute further insights into this construct are warranted. The investigations may pose questions about what sources inform students of their self-regulated learning efficacy, as well as English self-efficacy, and to what extent the sources contribute to the two types of self-efficacy. Another question that might arise is whether the sources of the self-efficacy differ by proficiency levels, ages, and socio-economic backgrounds. Focusing on the difference in age will inform why young children tend to rate themselves as having higher self-efficacy than adolescents and adults, as suggested by previous studies. The investigations would benefit English teachers in deciding what appropriate classroom actions to take to promote their students' self-efficacy.

Future research may also raise questions about feedback as a way of promoting self-efficacy. This would be insightful because most previous research has aimed at probing the effectiveness of feedback for language accuracy. The expected findings will benefit teachers in giving effective feedback which covers both accuracy and self-efficacy.

Extending the present study to younger or older students, or using a more advanced statistical analysis procedure, like structural equation modelling, to see if similar results are elicited would also be useful. This would be particularly important to seek further evidence whether self-efficacy and strategy use relate to proficiency when related constructs, such as attribution, and demographic variables are included in the analysis.

## REFERENCES

---

- Abdullah, M. N. L. Y. (2008). Children's implicit theories of intelligence: Its relationships with self-efficacy, goal orientations, and self-regulated learning. *International Journal of Learning, 15*(2), 47-56.
- Abraham, R., & Vann, R. (1987). Strategies of two language learners: A case study. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 85-102). New York: Prentice Hall.
- Aditya, W. Y. (2007). *Easy way to English with Tito 6*. Yogyakarta, Indonesia: PT Mutiara Permata Bangsa.
- Afari, E., Ward, G., & Khine, M. S. (2012). Global self-esteem and self-efficacy correlates: Relation of academic achievement and self-esteem among Emirati students. *International Education Studies, 5*(2), 49-57. doi: 10.5539/ies.v5n2p49
- Al-Harthy, I. S., Was, C. A., & Isaacson, R. M. (2010). Goals, efficacy and metacognitive self-regulation: A path analysis. *International Journal of Education, 2*(1), 1-21. doi: 10.5296/ije.v2i1.357
- Anam, S. (2011). Learning strategy use among the students of different cognitive styles and proficiency. *Jurnal Prosodi, 5* (1), 44-51.
- Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan [National Education Standards Agency]. (2006). *Standar isi untuk satuan pendidikan dasar dan menengah [Content standards for primary and middle schools]*. Jakarta: Author.
- Bai, R., Hu, G., & Gu, Y. (2014). The relationship between use of writing strategies and English proficiency in Singapore primary schools. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher, 23*(3), 355-365. doi: 10.1007/s40299-013-0110-0
- Balbinotti, M. A. A., Benetti, C., & Terra, P. R. S. (2007). Translation and validation of the Graham-Harvey survey for the Brazilian context. *International Journal of Managerial Finance, 3*(1), 26 - 48. doi: 10.1108/17439130710721644
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84*(2), 191-215. doi: 10.1037/0033-295x.84.2.191
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A socio cognitive theory*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist, 44*(9), 1175-1184.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist, 28*(2), 117-148. doi: 10.1207/15326985ep28023
- Bandura, A. (1995). *Self-efficacy in changing societies*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W. H. Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for creating self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 307-337). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Bandura, A., Caprara, G. V., Barbarenelli, C., Gerbino, M., & Pastorelli, C. (2003). Role of affective self-regulatory efficacy in diverse spheres of psychosocial functioning. *Child Development, 74*(3), 769-782. doi: 10.1111/1467-8624.00567
- Barkaoui, K., Brooks, L., Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2013). Test-takers' strategic behaviors in independent and integrated speaking tasks. *Applied Linguistics, 34*(3), 304-324. doi: 10.1093/applin/ams046

- Benson, P. (1997). The philosophy and politics of learner autonomy. In P. Benson & P. Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 18-34). London: Longman.
- Bernacki, M. L., Byrnes, J. P., & Cromley, J. G. (2012). The effects of achievement goals and self-regulated learning behaviors on reading comprehension in technology-enhanced learning environments. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 37*(2), 148-161. doi: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2011.12.001
- Boekaerts, M. (1997). Self-regulated learning: A new concept embraced by researchers, policy makers, educators, teachers, and students. *Learning and Instruction, 7*(2), 161-186. doi: 10.1016/S0959-4752(96)00015-1
- Boekaerts, M., & Cascallar, E. (2006). How far have we moved toward the integration of theory and practice in self-regulation? *Educational Psychology Review, 19*, 199-210. doi: 10.1007/s10648-006-9013-4
- Bong, M. (2006). Asking the right questions: How confident are you that you could successfully perform these tasks? In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 287-306). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.
- Bong, M., & Hocevar, D. (2002). Measuring self-efficacy: Multi-trait multi-method comparison of scaling procedures. *Applied Measurement in Education, 15*(2), 143-171. doi: 10.1207/S15324818AME1502\_02
- Bonyadi, A., Nikou, F. R., & Shahbaz, S. (2012). The relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and their language learning strategy use. *English Language Teaching, 5*(8), 113-121. doi: 10.5539/elt.v5n8pn3
- Bouffard-Bouchard, T. (2001). Influence of self-efficacy on performance in cognitive task. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 130*(3), 353-363. doi: 10.1080/00224545.1990.9924591
- Bouffard-Bouchard, T., Parent, S., & Larivee, S. (1991). Influence of self-efficacy on self-regulation and performance among junior and senior high-school age students. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 14*(2), 153-164. doi: 10.1177/016502549101400203
- Bowen, J. R. (1986). On the political construction of tradition: Gotong royong [mutual assistance] in Indonesia. *The Journal of Asian Studies, 45*(3), 545-561. doi: 10.2307/2056530
- Bremner, S. (1998). Language learning strategies and language proficiency: Investigating the relationship in Hong Kong. *Asia Pacific Journal of Language in Education, 1*(2), 35-54. doi: 10.3138/cmlr.55.4.490
- Broady, E., & Kenning, M. M. (1999). *Promoting learner autonomy in university language teaching*. London: CILT.
- Brown, J. D. (2011). Likert items and scales of measurement? *SHIKEN: JALT Testing & Evaluation SIG Newsletter, 15*(1), 10-14.
- Bruen, J. (2001). Strategies for success: Profiling the effective learner of German. *Foreign Language Annals, 34*(3), 216-225. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2001.tb02403.x
- Bussey, K., & Bandura, A. (1999). Social cognitive theory of gender development and differentiation. *Psychology Review, 106*(4), 676-713. doi: 10.1037/0033-295X.106.4.676
- Çakır, Ö., & Alıcı, D. (2009). Seeing self as others see you: variability in self-efficacy ratings in student teaching. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 15*(5), 541-561. doi: 10.1080/13540600903139555
- Caprara, G. V., Fida, R., Vecchione, M., Del Bove, G., Vecchio, G. M., Barbaranelli, C., & Bandura, A. (2008). Longitudinal analysis of the role of perceived self-efficacy for

- self-regulated learning in academic continuance and achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100(3), 525-534. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.100.3.525
- Carifio, J., & Perla, R. J. (2007). Ten common misunderstandings, misconceptions, persistent myths and urban legends about Likert scales and Likert response formats and their antidotes. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(3), 106-116. doi: 10.3844/jssp.2007.106.116
- Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1995). Communicative competence: A pedagogically motivated model with content specifications. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 6(2), 5-35.
- Chamot, A. U. (2004). Issues in language learning strategy research and teaching. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 1 (1), 14-26.
- Chamot, A. U. (2005). The cognitive academic language learning approach (CALLA): An update. In P. A. Richard-Amato & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *Academic success for English language learners: Strategies for K-12 mainstream teachers* (pp. 81-101). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Chamot, A. U., & El-Dinary, P. B. (1999). Children's learning strategies in language immersion classrooms. *The Modern Foreign Journal*, 83(3), 319-338. <http://www.jstor.org>. doi: 10.1111/0026-7902.00025
- Chamot, A. U., & Küpper, L. (1989). Learning strategies in foreign language instruction. *Foreign Language Annals*, 22, 13-24. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1989.tb03138.x
- Chen, M.-L. (2009). Influence of grade level on perceptual learning style preferences and language learning strategies of Taiwanese English as a foreign language learners. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 19(2), 304-308. doi: 10.1016/j.lindif.2009.02.004
- Chesterfield, R., & Chesterfield, K. B. (1985). Natural order in children's use of second language learning strategies. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 45-59. doi: 10.1093/applin/6.1.45
- Chu, W.-H., Lin, D.-Y., Chen, T.-Y., Tsai, P.-S., & Wang, C.-H. (2015). The relationships between ambiguity tolerance, learning strategies, and learning Chinese as a second language. *System*, 49, 1-16. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2014.10.015
- Clark, A., & Trafford, J. (1995). Boys into Modern Languages: An investigation of the discrepancy in attitudes and performance between boys and girls in modern languages. *Gender and Education*, 7(3), 315-326. doi: 10.1080/09540259550039022
- Clement, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, 44(3), 417-448. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01113.x
- Cohen, A. D. (1987). Studying learner strategies: How do we get the information. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 31-40). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall International
- Cohen, A. D. (1990). *Language learning: Insights for learners, instructors, and researchers*. New York: Newbury House/HarperCollins.
- Cohen, A. D. (2003). The learner's side of foreign language learning: Where do styles, strategies, and tasks meet? *IRAL* 41, 279-291. doi: 10.1515/iral.2003.013
- Cohen, A. D. (2007). Coming to terms with language learner strategies: surveying the experts. In A. D. Cohen & E. Macaro (Eds.), *Language learner strategies: 30 years of research and practice* (pp.29-45). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cohen, A. D. (2011). *Strategies in learning and using a second language* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J., Plano Clark, V. L., Guttman, M. L., & Hanson, W. E. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research design. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 209-240). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dickinson, L. (1987). *Self-instruction in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Diseth, Å. (2011). Self-efficacy, goal orientations and learning strategies as mediators between preceding and subsequent academic achievement. *Learning and Individual Differences, 21*(2), 191-195. doi: 10.1016/j.lindif.2011.01.003
- Djiwandono, P. I. (2005). Teach my children: Why parents want English teaching for their children. *Indonesian Journal of English Teaching, 1*(1), 62-72.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Marwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2010). The relationship between language aptitude and language learning motivation: Individual differences from a dynamic systems perspective. In E. Macaro (Ed.), *Continuum companion to second language acquisition* (pp. 247–267). London: Continuum
- Dörnyei, Z., & Skehan, P. (2003). Individual differences in second language learning. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 589-630). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Eaton, M. J., & Dembo, M. H. (1997). Differences in the motivation beliefs of Asian American and non-Asian students. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 89*(3), 443–440. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.89.3.433
- El-Dib, M. A. B. (2004). Language learning strategies in Kuwait: Links to gender, language level, and culture in a hybrid context. *Foreign Language Annals, 37*(1), 85-95. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2004.tb02176.x
- Exley, B. (2004). Indonesian EFL curricula: What content knowledge demands do they make of Australian teachers? In E. McWilliam, S. Danby & J. Knight (Eds.), *Performing Educational Research: Theories, Methods & Practices* (pp. 363-374). Flaxton: Post Pressed.
- Faridi, A. (2010). The development of context-based English learning resources for elementary schools in Central Java. *Excellence in Higher Education, 1*, 23-30. doi: 10.5195/ehe.2010.13
- Fertman, C. I., & Primack, B. A. (2009). Elementary student self-efficacy scale development and validation focused on student learning, peer relations, and resisting drug use. *Journal of Drug Education, 39*(1), 23-38.
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. London: Sage.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. London: Sage.
- Fielzer, M. Y. (2010). Doing mixed methods research pragmatically: implication for the rediscovery of pragmatism as a research paradigm. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 4*(1), 6-16. doi: 10.1177/1558689809349691
- Flavell, J. H. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring: A new area of cognitive-developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist, 34*(10), 906-911.
- Fox, E., & Riconscente, M. (2008). Metacognition and self-regulation in James, Piaget, and Vygotsky. *Educational Psychology Review, 20*, 373–389. doi: 10.1007/s10648-008-9079-2

