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AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND STUDENTS' PERCEIVED SELF EFFICACY LEVELS THE EXAMPLE OF EDIRNE

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Başlık: Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri ve Öğrencilerin Öz yeterlik Algıları Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi

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ÖZET

Araştırma ile öğrencilerin yabancı dil öğrenme stratejileri ile İngilizce öz yeterlik algıları arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığının tespit edilmesi amaçlanmıştır.

Bu çalışma, Edirne şehir merkezinde bulunan Edirne İlhami Ertem Lisesi, Edirne Lisesi ve ilçelerinde bulunan Lalapaşa Lisesi ile Şahika Erkut Anadolu Liselerinin 9.sınıf öğrencileri olan 324 öğrencinin katılımı ile yapılmıştır.

Çalışma, birinci çalışma ve ikinci çalışma olmak üzere iki kez yapılmış olup betimsel ve ilişkisel araştırma modelleri uygulanmıştır. Araştırma verileri, demografik bilgiler anketi, Pintrinch ve De Grooth tarafından geliştirilen 'Öğrenmeye İlişkin Motivasyonel Stratejiler Ölçeği' nin motivasyonel inançlar boyutunda yer alan 'Öz-yeterlik Algı Ölçeği' ve 1990 yılında Rebecca Oxford tarafından hazırlanan Dil Öğrenme Stratejileri ölçeği ile toplanmıştır.

Çalışma sonuçları, öğrencilerin yabancı dil öğrenme yöntemleri kullanımı ile İngilizce öz yeterlik algıları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Ancak birinci ve ikinci aşama çalışma sonuçlarının kız ve erkek öğrenciler arasında yabancı dil öğrenme yöntemlerinin kullanımı açısından anlamlı bir farklılık olması konusunda aynı olmadığı görülmüştür. Birinci aşama araştırma sonuçları, kız ve erkek öğrenciler arasında yabancı dil öğrenme yöntemlerinin kullanımı açısından anlamlı bir farklılık olduğunu gösterirken ikinci aşama çalışma sonuçları aynı hususta anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Dil Öğrenme Yöntemleri, İngilizce Öz Yeterlik Algısı, İngilizce Yeterlilik, Yabancı Dil Öğrenme, Dil Öğrenme Yöntemleri ile Öz Yeterlik Algısı arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi

Title: An Investigation Into the Relationship Between Language Learning Strategies And Students' Perceived Self Efficacy Levels 'The Example of Edirne'

Author: Mehtap ARSLANBUĞA

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to identify whether there is a relationship between the students' use of Language Learning Strategies and students' sense of Self-Efficacy in English.

The participants are the 324 9th grade students at Edirne İlhami Ertem High School, Edirne High School, Lalapaşa High School, Havsa High School and Şahika Erkut Anatolian High School, which are located on urban and rural areas in Edirne.

The study is conducted twice. A descriptive and correlational survey model is used in the study. The Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale that is a part of 'Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire' developed by Pintrinch and De Grooth and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) scale designed by Rebecca Oxford, 1990 are used as the data collection instruments. Also demographic characteristics questionnaire is used.

The results of the study revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between use of language learning strategies and sense of self-efficacy. However the results of the two studies show difference in use of language learning strategies and sense of self efficacy. While the results showed statistically meaningful difference between female and male students' use of language learning strategies in the former study; it is found out that there is no statistically significant difference between female and male students' use of language learning strategies in later study.

Key Words: Language Learning Strategies, Sense of Self Efficacy in English, English Proficiency, Foreign Language Learning, the Relationship between Language Learning Strategies and Self Efficacy in English.

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LIST OF ABBREVATIONS

AS : Affective Strategies

CogS : Cognitive Strategies

ComS : Compensation Strategies

M : Mean

MCS : Meta-cognitive Strategies

MS : Memory Strategies

SD : Standard Deviation

SS : Social Strategies

LLS : Language Learning Strategies

MSLQ : Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins with the presentation of some information about second and foreign language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs. It continues with the presentation of the problem and research questions of the study and thirdly purpose and significance of the study. Finally, this chapter ends with assumptions, limitations and definitions of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

There has been a prominent shift within the field of language learning and teaching over the last twenty years with greater emphasis being put on learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching (Hismanoğlu, 2000). Since the 1970s, considerable research attention in second or foreign language (L2) learning has been devoted to studying individual differences in language learners (Oxford& Hsiao, 2002).

One of the individual differences among scholars is the use of language learning strategies. Language learning strategies (LLS) are those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language (Cohen, 1998).

There are many language learning strategies and various taxonomies for them in the literature. However all of these taxonomies, which are organized by different researchers, are not completely different from each other. They have common points. Mostly all LLS taxonomies are composed of two main parts: indirect and direct

strategies. Indirect strategies are the strategies that are used to manage the learning process while direct strategies are used to deal with the target language or working with the new language in specific tasks or situations.

It is also important to indicate that many researches have revealed that the use of second language learning strategies affects language proficiency positively. (Rubin 1981; Politzer and Mc Groarty 1985; Ramirez 1986; Chamot and Kupper 1989; O'Malley and Chamot 1990; Phillips 1991; Yang 1992; Green and Oxford 1995).

Another individual difference among language learners is the factor of sense of self-efficacy. The literature about the component of self-efficacy dates back to late 1970's when Bandura - who is a milestone at the studies regarding self-efficacy - declared his article 'Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change and his book 'Social Learning Theory'. To quote Bandura (1997) self- efficacy is as a specific type of expectancy concerned with a person's beliefs in his or her ability to perform a certain action or set of behaviors required to produce an outcome'.

Self-efficacy beliefs are considered to be one of the important factors that affect learners' success. To Bandura (1986) among the determining factors suggested by different theories, learners' self-efficacy has proved to be a much more consistent predictor of behavior than any of the other closely related variables. He also explains that many students have difficulty in school not because they are incapable of performing successfully, but because they are incapable of believing that they can perform successfully, that they have learned to see themselves as incapable of handling academic skills.

1.2. Problem of the Study

Beginning with the 21st century, in the field of foreign language instruction the pedagogic focus has shifted from teacher-centered approaches to the learner's active

role in language learning; the role of individual variables become more important. Regarding student-centered approach, use of language learning strategies and sense of self- efficacy beliefs are two important variables that affect learners' success and proficiency in acquiring a second/foreign language.

Thus the major problem of the study is ascertained as:

'Is there a significant correlation between the use of language learning strategies and sense of English Self-efficacy belief?'

The research questions of the study are also listed below.

RQ1: Is there a significant correlation between students' language learning strategies and their sense of English self-efficacy levels?

RQ2: Is there a significant difference between male and female students' language learning strategies?

RQ3: Is there a significant difference between male and female students' sense of English Self-efficacy levels?

RQ4: Is there a significant difference between language learning strategies of students who live in rural area and students who live in urban area?

RQ5: Is there a significant difference between English self-efficacy levels of students who live in the urban area and who live in the rural area?

1.3. Purpose of the Study

Language proficiency has been constantly linked with strategy use – the general pattern being that increased proficiency is linked to greater strategy use (Magogwe and Oliver, 2007). Chamot (1993) on the other hand, reports that one of the basic needs of a language learner is having a high level of confidence in successfully

completing a task asserting the significance of having high self- efficacy beliefs. It can be inferred that both variables have positive effects on second language proficiency. Thus it can be presumed that there might be a relationship between those two variables.

The literature on second and foreign language teaching is replete with the studies focusing on either the use of language learning strategies or self- efficacy beliefs. However there is lack of studies on the possible relationship between those two individual variables. Therefore the purpose of the current study is to explore if there is a relationship between the use of language learning strategies and English self-efficacy beliefs.

1.4. Significance of the Study

This study focuses on two different concepts in the field of second and foreign language teaching. One of the main points of the study is the use of language learning strategies while the other point is the level of English self-efficacy beliefs.

Language learning strategies are known as special techniques that language learners use to enhance their own learning. In the literature, language learning techniques are also defined as ‘operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and use of information. Most of the studies that have been carried out to explore the function of language learning strategies have showed that there is a positive effect of using language learning strategies in gaining success in second language learning.

Self-efficacy is viewed as beliefs of capability to learn or perform a task. Besides it is known that people's’ positive beliefs on their own self-efficacy in a specific domain enable them to have higher aims and work hard to accomplish them. And when the literature is reviewed it appears that there is not enough study on learners’ self-

efficacy in English yet the importance of self-efficacy beliefs is a matter of researches in other fields of education such as math and science.

Both language learning strategies and having high levels of self-efficacy are associated with better performance on learning English as foreign and second language. The importance of the study relies upon the question of whether these two significant and different concepts are related to each other or not. This study is believed to provide more insights into the relations of language learning strategies and self-efficacy beliefs in the field of foreign language learning.

The study is important as it has two phases. Phase one is repeated after a while which enables the researcher to compare the results. The results of these two studies are different from each other and the causes of these differences can be investigated further.

1.5. Assumptions of the Study

This current study is conducted under the assumptions that;

1. The self-efficacy scale (MSLQ) and language learning strategies scale (SILL) that is used is convenient to collect the data that is desired.

2. The participants of the study answer the questions that are presented in the self-efficacy scale and language learning strategies scale objectively.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

This study is limited in that;

1. It includes only the learners of English as a foreign language at ninth grade in four different state high schools in Edirne.

2. Learners' self-efficacy levels are evaluated by part of Pintrich & De Groot's (1990) Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) about self-efficacy beliefs.

3. Learners' language learning strategies are evaluated only through Strategy Inventory for Language Learning designed by Rebecca Oxford, 1990.

4. It is conducted only with the randomly selected subjects.

1.7. Definitions

Learning: refers to the conscious learning of explicit rules (Gass&Schachter, 1989).

Second Language Learning: second language learning takes place in a country where the language is spoken: for example, learning English as a second language in United States (Gass&Schachter, 1989).

Foreign Language Learning: Language learning takes places when the language to be learned is not the native language of the society: for example, learning English as a foreign language in Japan (Gass&Schachter, 1989).

Strategy: the techniques or devices, which a learner may use to acquire knowledge (Rubin, 1975)

Learning Strategy: Learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations (Oxford, 1990). Mayer (1988) defined learning strategies as "behaviors of a learner that are intended to manipulate a person's cognitive processes during learning."

Language Learning Strategy: Language learning strategies are ‘‘ . . .strategies that contribute to the development of the language system, which the learner constructs and (which) affect learning directly’’ (Rubin, 1987, p. 23). Language learning strategies are steps taken to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information (Oxford, 1990). Cohen specifies that language learning strategies are “those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language”(1998,p. 4).