- Fredricks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Paris, A. H. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 74(1), 59-109 doi: 10.3102/00346543074001059
- Gahunggu, O. (2009). Are self-efficacy, language learning strategies, and foreign language ability interrelated? *The Buckingham Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 2, 47-60. doi: 10.5750/bjll.v2i0.14
- Gan, Z., Humphreys, G., & Hamp-Lyons, L. (2004). Understanding successful and unseccussful EFL students in Chinese Universities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 88(2), 229-244. doi: 10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.00227.x/pdf
- Gao, X. (2007). Has language learning strategy research come to an end? A response to Tseng et al. (2006). *Applied Linguistics*, 28(4), 615–620. doi: 10.1093/applin/amm034
- Gemici, S., & Lu, T. (2014). *Do schools influence student engagement in the high school years?* Adelaide: National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER).
- Gharbavi, A., & Mousavi, S. A. (2012). Do language proficiency levels correspond to language learning strategy adoption? *English Language Teaching*, 5(7), 110-122. doi: 10.5539/elt.v5n7plj0
- Goh, C. (2008). Metacognitive instruction for second language listening development: Theory, practice and research implications. *RELC*, 39(2), 188-213. doi: 10.1177/0033688208092184
- Graham, S. (2007). Learner strategies and self-efficacy: Making the connection. *Language Learning Journal*, 35(1), 81–93. doi: 10.1080/09571730701315832
- Graham, S., & Macaro, E. (2008). Strategy instruction in listening for lower-intermediate learners of French. *Language Learning*, 58(4), 747-783. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2008.00478.x
- Green, J. M., & Oxford, R. L. (1995). A closer look at learning strategies, L2 proficiency, and gender. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 261-297. doi: 10.2307/3587625
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy and Analysis*, 11 (3), 255-274. doi: 10.3102/01623737011003255
- Griffiths, C. (2003a). *Language learning strategy use and proficiency: The relationship between patterns of reported language learning strategy (LLS) use by speakers of other languages (SOL) and proficiency with implications for the teaching/learning situation.* (Unpublished doctoral thesis), The University of Auckland, Auckland.
- Griffiths, C. (2003b). Patterns of language learning strategy use. *System*, 31(3), 367-383. doi: 10.1016/S0346-251X(03)00048-4
- Griffiths, C. (2006). Strategy development and progress in language learning. *Prospect*, 21(3), 58-75.
- Griffiths, C. (2008). Strategies and good language learners. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from good language learners* (pp. 83-98). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Griffiths, C. (2013). *The strategy factor in successful language learning.* Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Griffiths, C., & Oxford, R. L. (2014). The twenty-first century landscape of language learning strategies: Introduction to this special issue. *System*, 43, 1-10. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2013.12.009
- Gu, Y. (2012). Learning strategies: Prototypical core and dimensions of variation. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, 3(4), 330-356.
- Gu, Y., Hu, G., & Zhang, L. J. (2005). Investigating language learner strategies among lower primary school pupils in Singapore. *Language and Education*, 19(4), 281-303. doi: 10.1080/09500780508668682



- Gunning, P. (1997). *The learning strategies of beginning ESL learners at the primary level*. (Unpublished master's thesis), Concordia University, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.
- Gunning, P. (2011). *ESL strategy use and instruction at the elementary school level: A mixed methods investigation*. (Unpublished doctoral thesis), McGill University, Canada.
- Gunning, P., & Oxford, R. L. (2014). Children's learning strategy use and the effects of strategy instruction on success in learning ESL in Canada. *System*, 43, 82-100. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2013.12.012
- Gustine, G. G. (2013). Designing and implementing a critical literacy-based approach in an Indonesian EFL secondary school. *International Journal of Indonesian Studies*, 1, 2-21.
- Hair, J. F. J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. P., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis*. Singapore: Pearson Prantice Hall.
- Heidari, F., Izadi, M., & Ahmadian, M. V. (2012). The relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and use of vocabulary learning strategies. *English Language Learning*, 5(2), 174-182. doi: 10.5539/elt.v5n2p174
- Heo, M., Stoffa, R., & Kush, J. C. (2012). Factor analysis of the ESL/EFL Strategy Inventory for Language Learning: Generation 1.5 Korean immigrant college students' language learning strategies. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 25(3), 231-247. doi: 10.1080/07908318.2012.706302
- Heyman, G. D., Dweck, C. S., & Cain, K. M. (1992). Young children's vulnerability to self-blame and helplessness: Relationship to beliefs about goodness. *Child Development*, 63(2), 401-415.
- Hoaglin, D. C., Iglewicz, B., & Tukey, J. W. (1986). Performance of some resistant rules for outlier labelling. *Journal of American Statistical Association*, 81, doi: 991-999. 10.2307/2289073
- Hong-Nam, K., & Leavell, A. G. (2006). Language learning strategy use of ESL students in an intensive English learning context. *System*, 34(3), 399-415. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2006.02.002
- Howell, D. C. (2007). *Fundamental statistics for the behavioural sciences*. Belmont, CA: Thomson/Wadsworth.
- Howell, D. C. (2013). *Statistical methods for psychology* (8th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Hsiao, T. Y., & Oxford, R. L. (2002). Comparing theories of language learning strategies: Confirmatory factor analysis. *Modern Language Journal*, 83(3), 368-383. doi: 10.1111/1540-4781.00155
- Hsieh, P. P.-H., & Kang, H.-S. (2010). Attribution and self-efficacy and their interrelationship in the Korean EFL context. *Language Learning*, 60(3), 606-627. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00570.x
- Hsieh, P. P.-H., & Schallert, D. L. (2008). Implications from self-efficacy and attribution theories for an understanding of undergraduates' motivation in a foreign language course. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 33(4), 513-532. doi: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2008.01.003
- Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics. Selected Readings* (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Ivone, F. M. (2005). Teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia: The urge to improve classroom vocabulary instruction. *TEFLIN Journal*, 16(2), 195-208.
- Jiang, Y., Song, J., Lee, M., & Bong, M. (2014). Self-efficacy and achievement goals as motivational links between perceived contexts and achievement. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*, 34(1), 92-117. doi: 10.1080/01443410.2013.863831

- Jie, L., & Xiaoqing, Q. (2006). Language learning styles and learning strategies of tertiary-level English learners in China. *RELC Journal*, 37(1), 67-90. doi: 10.1177/0033688206063475
- Johnson, R. B., & Christensen, L. (2012). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14-26. doi: 10.3102/0013189X033007014
- Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(2), 112-133. doi: 10.1177/1558689806298224
- Joo, Y.-J., Bong, M., & Choi, H.-J. (2000). Self-efficacy for self-regulated learning, academic self-efficacy, and internet self-efficacy in web-based instruction. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 48(2), 5–17. doi: 10.1007/BF02313398
- Joyce, A. P. (2008). Cross-cultural differences in the use of learning strategies by students of Greek as a second language. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 29(4), 310-324. doi: 10.1080/01434630802147817
- Joët, G., Usher, E. L., & Bressoux, P. (2011). Sources of self-efficacy: An investigation of elementary school students in France. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 103(3), 649–663. doi: 10.1037/a0024048
- Jurkovič, V. (2010). Language learner strategies and linguistic competence as factors affecting achievement test scores in English for specific purposes. *TESOL Journal*, 1(4), 449-469. doi: 10.5054/tj.2010.234765
- Karli, H. (2009). Pembelajaran tematik dan pembelajaran fragmented di sekolah dasar [Thematic and fragmented learning in primary schools]. *Jurnal Pendidikan Penabur*, 13, 71-79.
- Kaur, M., & Embi, M. A. (2011). Language learning strategies employed by primary school students. *European Journal of Educational Studies*, 3(3), 473-479.
- Keteng, A. M. (2013, 11 December 2013). Bahasa Inggris di kurikulum SD, Ahok: Masih ada tapi tak dipaksa [English in primary school curriculum, Ahok: English is retained but schools are not forced to offer it] *Liputan6.com*.
- Khaldieh, A. S. (2000). Learning strategies and writing processes of proficient vs. less proficient learners of Arabic. *Foreign Language Annals*, 33, doi: 522–534. 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2000.tb01996.x
- Khalil, A. (2005). Assessment of language learning strategies used by Palestinian EFL learners. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(1), 108-117. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2005.tb02458.x/pdf
- Kim, D.-H., Wang, C., Ahn, H. S., & Bong, M. (2015). English language learners' self-efficacy profiles and relationship with self-regulated learning strategies. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 38(0), 136-142. doi: 10.1016/j.lindif.2015.01.016
- Kirsch, C. (2012). Developing children's language learners' strategies at primary school. *International Journal of Primary, Elementary, and Early Years Education*, 40(4), 379-399. doi: 10.1080/03004279.2012.691372
- Komaraju, M., & Nadler, D. (2013). Self-efficacy and academic achievement: Why do implicit beliefs, goals, and effort regulation matter? *Learning and Individual Differences*, 25(0), 67-72. doi: 10.1016/j.lindif.2013.01.005
- Kristiawan, M. (2013). The implementation of cooperative learning in English class of favorite school of secondary high school 5 Batusangkar, West Sumatera [sic]. *International Journal of Educational Administration and Policy Studies*, 5(6), 85-90. doi: 10.5897/IJEAPS2013.0316

- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond method: Macro-strategies for language teaching*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Kurt, G., & Atay, D. (2006). Language learning strategies used by Turkish 6th and 8th graders. *Hasan Ali Yucel Egitim Fakultesi Dergisi*, 2, 123-137.
- Kustati, M. (2013). The shifting paradigms in the implementation of CLT in Southeast Asia countries. *Jurnal Al-Ta'lim*, 1(4), 267-277.
- Kusuma, I. D., Djatmika, & Dwi, A. P. (2007). *Active English 6: A fun and easy English book*. Solo, Indonesia: PT Tiga Serangkai Pustaka Mandiri.
- Lai, Y.-C. (2009). Language learning strategy use and English proficiency of university freshmen in Taiwan. *TESOL Quarterly*, 43(2), 255-280. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2009.tb00167.x
- Lamb, M. (2002). Explaining successful language learning in difficult circumstances. *Prospect*, 17(2), 35-52.
- Lamb, M. (2004). It depends on the students themselves: Independent language learning at an Indonesian state school. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum*, 17(3), 229-245. doi: 0790-8318/04/03 229-17
- Lamb, M. (2007). The impact of school on EFL learning motivation: An Indonesian case study. *Tesol Quarterly*, 41(4), 757-780. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00102.x
- Lan, R. (2005). *Language learning strategy profiles of EFL elementary school students in Taiwan*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), University of Maryland.
- Lan, R., & Oxford, R. L. (2003). Language learning strategy profiles of elementary school students in Taiwan. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 41(4), 339-379. doi: 10.1515/iral.2003.016
- Larson-Hall, J. (2010). *A guide to doing statistics in second language research using SPSS*. New York: Routledge.
- Lau, S., Liem, A. D., & Nie, Y. (2008). Task- and self-related pathways to deep learning: The mediating role of achievement goals, classroom attentiveness, and group participation. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78(4), 639-662.
- Lee, J., & Stankov, L. (2013). Higher-order structure of noncognitive constructs and prediction of PISA 2003 mathematics achievement. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 26(0), 119-130. doi: 10.1016/j.lindif.2013.05.004
- Lee, K. R., & Oxford, R. L. (2008). Understanding EFL learners' strategy use and strategy awareness. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 10(1), 7-32.
- Lee, W., Lee, M.-J., & Bong, M. (2014). Testing interest and self-efficacy as predictors of academic self-regulation and achievement. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 39(2), 86-99. doi: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2014.02.002
- Lens, W., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2008). Promoting self-regulated learning: A motivational analysis. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and application* (pp. 141-168). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Lestari, L. A. (2003). Should English be a compulsory subject in primary schools? *Bahasa dan Sastra*, 31(2), 197-213.
- Leung, C. (2001). The psychological adaptation of overseas and migrant students in Australia. *International Journal of Psychology*, 36(4), 251-259. doi: 10.1080/00207590143000018
- Li, Y., & Wang, C. (2010). An empirical study of reading self-efficacy and the use of reading strategies in the Chinese EFL context. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 12 (2), 144-162.
- Liem, A. D., Lau, S., & Nie, Y. (2008). The role of self-efficacy, task value, and achievement goals in predicting learning strategies, task disengagement, peer relationship, and