Self-efficacy: Self-efficacy is a state of system of belief and confidence level of oneself that he or she is able to perform a specific task (Bandura, 1977). The concept of self-efficacy is ‟ learner’s beliefs about their abilities to accomplish a task’’ (Barnhardt 1997).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Language Learning Strategies

As language educators moved toward more learner-centered and communicatively oriented language teaching, understanding how learners learn and what influences their learning has become as important as determining what is to be learned. This shift in focus inspired a line of research that focused on behaviors or mental activities that distinguished between successful and less successful learners. Research on “the good language learner”, for instance, attempted to identify mental processes, actions, motivation, and personality features of successful language learners (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978). It has been demonstrated in most of the related studies that good language learners use more strategy when they are compared to non-proficient learners. Moreover use of appropriate language learning strategies often results in improved proficiency or achievement overall or in specific skill areas (Oxford et al., 1993; Thompson & Rubin, 1994).

As Oxford (1990) states, language learning strategies "... are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence."

2.2. Definition of Language Learning Strategies

The concept that certain learner techniques or strategies might assist second language acquisition has been studied for four decades. Therefore language theorists have different views on language learning strategies. However there are no radical

differences among those definitions. Some of those definitions related to Language Learning Strategies will be stated in this part.

For instance Tarone (1983) states that language-learning strategies are attempts to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence or general techniques for functioning effectively in the target language. In addition one of the pioneers of language learning studies Rubin (1987) views learning strategies as devices to contribute to the development of the language system and to affect learning directly constructed by learners.

Moreover being the milestone of the language learning studies, Oxford (1990) defines language learning strategies as the actions taken by learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. And according to O'Malley and Chamot (1990) language learning strategies are the skills acquired gradually and procedurally as a result of extensive practice. Additionally Richards and Platt (1992) state that learning strategies are 'intentional behavior and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information.

Besides, Weaver and Li (1996) define language learning strategies as 'those processes, steps or actions selected by learners to improve the learning of a foreign language, the use of a foreign language, or both'. Cohen (1998) also explains that language learning strategies as those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language.

From the definitions, it can be deduced that there is a little consensus in the literature concerning either the definition or identification of language learning strategies. (Bialystok, 1983) However, probably, the most comprehensive definition that Oxford as well as others researchers have arrived at for language learning strategies is as follows (Oxford & Cohen, 1992; Wenden, 1987):

1. Language learning strategies refer to specific actions or techniques rather than characteristics that describe a learner's general approach.

2. Some language learning strategies are observable; some are not.

3. Strategies are problem oriented and are employed to respond to a learning need or to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, or use of information.

4. Strategies refer to language learning behaviors that contribute directly to learning, such as how to regulate learning. Strategies also refer to language learning behavior that contribute indirectly to learning such as how to communicate with limited linguistic knowledge, and how to create opportunities to learn and use the target language.

5. Sometimes strategies may be consciously developed. However they can become automatized and remain below consciousness or potentially conscious by developing facility in strategy use.

6. Strategies are amenable to change since as a part of our mental software, can be learned, modified or rejected,

7. Strategies involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.

8. Strategies are influenced by a variety of factors.

9. Strategies allow the learner to become more self-directed.

2.3. Classification of Language Learning Strategies

As there is a need for a good definition of language learning strategies, there is also a need for the classification of language learning strategies in order to categorize and describe language-learning strategies. Since the beginning of the studies conducted on language learning strategies, various theorists contributed to the classification of LLS (Language Learning Strategies). And they proposed different models of classification that categorizes language-learning strategies. In this section, major models that have been noticed so far in the research field of LLS.

Those models consists of (a) Bialystok's Classification, (b) Rubin's Classification, (c) O'Malley and Chamot's Classification, (d) Cohen's Classification, (e) Oxford's Classification.

2.3.1. Bialystock's Classification

According to Bialystok (1978), in order to use available information to improve competence as well as proficiency in second language learning, learners ought to exploit learning strategies. And she identifies four categories of language learning strategies.

a. Functional practicing for using the language for 'authentic communication purposes.

b. Monitoring for producing linguistic output.

c. Formal language practicing, which refers to knowledge about language, related to grammatical and syntactical elements.

d. Inference for comprehending linguistic output in a second language.

2.1.2. Rubin's Classification

According to Rubin (1981) there is a distinction between processes which contribute directly to learning and processes which contribute indirectly to learning, and henceforth proposed a classification scheme that subsumes learning strategies and two primary groupings (as direct strategies and indirect strategies) and a number of subgroups. Rubin's first primary category consists of strategies that directly affect learning. Those direct strategies category includes

a. Clarification/ Verification

b. Monitoring

c. Memorization

d. Guessing/ Inductive reasoning

e. Deductive Reasoning

f. Practice

Rubin's second category consists of strategies that contribute learning indirectly. And it includes

a. Creating Practice Opportunities

b. Using Production Tricks

2.3.3. O'Malley and Chamot's Classification

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) state that learning strategies are used for the purpose of affecting learners' motivational or affective state, or the way in which they select, acquire, organize, or integrate new knowledge. And their language learning strategy model consists of three categories. Those include (a) Metacognitive Strategies, (b) Cognitive Strategies, (c) Social/Affective Strategies

- *Metacognitive Strategies* involve higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity. These include self-regulatory strategies such as planning, monitoring, and evaluation; applicable to a variety of learning tasks.

- *Cognitive Strategies* involve direct manipulation of incoming information in ways that enhance learning. Typical examples are rehearsal, grouping and classifying words, summarizing, deduction, imagery, transfer, and elaboration.

- *Socio affective strategies* involve either interaction with another person or affective control over one's own learning behaviors, such as cooperation and self-talks. "(Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, & Campione, 1983, as cited in O'Malley & Chamot, 1990)

2.3.4. Cohen's Classification

In Cohen's (1988) model, language learning strategies include those used for "identifying the material that needs to be learned, distinguishing it from other material if needed, grouping it for easier learning, having repeated contact with the material, and formally committing the material to memory when it does not seem to be acquired naturally" Language learning strategies include four subsets: (a) *retrieval strategies*; (b) *rehearsal strategies*; (c) *cover strategies*; and (d) *communication strategies*.

➢ *Retrieval Strategies* are used to activate language material from storage through memory searching strategies such as mental linkages or sound association.

➢ *Rehearsal Strategies* are used for practicing the target language structures and include both language learning and language use strategies.

➢ *Cover Strategies* involve creating the impression that learners have control over the material when they do not. Examples of them are simplification, i.e., producing simplified utterances, and complexification, i.e., saying something by means of an elaborate and complex circumlocution, both of which are used to bridge knowledge gaps in the target language.

➢ *Communication Strategies* focus on approaches to conveying meaningful and informative messages to the listener or reader. Intralingual strategies are such examples. These include overgeneralizing a grammar rule or vocabulary meaning from one context to another where it does not apply, and negative transfer, i.e., applying the patterns of a native or another language in the target language where those patterns do not apply.

2.3.5. Oxford's Classification

Being the latest and most detailed model of language learning strategies; in the field of language learning strategies research, preferably Oxford's model is chosen. Also in this study, Oxford's language learning strategies model is used to identify the relationship between language learning strategies use and the self-efficacy beliefs in English.

Oxford designed a comprehensive classification system of language learning strategies using the two major groups proposed by Rubin (1981): direct and indirect strategies. However Oxford's language learning strategies have six subcategories and as mentioned earlier can be classified as either direct (cognitive, memory and

compensation strategies) or indirect strategies (metacognitive, social and affective strategies).

2.3.5.1. Direct Strategies

As it is noted, Oxford's classification of language learning strategies has two main types. Those are Direct and Indirect Strategies. Direct strategies have three subcategories: memory strategies for remembering and retrieving information, cognitive strategies for understanding and performing or producing the target language and compensation strategies for using the language in case of inadequate linguistic knowledge.

2.3.5.1.1. Memory Strategies

Memory strategies are related to storing and retrieving new information. Those strategies are mostly used during vocabulary learning process to help learners to store verbal material and retrieve it during the communication. Memory strategies embody four subdivisions. Those are:

- Creating Mental Linkages (Grouping, Associating and Elaborating, Placing New Words into a Context)
- Applying Images and Sounds (Using Imagery, Semantic Mapping, Using Keywords, Representing Sounds in Memory)
- Reviewing well (Structured Reviewing)
- Employing Actions (Using Physical Response or Sensation, Using Mechanical Techniques)

2.3.5.1.2. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are one of the most frequently used techniques during second language acquisition. Those strategies are related to manipulating and transforming learning materials, such as practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing and reasoning, and creating structure for input and output. Cognitive strategies have four subdivisions. Those are:

- Practicing (Repeating, Formally Practicing with Sounds and Writing Systems, Recognizing and Using Formulas and Patterns, Practicing Naturalistically, Recombining)
- Receiving and Sending Messages (Getting the Idea Quickly, Using Resources for Receiving and Sending Messages)
- Analyzing and Reasoning (Reasoning Deductively, Analyzing Expressions, Analyzing Contrastively, Translating, Transferring
- Creating Structure for Input and Output (Taking notes, Summarizing, Highlighting)

2.3.5.1.3. Compensation Strategies

Compensation Strategies are commonly used to overcome linguistic deficiencies during a conversation. These strategies have two subdivisions.

- Guessing Intelligently in Listening and Reading
- Overcoming Limitations in Speaking and Writing (Using Mimes or Gestures, Using Synonyms, Paraphrasing, Using Native Language, Getting Help from Others)

2.3.5.2. Indirect Strategies

Indirect strategies are used for the general management of learning. They have three subcategories: metacognitive strategies to coordinate the learning process, affective strategies to regulate emotions and social strategies that help students learn from each other. Using indirect strategies can help the language learner build up learner independence and autonomy to take control of his own learning. Oxford (1990) states the indirect strategies as follows.

2.3.5.2.1. Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies are very crucial in terms of directing monitoring and coordinating language learning process and help improve organization of learning time, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. These strategies have three subdivisions. Those are:

- Arranging and Planning Your Learning
- Centering Your Learning
- Evaluating Your Learning

2.3.5.2.2. Affective Strategies

Affective Strategies are related to regulating emotions and motivating learners self. Using affective strategies, learners can identify their mood and anxiety level, can talk about feelings and can encourage themselves to use language patterns. These strategies have three subdivisions. Those are:

- Lowering Your Anxiety (Taking Deep Breaths, Laughing, Mediating, Listening to Classical Music)

- Encouraging Yourself (Taking Risks, Awarding Yourself, Thinking positively)
- Taking Your Emotional Temperature (Discussing Your Feelings with a friend, Assessing Your Feelings, Motivation, Attitudes)

2.3.5.2.3. Social Strategies

Social strategies are related to increasing learning experiences to other learners. Those strategies enable learners to interact with people other people through improving their understanding, enhancing language production and also realizing the new culture (Oxford, 2002). Social strategies have three subdivisions. Those are:

- Asking Questions
- Cooperating with Others
- Empathizing with Others

Finally, it can be concluded that although there are different classifications on language learning strategies, there are no radical changes among those taxonomies. However as Nahungu (2007) states most language theorists agree that there are strategies that learners use to deal directly with the language and others that are used to manage the learning process. Table 2.1 shows a proposed classification of language learning strategies. (Nahungu, 2007)

Table 2. 1. A proposed Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Categories	Direct	Indirect		
Subcategories	Cognitive	Metacognitive	Social	Affective
Use	To manipulate information, make it more manageable	To plan, monitor, organize language learning	To cooperate with peers, To request assistance	To encourage oneself, reduce anxiety, lower the affective filter.
Examples	Taking notes, grouping, using Flash cards, repeating	Deciding on learning objectives, self-assessment, collecting Resources	Participating in study groups, seeking assistance from peers	Self-encouragement, Relaxing, Rewarding oneself, Taking a deep breath

2.4. Studies on Language Learning Strategies

The literature on learning strategies in second language acquisition emerged from a concern for identifying the characteristics of effective learners (O'Malley&Chamot, 1990). Research efforts concentrating on the good language learner had identified strategies reported by students or observed in language learning situations that appear to contribute to learning (Naiman et al. 1978; Rubin 1975). Since then, many researches are done to investigate language learning strategies relations to many factors including language proficiency, achievement and personal factors. The common results of these studies revealed that good language learners tend to use a variety of appropriate metacognitive and cognitive strategies (Chamot& O'Malley 1987).

For instance; O'Malley (1990) designed a study, which dealt with the language learning strategies used by the high school learners in ESL programmes. Their aim was to ascertain whether strategy training would result in success during the learning process or not. The study was conducted with 75 randomly selected participants. At the end of the study, it is noticed that for listening and speaking, strategy instruction had an effective role in second language learning.

Vann and Abraham (1990) observed the language learning behaviours of two participants who struggled in their language learning efforts. The goal of their study was to determine possible reasons for the lack of success being experienced by these participants. Results showed that contrary to the common belief that poor language learners are inactive; the participants were actively engaged in their learning. They were consistently busy using strategies such as checking for errors, attempting to clarify meaning, checking comprehension and repeating words. However, these participants failed to correctly match the language learning strategy to the task before them.

Another study was conducted by Tüz (1995) to determine the correlation between the use of language learning strategies by the more successful and less successful language learners. During the study, 101 participants from METU (Middle East Technical University) are grouped according to their proficiency level as 'successful', 'average', and 'less successful'. The result of the study indicated that, most

participants used social strategies. And it is concluded that ‘less successful’ participants employ metacognitive strategies more than ‘more successful’ participants.

Wharton (2000) investigated the language learning strategies of bilingual learners. The participants were 678 university students in total who were from three different countries: Japan, France and Singapore. The research demonstrated that there is a significant relation between motivation and the language that is being learned. Also it was found out that male participants use second language learning strategies much and more frequently than female participants.

Yılmaz (2001) studied learner factors and strategy use in foreign language learning. She tried to find out the language learning of participants and the relationship between the strategies and proficiency level of their English. At the end of her study, it was demonstrated that Cognitive Strategies are the mostly used strategies among participants and also she indicated that there is a positive correlation between cognitive strategies and participants’ level of English and their strategy use.

Marefat (2003) also tried to ascertain the impact of teaching direct language learning strategies on the retention of vocabulary by EFL learners. 60 Iranian female English language learners participated to the study and it is found out that when participants are taught to use direct language learning strategies, it affects learners positively.

Griffiths (2003) additionally studied the relationship between course level and reported frequency of language learning strategy used by speakers of other languages. She conducted her research on the 348 participants from a private language school and the age rage of the participants was 14 to 64. As a result of her studies, she concluded that there was no significant difference according to the sex or age of the participants. However it was also revealed that participants from advanced level use significantly more language learning strategies than the participants from elementary language level.

Alptekin (2007) has explored whether there are differences in the choice of language learning strategy and in the frequency of its use in the concurrent acquisition of two foreign languages, one being learned in a tutored and the other in a non-tutored

manner. Specifically, he investigated the tutored learning of English in a formal setting and the non-tutored acquisition of Turkish in a non-formal setting by international university students at Bogazici University. The results indicate that although the students make use of all types of learning strategies irrespective of the learning context, compensation as a direct learning strategy seems to be the one most frequently deployed in both tutored and naturalistic learning. On the other hand, a significant difference is observed in indirect strategy preference with respect to learning context: in tutored English learning students make more use of metacognitive strategies, whereas in non-tutored Turkish acquisition they often use social strategies.

Manfred's (2008) research aimed to demonstrate the language learning strategies used by the Chinese learners. The researcher studied within a group of 10 Chinese ESL learners studying at a vocational institute. Results revealed that research participants used a wide variety of metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective LLSs. Social/affective LLSs were found to be more popular than metacognitive and cognitive LLSs among the participants. The more popular LLSs found were: the metacognitive LLSs of advance organization, advance preparation, organizational planning and self-management; the cognitive LLSs of resourcing, grouping, note-taking, summarizing, and translation; and finally the social/affective LLSs of questioning for clarification, co-operation, and positive self-talk.

Azumi (2008) lastly examined the relationship between language learning strategies used by Japanese university students and their proficiency in English. The study was conducted with 148 students and the results of the study showed that Japanese students mostly use cognitive strategies while they use memory strategies at the least. Also the study indicated that there is a significantly positive relationship between language learning strategy use and English proficiency.

Kılıç, A. and Padem, S. (2014) examined the use of language learning strategies of university preparatory class students with respect to their gender and sort of LYS (Undergraduate Placement Exam) point. They found out the difference between students' general use of strategies and gender was analyzed through Independent Sample t-test technique. Although a significant difference was not identified between students' general strategy use and gender; there was a significant difference between

memory strategies and gender, favoring females, and between compensation strategies and gender, favoring males. As to the difference between strategy use and sort of LYS point, there were not any significant differences between sort of LYS point and strategy uses.

2.5. Self- Efficacy

The construct of self-efficacy is firstly explained by Bandura (1977) in his article Self-Efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change and his book Social Learning Theory. Self-efficacy is actually a part of the Social Learning Theory.

Social Learning Theory simply based on the principle that people are not entirely self-directed nor do environmental forces primarily control them; rather there is a reciprocal relationship between person, environment and behavior (Bandura, 1986). In the meantime he presented, researched and expanded on the construct of self-efficacy. And during the last two decades, self-efficacy has emerged as a highly effective predicator of students' motivation and learning (Zimmerman 2000).

2.5.1. Definition of Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is not a broad, generalized construct like many of the others (Pajares&Schunk, 2001). Therefore the definitions of self-efficacy, which is a one of the recent concepts of field of behaviour and education, do not demonstrate differences. Below definitions of self-efficacy is presented.

Self-efficacy is introduced by Bandura (1977) and he defines self-efficacy as a specific type of expectancy concerned with a person's beliefs in his or her ability to perform a certain action or set of behaviors required to produce an outcome. He then expanded the definition and redefined (1989) it as people's beliefs about their abilities to exercise control over events that are likely to affect their lives, and their beliefs in

their capabilities to put together the motivation, cognitive resources and other action needed to control task demands.

Additionally Schunk (1985) explains that self-efficacy refers to personal judgements of performance capabilities in a given domain of activities. Also Huang and Shanmao (1996) state that self-efficacy expectations as the 'the beliefs about one's ability to perform a given task or behavior successfully. The concept is also defined by Ehrman (1996) as 'the degree to which the student thinks he or she has the capacity to cope with the learning challenge.'

Moreover Kasdin (2000) notes that self-efficacy is people's belief in their capabilities to perform in ways that give them control over events that affect their lives and regulate human function through cognitive, motivational, emotional and choice processes. And lately McCombs (2001) states self-efficacy in reference to the learners' judgment of his or her competency for successful task completion.

After Bandura first explained self-efficacy, some other authors tried to define self -efficacy. However it can be concluded that all the definitions regarding self-efficacy beliefs are similar to each other.

2.5.2. Dimensions of Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1977) explains that self- efficacy expectancies vary along three dimensions: Level, Generality and Strength.

Level of Self-efficacy: Level of Self-efficacy refers to its dependence on the difficulty of a particular task, such as spelling words of increasing difficulty (Zimmerman, 2000). Bandura (1977) explains that the perceived personal efficacy may consist of performing simple tasks, extend to moderately difficult tasks, or include very hard tasks. The perceived capability for a given person is measured against levels or magnitudes of task demands that represent different degrees of given challenge or obstacles to successful performance. For instance; foreign language learners might say that they can comprehend what their foreign language teacher says but they might also

say that they have difficulties in comprehending speakers who speak the target language from CD player.

Generality of Self-efficacy: Generality of self-efficacy refers to the extent to which success or failure experiences influence self-efficacy expectancies in similar situations or contexts. Generality pertains to the transferability self-efficacy beliefs across activities; such as from algebra to statics (Zimmerman 2000). In foreign language learning contexts, it can be given as example that students who believe that they can read passages in target language may extend their self-efficacy to writing passages in target language too. Generality can vary according to:

- Degree of similarity of activities
- Ways in which the capabilities are expressed
- The features of situations
- The personal characteristics of the person who is judging his efficacy.

Strength of Self-efficacy: Strength of self-efficacy refers to the 'resoluteness of a people's convictions that they can perform the behaviour in question' (Maddux, 1995). It is measured by the amount of one's certainty about performing a given task (Zimmerman 2000). Strength of self-efficacy is about resilience or persistence when one faces challenges; frustrations, pain, desperateness and other barriers to the task that is given to accomplish.

For instance, a foreign language learner may use vocabulary in conversation, however when he is suggested to fill a puzzle, he may feel uncomfortable. So it can be concluded that as Bandura states (1977) weak expectations are easily extinguishable by disconfirming experiences, whereas individuals who possess strong expectations of mastery will persevere in their coping efforts despite disconfirming experiences.

2.5.3. Sources of Self-efficacy

People's belief about their efficacy can be developed by four main sources of influence (Bandura 1998). Those are:

- Mastery Experiences
- Vicarious Experiences
- Social Persuasion
- Emotional Arousal

Mastery Experiences: Mastery experiences are one of the most important ways of creating strong sense of self-efficacy. Bandura (1998) explains that successes build a robust belief in one's personal efficacy and failures undermine it especially if failures occur before a sense of efficacy is firmly established. In other words, it can be inferred that when one have success, it raises self-efficacy however when one faces failures, it lowers the self-efficacy beliefs. Both guided and self-directed mastery experiences help strengthen and broaden one's sense of self-efficacy (Zimmerman 2006).