- achievement outcome. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 33(4), 486-512. doi: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2007.08.001
- Linnenbrink, E. A., & Pintrich, P. R. (2003). The role of self-efficacy beliefs in student engagement and learning in the classroom *Reading & Writing Quarterly: Overcoming Learning Difficulties*, 19(2), 119-137. doi: 10.1080/10573560308223
- Lip, P. (2009). Investigating the most frequently used and most useful vocabulary language learning strategies among Chinese EFL postsecondary students in Hong Kong. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 6(1), 77-87.
- Little, D. G. (1996). Strategic competence considered in relation to strategic control of the language learning process. In H. Holec, D. G. Little & R. Richterich (Eds.), *Strategies in language learning and use: Studies towards a common European framework of reference for language learning and teaching* (pp. 9-38). Strasbourg Cedex: Council of Europe Publishing.
- Little, D. G. (1999). Learner autonomy is more than a Western cultural construct. In S. Cotterall & D. Crabbe (Eds.), *Learner autonomy in language learning: Defining the field and effecting change* (pp. 11-18). Frankfurt: Peter Lang.
- Liu, H.-j., & Chang, C.-h. (2013). A study on language learning strategy use and its relation to academic self-concept: The case of EFL students in Taiwan. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4(2), 260-268. doi: 10.4304/jltr.4.2.260-268
- Liu, W. C., Wang, C. K. J., Kee, Y. H., Koh, C., Lim, B. S. C., & Chua, L. (2014). College students' motivation and learning strategies profiles and academic achievement: a self-determination theory approach. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*, 34(3), 338-353. doi: 10.1080/01443410.2013.785067
- Liyanage, I., & Bartlett, B. J. (2012). Gender and language learning strategies: looking beyond the categories. *The Language Learning Journal*, 40(2), 237-253. doi: 10.1080/09571736.2011.574818
- Lyster, R. (2002). Negotiation in immersion teacher–student interaction. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37(3), 237–253. doi: 10.1016/S0883-0355(03)00003-X
- Macaro, E. (2006). Strategies for language learning and for language use: revising the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(3), 320-337. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2006.00425.x
- Macaro, E. (2007). Language learner strategies: adhering to a theoretical framework. *The Language Learning Journal*, 35(2), 239-243. doi: 10.1080/09571730701599245
- MacIntyre, P. D. (1994). Toward a social psychological model of strategy use. *Foreign Language Annals*, 27(2), 185-195. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720.1994.tb01201.x
- MacIntyre, P. D., Dörnyei, Z., Clement, R., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(4), 545–562. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb05543.x
- MacWhinney, B. (1997). Second language acquisition and the competition model. In A. M. B. de Groot & J. F. Kroll (eds.), *Tutorials in bilingualism: Psycholinguistic perspectives* (pp. 113-144). Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Madya, S., Sugeng, B., Maarif, S., Supriyanti, N., Purbani, N., Basikin, & Istiqomah, S. (2004). Developing a model of teaching English to primary school students. *TEFLIN Journal*, 15(2).
- Magana, A. J. (2014). Learning strategies and multimedia techniques for scaffolding size and scale cognition. *Computers & Education*, 72(0), 367-377. doi: 10.1016/j.compedu.2013.11.012

- Magogwe, J. M., & Oliver, R. (2007). The relationship between language learning strategies, proficiency, age and self-efficacy beliefs: A study of language learners in Botswana. *System*, 35(3), 338-352. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2007.01.003
- Marcellino, M. (2005). Competency-based language instruction in speaking classes: Its theory and implementation in Indonesian contexts. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 1(1), 33-44.
- Marsh, H. W., Walker, R., & Debus, R. (1991). Subject-specific components of academic components of academic self-concept and self-efficacy. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 16, 331-345. doi: 10.1016/0361-476X(91)90013-B
- Mattarima, K., & Hamdan, A. R. (2011). The teaching constraints of English as a foreign language in Indonesia: The context of school based curriculum. *Sosiohumanika*, 4(2), 287-300.
- Matthews, P. H. (2010). Factors influencing self-efficacy judgments of university students in foreign language tutoring. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(4), 618-635. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01057.x
- Mau, W.-C. (2000). Cultural differences in career decision-making styles and self-efficacy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 57(3), 365-378. doi: 10.1006/jvbe.1999.1745
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Millington, N. T. (2011). Using songs effectively to teach English to young learners. *Language Education in Asia*, 2(1), 134-141. doi: 10.5746/LEiA/11/V2/11/A11
- Mills, N., Pajares, F., & Herron, C. (2006). The reevaluation of the role of anxiety: self-efficacy, anxiety, and their relation to reading and listening proficiency. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39(2), 276-295. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2006.tb02266.x
- Mills, N., Pajares, F., & Herron, C. (2007). Self-efficacy of college intermediate French students: Relation to achievement and motivation. *Language Learning*, 57(3), 417-442. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2007.00421.x
- Mizumoto, A. (2012). Exploring the effects of self-efficacy on vocabulary learning strategies. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, 3(4), 423-437.
- Mizumoto, A. (2013). Effects of self-regulated vocabulary learning process on self-efficacy. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7(3), 253-265. doi: 10.1080/17501229.2013.836206
- Mona, M. A., Baker, D. D., & Jeffries, F. (1995). Predictive validity and time dependence of self-efficacy, self-esteem, personal goals, and academic performance. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 55(5), 716-727.
- Muamaroh, A. (2013). *Improving Indonesian university students' spoken English using group work and cooperative learning*. (Unpublished doctoral thesis), Charles Darwin University, Darwin.
- Muflikah, B. (2008). *Pelaksanaan pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris sekolah dasar di Kota Salatiga (studi kajian etnografi)*. (Unpublished master's thesis), Program Pascasarjana Universitas Sebelas Maret Surakarta.
- Muhammad, H. (2012). *On the importance of English language education for students* /Interviewer: Iman Mahditama. <http://www.thejakartapost.com>
- Multon, K. D., Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (1991). Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 38(1), 30-38. doi: 10.1037/0022-0167.38.1.30
- Munsakorn, N. (2012). Mental imagery: Is it worth the endeavour? *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(11), 33-39. doi: 10.5901/mjss.2012.v3n11p33

- Murray, B. (2010). Students' language learning strategy use and achievement in the Korean as a foreign language classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(4), 624-634. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2010.01105.x
- Musthafa, B. (2001). Communicative language teaching in Indonesia. *Journal of Southeast Asian Education*, 2(2), pp. 1-9.
- Musthafa, B. (2010). Teaching English to young learners in Indonesia: Essential requirements. *Educationist*, 4(2), 120-125.
- National Capital Language Resource Center. (2000a). *High school foreign language students' perceptions of language learning strategies and self-efficacy*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.
- National Capital Language Resource Center. (2000b). *Elementary immersion students' perceptions of language learning strategies and self-efficacy*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.
- Newman, R. S. (2002). How self-regulated learners cope with academic difficulty: the role of adaptive help seeking. *Theory into Practice*, 41(2), 132-138. doi: 10.1207/s15430421tip4102\_10
- Nezami, E., Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1996). Persian adaptation (Farsi) of the general self-efficacy scale. <http://userpage.fu-berlin.de/~health/persean.htm>
- Nguyen, N., & Godwyll, F. (2010). Factors influencing language-learning strategy use of English learners in an ESL context. *Mid-Western Educational Researcher*, 23(4), 7-13.
- Nisbet, D. L., Tindall, E. R., & Arroyo, A. A. (2005). Language learning strategies and English proficiency of Chinese university students. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(1), 100-107. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2005.tb02457.x
- Noels, K. A., Pon, G., & Clement, R. (1996). Language, identity, and adjustment: The role of linguistic self-confidence in the acculturation process. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 15(3), 246-264. doi: 10.1177/0261927X960153003
- Norman, G. (2010). Likert scales, levels of measurement and the "laws" of statistics. *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, 15(5), 625-632 doi: 10.1007/s10459-010-9222-y
- Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2001). Changing perspectives on good language learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(2), 307-322. doi: 10.2307/3587650
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nyikos, M., & Oxford, R. L. (1993). A factor analytic study of language-learning strategy use: Interpretations from information-processing theory and social psychology. *The Modern Language Journal*, 77(1), 11-22. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1993.tb01940.x
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Kupper, L., & Russo, R. P. (1985). Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. *Language Learning*, 35(1), 21-46. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1985.tb01013.x
- O'Malley, J. M., Stewner-Manzanares, A. U. C. G., Russo, R. P., & Kupper, L. (1985). Learning strategy application with students of English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 557-584. doi: 10.2307/3586278
- Olivares-Cuhat, G. (2002). Learning strategies and achievement in the Spanish writing classroom: A case study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 35(5), 561-570. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2002.tb02724.x

- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Bailey, P., & Daley, C. E. (2000). Cognitive, affective, personality, and demographic predictors of foreign language achievement. *Journal of Educational Research, 94*(1), 3-15. doi: 10.1080/00220670009598738
- Oxford, R. L. (1989). The role of styles and strategies in second language learning. *ERIC Digest, 1-9*.
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House Harper Collins.
- Oxford, R. L. (1999). Relationships between second language learning strategies and language proficiency in the context of learner autonomy and self-regulation. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses, 38*, 109-126.
- Oxford, R. L. (2011a). Research timeline: Strategies for learning a second or foreign language. *Language Teaching, 44*(2), 167-180. doi: 10.1017/S0261444810000492
- Oxford, R. L. (2011b). *Teaching and researching: Language learning strategies*. New York: Longman.
- Oxford, R. L., & Burry-Stock, J. A. (1995). Assessing the use of language learning strategies worldwide with the ESL/EFL version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). *System, 23*(1), 1-23. doi: 10.1016/0346-251X(94)00047-A
- Oxford, R. L., Cho, Y., Leung, S., & Kim, H.-J. (2004). Effect of the presence and difficulty of task on strategy use: An exploratory study. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 42*(1), 1-23. doi: 10.1515/iral.2004.001
- Oxford, R. L., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(1), 12-28. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1994.tb02011.x
- Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research, 66*(4), 214-221. doi: 10.3102/00346543066004543
- Pajares, F. (2002). Gender and perceived self-efficacy in self-regulated learning. *Theory into Practice, 41*(2), 116-125. doi: 10.1207/s15430421tip4102\_8
- Pajares, F. (2008). Motivational role of self-efficacy beliefs in self-regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and application* (pp. 111 – 140). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Pajares, F., Britner, S. L., & Valiante, G. (2000). Relation between achievement goals and self-beliefs of middle school students in writing and science. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*(4), 406-422. doi: 10.1006/ceps.1999.1027
- Pajares, F., & Johnson, M. J. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs and the writing performance of entering high school students. *Psychology in the Schools, 33*(2), 163–175. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1520-6807(199604)
- Pajares, F., & Miller, M. D. (1994). The role of self-efficacy and self-concept beliefs in mathematical problem-solving: A path analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 86*(2), 193-203. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.86.2.193
- Pajares, F., & Valiante, G. (2001). Influence of self-efficacy on elementary students' writing. *The Journal of Educational Research, 90*(6), 353-360. doi: 10.1080/00220671.1997.10544593
- Pajares, F., & Valiante, G. (2002). Students' self-efficacy in their self-regulated learning strategies: A developmental perspective. *Psychologia: An International Journal of Psychology in the Orient, 45*(4), 211-221. doi: 10.2117/psysoc.2002.211
- Pallant, J. (2011). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS*. Crows Nest, NSW: Allen & Unwin.

- Park, G.-P. (1997). Language learning strategies and English proficiency in Korean University students. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30(2), 211-221. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1997.tb02343.x
- Park, G.-P. (2011). The validation process of the SILL: A confirmatory factor analysis. *English Language Teaching*, 4(4), 21-27. doi: 10.5539/elt.v4n4p21
- Parker, P. D., Marsh, H. W., Ciarrochia, J., Marshall, S., & Abduljabbar, A. S. (2014). Juxtaposing math self-efficacy and self-concept as predictors of long-term achievement outcomes. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*, 34(1), 29-48. doi: 10.1080/01443410.2013.797339
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Peacock, M. (2010). Attribution and learning English as a foreign language. *ELT Journal*, 64(2), 184-193. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccp031
- Peacock, M., & Ho, B. (2003). Student language learning strategies across eight disciplines. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 13(2), 179-200. doi: 10.1111/1473-4192.00043
- Pelham, B. W. (1995). Self-investment and self-esteem: Evidence for a Jamesian model of self-worth. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69, 50-61. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.69.6.1141
- Petrocelli, J. V. (2003). Hierarchical multiple regression in counseling research: Common problems and possible remedies. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 36, 9-22.
- Phakiti, A. (2003). A closer look at the relationship of cognitive and metacognitive strategy use to EFL reading achievement test performance. *Language Testing*, 20(1), 26-56. doi: 10.1191/0265532203lt243oa
- Phillips, V. (1991). A look at learner strategy use and ESL proficiency. *The CATESOL Journal*, 4, 57-67.
- Pintrich, P. R. (2000). The role of goal orientation in self-regulated learning. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 451–502). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Pintrich, P. R. (2003). A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95, 667-686.
- Pintrich, P. R., & Groot, E. V. d. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82, 33-40. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.82.1.33
- Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (2002). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and application* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Plano-Clark, V. L., & Creswell, J. (2008). *The mixed methods readers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Politzer, R. L., & McGroarty, M. (1985). An exploratory study of learning behaviors and their relationship to gains in linguistic and communicative competence. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(1), 103-122. doi: 10.2307/3586774
- Prat-Sala, M., & Redford, P. (2010). The interplay between motivation, self-efficacy, and approaches to studying. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80, 283-305. doi: 10.1348/000709909X480563
- Purdie, N., & Oliver, R. (1999). Language learning strategies used by bilingual school-aged children. *System*, 27(3), 375-388. doi: 10.1016/S0346-251X(99)00032-9