For example; in the context of foreign language learning contexts, keeping mastery experiences are very important for self-efficacy beliefs in mind, teachers should be on alert on the selection of teaching activities. The activities chosen should not be harder than the student can handle. Or as Oettingen (1997) explains repeated successes or failures impact self-efficacy and especially failures have the biggest impact unless one has already developed bedrock of success on the same level.

Vicarious Experiences: Mastery experiences are not sole source of creating or developing self- beliefs of efficacy. Also vicarious experiences provided by social models are another way of creating beliefs of self-efficacy. Bandura (1998) states that seeing people similar to oneself succeed by sustained effort raises observers' beliefs that they too possess the capabilities master comparable activities to succeed. He also keeps declaring that observing others' failures despite high effort lowers observers' judgments

of their own efficacy and undermines their effort. Namely; self-efficacy can be inferred simply through observation of a success or failure (Oettingen, 1997).

Vicarious experience; relying as it does on inferences from social comparison; is a less dependable source of information about one's capabilities that in direct evidence of personal accomplishments. Consequently, the efficacy expectations induced by modelling alone are likely to be weaker and more vulnerable to change (Bandura 1977).

Social Persuasion: Social persuasion is another way of supporting ones' self-efficacy beliefs. Positive influences encourage and empower; while negative influences overpower and diminish self-beliefs (Pajares, 2006). People who are persuaded verbally that they possess the capabilities to master given activities are likely to mobilize greater effort and sustain it than if they harbour self-doubts and dwell on personal deficiencies when problems arise. To the extent that persuasive boosts in perceived self-efficacy lead people to try hard enough to succeed, they promote the development of skills and a sense of personal efficacy (Bandura 1998).

For instance, in a foreign language teaching context, learners may have doubts about accomplishing a puzzle task, however if the teacher or a friend encourages that student that he can handle with that activity, the student's belief of efficacy would raise.

However as Bandura explains it is more difficult to instill high beliefs of self-efficacy by social persuasion alone than to undermine it. Additionally if the learners are encouraged unrealistically, it may result in disappointment causing oneself feeling lower self-efficacy beliefs. The effectiveness of verbal persuasion may depend on how comfortable and trusting you are with the communicator (Oettingen, 1977).

Emotional Arousal: The fourth and last way of changing self-efficacy beliefs is to reduce people's stress reactions and alter their negative emotional proclivities and misinterpretations of their physical states.

People who have a high sense of self-efficacy are likely to view their state of affective arousal as an energizing facilitator of performance; whereas whose who are beset by self-doubts regard their arousal as a debilitator (Bandura 1998). Pajares (2006)

adds that when subjects have negative fears or thoughts about their own abilities; additional stress and anxiety can be triggered and efficacy levels may drop.

For instance, a foreign language learner may feel stress during a conversation to a native speaker however depending on her level of self-efficacy belief; she may feel desperate and stop conversation. Or on the other hand she may sense it as a problem she can handle and may continue conversation despite her lacking.

2.5.4. Features of Students with Self-efficacy

Many researches have conducted studies on self-efficacy beliefs of people's. The results of those studies have been similar in some ways. In this section features of people who have either good or weak self-efficacy beliefs will be presented.

2.5.4.1. Features of Students with High Self- efficacy

1. Strong self-efficacy beliefs enhance motivation and performance (Bandura 1993).

2. They feel confident about solving problems because they have developed an approach to problem solving that has worked in the past (Barnhardth, 1997).

3. They attribute their success mainly to their own efforts and strategies, believe that their own abilities will improve as they learn more, and recognize that errors are part of learning (Barnhardth, 1997).

4. They set higher goals and higher personal standards (Tremblay&Gardner, 1995).

5. They also have lower stress levels, achieve more, and are more optimistic (Pajares, 2006).

6. They become better self-monitors and their performance for specific task improves (Zimmerman&Bonner,&Kovack,2006).

7. They believe that they are capable of accomplishing the task and are ready to participate in it.

8. They have stronger motivation because they believe they can attain their goals or adjust them based on their progress.

9. They can lower their anxiety and stress by acting on the stressful environment.

Also Pajares (2006) stated that researchers have recommended paying more attention to young people's self-efficacy beliefs rather than skills because beliefs are better predictors of overall motivation and future academic choices.

2.5.4.2. Features of Students with Low Self-efficacy

1. Low self-efficacy beliefs are characterized by low aspiration and weak commitment to goals (Bandura 1993).

2. They are more likely to become frustrated when they encounter difficult challenges, and see these challenges as personal threats to be avoided rather than challenges to be mastered.

3. They believe themselves to have inherent low ability (Barnhardth, 1997).

4. They choose less demanding tasks and do not try hard because they believe that any effort will reveal their own lack of ability (Barnhardth, 1997).

5. They set easily achievable and short-term goals (Barnhardth, 1997).

6. They are very likely to avoid accomplishing tasks.

7. They are likely to magnify risks or threats.

8. They cannot lower their anxiety and stress by acting on the stressful environment.

2.5.5. Studies on Self-efficacy Beliefs

During these two decades, the tenets of the self-efficacy component of social cognitive theory have been widely tested in varied disciplines and settings and have received support from a growing body of findings from diverse fields. Self-efficacy beliefs have been found to be related to clinical problems such as phobias (Bandura, 1983), addiction (Marlatt, Baer, & Quigley, 1995), depression (Davis & Yates, 1982), social skills (Moe & Zeiss, 1982), assertiveness (Lee, 1983, 1984); to stress in a variety of contexts (Jerusalem & Mittag, 1995); to smoking behaviour (Garcia, Schmitz, & Doerfler, 1990); to pain control (Manning & Wright, 1983); to health (O'Leary, 1985); and to athletic performance (Barling & Abel, 1983; Lee, 1982). Self-efficacy beliefs have also received increasing attention in educational research, primarily in studies of academic motivation and of self-regulation (Pintrich & Schunk, 1995) (cited from Pajares 1997). In this section, several examples of self-efficacy beliefs studies conducted in the field of education will be presented.

One of the studies on self-efficacy beliefs, conducted by Idrus& Salleh, 2008 in Malaysia on 338 university students who are foreign language learners of English. The researchers assessed perceived self-efficacy of the students on the three dimensions of ability, aspiration and activity perception. They also investigated students' self-efficacy levels in relation to gender and ethnicity. Results of the study demonstrated that the students have high self-efficacy levels in speaking ability in all three dimensions. The study also demonstrated that there is no significant relationship between ethnicity and self-efficacy. However, it is found out that female students have higher self-efficacy levels than male students.

Rahemi, 2007; investigated the Humanities students' English self-efficacy beliefs and examined the contributions they make to their EFL achievements. The researcher conducted the research on 80 high school students. As a result of the study, it

is discovered that there is a strong positive relationship between students' EFL achievements and self-efficacy.

Tılfarlıoğlu & Cinkara, 2009 also intended to investigate the self-efficacy of EFL students enrolled at Gaziantep University, School of Foreign Languages (GUSFL). The aim of their study was to explore EFL self-efficacy level of the students in relation to their academic success in English. In addition, demographic variables such as students' age and gender were studied in relation to their self-efficacy. One hundred seventy five preparatory students at GUSFL participated in the study. The analysis of results revealed that EFL learners at GUSFL had high sense of self-efficacy in language learning tasks. Therefore, self-efficacy was disclosed to be an influential aspect in students' success in English language learning.

Shang, 2010; investigated Taiwanese EFL learners' use of three reading strategies their perceived impact on self efficacy, and the relationships between reading strategy use and perceived self-efficacy on their English reading comprehension. Fifty-three participants joined the study. Results showed that the most frequent use of reading strategy was found to be metacognitive strategy. In addition, it is found out that there was a significant positive relationship between the use of reading strategies and perceptions of self-efficacy. Reading strategies, however, were unrelated to reading achievement.

Chularut & DeBacker (2004) investigated the effectiveness of concept mapping used as a learning strategy with students in English as a Second Language classroom. Seventy-nine ESL students participated in the study. Variables of interest were students' achievement when learning from English-language text, students' reported use of self-regulation strategies (self-monitoring and knowledge acquisition strategies), and students' self-efficacy for learning from English-language text. The findings showed a statistically significant interaction of time, method of instruction, and level of English proficiency for self-monitoring, self-efficacy, and achievement.

Chacon (2005) explored self-efficacy beliefs among English as Foreign Language teachers in selected schools in Venezuela. 100 teachers of English joined to the study. Results showed that teachers' perceived efficacy was correlated with self-

reported English proficiency. Results also indicated that teachers' efficacy for instructional strategies was higher than efficacy for management and engagement.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, brief information about the study will be presented. Firstly, problem with research questions and participants of the study will be stated. It will be followed by the data collection instrument and data collection procedures in both of the studies. Lastly analysis of data that belongs to two studies will be explored.

3.1. Problem and Research Questions

The aim of this study is to investigate whether there is a relationship between students' foreign language learning strategy use and their English self-efficacy. The study also addresses the following questions:

RQ1: Are there significant correlations between students' language learning strategies and English Self-efficacy levels?

RQ2: Is there a significant difference between students' language learning strategies of male and female students?

RQ3: Is there a significant difference between students' English Self-efficacy levels of male and female students?

RQ4: Is there a significant difference between students' language learning strategies of students from rural and urban area?

RQ5: Is there a significant difference between students' English Self-efficacy levels of students from urban and rural area?

3.2 Participants

In former study, the participants of the study are 202 ninth grade high school students enrolled in four different high schools in Edirne which are both located in the rural areas and city center. Those high schools are Lalapaşa High School and M.Kilimci High School, which are located in rural areas of Edirne and Edirne High School and İlhami Ertem High School, which are located in the city center.

In later study, the participants of the study are 122 ninth grade high school students enrolled in four different high schools in Edirne which are both located in the rural areas and city center. Those high schools are Lalapaşa High School and Şahika Erkut Anatolian High School that are located in rural areas of Edirne and Edirne High School and İlhami Ertem High School, which are located in the city center.

It is known that in Turkey, the students who are at the ninth grade take more English classes when they are compared to 10th, 11th and 12th grade students. Since they experience more English classes than students who are at other grades, ninth grade students are chosen as population of the study.

3.3 Instrument

In this study Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and a part of Pintrich & De Groot's (1990) Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) about self-efficacy beliefs is used to investigate the relationship between students' use of language learning strategies and their English self- efficacy beliefs. Those instruments are used in the two researches.