- Radwan, A. A. (2011). Effects of L2 proficiency and gender on choice of language learning strategies by university students majoring in English. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 13(1), 115-163.
- Rahimi, A., & Abidini, A. (2009). The interface between EFL learners' self-efficacy concerning listening comprehension and listening proficiency. *Novitas ROYAL*, 3(1), 14-28.
- Rahimpour, M., & Nariman-Jahan, R. (2010). The influence of self-efficacy and proficiency on EFL learners' writing. *Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*, 7(11), 19-32.
- Rao, Z. (2012). Language learning strategies and English proficiency: Interpretations from information-processing theory. *The Language Learning Journal*. 1-17 doi: 10.1080/09571736.2012.733886
- Reeve, J., Ryan, R., Deci, E. L., & Jang, H. (2008). Understanding and promoting autonomous self-regulation: A self-determination theory perspective. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 223-244). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Reynolds-Keefer, L., Johnson, R., & Dickenson, T. (2009). Validity issues in the use of pictorial Likert scales. *Studies in Learning, Evaluation, Innovation, and Development*, 6(3), 15-24.
- Robson, G., & Midorikawa, H. (2001). How reliable and valid is the Japanese version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)? *JALT Journal*, 23(2), 202-226.
- Rose, H. (2012a). Language learning strategy research: Where do we go from here? *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, 3(2), 137-148.
- Rose, H. (2012b). Reconceptualizing strategic learning in the face of self-regulation: Throwing language learning strategies out with the bathwater. *Applied Linguistics*, 33(1), 92-98. doi: 10.1093/applin/amr045
- Rose, H. (2015). Researching language learning strategies. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics* (pp. 421-438). London: Bloomsbury.
- Rovai, A. P., & Baker, J. D. (2005). Gender differences in online learning: Sense of community, perceived learning, and interpersonal interactions. *The Quarterly Review of Distance Education*, 6(1), 31-44.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the 'good language learner' can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 41-51. www.jstor.org
- Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 15-30). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International.
- Rubin, J. (2001). Language learner self-management. *Journal of Asian Pacific Communication*, 11(1), 25-37. doi: 10.1075/japc.11.1.05rub
- Saville-Troike, M. (1988). Private speech: Evidence for second language learning strategies during the "silent period." *Journal of Child Language*, 15, 567-590. doi 10.1017/S0305000900012575
- Schneider, W. (2008). The development of metacognitive knowledge in children and adolescents: Major trends and implications for education. *Mind, Brain & Education*, 2(3), 114-121. doi: 10.1111/j.1751-228X.2008.00041.x.
- Schunk, D. H. (1995). Self-efficacy and education and instruction. In J. E. Maddux (Ed.), *Self-efficacy, adaptation, and adjustment: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 281-303). New York: Plenum.
- Schunk, D. H. (2005). Commentary on self-regulation in school contexts. *Learning and Instruction*, 15, 173-177. doi: 10.1016/j.learninstruc.2005.04.013

- Schunk, D. H. (2008). Attribution as motivators of self-regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 245-266). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, B. J. (1997). Social origin of self-regulatory competence. *Educational Psychologist*, 32, 195-208. doi: 10.1207/s15326985ep3204\_1
- Sperling, R. A., Howard, B. C., Staley, R., & DuBois, N. (2004). Metacognition and self-regulated learning constructs, educational research and evaluation. *An International Journal on Theory and Practice*, 10(2), 117-139. doi: 10.1076/edre.10.2.117.27905
- Steinberg, L. (1996). *Beyond the classroom: Why school reform has failed and what parents need to do*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Stern, H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 34(4), 304-318.
- Su, M.-h. (2005). A study of EFL technological and vocational college students' language learning strategies and their self-perceived English proficiency. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 2(1), 44-56.
- Su, M.-h., & Duo, P. (2012). EFL learners' language learning strategy use and perceived self-efficacy. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 27(3), 335-345.
- Sugeng, B. (1997). A learning strategy profile of Indonesian elementary school students. *RELC Journal*, 28(2), 82-106. doi: 10.1177/003368829702800205
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2008). Introduction to mixed method and mixed model studies in the social and behavioral sciences. In V. L. Plano Clark & J. W. Creswell (Eds.), *The mixed methods readers* (pp. 7-26). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (Eds.). (2003). *Handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Tercanlioglu, L. (2004). Exploring gender effect on adult foreign language learning strategies. *Issues In Educational Research*, 14, 181-193.
- Thompson, D. R. (2012). Promoting metacognitive skills in intermediate Spanish: Report of a classroom research project. *Foreign Language Annals*, 45(3), 447-462. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2012.01199.x
- Tilfarlioglu, F. Y., & Ciftci, F. S. (2011). Supporting self-efficacy and learner autonomy in relation to academic success in EFL classrooms (a case study). *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(101284-1294). doi: 10.4304/tpls.1.10.1284-1294
- Tilfarlioglu, F. Y., & Cinkara, E. (2009). Self- efficacy in EFL: Differences among proficiency groups and relationship with success. *Novitas-ROYAL*, 3(2), 129-142.
- Tragant, E., Thompson, M. S., & Victori, M. (2013). Understanding foreign language learning strategies: A validation study. *System*, 41(1), 95-108. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2013.01.007
- Tseng, W.-T., Dörnyei, Z., & Schmitt, N. (2006). A new approach to assessing strategic learning: The case of self-regulation in vocabulary acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 27(1), 78-102. doi: 10.1093/applin/ami046
- Uebersax, J. S. (2006). Likert scales: Dispelling the confusion. *Statistical methods for rater Agreement*. <http://john-uebersax.com/stat/likert.htm>
- University of Cambridge ESOL examinations. (2011). *YLE Cambridge Young Learners English Tests: Examination report 2011*. Cambridge, England: Author.

- University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES). (2007). *Cambridge young learners English test Starters, Movers, Fliers: Handbook for teachers*. Cambridge, England: Author.
- University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES). (2013). *Research and validation*. Cambridge, England: Author.
- Usher, E. L. (2009). Sources of middle school students' self-efficacy in mathematics: A qualitative investigation. *American Educational Research Journal*, 46(1), 275-314. doi: 10.3102/0002831208324517
- Usher, E. L., & Pajares, F. (2006). Sources of academic and self-regulatory efficacy beliefs of entering middle school students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 31(2), 125-141. doi: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2005.03.002
- Usher, E. L., & Pajares, F. (2008). Self-efficacy for self-regulated learning: A validation study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 68(3), 443-463. doi: 10.1177/0013164407308475
- Ushioda, E. (2008). Motivation and good language learners. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from good language learners* (pp. 19-34). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vandergrift, L. (1997). The comprehension strategies of second language (French) listeners: A descriptive study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30(3), 387-409. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1997.tb02362.x
- Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: Toward a model of the skilled second language listener. *Language Learning*, 53, 463-496. doi: v10.1111/1467-9922.00232
- Vandergrift, L., & Goh, C. (2011). *Teaching and learning second language listening: Metacognition in action*. New York: Routledge.
- Vann, R., & Abraham, R. (1990). Strategies of unsuccessful learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24, 177-198. doi: 10.2307/3586898
- Veenman, M. V. J., Hout-Wolters, B. H. A. M. V., & Afflerbach, P. (2006). Metacognition and learning: Conceptual and methodological considerations. *Metacognition Learning*, 1, 3-14. doi: 10.1007/s11409-006-6893-0
- Victori, M., & Tragant, E. (2003). Learner strategies: A cross-sectional and longitudinal study of primary and high-school students. In M. P. G. Mayo & M. L. G. Lecumberri (Eds.), *Age and the acquisition of English as a foreign language* (pp. 182-209). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Wahyuni, S. (2013). *L2 speaking strategies employed by Indonesian EFL tertiary students across proficiency and gender*. (Unpublished doctoral thesis), University of Canberra, Canberra.
- Walters, S. (2007). Researching Bangladeshi pupils' strategies for learning to read in (UK) primary school settings. *Language Learning Journal*, 35(1), 51-64. doi: 10.1080/09571730701315758
- Wang, C.-H., Shannon, D. M., & Ross, M. E. (2013). Students' characteristics, self-regulated learning, technology self-efficacy, and course outcomes in online learning. *Distance Education*, 34(3), 302-323. doi: 10.1080/01587919.2013.835779
- Wang, C., & Pape, S. J. (2007). A probe into three Chinese boys' self-efficacy beliefs learning English as a second language. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education*, 21(4), 364-377. doi: 10.1080/02568540709594601
- Weiner, B. (1976). An attributional approach for educational psychology. *Review of Research in Education*, 4(1), 179-209. doi: 10.3102/0091732X004001179
- Weinstein, C. E., Husman, J., & Dierking, D. R. (2000). Self-regulation interventions with a focus on learning strategies. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 727-747). San Diego: Academic Press.

- Wenden, A. (1987). Conceptual background and utility. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 3-14). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International.
- Wenden, A. (1991). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy: Planning and implementing learner training for language learners*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Wenden, A. (1998). Metacognitive knowledge and language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(4), 517-537. doi: 10.1093/applin/19.4.515
- Westen, D., & Rosenthal, R. (2003). Quantifying construct validity: Two simple measures. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 8(3), 608-618. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.84.3.608
- Wharton, G. (2000). Language learning strategy use of bilingual foreign language learners in Singapore. *Language Learning*, 50(2), 203-243. doi: 10.1111/0023-8333.00117
- White, C., Schramm, K., & Chamot, A. U. (2007). Research methods in language learner strategies: Re-examining the tool box In A. D. Cohen & E. Macaro (Eds.), *Language learner strategies: 30 years of research and practice* (pp. 93-116). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Williams, M., Burden, R., Poulet, G., & Maun, I. (2004). Learners' perceptions of their successes and failures in foreign language learning. *The Language Learning Journal*, 30(1), 19-29. doi: 10.1080/09571730485200191
- Wilson, J. (2007). Reviewing the Cambridge young learners' English (YLE) test. *Cambridge ESOL: Research Notes*, 28, 2-4.
- Wilson, K., & Narayan, A. (2014). Relationships among individual task self-efficacy, self-regulated learning strategy use and academic performance in a computersupported collaborative learning environment. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*. doi: 10.1080/01443410.2014.926312
- Winne, P. H. (1995). Inherent details in self-regulated learning. *Educational Psychologist*, 30(4), 173-187. doi: 10.1207/s15326985ep3004\_2
- Winne, P. H. (2001). Self-regulated learning viewed from models of information processing. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 153-189). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Wong, L. L. C., & Nunan, D. (2011). The learning styles and strategies of effective language learners. *System*, 39(2), 144-163. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2011.05.004
- Wong, M. S.-L. (2005). Language learning strategies and language self-efficacy: investigating the relationship in Malaysia. *RELC*, 36(3), 245-269. doi: 10.1177/0033688205060050
- Woodrow, L. (2005). The challenge of measuring language learning strategies. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(1), 90-98. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2005.tb02456.x
- Woodrow, L. (2006). A model of adaptive language learning. *Modern Language Journal*, 90(3), 297-319. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2006.00424.x
- Woodrow, L. (2011). College English writing affect: Self-efficacy and anxiety. *System*, 39(4), 510-522. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2011.10.017
- Wright, M. (1999). Influences on learner attitudes towards foreign language and culture. *Educational Research*, 41(2), 197-208. doi: 10.1080/0013188990410207
- Wu, Y. (2008). Language learning strategies used by students at different proficiency levels. *Asian EFL Journal*, 10(4), 75-95.
- Yabukoshi, T., & Takeuchi, O. (2009). Language learning strategies used by lower secondary school learners in a Japanese EFL context. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 19(2), 136-172. doi: 10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00221.x

- Yamamori, K., Isoda, T., Hiromori, T., & Oxford, R. L. (2003). Using cluster analysis to uncover L2 learner differences in strategy use, will to learn, and achievement over time. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 41, 381-409. doi: 10.1515/iral.2003.017
- Yang, N.-D. (1999). The relationship between EFL learners' beliefs and learning strategy use. *System*, 27, 515-535. doi: 10.1016/S0346-251X(99)00048-2
- Yeo, G. B., & Neal, A. (2006). An examination of the dynamic relationship between self-efficacy and performance across levels of analysis and levels of specificity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(5), 1088-1101. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.91.5.1088
- Yilmaz, C. (2010). The relationship between language learning strategies, gender, proficiency, and self-efficacy beliefs: A study of ELT learners in Turkey. *Procedia Social & Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 682-687. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.03.084
- Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yip, M. C. W. (2012). Learning strategies and self-efficacy as predictors of academic performance: a preliminary study. *Quality in Higher Education*, 18, 23-34. doi: 10.1080/13538322.2012.667263
- Yip, M. C. W. (2013). Learning strategies and their relationships to academic performance of high school students in Hong Kong. *Educational Psychology: An International Journal of Experimental Educational Psychology*, 33(7), 817-827. doi: 10.1080/01443410.2013.794493
- Yulia, Y. (2014). *An evaluation of English language teaching programs in Indonesian junior high schools in the Yogyakarta Province*. (Unpublished doctoral thesis), RMIT University, Melbourne.
- Zein, M. S. (2011). *One size does not fit all: Unravelling the needs of English teachers in primary schools in Indonesia*. Paper presented at the 2011 International Conference on Languages, Literature and Linguistics, Singapore.
- Zein, M. S. (2012). *Language teacher education for primary school english teachers in indonesia: Policy recommendations*. (Unpublished doctoral thesis), Australian National University, Canberra, Australia.
- Zhang, D., & Goh, C. (2006). Strategy knowledge and perceived strategy use: Singaporean students' awareness of listening and speaking strategies. *Language Awareness*, 15(3), 199-219. doi: 10.2167/la342.0
- Zhang, L. J., Gu, Y., & Hu, G. (2008). A cognitive perspective on Singaporean primary school pupils' use of reading strategies in learning to read in English. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78, 245-271. doi: 10.1348/000709907X218179
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1986). Becoming a self-regulated learner: Which are the key subprocesses? *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 11(4), 307-313. doi: 10.1016/0361-476X(86)90027-5
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1989a). Models of self-regulated learning and academic achievement. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theory, research, and practice* (pp. 1-26). New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1989b). A social cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81(3), 329-339. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.81.3.329
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1990). Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: An overview. *Educational Psychologist*, 25(1), 3-17. doi: 10.1207/s15326985ep2501\_2
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1995). Self-regulation involves more than metacognition: A social cognitive perspective. *Educational Psychologist*, 30(4), 217-221. doi: 10.1207/s15326985ep3004\_8

- Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 82-91. doi: 10.1006/ceps.1999.1016
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2001). Theories of self-regulated learning and academic achievement: An overview and analysis. In B. J. Zimmerman & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 1-38). Marwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associate, Inc.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory into Practice*, 41(2), 64-70. doi: 10.1207/s15430421tip4102\_2
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Bandura, A. (1994). Impact of self-regulatory influences on writing course attainment. *American Educational Research Journal*, 31(4), 845-862. doi: 10.3102/00028312031004845
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Cleary, T. J. (2006). Adolescents' development of personal agency: The role of self-efficacy beliefs and self-regulatory skill. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 45-69). Greenwich: Information Age Publishing.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Kitsantas, A. (2014). Comparing students' self-discipline and self-regulation measures and their prediction of academic achievement. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 39(2), 145-155. doi: 10.1016/j.cedpsych.2014.03.004
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1986). Development of a structured interview for assessing student use of self-regulated learning strategies. *American Research Journal*, 23(4), 614-628. doi: 10.3102/00028312023004614
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1990). Student differences in self-regulated learning: Relating grade, sex, and giftedness to self-efficacy and strategy use. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(1), 51-59. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.82.1.51
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Schunk, D. H. (2008). Motivation: An essential dimension of self-regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 1-30). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

# APPENDICES

## Appendix 1: Basic Competences of English for Primary school (Grade 6) in Curriculum 2006

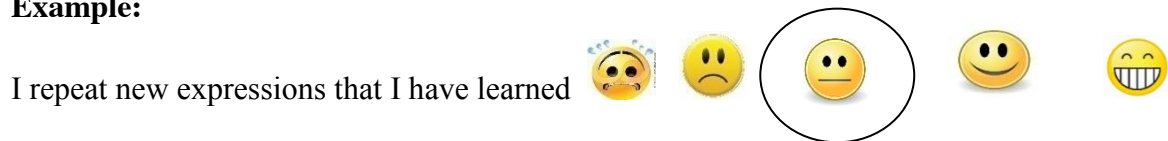
Semester 1	Semester 2
<p><b>Listening</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Responding to very simple instructions about the activities inside and outside the classroom through actions</li> <li>2. Responding to very simple instructions in games through actions</li> <li>3. Understanding oral stories with the aid of pictures</li> </ol>	<p><b>Listening</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Responding to very simple instructions about the activities inside and outside the classroom through actions</li> <li>2. Responding very simple instructions and information in games through actions</li> <li>3. Understanding very simple oral stories with the aid of pictures</li> </ol>
<p><b>Speaking</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Performing the speech acts of giving directions and giving instructions</li> <li>2. Performing the speech acts of asking for help, offering help, asking for something, and giving something</li> <li>3. Performing the speech acts of asking/giving information, such as reminding someone of something, asking about a quantity of things, giving comments, arguing, and expressing opinions</li> <li>4. Expressing politeness through the use of "Would you please...?" and "May I...?"</li> </ol>	<p><b>. Speaking</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Performing the speech acts of giving instructions and directions</li> <li>2. Performing the speech acts of asking for/offering help, and asking/giving something</li> <li>3. Performing the speech acts of asking/giving information, such as expressing feelings and doubts, and asking for clarification</li> <li>4. Expressing politeness through the use of "Would you please...?" and "May I...?"</li> </ol>
<p><b>Reading</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Reading aloud very simple short functional texts</li> <li>2. Understanding very simple descriptive texts with pictorial illustrations about the students' surroundings</li> </ol>	<p><b>Reading</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Reading aloud very simple functional texts</li> <li>2. Understanding very simple descriptive texts about the students' surroundings</li> <li>3. Understanding very simple narrative texts with pictorial illustrations</li> </ol>
<p><b>Writing</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Writing very simple short functional texts</li> <li>2. Writing congratulation notes</li> </ol>	<p><b>Writing</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Writing very simple functional texts about the students' own surroundings</li> <li>2. Writing simple congratulation notes</li> </ol>

**Appendix 2a: The Indonesian Children's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning  
(English version)**

Instruction: Please read the statements carefully and select by circling the smiley-face which best describes the way you learn English. **There are no correct or incorrect answers for your responses.**



**Example:**


































































































*If you circle the picture in the middle as in the example above, it means that you sometimes repeat new expressions that you have learned.*

No	Statements	never	seldom	some times	often	always
1	I associate new English words with what I already know.					
2	I make a drawing in my head to help me remember a new word.					
3	I associate the sound of a new English word with a sound of a word that I already know.					
4	I mime words to remember them.					
5	I review my English lesson.					
6	I repeat new expressions that I have learned.					
7	When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people, in order to pronounce the words correctly.					
8	I practise English alphabet sounds.					
9	I watch TV in English or I listen to English radio.					
10	I read books or I play computer games in English.					
11	I try to find opportunities outside of school (sports, extracurricular activities, etc.) to practise my English.					



---

12	I practise what I learn with my parents or siblings.					
13	I find similarities between Indonesian and English (e.g. <i>buku</i> and book)					
14	I try to understand what I read or what I hear without translating word for word.					
15	I try to discover grammar rules of the English language					
16	I guess the meaning of unfamiliar words which I hear or read from the context.					
17	When I have trouble making myself understood in English, I use gestures to express what I want to say.					
18	When I don't know a word in English, I ask for help.					
19	When I can't find an expression in English, I use its synonym.					
20	I organize my time to study English (not just when there is a test).					
21	I look for occasions to speak English.					
22	When someone speaks to me in English, I listen attentively.					
23	I evaluate my progress in learning English.					
24	I analyze the errors I have made and try not to repeat them.					
25	I try to relax when I am tense during learning English.					
26	I motivate myself to speak English even if I might make mistakes.					
27	When I succeed, I congratulate myself.					
28	I ask others to speak slowly or to repeat what they say if I do not understand.					
29	I practise English with my classmates.					
30	I try to find out about English culture					

---

## Appendix 2b: The Indonesian Children's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

### (Indonesian version)

Bacalah pernyataan di bawah ini dengan seksama dan pilihlah gambar yang paling sesuai dalam menggambarkan cara kamu belajar bahasa Inggris. **Tidak ada jawaban benar atau salah.**



#### Contoh:






















































































Saya mengulangi ungkapan baru yang telah saya pelajari



*Jika kamu melingkari gambar di tengah seperti contoh di atas, berarti kamu kadang-kadang mengulangi ungkapan baru yang telah kamu pelajari.*

No	Pernyataan	tidak pernah	jarang	kadang kadang	sering	selalu
1	Saya mengkaitkan kata baru bahasa Inggris dengan kata yang telah saya ketahui					
2	Saya membayangkan atau membuat gambar di kertas untuk mengingat kata baru					
3	Saya mengkaitkan pengucapan kata baru bahasa Inggris dengan pengucapan kata lain yang telah saya ketahui					
4	Saya memperagakan kata untuk mengingatnya					
5	Saya meninjau ulang materi pelajaran bahasa Inggris					
6	Saya mengulangi ungkapan baru yang telah saya pelajari					
7	Ketika berbicara dalam bahasa Inggris, saya berusaha menirukan petutur asli agar dapat mengucapkan kata-kata dengan benar					
8	Saya mempraktikkan pengucapan huruf dalam bahasa Inggris					
9	Saya menonton TV atau mendengarkan radio berbahasa Inggris					
10	Saya membaca buku berbahasa Inggris atau belajar dengan program komputer berbahasa Inggris					
11	Saya berusaha mencari kesempatan di luar sekolah (olah raga, ekstrakurikuler, dll) untuk mempraktikkan bahasa Inggris saya					
12	Saya mempraktikkan apa yang saya pelajari dengan orang tua dan saudara					
13	Saya mencari persamaan antara bahasa					

---

	Inggris dengan bahasa Indonesia (seperti <i>book</i> dengan <i>buku</i> )					
14	Saya berusaha memahami makna apa yang saya baca atau dengar tanpa harus mengartikan tiap kata					
15	Saya berusaha menemukan pola tata bahasa Inggris					
16	Saya menebak kata baru yang saya dengar atau baca berdasarkan konteksnya					
17	Saya menggunakan bahasa tubuh ketika mengalami kesulitan menyampaikan pesan agar orang lain paham					
18	Saya meminta bantuan ketika saya tidak tahu kata/ungkapan dalam bahasa Inggris					
19	Ketika saya tidak mengetahui kata/ungkapan dalam bahasa Inggris, saya menggunakan sinonim					
20	Saya mengatur waktu untuk belajar bahasa Inggris (tidak hanya pada saat ujian).					
21	Saya mencari kesempatan berbicara bahasa Inggris					
22	Saat orang lain berbicara dengan saya dalam bahasa Inggris, saya menyimak dengan seksama					
23	Saya mengevaluasi kemajuan saya dalam belajar bahasa Inggris					
24	Saya memperhatikan kesalahan yang saya buat dan berusaha untuk tidak mengulangnya lagi					
25	Saya berusaha santai ketika saya tegang selama belajar bahasa Inggris					
26	Saya memotivasi diri sendiri untuk bicara bahasa Inggris meskipun mungkin saya membuat kesalahan					
27	Ketika berhasil, saya memberi ucapan selamat pada diri sendiri					
28	Saya meminta orang lain berbicara pelan atau mengulangi apa yang disampaikan jika saya tidak paham					
29	Saya praktik bahasa Inggris dengan teman sekelas					
30	Saya berusaha mempelajari budaya petutur asli bahasa Inggris					

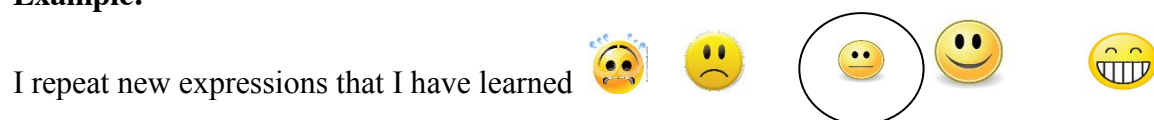
---

**Appendix 2c: The Indonesian Children's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning**  
**(Original and revised versions following pilot-testing)**

Instruction: Please read the statements carefully and select by circling the smiley-face which best describes the way you learn English. **There are no correct or incorrect answers for your responses.**



**Example:**



If you circle the picture in the middle as in the example above, it means that you sometimes repeat new expressions that you have learned.

No	Statements	never	seldom	some times	often	always
1	I associate new English words with what I already know.					
2	I make a drawing in my head to help me remember a new word. <i>(original: I make a drawing, either in my head or on paper, to help me remember a new word)</i>					
3	I associate the sound of a new English word with a sound of a word that I already know.					
4	I mime words to remember them.					
5	I review my English lesson.					
6	I repeat new expressions that I have learned.					
7	When I speak in English, I try to imitate English-speaking people, in order to pronounce the words correctly.					
8	I practise English alphabet sounds.					
9	I watch TV in English or I listen to English radio.					
10	I read books or I play computer games in English. <i>(original: I read books in English or I work with English computer programs)</i>					
11	I try to find opportunities outside of school (sports, extracurricular activities, etc.) to practise my English.					
12	I practise what I learn with my parents or siblings. <i>(original: I practise what I learn with my parents)</i>					

13	I find similarities between Indonesian and English (e.g. <i>buku</i> and book)					
14	I try to understand what I read or what I hear without translating word for word ( <i>original: I make an effort to understand the sense of what I read or what I hear without translating word for word</i> ).					
15	I try to discover grammar rules of the English language					
16	I guess the meaning of unfamiliar words which I hear or read from the context ( <i>original: When I hear a new word in English, I try to guess the meaning by looking at the rest of the sentence</i> ).					
17	When I have trouble making myself understood in English, I use gestures to express what I want to say.					
18	When I don't know a word in English, I ask for help.					
19	When I can't find an expression in English, I use its synonym ( <i>original: When I can't find an expression in English, I try to find another way to say what I mean (synonym, description, etc.)</i> ).					
20	I organize my time to study English (not just when there is a test).					
21	I look for occasions to speak English.					
22	When someone speaks to me in English, I listen attentively.					
23	I evaluate my progress in learning English.					
24	I analyze the errors I have made and try not to repeat them.					
25	I try to relax when I am tense during learning English ( <i>original: Whenever I am stressed by the idea of speaking English, I try to relax</i> ).					
26	I motivate myself to speak English even if I might make mistakes ( <i>original: I am ready to take risks: guess the meaning of a word or sentence, try to speak English even if I make mistakes</i> ).					
27	When I succeed, I congratulate myself.					
28	I ask others to speak slowly or to repeat what they say if I do not understand ( <i>original: If I don't understand what is said to me in English, I ask the person to speak slowly, to repeat, or to clarify what has been said</i> ).					
29	I practise English with my classmates ( <i>original: I work with my classmates to practise my English</i> ).					
30	I try to find out about English culture					





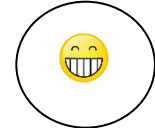
## Appendix 3a: Children’s Self-Efficacy for Learning English Questionnaire

(English version)

Please read the statements carefully and select by circling the face icon which best describes your degree of confidence in learning English. **There are no correct or incorrect answers for your responses.**
























































































**Example:**

I am sure that I can finish my English homework on time.     

**Explanation:**

*If you circle the picture on the right as in the example above, it means that you are very sure that you can finish your English homework on time.*

No	Statements	strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
1	I am sure that I can introduce myself in English in class.					
2	I am sure that I can write sentences used to introduce myself in English.					
3	I am sure that I can act out a dialogue about my favorite sports in English in class.					
4	I am sure that I match pictures about sports with sentences describing them.					
5	I am sure that I can comprehend a short English text with pictures about sports.					
6	I am sure that I can understand English words about vegetables and fruits that my teacher reads aloud.					
7	I am sure that I can complete an English dialogue with expressions of likes and dislikes.					
8	I am sure that I can make English sentences in simple past form.					

9	I am sure that I can ask for permission in English.					
10	I am sure that I can pronounce English words about animals.					
11	I am sure that I can finish my English homework on time.					
12	I am sure that I can study English when there are other interesting things to do.					
13	I am sure that I can concentrate on my learning English.					
14	I am sure that I can remember information about my English lesson.					
15	I am sure that I can arrange a place to study at home where I won't get distracted.					
16	I am sure that I can motivate myself to learn English.					
17	I am sure that I can participate in my English class.					

## Appendix 3b: Children's Self-Efficacy for Learning English Questionnaire

(Indonesian version)

Bacalah pernyataan di bawah ini dengan seksama dan lingkari gambar wajah yang paling sesuai menggambarkan kepercayaan dirimu dalam belajar bahasa Inggris. **Tidak ada jawaban benar atau salah untuk setiap respon yang Anda berikan.**



### Contoh:

Saya yakin bahwa saya mampu menyelesaikan pekerjaan rumah bahasa Inggris tepat waktu.
















































Penjelasan:

*Jika kamu memilih gambar paling kanan seperti contoh di atas, berarti kamu sangat yakin dapat menyelesaikan pekerjaan rumah bahasa Inggris tepat waktu.*

No	Pernyataan	sangat tidak setuju	tidak setuju	netral	setuju	sangat setuju
1	Saya yakin saya dapat memperkenalkan diri sendiri dalam bahasa Inggris di kelas.					
2	Saya yakin saya dapat menulis ungkapan perkenalan diri dalam bahasa Inggris.					
3	Saya yakin saya dapat memperagakan dialog tentang olah raga favorit saya dalam bahasa Inggris di kelas.					
4	Saya yakin saya dapat mencocokkan gambar tentang olah raga dengan kalimat berbahasa Inggris yang menjelaskannya.					
5	Saya yakin saya dapat memahami bacaan pendek bahasa Inggris bergambar tentang makanan.					
6	Saya yakin saya dapat memahami kosa kata bahasa Inggris tentang buah dan sayuran yang dilafalkan oleh guru saya.					
7	Saya yakin saya dapat melengkapi dialog berbahasa Inggris dengan ungkapan suka dan tidak suka.					
8	Saya yakin saya dapat menyusun kalimat bahasa Inggris dalam bentuk lampau ( <i>simple past</i> ).					



---

9	Saya yakin saya dapat mengungkapkan ekspresi meminta izin dalam bahasa Inggris.					
10	Saya yakin saya dapat mengucapkan kosa kata bahasa Inggris tentang binatang.					
11	Saya yakin saya dapat menyelesaikan pekerjaan rumah bahasa Inggris tepat waktu.					
12	Saya yakin saya tetap mampu belajar bahasa Inggris meski ada hal-hal lain yang menarik untuk dilakukan.					
13	Saya yakin saya dapat berkonsentrasi saat belajar bahasa Inggris.					
14	Saya yakin saya dapat mengingat informasi tentang pelajaran bahasa Inggris saya.					
15	Saya yakin saya dapat mengatur tempat belajar di rumah sehingga tidak terganggu.					
16	Saya yakin saya dapat memotivasi diri sendiri untuk belajar bahasa Inggris.					
17	Saya yakin saya dapat berpartisipasi aktif saat pelajaran bahasa Inggris.					

---

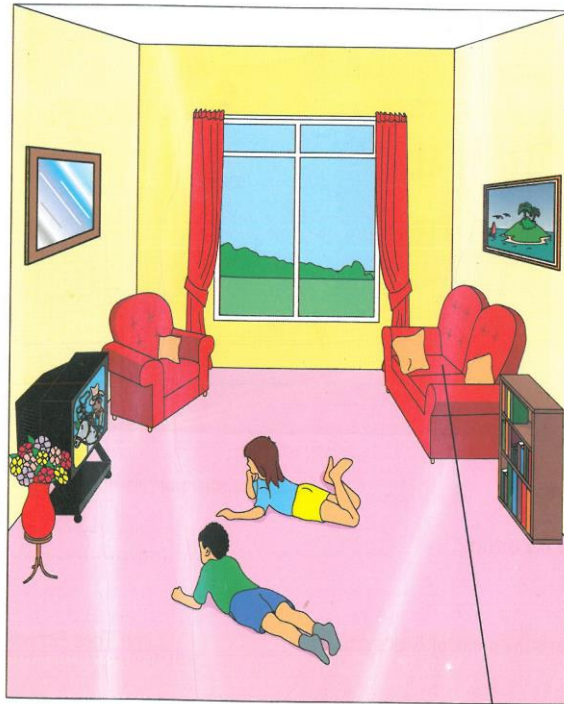
Appendix 4: Sample practice test of the YLE Starters

**Test 1**  
Listening

**Part 1**

- 5 questions -

Listen and draw lines. There is one example.



# Test 1

## Reading and Writing

### Part 1

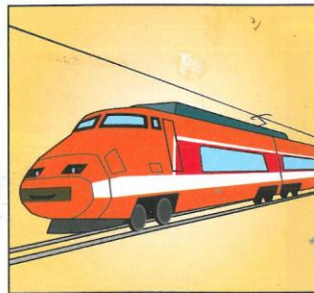
- 5 questions -

Look and read. Put a tick (✓) or a cross (X) in the box.  
There are two examples.

#### Examples



This is a desk.

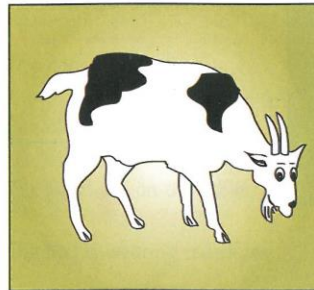


This is a plane.



#### Questions

1.



This is a goat.



## Part 2

- 5 questions -

Look and read. Write **yes** or **no**.



### Examples

- There are tomatoes on the chair. .... yes
- The bananas are between the two windows. .... no

### Questions

- 1 There are six oranges. ....
- 2 The floor is very dirty. ....
- 3 The old man is sad. ....
- 4 The pears are on the table. ....
- 5 The boy is wearing red shoes. ....

### Appendix 5: Speaking scoring scheme

Part	Examiner does this	Examiner says this	Expected response	Scores
	Greeting	Hi, how are you? How are you doing?	Response to greeting	0-1
1	Points to <b>Scene</b> picture  Points to the birds in <b>Scene</b> picture	Look at this. This is a garden. The children are in the garden with their dad.  Here are the birds. 1. Where is the cat? 2. Where are the books? 3. Where is the kite?	Point to correct part of the picture	0-3
2	Points to <b>Object</b> cards	Now look at these. 1. Which is the skirt/onion? 2. I am putting the skirt/onion in front of the door. Now you can put the skirt/onion on the truck. 3. Which is the lamp? 4. Put the lamp next to the flowers. 5. Put the chair between the trees.	Place object cards on the scene picture as directed	0-3
3	Removes <b>Object</b> cards and points to a frog in <b>Scene</b> picture.  Points to the man.	1. Now, what is this? 2. What colour is this? 3. How many frogs are there?  4. What is the man doing? 5. What is the colour of his T-shirt	Answer questions with short answers	0-6
4	Puts <b>Scene</b> picture away and picks out three <b>Object</b> cards.		Answer questions with short answers	0-8
4.1.	Shows <b>ruler</b> card.	1. What is this? 2. What colour is your/this ruler?		
4.2	Shows <b>grapes</b> card.	3. What are these? 4. What is your favourite fruit?		
4.3	Shows <b>baseball</b> card.	What is this? What sport do you play?		

5	Puts away all cards.	1. Now, where do you live? 2. How many rooms are there in your house? 3. What part of your house do you like most?	Answer questions with short answers	0-4
		OK. Thank you. Goodbye.		

This markscheme is developed mainly based on the speaking script of the YLE test practice version used in this study and Examination Report 2011 of Cambridge Young Learners English Tests

Note:

1. Participants are marked on the basis of their understanding by giving response to given instructions, on the language they produce, and on their pronunciation and intelligibility.
2. In parts 1, 2, and 3, each participant was given three questions, in part 4 four questions, and in part 5 two questions.
3. In part 1 and 2, each correct response equals one point, while in part 3, 4, and 5 each correct response equals 2 points.
4. The participants are not required to say more than a few words, nor for them to be totally accurate to gain the maximal score (2 points) in parts 3, 4, and 5.

**Appendix 6: Answer sheet of English test**

**Name :** \_\_\_\_\_ **Length of studying English :.....years**

**School:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Gender** \_\_\_\_\_ **:**

**Listening Section**

**Reading and Writing Section**

**Part 1 (See the picture on the next page)**

**Part I**

**Part 2**

1.

1.

2.

2.

3.

3.

4.

4.

5.

5.

**Part 2**

**Part 3**

1.

1.

2.

2.

3.

3.

4.

4.

5.

5.

**Part 3**

**Part 4**

1.

1.

2.

2.

3.

3.

4.

4.

5.

5.

**Part 4**

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

**Part 5**

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

## Appendix 7: Informed consent form – Students

Dear student,

My name is Syafi'ul Anam, and I am a research student at the University of Canberra, Australia.

I would like your help to participate in this study.

If you agree to help,

- a. I will ask you questions about how you learn English.
- b. I will ask you questions about how sure you feel when you do English tasks.
- c. I will ask you to do an English test.

I may contact you later to ask you to be interviewed. If I do, you have the right to decide whether or not you want to be questioned again.

I am sure that if you participate in this study, you will not be hurt. What you might feel is being tired, bored, and losing time. But, I will try to make you comfortable by giving you tasks with pictures in the English test. I will also use smiley faces in the questionnaires. I will not tell your answers to anyone else, including your teachers. The result of the English test will not affect your grades.

Your participation will help me understand how primary school students, like you, learn English, so that my study can help other students learn English better in the future.

Please discuss with your parents before you decide whether or not to participate.

Remember that you are free to choose if you want to take part or not or and that you can stop participating any time.

If you have any questions about this study, please feel free to ask me any time.

Please give a tick (✓) in the box to show in what activities you want to participate.

<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>

Filling out questionnaires and sitting for English test.

Interview

If you agree to participate in this study, please write your name and put your signature next to your name. You will be given a copy of the form which you have signed.

Name.....

Signature.....

Date .....





## Appendix 8: Consent form and information sheet – Parents

### Project Title

Language learning strategies of Indonesian EFL elementary school students and their relationship with self efficacy beliefs and proficiency

### Consent Statement

I have read and understood the information about the study. I understand that my child's participation is voluntary, and that I may withdraw my child from this research any time without penalty.

If, during the course of the research, I have any questions about the study, especially my child's right as the participant, I may contact Syafi'ul Anam (the researcher) or Elke Stracke (primary supervisor), whose contact details are in the information sheet attached.

I agree to allow my child ..... (Please indicate whether you agree to the first part or both parts by putting a cross in the relevant box):

to fill out questionnaires and an English test (first part).

to be interviewed (second part).