SILL is developed by Oxford (1990) and has become a common tool for studies, which investigate language-learning strategies of learners. Green and Oxford (1995) noted that, by 1995 the SILL had been used as a key instrument in more than 40 studies, including 12 dissertations and theses. It embodies two main parts: Direct and Indirect Language Learning Strategies and each main part has three sections and those parts can be listed as: Direct strategies: Memory Strategies, Compensation Strategies,

Metacognitive Strategies and Indirect strategies: Affective Strategies, and Social Strategies. In SILL, there are 50 Likert - scale items that measure frequencies of Language Learning Strategies of learners. Each item is ranged from '1: almost never true of me', '2: generally not true of me', '3: somewhat true of me', '4: generally true of me', to '5: almost always true of me'.

Table 3. 1. Overview of Groups in SILL

Direct Strategies		(29)
Memory Strategies	Part A	(9)
Cognitive Strategies	Part B	(14)
Compensation Strategies	Part C	(6)
Indirect Strategies		(21)
Metacognitive Strategies	Part D	(9)
Affective Strategies	Part E	(6)
Social Strategies	Part F	(6)

The reliability of the SILL has been a focus of interest and some researchers has conducted researches to measure the reliability of the SILL. Using Cronbach alpha, the reliability of the SILL was found to be .96 for the 1200 subject sample in the Oxford and Nyikos (1989) study and .95 for a 483 subject sample in an earlier research (Dörnyei, Z 2001). Also in their study, Fer and Cesur (2007) explored that the internal consistency reliability of the SILL in its Turkish form, was .92 and they concluded that

the validity and reliability of the SILL in Turkish was high and convenient to be used as a data collection instrument. SILL is presented at the appendix 1.

On the other hand, the second data collection tool of this study to measure the English self-efficacy of the learners is the self-efficacy scale, which is a lower dimension of Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). MSLQ is developed by Pintrinch and De Groot (1990) and it has 44 items in total all of which are likert type. This measurement tool is arranged to reveal participants' motivational beliefs and self-regulation strategies regarding a specific subject or topic. In this study it is aimed to measure students' English self-efficacy by using this tool. The self-efficacy scale is presented at the appendix 2.

The self-efficacy scale is being with a part of MSLQ is composed of nine items ranging from one to seven. The language equivalence value, validity and reliability of the scale have been researched by Üredi 2005 on the eighth grade students. Using Cronbach alpha, the reliability of the self-efficacy scale in Turkish was found to be .93. Also Büyüköztürk,Ş, & Akgün, E., Özkahveci, Ö. And Demirel, F. (2004) stated that the Turkish version of the MSLQ can be utilized in experimental research to examine effects of various methods and applications, considering motivation and learning strategies. It can be also used in assessing to what extent students have motivation and use learning strategies at various educational institutions.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

At first place, permission for conducting the questionnaires at the schools was taken from Edirne National Education Directorate. In the former study, questionnaires were distributed to the 9th grade students of Edirne High School, Lalapaşa High School, M.Kilimci High School and İlhami Ertem High School. 204 subjects who were enrolled to those schools are given the SILL and the self-efficacy questionnaire, which is a part of MSLQ.

During the former study, the researcher went to the target high schools and informed the directors of schools about aim of the study and explained the data

collection tools. After the available days to apply the SILL and self-efficacy scale, the researcher went to each school. Before the application of the instruments of the study, the subjects were reminded that their answers will be used only for scientific aims and participation is voluntary. On 28 May, which was the final date for applying the questionnaires, 204 questionnaires were available to be analyzed through SPSS statistical program.

In the latter study, same procedures were followed. The number of the participants and the schools showed difference. In this research, questionnaires are distributed to the 9th grade students of Edirne High School, Lalapasa High School, Sahika Erkut High School and Ilhami Ertem High School. 122 subjects who were enrolled to those schools are given the SILL and the self-efficacy questionnaire, which is a part of MSLQ.

3.5. Data Analysis Procedure

In both of the studies (former and latter study) conducted in, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, 17.0) was used to analyze the data. Two different techniques were used in the treatment of the study. These are Pearson Correlation and Independent Sample T-test. Pearson Correlation is generally used to explore the relationship between variables while independent t-test is used to find out the differences between variables.

In this study, language learning strategy use, which was aimed to find out by the SILL is treated as one of the variables while the English Self Efficacy beliefs of participants is another variable. When research questions of the study are taken into consideration, gender and location of the student's schools (city center versus rural area) can be classified as the independent variable of study.

Pearson Correlation is used to find out if there is a relationship between use of language learning strategies and English Self efficacy of participants'. Also, T-test is administered to check gender differences and differences in schools' locations (city center versus rural parts). Besides this while the differentiation status of self-efficacy

and language learning strategies according to the criteria of age, gender and the living area is analyzed through independent samples t test, the differentiation status according to the English proficiency is analyzed by ANOVA test. Depending on the results of ANOVA, paired comparison is done by TUKEY test.

Finally, descriptive statistics is used to identify the total numbers of participants, to find out how many of the participants are male or female and to explore how many of the participants live in rural parts or city center. The researcher used $p = .05$ as significance of level throughout the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. RESULTS

In this chapter, data collected from surveys are examined, and results of the analyses are given. In the analyses, frequency results were given for the distribution of nonparametric data. Parametric data were described as mean analysis.

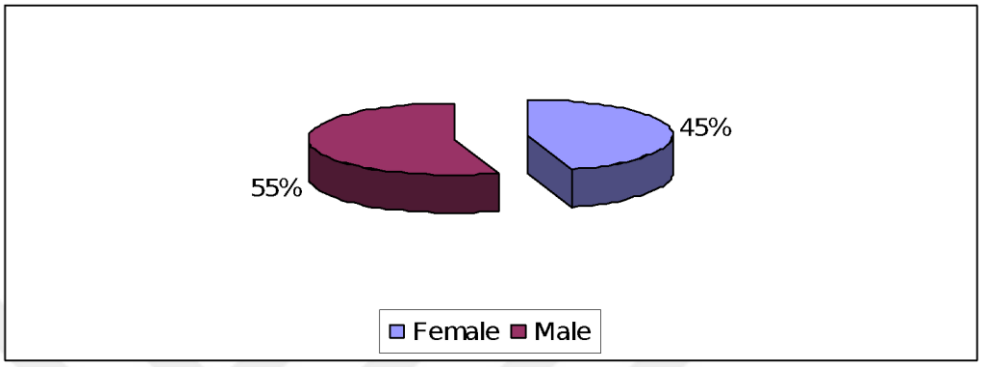
4.1.1. Demographic Properties of the Former Study

Although there are many demographic parameters affecting English learning of an individual, it is difficult to examine all of them in a research. In this research, effects of living area and gender were restricted as demographic parameters. Gender distribution of the participants was given in the Table 4.1.

Table 4. 1. Gender Distribution of the Participants

Groups	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Female	91	45,0
Male	111	55,0
Total	202	100,0

According to the data analyzed, 91 (45%) of participants are female, 111 (55%) of participants are male. Although number of male participants were higher than female, there was only %5,0 difference, and it may be said that there was not a significant difference based on gender of the participants. This distribution was also given in the Scheme 4.1.



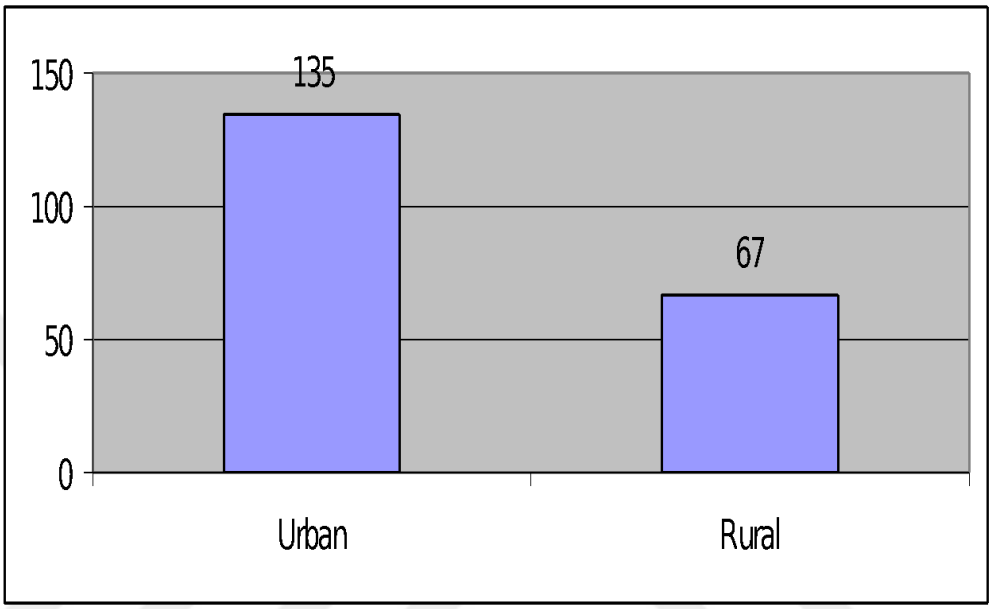
Scheme 4. 1. Gender Distribution of the Participants

In the research, living area of the participants was also asked in the questionnaire. Table 4.2 gives living area distribution for the participants.

Table 4. 2. Living Area Distribution for the Participants

Groups	**Frequency (n)**	**Percentage (%)**
Urban	135	66,8
Rural	67	33,2
Total	202	100,0

According to analysis results, 66,8% of participants (135 participants) were living in the urban whereas 33,2% of them expressed that they are living in the rural area. This distribution was also given in the Scheme 4.2.



Scheme 4. 2. Living Area Distribution for the Participants

4.1.2. Relation Between Language Learning and English Self-Efficacy Belief

In the research, relation between English self-efficacy belief and language learning was examined as the first problem of the research. For this aim, pearson correlation analysis was applied to the data of the research. Results of the correlation analysis were given in the Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3. Relation Between Language Learning Strategies And English Self-Efficacy Belief

	(ESE)	(MS)	(CogS)	(ComS)	(MCS)	(AS)	(SS)
English Self-Efficacy (ESE)	1	,646**	,571**	,529**	,671**	,418**	,564**
Memory Strategies (MS)		1	,758**	,711**	,727**	,611**	,718**
Cognitive Strategies (CogS)			1	,716**	,817**	,714**	,771**
Compensation Strategies (ComS)				1	,728**	,675**	,691**
Metacognitive Strategies (MCS)					1	,706**	,781**
Affective Strategies (AS)						1	,724**
Social Strategies (SS)							1
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							

According to analysis results, there were positive and statistically significant correlations between English Self-Efficacy parameter and memory strategies (r=0,646; p<0,01), cognitive strategies (r=0,571; p<0,01), compensation strategies (r=0,529; p<0,01), meta-cognitive strategies (r=0,671; p<0,01), affective strategies (r=0,418; p<0,01) and social strategies (r=0,564; p<0,01).