Name.....

Signature.....

Date .....

Note: The school of your child will be given my research report after the completion of the research in case you wish to read about the results of my study.

**Information sheet** (This form was translated into Indonesian)

**Project title**

L2 learning strategies of Indonesian EFL elementary school students and their relationship with self efficacy beliefs and proficiency

**Researcher**

Syafi'ul Anam (u3038357)

TESOL, Faculty of Arts and Design, University of Canberra ACT 2601

Email: syafi.anam@canberra.edu.au

**Supervisor**

Associate Prof Elke Stracke

TESOL, Faculty of Arts and Design, University of Canberra ACT 2601

Ph: 6201 2492

Email: Elke.Stracke@canberra.edu.au

**Project aim**

This study investigates the way Indonesian primary school students learn English as a foreign language, and examines how their strategy use relates to their proficiency and self-efficacy beliefs.

**Benefits of the project**

The study seeks to better understand young learners' strategies in learning English, thereby enhancing teachers' and students' awareness of the significance of strategy use in effective language learning.

**General outline of the project**

I will first describe the strategies primary school students use in learning English, and how their proficiency and self-efficacy (i.e. beliefs in their ability to regulate their learning and do language tasks) affect their learning strategies. I will then explore further the way the students of varying proficiency and self-efficacy beliefs learn English.

**Participant involvement**

If you allow your child to participate, your child will be asked to fill out a questionnaire about how students learn English and a questionnaire about students' beliefs in their capability to regulate their own learning and doing language tasks. The completion of the two

questionnaires takes approximately 40 minutes. Subsequently, your child will be asked to sit for a proficiency test for about 45 minutes, with 40 minutes for listening, reading, and writing sections, and 3-5 minutes for a speaking section. All test items are picture-based tasks and appropriate for children participants.

I may also contact your child later to be interviewed at a time convenient for your child. The interview will take about thirty minutes and will be audio-taped. In the interview, the students will be asked to describe further the way they learn English.

Participation in the research is voluntary. You have the right to decide whether or not you allow your child to participate, and/or withdraw him/her at any time without giving any reasons. Your decision will not entail any penalty for your child or yourself.

There is no foreseeable risk of harm associated with your child's participation. Great care will be taken to reduce your child's discomfort, such as boredom and fatigue.

### **Confidentiality**

Confidentiality and privacy of your child will be protected. My supervisors and I are the only persons who have full access to the information provided by your child and I will not disclose it to anyone else. Only summarized information of this research will be reported in publication and/or conference presentation, so your child's name and school will never be identified.

Your child's school will be given a copy of my PhD thesis after the completion of my project, and you are free to request access to the thesis.

### **Anonymity**

The research data will be presented anonymously, so that no information in the research report will refer to individual students. Your child's name and school of origin will be replaced by codes, and I am the only one who can track and identify your child's personal information.

### **Data Storage**

All information gathered will be securely stored in a password-locked computer during the undertaking of the project, and then retained at the University of Canberra for a five-year

period after the completion of the research. The information will then be destroyed to ensure that the information is no longer usable.

### **Ethics Committee Clearance**

The project has been approved by the University of Canberra's Human Research Ethics Committee.

### **Queries and Concerns**

If you would like additional information or concern about the research, please feel free to contact me as the researcher or my primary supervisor. Our contact details are mentioned at the top of this form.

## **Appendix 9: Interview Protocol**

### **Part A: Questions on how students approach specific learning tasks**

In the first section, the participants will only be asked to think about what they would do when coping with the following language tasks, but they will not be required to do the tasks during the interview.

#### **1. Reading task**

Your teacher asks you to read a short descriptive text about your holiday and to answer some questions based on it. The text is accompanied with pictures. You are allowed to ask for help from your friends or your teacher, and open a dictionary.

Possible questions:

- a. What will you do first when you do this reading task?
- b. What will you do if you don't understand words in the reading passage?

#### **2. Writing task**

Your teacher gives you a short paragraph about an animal with some missing words. You have to complete the paragraph by writing words based on the pictures available. Each picture represents a word.

Possible questions:

- a. What steps will you take to cope with this task?
- b. When you are done with your work, what will you do before you submit it?

#### **3. Speaking task**

Your teacher asks you to act out a dialogue in pair work about vegetables and fruit without a script. You are given a week to prepare your performance. Your teacher has taught you and your friends some typical utterances and words which can be used in your dialogue.

Possible questions:

- a. What will you do to prepare your performance?
- b. How will you make sure that your performance will be good?

#### **4. Listening task**

Your teacher will read aloud a text or he will play a cassette about a family and you have to listen and answer the questions by writing the names and the number of family members mentioned in the text.

Possible questions:

- a. What will you do to make sure that you understand the text read by your teacher and that you are able to answer correctly?
- b. What will you do when you encounter unfamiliar words in the text read by your teacher or in the cassette?

#### 5. Grammar task

Today your English class discusses the auxiliary verb “be” in present forms and your teacher tells you that she/he will give a quiz about it in the next class.

Possible questions:

- a. Do you have specific ways which help you understand the grammatical pattern?
- b. How do you remember the grammatical pattern?

#### 6. Vocabulary task

Your teacher asks you to learn and memorize the meaning of ten new English words related to objects in the classroom. He also teaches you how to pronounce the words. You have to memorize the words because your teacher will give you an oral quiz about the vocabulary in the next class.

Possible questions:

- a. Do you have specific ways which help you learn and remember the new vocabulary words?
- b. What specific ways do you take to ensure that you pronounce the words correctly?

### **Part B: Questions on how students approach their language learning in general**

In the second section, the participants are required to elaborate their approach to English language learning within general contexts.

1. What do you think of learning English? Do you like it?
2. What do you think of your English ability? Why do you say so? What have you done then to improve your English?
3. What English lessons or skills do you think is most difficult for you? How do you cope with them?
4. What do you usually do to help you concentrate learning English at home?
5. Have you ever got a bad score or been unable to answer your teacher’s questions? If

yes, what did you feel then? What did you do to overcome such feeling?

6. Do you prefer easy or hard questions? Why?
7. What do you usually do when your teacher ask a question to your classroom?

## Appendix 10: Transcription conventions

1. The heading of the transcript is indicated with pseudonym, codes of the participants group, date of interview.
2. Initial **I** is used for interviewer and **P** for participants
3. Page numbers are inserted, Times New Roman 12 and single spacing are used.
4. Turns are numbered.
5. Tab is inserted after each speaker initial.  
e.g. 3 I saya praktik bahasa Inggris dengan kakak di rumah.
6. Transcripts are labelled with an indication of total length in minute and seconds (e.g. 12:03 min).
7. Transcribing literally what is said.
8. Longer hesitation morphemes (like ehm, uh) and monosyllabic answers (positive: 'mh' = 'hm' or negative: 'eh = eh') are transcribed.
9. Usual orthography (capital letters for proper names).
10. Punctuation: only question mark, quotation mark, and exclamation mark are used (see below for pauses for which we usually indicate with a full stop or comma).
11. Emphasized words and utterances are underlined.
12. English words are italicized
13. Emotional, non-verbal utterances that support or elucidate a statement (laughter, sighs, giggling) are transcribed in brackets.
14. Any relevant observable behaviors are indicated in square brackets.  
e.g. [pointing to a reading passage]
15. Overlapping speech are transcribed and indicated by double slashes at the beginning and end of the overlap:  
e.g. I //Oh, then you//  
P //exactly, then we// finally arrived.
16. Incomprehensible words are indicated by '(inc.)' with the respective reasons.  
e.g. (inc. cellphone ringing)
17. Guessed or unclear words or utterances are put in brackets and a question mark in the brackets.
18. Numbers: zero to twelve and round numbers (e.g. twenty, hundred) are spelled out, larger numbers are transcribed as numerals.



19. Short pauses (maybe up to a second) are indicated by **space + full stop + space**, whereas longer pauses are indicated by **a space and approximate length of pause in brackets**.
20. Gaps are indicated in transcripts if conversation is not relevant.  
e.g. (10:08-13:09 not transcribed; interview deals with weather issues)
21. Direct speech is enclosed with quotation mark.  
e.g. He said “let’s see about this”.
21. Names of participants or interviewers mentioned in conversations are replaced with pseudonyms.

## Appendix 11a: A sample transcript (English version)

Edi/D-42/ high proficiency

Total length of interview: 51.47 minutes

Interviewer: Syafi'

- 
- 1 I how are you Edi Bagus Kusuma?  
2 P very good  
3 I is it ok if I call you Edi?  
4 P sure, that is how my family call me  
5 I ok . I will interview you about the way you learn English . you already completed questionnaires I administered . Unlike questionnaires given to all other students who wished to participate . now I will interview only several students . ok . suppose you are given a reading task . the task has a title . pictures . a list of questions . what will you do to deal with the task . tell me the stages in sequence  
6 P to do it?  
7 I yes  
8 P I usually read first  
9 I which part of the text do you read first?  
10 P from this part "Sally" and so on [pointing to the title]  
11 I what is this?  
12 P title  
13 I title . what is next?  
14 P the main body of the text  
15 I what is next?  
16 P the questions . then I answer them  
17 I what is this for? [pointing to the picture] there is a picture . isn't it?  
18 P as a background . (3) I have no idea about other functions of the picture  
19 I ok . do you find this task interesting?  
20 P yes I do . all task are interesting  
21 I ok . how sure are you that you can do the task?  
22 P around ninety percent  
23 I ninety percent . you are highly confident . ok . what will you do to understand the text?  
24 P I will look at the picture . then I will look at the situation around the picture  
25 I and then?  
26 P I look at the pictures if they match with the text . this is about shopping . the title is shopping . clothes rack . fitness center  
27 I who goes shopping?  
28 P the woman is carrying a plastic bag  
29 I ok . what do you think is important in comprehending the text?  
30 P I read the passage carefully  
31 I which part of the text will you read carefully?  
32 P most important sentences. eemm (3)  
33 I where can you usually find the most important parts?  
34 P main ideas . but I forget where  
35 I ok . that's alright . what will you do if you find unfamiliar words?  
36 P I will ask the test invigilator for help

- 37 I suppose you are given choices . consulting a dictionary . asking your teacher or friend for help . which one do you prefer?
- 38 P I kind of prefer asking my teacher for help
- 39 I why do you prefer asking your teacher?
- 40 P because the teacher has quite broad knowledge . if I ask the teacher I need not look up the words in my dictionary . if I ask her a question . she can immediately answer it.
- 41 I more efficient?
- 42 P yes it is
- 43 I ok . suppose you sit a test . you have limited time to do the task . what will you do to deal with the task in such limited time? tell me the stages
- 44 P I will do easy questions first . after that I will proceed to do the hard ones in the remaining time
- 45 I can you tell me the stages? what will you do in sequence?
- 46 P the title . picture . passage . and then questions
- 47 I what will you do before you submit your work to the teacher when you are finished?
- 48 P I will check the answers if they are correct in order to obtain a perfect score
- 49 I how do you ensure your answers are correct?
- 50 P I recheck them
- 51 I you recheck them . ok . excellent . suppose you have a writing task . you are asked to complete a paragraph with some words deleted .the topic is about animal . the words deleted are moved to the box here .
- 52 P what is it called then?
- 53 I cloze procedure
- 54 P so for question no 1 . the answer is this word [pointing to a word in a box]
- 55 I all the answer are here in the box
- 56 P ooh I simply pick the words here
- 57 I yes you do . but remember that you are not required to do the task . I just ask you as if you did the task
- 58 P ok . so I answer the questions orally?
- 59 I yes . as if you did the task . have you ever had such a task?
- 60 P yes I had one in Indonesian language class
- 61 I what will you do to cope with the task?
- 62 P I understand (3) understand the passage first
- 63 I how do you understand it?
- 64 P “let’s say this blank . the word before it is ‘meat’ . it is food . so it must have something to do with eating”
- 65 I ok . so meat is a noun
- 66 P yes it is
- 67 I because there is a word “meat” . it must be related to food
- 68 P it does
- 69 I very good . then do you have any other way to cope with the task?
- 70 P eem (3) no . that is all I think
- 71 I so the way you did it is by looking at the words around the blank . then you guess?
- 72 P eemm (3) right
- 73 I you observed the word meat . ok . suppose you find unfamiliar words here . you do the task in an exam . you are not permitted to ask for help or consult a dictionary . how will you cope with the problem?

- 74 P I will answer easy questions . then I will make use of the remaining time to answer difficult questions
- 75 I I mean what will you do to make sense of unfamiliar words you find in the passage?
- 76 P I will have a look at this “In the the sun because lion flagged sitting on the rock blah blah blah” . I will also look at the picture
- 77 I you will look at the picture as well . then?
- 78 P I will guess
- 79 I so you look at the words around the unfamiliar words then you also look at the picture and you try to find the answer . awesome . now we go to a speaking task . suppose your teacher asks you to perform a dialogue with a friend about fruit and vegetables . you are not allowed to have your script with you while performing . you are given a week to get prepared . your teacher also teaches you some typical utterances and words which are usually used in your dialogue . but you have to compose your own script . have you ever done such a task?
- 80 P no I have not
- 81 I but suppose you were given such a task . what would you do to prepare your performance?
- 82 P I will start preparing soon after I get the script
- 83 I you are the one who make the script?
- 84 P ooh (3) I see . I write the script . after that I memorize it at home . I make use of my time to prepare it
- 85 I ok
- 86 P I will not feel nervous on the day I have to perform
- 87 I will you make the script with your partner in the class?
- 88 P yes I will
- 89 I what will you do at home then?
- 90 P I practise in front of a mirror
- 91 I in front of a mirror?
- 92 P reading the script . afterward I put the script down . I will close the script . after that I can read by heart
- 93 I why in front of a mirror?
- 94 P in order not to get nervous in the class
- 95 I ooh I see . how can you make sure that your script is correct?
- 96 P from the script . like . *we have to much eat eh we have to eat much vegetables* . if there is an utterance like *we have to eat much vegetables* . as the words are jumbled . so it means . we have . I think it will be *we have to eat so much vegetables* . that is the way I write it . if it is correct
- 97 I ok . in addition to checking the script by yourself . do you also consult other people about it?
- 98 P yes I do . I ask my partner
- 99 I anyone else besides your partner?
- 100 P no
- 101 I you practise at home . at school with your partner . have you ever felt nervous while performing in front of the class?
- 102 P yes I have . but not in the English class . when I was in grade five . I took part in a competition called Drum in Action in PPS . I felt nervous at that time . so I tried to keep calm
- 103 I what did you do then to overcome your nervousness?

- 104 P       took a deep breath . I also looked at the food in the café . so I was playing the drum while looking at the food . as if I showed my performance to the food (laughing)
- 105 I       (laughing) incredible . now we go to a listening task . suppose your teacher plays a listening material CD about a family . you have to listen attentively and answer the questions with names and numbers . the numbers can be age and number of family members . what will you do to understand the listening text?
- 106 P       I will listen carefully and then bear what I listen in my mind . if I fail to understand it . I will ask my teacher to replay it again
- 107 I       ok . suppose you do the listening task in an exam . the CD is played once and you may not ask for help . what will you do if you cannot comprehend some part of the listening material?
- 108 P       I have to be well-prepared to understand it . I have to listen in a quiet place so that I can concentrate on the listening task . that way will work

## Appendix 11b: A sample transcript (Indonesian version)

**Edi/D-42/ high proficiency**

**Total length of interview: 51.47 minutes**

**Interviewer: Syafi'**

- 
- 1 I Bagaimana kabarmu, Edi Bagus Kusuma?
- 2 P Baik
- 3 I Bisa saya panggil kamu Edi?
- 4 P Tentu, keluarga saya biasanya panggil saya gitu.
- 5 I ok . sekarang saya akan mewawancarai kamu tentang bagaimana belajar bahasa Inggris . dulu kan kamu pernah mengisi angket . sekarang lewat wawancara . untuk wawancara hanya beberapa orang saja di sekolah ini tidak seperti angket untuk semua siswa yang ikut . ok . seumpama sekarang saya beri soal . di sini ada soal reading bahasa Inggris . dalam soal ini ada judul . ada gambar . ada pertanyaan . kira-kira apa yang kamu lakukan untuk bisa mengerjakan soal ini . jelaskan tahapan kamu mengerjakan soal tersebut?
- 6 P untuk ngerjainnya?
- 7 I ya
- 8 P biasanya kalau ada cerita begini dibaca dulu
- 9 I mana yang dibaca dulu
- 10 P dari sini Sally and seterusnya [menunjuk ke judul]
- 11 I apa ini namanya?
- 12 P judul
- 13 I judul . lalu?
- 14 P cerita
- 15 I setelah itu?
- 16 P pertanyaan . lalu dijawab
- 17 I kemudian fungsinya ini apa? [menunjuk gambar] ada gambar kan?
- 18 P sebagai latar tempat . (3) saya tidak tahu untuk apa lagi
- 19 I ok . kemudian kalau ketemu soal seperti ini . menarik atau tidak?
- 20 P ya menarik . semua soal menarik
- 21 I ok . seberapa yakin kamu dapat mengerjakan soal ini?
- 22 P ya yakin 90 %
- 23 I yakin 90 % . itu tinggi dong . ok . apa yang kamu lakukan agar kamu dapat mamahami bacaan ini?
- 24 P ya melihat gambarnya . habis itu melihat keadaan sekitar gambar
- 25 I lalu?
- 26 P liat gambar apa nyambung . kan ini shopping . judulnya shopping . ini ada tempat baju . tempat fitness
- 27 I yang shopping siapa?
- 28 P orangnya bawa kresek
- 29 I ok . kemudian . apa lagi yang penting untuk dilakukan untuk memahami bacaan?
- 30 P membaca cerita dengan seksama
- 31 I bagian apa yang dibaca seksama?
- 32 P kalimat yang paling penting . eemm (3)
- 33 I dimana biasanya kalimat itu berada?
- 34 P pokok pikiran . tapi lupa aku dimana

- 35 I ok . tidak apa apa . kalau seumpama kamu menemukan kata yang tidak diketahui artinya . apa yang biasa kamu lakukan?
- 36 P ya bertanya pada pengawas
- 37 I kalau seumpama ada pilihan . boleh buka kamus . bertanya pada guru . bertanya pada teman . lebih memilih mana?
- 38 P kayaknya lebih memilih bertanya pada guru
- 39 I kenapa lebih memilih bertanya pada guru?
- 40 P karena guru wawasannya cukup tinggi . jadi kalau bertanya pada guru . tidak perlu buka-buka halaman . langsung tanya gurunya langsung bisa jawab
- 41 I lebih efisien ya?
- 42 P ya
- 43 I ok . itu kalau diperbolehkan bertanya . kemudian kalau situasinya ujian . waktunya kan terbatas . apa yang kamu lakukan biar kau dapat mengerjakan soal dalam waktu yang terbatas? tahapannya apa
- 44 P mengerjakan soal-soal yang dianggap mudah dulu . kalau yang mudah sudah . waktu yang tersisa bisa untuk mengerjakan soal yang sulit
- 45 I kemudian tahapannya? Apa yang kamu lakukan secara beururtan?
- 46 P judul . gambar . bacaan . sama soal
- 47 I kemudian . seumpama sudah selesai mengerjakan . apa yang kamu lakukan sebelum mengumpulkan tugas ke guru?
- 48 P ya meneliti dulu supaya jawabannya betul semua supaya dapat nilai sempurna
- 49 I untuk memastikan jawabanmu benar, apa yang kamu lakukan?
- 50 P ya me-recheck
- 51 I mencek lagi . ok . luar biasa . sekarang seumpama ada tugas writing . kamu diminta melengkapi paragraph dengan beberapa kata dihilangkan . ini temanya tentang binatang . kemudian kata-kata yang dihilangkan di paragraph tersebut ditaruh di kotak di atas paragraph ini.
- 52 P jadi apa namanya
- 53 I paragraph rumpang
- 54 P jadi sebagai contoh soal nomer satu . maka jawabannya kata ini [menunjuk kata di kotak]
- 55 I ya jawabannya ada di kotak ini semua
- 56 P ooh anu ta . tinggal pilih saja
- 57 I ya . jadi ini tidak saya suruh mengerjakan . hanya seolah-olah saja mengerjakan
- 58 P ok . jadi mengerjakan dengan mulut?
- 59 I ya seolah olah mengerjakan . kira-kira apa kamu pernah menghadapi soal seperti ini?
- 60 P pernah di bahasa Indonesia
- 61 I apa yang akan kamu lakukan agar dapat mengerjakan soal ini?
- 62 P ya memahami anu (3) memahami bacaan yang ada dulu
- 63 I bagaimana memahaminya?
- 64 P ini misalnya titik titik dan sebelumnya ada kata *meat* . itu kan daging artinya . makanan . jadi pasti hubungannya dengan memakan
- 65 I ok . berarti ini kata benda
- 66 P ya
- 67 I sebelumnya ada meat . maka kaitannya dengan makan
- 68 P ya
- 69 I bagus . kemudian . ada lagi cara lain untuk mengerjakan soal ini?
- 70 P eem (3) kayaknya nggak ada deh

- 71 I ndak ada . jadi caranya seperti itu ya . melihat kata-kata di sekitar titik ini kemudian menebak kata?
- 72 P ya
- 73 I kan itu tadi mengamati meat . ok . kemudian kalau menemukan kata yang sulit di sini . suasananya ujian . tidak boleh tanya guru . tidak boleh tanya teman . dan buka kamus . bagaimana mengatasinya?
- 74 P mengerjakan soal yang gampang . kemudian sisa waktunya digunakan untuk mikir soal yang sulit
- 75 I maksud saya . tadi kan kalau ketemu kata-kata yang sulit . apa yang kamu lakukan agar dapat mengetahui arti kata tersebut?
- 76 P ya melihat yang ini “In the sun because lion flagged sitting on the rock blah blah” . lihat gambar juga
- 77 I lihat gambar juga, lalu?
- 78 P ya dikira kira
- 79 I jadi melihat kata-kata di sekitar kata yang sulit kemudian melihat gambar dan mencari jawabannya . luar biasa . sekarang tugas berbicara . seumpama gurumu memintamu untuk memperagakan dialog dengan teman . temanya tentang buah dan sayuran . dan ketika tampil tidak boleh membawa naskah . kamu diberi waktu seminggu untuk mempersiapkan tampilanmu . kemudian gurumu juga mengajarkan ungkapan dan kata yang bisa digunakan dalam dialog . tapi kamu sendiri yang menyusun dialognya . pernah tidak mendapat tugas seperti itu?
- 80 P belum
- 81 I tapi seumpama mendapat tugas seperti itu . apa yang pertama kali kamu lakukan untuk mempersiapkan tampilanmu?
- 82 P ya mulai hari itu pas mulai diberi naskah itu
- 83 I naskahnya kan membuat sendiri?
- 84 P ooh (3) ya . dibuat naskahnnya . habis itu di rumah dihafalkan . digunakan waktu sebaik mungkin
- 85 I ok
- 86 P habis itu pas minggu depan tidak perlu gelisah
- 87 I membuat naskahnya dengan pasangannya di kelas?
- 88 P ya
- 89 I kemudian apa yang dilakukan di rumah?
- 90 P latihan di depan cermin
- 91 I di depan cermin?
- 92 P sambil membaca naskah . tapi lama lama naskahnya di taruh . dibalik . habis itu itu sendiri
- 93 I kenapa harus di depan cermin?
- 94 P biar tidak grogi saat di kelas
- 95 I ooh begitu . bagaimana kamu memastikan naskahmu benar?
- 96 P ya anu dari (3) tulisannya seperti *we have to much eat eh we have to eat much vegetables* . ya itu pastinya itu kalau ada kata-kata *we have to eat much vegetables* . kan itu diacak . kan itu berarti *we have tak pikir gini we have to eat so much vegetables* . jadi tak tulis kayak gitu . kalau benar
- 97 I ok . selain kamu sendiri yang memastikan naskah benar, apakah harus konsultasi atau tanya pada orang lain?
- 98 P ya pada teman sendiri
- 99 I selain ke pasangan sendiri?
- 100 P ndak



- 101 I sudah praktik di rumah . praktik di sekolah dengan teman di sekolah . pernah tidak kamu merasa grogi saat tampil di depan kelas?
- 102 P ya pernah sih . tapi bukan karena bahasa Inggris . ya waktu kelas lima aku ikut lomba drum in action di PPS . waktu itu aku agak grogi . jadi aku berusaha nahan diri
- 103 I jadi apa yang kamu lakukan untuk mengurangi rasa grogi?
- 104 P tarik nafas dalam dalam . kan habis gitu di kedainya ada banyak makanan . ya tak lihatin makanannya sambil main drum seolah-olah menunjukkan kemampuan drumku pada makanan [tertawa]
- 105 I [tertawa] luar biasa . sekarang kita lanjutkan ke tugas menyimak . seumpama saya akan memutar CD listening temanya tentang keluarga . kamu harus menyimak dengan seksama dan menjawab pertanyaan dengan menulis nama dan angka . angka itu bisa berupa umur atau jumlah anggota keluarga . sekarang apa yang kamu lakukan agar kamu dapat memahami materi listening itu?
- 106 P ya mendengarkan dengan seksama habis itu cantolkan di pikiran . kalau masih belum paham . minta baik baik ke gurunya untuk mengulangi satu kali lagi
- 107 I ok . kalau seumpama konteksnya di ujian . diputarnya sekali saja . dan gak boleh tanya . lalu apa yang kamu lakukan ketika kamu tidak memahami sebagian yang ada di materi listening itu?
- 108 P kalau mau memahami dengan betul itu harus benar benar persiapan . habis itu listening-nya harus sunyi biar bisa konsentrasi ke listeningnya itu . baru bisa