In the analysis results, it is seen from the correlation constants that the most effective factor for the English Self-Efficacy is meta-cognitive strategies. The second effective factor is memory strategies. For the multi-cognitive strategies, constant is equal to 0,671. This means that increase of 1 unit in meta-cognitive strategies causes 0,671unit increase in English Self-Efficacy. This may also be interpreted as meta-cognitive strategies increase English Self-Efficacy at 67,1% rate. Effectiveness classification of parameters with their correlation constant is given in the Table 4.4.

Table 4. 4. Effect Order of Parameters

Parameters	Correlation constant	Effect order
Meta-cognitive Strategies (MCS)	,671**	**1**
Memory Strategies (MS)	,646**	**2**
Cognitive Strategies (CogS)	,571**	**3**
Social Strategies (SS)	,564**	**4**
Compensation Strategies (ComS)	,529**	**5**
Affective Strategies (AS)	,418**	**6**

4.1.3. Effect of Gender on Language Learning Strategies

The second problem of the research is effect of gender on memory strategies of the participants. To evaluate difference between memory strategy point means of the male and female participants, T-Test was applied to the data. Results were given in the Table 4.5.

Table 4. 5. T-Test for Memory Strategies of Males and Females

Groups	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*SEM*	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Male	111	26,04	8,38	,80	3,33	200	,001
Female	91	29,47	5,67	,59			

There was a significant difference between memory strategies of males and females. Mean for the memory strategies was higher in the female group and this difference was statistically significant ($p<0,05$). This result shows that female students (29,47±5,67) have ability to use memory strategies more than male students (26,04±8,38). T-test results for the effect of gender on cognitive strategies are given in the Table 4.6.

Table 4. 6. T-Test for Cognitive Strategies of Males and Females

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Male	111	35,92	13,55	1,29	2,12	200	,035
Female	91	39,62	10,64	1,12			

Table 4.6 shows that mean for the cognitive strategies of the female students was higher than male students. This result is also parallel to results of the memory strategies. According to T-Test results, this difference between male and female students was significantly different (p<0,05). Comparison of male and female student groups based on their compensation strategies is given in the Table 4.7.

Table 4. 7. T-Test for Compensation Strategies of Males and Females

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* **Test**		
					t	***df***	*p*
Male	111	17,03	6,05	,57	2,48	200	,014
Female	91	18,95	4,64	,49			

Similar to memory and cognitive strategies, compensation strategy points of female students were also higher in female group, and this difference was statistically significant (p<0,05). Here, it was noticed that compensation strategy means were lower than memory and cognitive strategies for both male and female groups. Difference between genders' groups based on their meta-cognitive strategy points are given in the Table 4.8.

Table 4. 8. T-Test for Meta-cognitive Strategies of Males and Females

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* **Test**		
					t	***df***	*p*
Male	111	25,32	8,92	,85	3,28	200	,001
Female	91	29,14	7,32	,77			

Here also it was seen that female students have statistically significant higher points for the meta-cognitive strategies (p<0,05). Meta-cognitive strategies are important for English learning and self-efficacy belief. In this respect, it is seen that female students are more successful than male students as in the other strategies mentioned before. Difference analysis results for the affective strategies of the students based on gender group are given in the Table 4.9.

Table 4. 9. T-Test for Affective Strategies of Males and Females

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* **Test**		
					t	***df***	*p*
Male	111	15,44	5,73	,54	1,99	200	,048
Female	91	16,91	4,55	,48			

In the affective strategies of the students based on the gender, the difference was also statistically significant (p<0,05). Similar to other strategy points, affective strategies were also higher in female group. On the other hand, this difference was lowest between groups. Namely, the difference was nearly insignificant, and close to the 0,05 alpha level. Difference between social strategy points of the gender groups and analysis results are given in the Table 4,10.

Table 4. 10. T-Test for Social Strategies of Males and Females

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Male	111	16,76	6,51	,62	2,10	200	,037
Female	91	18,57	5,55	,58			

Last strategy factor of the research, social strategies was also higher in the female students, and this difference was statistically significant (p<0,05). This may be interpreted as female students have more ability to use social strategies for English learning than male students.

4.1.4. Effect of Gender on English Self-Efficacy Belief

In the research, effect of gender on self-efficacy belief of the participants was also examined. To examine this, T-Test was applied to data collected from participants. Results are given in the Table 4.11.

Table 4. 11. T-Test for English Self-Efficacy Belief of Males and Females

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Male	111	39,40	13,32	1,26	3,33	200	,001
Female	91	45,32	11,63	1,22			

English Self-Efficacy Belief points of female students (45,32+11,63) were higher than of male students (39,40+13,32), and this difference was statistically significant (p<0,05). This shows that female students have higher self-efficacy in English than male students.

In the correlation analysis results, it was stated that English Self-Efficacy Belief was positively correlated with strategies mentioned in the study. Parallel to this result, female students had higher factor points from the factor inventories, and these results

are seen in the English self-efficacy belief. In conclusion, it may be stated that gender is an important factor for the improvement of the English self-efficacy belief.

4.1.5. Effect of Living Area on English Learning Strategies

Besides with gender, living area of students also evaluated for the effects on the English Self-Efficacy Belief. In this respect, strategies mentioned in the research and their points collected from data analysis were given in this part of the study. Differences between memory strategies of the students based on their living area are given in the Table 4.12.

Table 4. 12. T-Test for Memory Strategies of Students from Urban and Rural Areas

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Urban	135	29,35	6,74	,58	5,05	200	,000
Rural	67	24,03	7,66	,94			

Table 4.12 shows that students living in the urban area use more memory strategies than students living in the rural area, and this difference is statistically different ($p<0,05$). Differences between cognitive strategies of students based on their living area are given in the Table 4.13.

Table 4. 13. T-Test for Cognitive Strategies of Students from Urban and Rural Areas

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Urban	135	40,13	12,14	1,05	4,31	200	,000
Rural	67	32,45	11,46	1,40			

Cognitive strategy points of the students living in the urban area were also higher than of the students living in the rural area, and this difference was again statistically significant (p<0,05). Differences between compensation strategy points of the students living in the urban and rural area are given in the Table 4.14.

Table 4. 14. T-Test for Compensation Strategies of Students from Urban and Rural Areas

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Urban	135	18,96	4,95	,43	4,03	200	,000
Rural	67	15,75	6,04	,74			

Similar to memory strategies and cognitive strategies, compensation strategy points of the students living in the different areas were higher in the urban group. T-Test results showed that this difference was statistically significant (p<0,05). Comparison of the mean points of students for the meta-cognitive strategies based on living area is given in the Table 4.15.

Table 4. 15. T-Test for Meta-cognitive Strategies of Students from Urban and Rural Areas

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Urban	135	28,83	7,32	,63	4,48	200	,000
Rural	67	23,43	9,39	1,15			

Here, it is also seen that meta-cognitive strategies of the students living in the urban area are higher than students living in the rural area. Analysis results showed that there is a statistically significant difference between groups (p<0,05). It is seen that similar to other three strategies compared before, this strategy is also well used among the students living in the urban area. The main reason for this difference may be seen as opportunities of the living area. T-Test results for the affective strategy points of the students based on their living area are given in the Table 4.16.

Table 4. 16. T-Test for Affective Strategies of Students from Urban and Rural Areas

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Urban	135	17,26	5,16	,44	4,64	200	,000
Rural	67	13,78	4,72	,58			

Affective strategies for the English Self-Efficacy Belief also differ between groups, and this difference is statistically significant (p<0,05). Here also it is seen that

similar to other strategies; affective strategies are more used among students living in the urban area than students living in the rural area. Last strategy of the research, social strategy and frequency of use among the students living in rural and urban areas is given in the Table 4.17.

Table 4. 17. T-Test for Social Strategies of Students from Urban and Rural Areas

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Urban	135	18,75	5,67	,49	3,99	200	,000
Rural	67	15,21	6,43	,79			

Similar to other all strategies, social strategy is also mainly used among students living in the urban area, and this difference is also statistically significant ($p<0,05$). This difference also may be interpreted as opportunities of living areas.

In general, it is seen that living area is an important factor for English learning and using strategies. Results also showed that urban area is more suitable area for the learning of English.

4.1.6. Effect of Living Area on English Self-Efficacy Belief

In the research, effect of living area on the English Self-Efficacy Belief is also examined. Results for the T-Test is given in the Table 4.18.

Table 4. 18. T-Test for English Self-Efficacy Belief of Students from Urban and Rural Areas

Groups	*N*	***M***	***SD***	***SEM***	*t* Test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Urban	135	44,23	11,04	,95	3,48	200	,001
Rural	67	37,70	15,19	1,86			

Similar to language learning strategies, English Self-Efficacy Belief points of the students based on their living area were statistically significant (p<0,05). Results are parallel to the language learning strategies, and it is seen that students living in the urban area have higher English Self-Efficacy Belief points than students living in the rural area.

4.2 Demographic Properties of the Latter Study

Table 4.2.1: Demographic Properties of the Latter Study

		n	**%**
Gender	Female	57	46,7%
	Male	65	53,3%
Living Area	Urban	64	52,5%
	Rural	58	47,4%
English Proficiency Level	Very Good at English	2	1,6%
	Good at English	29	23,8%
	Average	81	66,4%
	Bad at English	10	8,2%

According to the data analysed, 57 (46,7%) of participants are female, 65 (53,3%) of participants are male. There are 122 participants and most of them are (78,7%) 15 years old.

81 of the participants (66,4%) feel themselves to be at average English proficiency level while the 29 of them (23,8%) think of themselves to be good at English.

According to analysis results, of participants 52,5% (64 participants) were living in the urban whereas 47,4% (58 participants) of them expressed that they are living in the rural area.

Table 4.2.2. Descriptive Statics of Relation Between Language Learning Strategies and English Self-Efficacy Belief

	n	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
English Self-Efficacy (ESE)	122	9	63	40,74	13,66
Metacognitive Strategies (MCS)	122	9	42	25,30	6,93
Memory Strategies (MS)	122	14	63	37,03	10,85
Cognitive Strategies (CogS)	122	6	27	17,18	4,86
Social Strategies (SS)	122	9	42	25,92	8,85
Compensation Strategies (ComS)	122	6	30	14,24	5,53
Affective Strategies (AS)	122	6	29	17,21	6,10

The results show that mean of the English Self Efficacy points of the participants is 40,74; mean of Meta Cognitive Strategy points is 25,30, mean of Memory Strategy points is 37,03; mean of Cognitive Strategy points is 17,18; mean of Social Strategy points is 25,92; the mean of Compensation Strategy points is 14,24 and mean of Affective strategy points is 17,21.

Table: 4.2.3. Relation Between Language Learning Strategies and English Self-Efficacy Belief

		English Self Efficacy
Metacognitive Strategies (MCS)	Pearson Correlation	,531**
	p	0,000
	n	122
Memory Strategies (MS)	Pearson Correlation	,500**
	p	0,000
	n	122
Cognitive Strategies (CogS)	Pearson Correlation	,380**
	p	0,000
	n	122
Social Strategies (SS)	Pearson Correlation	,617**
	p	0,000
	n	122
Compensation Strategies (ComS)	Pearson Correlation	,324**
	p	0,000
	n	122
Affective Strategies (AS)	Pearson Correlation	,402**
	p	0,000
	n	122

According to analysis results, there were positive and statistically significant correlations between English Self-Efficacy parameter and memory strategies ((r=0,500),; p<0,01), cognitive strategies (r=0,380),; p<0,01), compensation strategies (r=0,324); p<0,01), meta-cognitive strategies (r=0,531; p<0,01), affective strategies (r=0,402; p<0,01) and social strategies (r=0,617),; p<0,01).

In the analysis results, it is found out that the correlation constants that the most effective factor for the English Self-Efficacy is social strategies. The second effective factor is Meta cognitive strategies. Effectiveness classification of parameters with their correlation constant is given in the Table 5.1.3.

Table 4.2.4: The Analysis of Self-Efficacy and Language Learning Strategies' Differentiation According to the Effect of Gender

Gender		**n**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**t**	**p**
English Self-Efficacy (ESE)	Female	57	38,07	12,82	**-2,046**	**0,043***
	Male	65	43,08	14,04		
Metacognitive Strategies (MCS)	Female	57	24,77	7,85	**-0,780**	**0,437**
	Male	65	25,75	6,03		
Memory Strategies (MS)	Female	57	34,12	11,62	**-2,818**	**0,006***
	Male	65	39,58	9,50		
Cognitive Strategies (CogS)	Female	57	16,23	5,31	**-2,026**	**0,045***
	Male	65	18,02	4,30		
Social Strategies (SS)	Female	57	23,96	9,69	**-2,289**	**0,024***
	Male	65	27,63	7,73		
Compensation Strategies (ComS)	Female	57	12,77	5,28	**-2,818**	**0,006***
	Male	65	15,52	5,46		
Affective Strategies (AS)	Female	57	16,32	6,79	**-1,506**	**0,135**
	Male	65	18,00	5,35		

***p<0,05**

The results of independent group T test, which is conducted to find out the differentiation of self-efficacy and language learning strategies according to the gender, are demonstrated in the table 5.1.5.

According to the analysis results, there is no significant difference between male and female students' Meta cognitive and Affective strategies.

There is a significant difference between female and male students' memory strategies and male students use memory strategies more than female students ($p<0,05$).

There is a significant difference between female and male students' cognitive strategies and male students use cognitive strategies more than female students ($p<0,05$).

There is a significant difference between female and male students' social strategies and male students use social strategies more than female students ($p<0,05$).

There is a significant difference between female and male students' compensation strategies and male students use compensation strategies more than female students ($p<0,05$).

There is a significant difference between male and female students' self-efficacy and male students have a higher self-efficacy level than female students ($p<0,05$).

Table 4.2.5. : Analysis of Effect of Living Area on Language Learning Strategies and Self-Efficacy

Living Area		n	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	p
English Self-Efficacy (ESE)	Urban	64	39,98	14,29	**-0,638**	**0,525**
	Rural	58	41,57	13,01		
Metacognitive Strategies (MCS)	Urban	64	24,55	7,74	**-1,273**	**0,206**
	Rural	58	26,12	5,86		
Memory Strategies (MS)	Urban	64	37,86	10,87	**0,883**	**0,379**
	Rural	58	36,12	10,85		
Cognitive Strategies (CogS)	Urban	64	17,34	5,04	**0,389**	**0,698**
	Rural	58	17,00	4,69		
Social Strategies (SS)	Urban	64	25,02	8,71	**-1,184**	**0,239**
	Rural	58	26,91	8,98		
Compensation Strategies (ComS)	Urban	64	14,53	5,94	**0,614**	**0,540**
	Rural	58	13,91	5,08		
Affective Strategies (AS)	Urban	64	17,30	6,18	**0,159**	**0,874**
	Rural	58	17,12	6,06		

The results of independent group t test, which is conducted to identify the differentiation of self-efficacy and language learning strategies according to living area, are presented in the table 5.1.6.

According to the results, there is no significant difference among students who live in urban and rural places regarding their self-efficacy and language learning strategies ($p>0,05$).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Discussion

The main purpose of the study which was conducted twice, to examine high school students' language learning strategy use and how that use is related to their self-efficacy beliefs. The data collected from 324 9th grade students is analyzed and the relation between English self-efficacy and language learning strategy use is investigated. In this chapter, the findings in relation to the research questions will be discussed.

According to results of the former and latter study conducted, it is found out that there is a significant relation between language learning strategies and English self - efficacy. One reason for this finding can be that the students with strong sense of self-efficacy were possibly more motivated, and so put more effort in their strategy use.

Social strategies, metacognitive and cognitive strategies are observed to be used more than other strategies. Their more frequent strategy use also indicates that they were more likely to be more engaged (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003) and more self-regulated in learning processes (Zimmerman, 2000). The evidences outline the role of self-beliefs in the way that learners approach their learning.

Moreover the study confirms Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1993) theory that self-efficacy affects people's behaviours through influencing the way they think, self-motivate, and persist in the face of taxing situations.

In the study it was found out that social strategies, metacognitive and cognitive strategies were used more than other strategies. The results are congruent with many other studies in the field of foreign language teaching context.

The results of the former study revealed that female students use all the language learning strategies more than male students. However, the results of the latter study indicated that male students use memory strategies, cognitive strategies, social strategies and compensation strategies more than female students. On the other hand, it is found out that there is no significant difference between female and male students' metacognitive and affective strategies. Also, Nyikos (1990) found in her study that males used particular strategies more than females. Moreover, Wharton (2000) reported that Singaporean university male students use more strategies than females. Lou (1998) and Peng (2001) found that there was no significant gender difference. Similarly, Shmais (2003) did not find any difference between male and female students in strategy use among university level students.

Comparing the results of the former and latter studies with the other studies in the foreign language-teaching context, it can be considered that a specific gender can not be attributed as a factor that affects the use of language learning strategies.

Another important factor, which has an important role in foreign language learning, is the construct of self-efficacy introduced as part of Social Cognitive Theory by Bandura in 1977. He states that people's levels of motivation were affected by their self efficacy beliefs and described self efficacy as an individual difference and explained it as personal beliefs about one's own capabilities. The findings of the former research indicate that female students' sense of self-efficacy is higher than male students' sense of self-efficacy. The results are congruent with recent study results conducted in private high schools in Mugla (Şener&Kaan, 2017).

On the contrary the results of the latter research revealed that male students' points of self efficacy in English are higher than female students' self efficacy in English.

Rifkin (2000) conducted a large sample study across various institutions in the U.S. and found that learner' beliefs about language learning differ by contextual setting. However, he concluded that individual learner differences such as personality might play a greater role than the factors considered in his study. In other studies, individual

factors such as language proficiency, motivation, anxiety, attitude, and self-efficacy have been found to play a role in language learner beliefs.

One reason for the different results can be the argument of Pajares and Valiante (2002) that they declare gender differences in students' self efficacy and their ability to employ self-regulatory strategies follow gender specific trends as students move through their elementary and secondary year. Thus, gender, solely, cannot be assumed as a certain factor that affects students' sense and level of self-efficacy.

The research results of living area as a factor that affects self-efficacy and use of language learning strategy reveal two different findings. The findings of the former study indicate that there is a significant difference among students who live in urban and rural areas in terms of their self-efficacy and strategy use. In the former study, it is found out that students use all language learning strategies more than the students who live in rural areas. Also, the students who live in urban area have higher self-efficacy than the students who live in rural areas. However, the results of the former study indicated that there are no significant differences among students who live in rural and urban area in terms of self-efficacy and strategy use. Williams and Burden (1997) stated that the development of self-efficacy was a complex phenomenon. Besides Pajares and Valiante (2002) state that confidence and efficacy beliefs tend to change as students' progress through school. To identify the difference between the results of living area factor if it has any impact on self-efficacy beliefs and strategy use studies more investigations should be carried out.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

6.1. Conclusions

Developments in the communication technology strengthen the notion that using English effectively is a very important skill for almost all of the science and professional area. Also, the world becomes more and more globalized day by day. This global world requires a common language understood by all shareholders. English stands like the common language in this era.

Improvement of fruitful English education is also considered. Education is perhaps the most important part of the public goods, thus improvement of quality in this field is fundamental for the public. For a long time, the reasons behind the failure in learning a foreign language have been examined. Language learning strategy use and sense of English self-efficacy are two of the factors that are believed to affect successful language learning. In this study it is aimed to find out the relation between language learning strategy use and sense of self-efficacy.

In chapter 1, the need for English language learning is reviewed. Causes of these needs and the components of good language learning are analyzed. Based on the notions of language learning strategies and self-efficacy, the research questions, purpose and significance of the study are given. In addition to this the assumptions and limitations of the study are given part in this chapter.

However, in chapter 2, literature based on language learning strategies and English self-efficacy is revised. After the literature review, it became clearer that there are several types of language learning strategies but they are all alike in many ways. Besides the definitions of the language learning strategies make a whole when they are integrated to each other. The history of language learning strategies does not go back long ago. More analyses are focused on this concern in the last decade and the number

of the studies conducted in this area increases day by day. In this chapter, many examples of researches conducted previously are compared and the results are utilized. It is found out that the findings of these studies show differences according to variables like the participants' age, living area, culture, time and gender.

Secondly, as significant as the LLS factor, self-efficacy is other phenomena that researchers have drawn attention to recently. In the last decade, the number of self-efficacy researches increased notably. Still researches state that there are many factors, which affect sense of self-efficacy positively or negatively. In chapter 2, the concept of self-efficacy in education is also specified.

In chapter 3, the features of participants, the data collection tools and methods used in the study are described. The study is significant because of it has been repeated for two times in seven years and the results of these two studies showed differences although the variables and target participant groups of both studies are the same.

Also, the data collection instrument, data analysis process and research questions used in the two studies are the same too. The participants in both studies are 9th grade students.

Followed by the chapter 3, in chapter 4, the results are shared. There are some similarities and differences between the results of the two studies. The results of the both studies reveal that there is a significant difference between language learning strategy use and sense of self-efficacy. Other studies conducted in different countries supported this result. Therefore, the connection between self-efficacy and academic success and the connection between strategy use and academic success can be investigated as well. Also, results of the former study show that learning of English and English Self-Efficacy Belief is affected by the gender of the students and their living area. The results is not the same with the results of the latter study. Thus, new studies including students' gender and living area difference may be carried out.

Although the results of the two studies' findings are different in terms of gender factor on language learning strategies, in both results memory and cognitive strategies are identified as the most frequently used strategies. Teachers can help students to improve their other language learning strategies as well.

To identify the impact of gender on language learning strategy use and self-efficacy, female and male students' responses are analyzed. The results of the latter study reveals that female students use all language learning strategies more than male students. Besides, female students have higher self-efficacy in English than male students. However, the results of the former study indicate that male students use language learning strategies more than female students. Moreover, the results reveal that male students have higher self-efficacy than female students.

The living area is also taken into consideration as a possible factor that can affect students' language learning strategy use and their sense of self-efficacy. To determine if living area affects the language learning strategy use and self-efficacy, participants are chosen from urban and rural parts of Edirne. Similarly, the results of the two studies show differences. In the former study, participants from the urban area are found out to use language learning strategies more than the participants who live in rural parts of Edirne. Yet in the latter the results reveal that there are no significant differences between the participants of rural and urban areas in terms of the living area variable.

To sum up according to the study results there is a clear relation between LLS use and sense of self-efficacy. However, there is not a specific gender that can be named to use LLS most. Similarly the living area variable does not show significant difference. The suggestions for a further study or a research will be explained in the suggestions part.

6.2. Suggestions

In this part, some suggestions will be given to the language specialists, researchers or teachers as in the followings:

Suggestions for Researchers

Many studies based on LLS use and self-efficacy have different results when gender is taken as a variable. Some other factors that stimulate students' language learning strategy use and self-efficacy beliefs except from gender and living area should be explored as well. Also, the effect of these factors on academic success in English can be examined.

SWOT Analysis may be developed to examine the opportunities, differences, threats and supporting points for urban and rural living area for the English learning.

In addition to this, teachers' self-efficacy and language learning strategy use during the English classes can be investigated. Briefly, the studies should be continued, expanded and deepened in this field.

Suggestions for Executives

The authorities can add extra guidance hour to English teaching classes of Turkish state high schools' curriculum so that English teachers can identify and handle students' self efficacy beliefs and language learning strategies and students can make reflections about their language learning strategies and sense of self efficacies.

In service training courses including English self-efficacy and language learning strategies topics can be arranged to raise awareness among English teachers.

Suggestions for Teachers

Teachers can organize their lesson plans taking the language learning strategies of students into consideration.

Teachers can design their lesson plans which include activities to raise students' self-efficacy.

Teachers can improve and use different assessment tools and reflection techniques to increase students' sense of self-efficacy.

It is expected that this study can have a contribution to the domains of learning and teaching English as second language, impacts of English self efficacy on learning a foreign language, language learning strategy use and draw attentions of teachers and other researchers.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 SILL

DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ENVANTERİ

Aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyarak, size uygunluk derecesine göre her ifadenin karşısında bulunan seçeneklerden yalnızca birinin içine ✕ koyarak içtenlikle cevaplayınız.

Hiçbir zaman:1 – Nadiren:2 Bazen:3 Çoğu zaman:4 Her zaman:5

		Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman
	BÖLÜM A					
	İngilizce'de yeni öğrendiklerimle bildiklerim arasında ilişki kurarım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlayabilmek için bir cümle içinde kullanırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Kelimeyi hatırlamak için, o kelimenin okunuşu ile hayali yada resmi arasında bağlantı kurarım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Yeni bir İngilizce kelimeyi bu kelimenin olası kullanılabileceği bir durumu zihnimde canlandırarak hatırlarım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için kafiyelerden yaralanırım.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri hatırlamak için not kartlarından yararlanırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri hareket ve mimiklerimle canlandırırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce derslerimi sıklıkla gözden geçiririm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri veya söz öbeklerini, bunların kitap sayfasındaki, tahtadaki veya sokak işaretlerindeki yerlerini aklımda canlandırarak hatırlarım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	BÖLÜM B					
	Yeni İngilizce kelimeleri defalarca söyler ve yazarım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	İngilizce'yi ana dili İngilizce olanlar gibi konuşmaya çalışırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce'nin ses yapısı üzerinde çalışırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Bildiğim İngilizce kelimeleri farklı şekillerde kullanırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Konuşmalara İngilizce başlarım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce TV programları izler ve İngilizce filmlere giderim	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Zevk için İngilizce yayınlar okurum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce notlar, mesajlar, mektuplar veya raporlar yazarım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce bir metine önce göz gezdiririm, sonra dönüp dikkatlice okurum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Ana dilimde İngilizce kelimelere benzer kelimeler ararım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce'deki kalıplaşmış ifadeleri bulmaya çalışırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce bir kelimenin anlamını, onu anlayacağım parçalara bölerek bulurum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Kelime-kelime çeviri yapmamaya çalışırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Dinlediğim yada okuduğum İngilizce herhangi bir şeyin özetini çıkarırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	BÖLÜM C					
	Bilmediğim İngilizce kelimeleri bulmak için tahminler yürütürüm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce bir sohbet sırasında bir kelime aklıma gelmediği zaman, bunu hareketlerle anlatırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce'de doğru kelimeleri bilmiyorsam, yenilerini uydururum	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce bir metin okurken, karşılaştığım her yeni kelimenin anlamı için sözlüğe bakmamayı tercih ederim	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Karşımdaki kişinin İngilizce ne söyleyeceğini tahmin etmeğe çalışırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce bir kelimeyi hatırlayamazsam aynı anlamda başka bir kelime yada ifade kullanırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

		Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğu zaman	Her zaman
	BÖLÜM D					
	İngilizce'mi kullanabileceğim mümkün olduğu kadar çok fırsatlar bulmaya çalışırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce' de yaptığım hataları fark edip, daha başarılı olmak için bu hatalardan yararlanırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Biri İngilizce konuşurken dikkat ederim	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Daha iyi bir İngilizce öğrencisi olmanın yollarını ararım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce çalışmaya yeterli vaktim olması için plan yaparım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce konuşabileceğim insanlar ararım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Mümkün olduğunca çok okumak için fırsat kollarım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce becerilerimi geliştirmek için belirli hedeflerim var	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce'deki ilerleyişim üzerinde düşünürüm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	BÖLÜM E					
	Ne zaman İngilizce'yi kullanmaktan korksam, rahatlamaya çalışırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Hata yapmaktan korktuğum zaman bile kendime İngilizce konuşmak için cesaret veririm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce'de başarılı olduğum zamanlar kendimi ödüllendiririm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce çalışırken veya kullanırken sinirli veya gerginsem bunun farkına varırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Duygularımı İngilizce olarak tuttuğum bir günlüğe yazarım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce öğrenirken hissettiklerimi bir başkasıyla paylaşırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	BÖLÜM F					
	İngilizce konuşulan bir şeyi anlamazsam, konuşandan daha yavaş konuşmasını veya söylediğini tekrar etmesini rica ederim	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Ana dili İngilizce olanlar ile konuşurken hatalarımı düzeltmelerini isterim	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Diğer öğrencilerle İngilizce pratik yaparım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce konuşanlardan yardım isterim	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	İngilizce sorular sorarım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Ana dili İngilizce olanların kültürlerini tanımaya çalışırım	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix 2 MSQL

ÖZ-YETERLİK ALGI ÖLÇEĞİ

Sevgili Katılımcılar,
Aşağıda İngilizce dersi içerisindeki davranışlarınızı tanımlayan 9 madde bulunmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerin size ne derece uyduğunu daire içine alarak belirtiniz. Eğer ifade, size tamamen uyuyorsa '7'yi, hiç uymuyorsa '1'i daire içine alınız. Eğer ifade, size daha az ya da daha fazla uyuyorsa, 1 ile 7 arasında size en iyi ifade eden dereceyi daire içine alınız.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bana hiç uymuyor.						**Bana tamamen uyuyor.**

O1	Sınıftaki diğer öğrenciler ile karşılaştırıldığında, bu derste başarılı olacağımı umuyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
O2	Bu derste öğretilenleri anlayabileceğimden eminim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
O3	Bu derste çok başarılı olmayı umuyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
O4	Bu sınıftaki diğer öğrencilerle karşılaştırıldığında, iyi bir öğrenci olduğumu düşünüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
O5	Bu derste verilen ödevleri ve problemleri çok iyi yapabileceğimden eminim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
O6	Bu derste iyi bir not alacağımı düşünüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
O7	Çalışma becerilerim bu sınıftaki diğer öğrencilerle karşılaştırıldığında, mükemmeldir.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
O8	Bu sınıftaki diğer öğrenciler ile karşılaştırıldığında, çalıştığım konular hakkında daha fazla bilgi sahibi olduğumu düşünüyorum.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
O9	Bu ders ile ilgili konuları öğrenebileceğimden eminim.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Appendix 3

DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİLER ANKETİ

Sevgili Öğrenci,

Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilimdalında yürüttüğüm "Yabanci dil öğrenme stratejileri ve öz yeterlik algısı arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi" başlıklı tez çalışmamın zorunlu bir aşaması olan bu araştırma için sizin bilgi ve görüşlerinize ihtiyaç duyulmuştur. Bu anket formu bireyleri veya kurumları tek tek değil genel bir değerlendirme yapmak için hazırlanmıştır. Vereceğiniz cevaplar yalnızca bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacaktır. Elde edilen cevaplar gizli tutulacak ve bilimsel amaçlar için kullanılacağından tüm soruları içtenlikle yanıtlamanız beklenmektedir. Bu soruları yanıtlarken sizin durumunuz için en uygun olan seçeneğin karşısındaki içine + işareti koyunuz.

Göstereceğiniz ilgi ve tüm yardımlarınız için teşekkür ederim. Saygılarımla,

Mehtap Arslanbuğa

BÖLÜM 1. KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

1) Yaşınız?

1. 14 ve daha küçük 2) 15 3) 16 4) 17 ve üstü

2) Cinsiyetiniz?

1) Kız 2) Erkek

3) Okulunuz?

1) Özel okul 2) Resmi okul

4) Okulunuzun bulunduğu yer?

1.)Şehir (İl merkezi) 2) Kasaba 3) Köy

5)

6) Genel olarak İngilizce başarınız?

1)Çok başarılı 2) Başarılı 3)) Normal 4) Normalin altında bir başarı