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THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE VARIABLES OF
MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS, SOCIAL SELF ESTEEM AND
EFFICACY, SPEAKING ANXIETY AND STRATEGIES FOR EFL IN
TURKEY AND BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

PhD Dissertation
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TURKEY AND BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA



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ABSTRACT

English language teaching and learning are complex processes influenced by lots of educational factors, variables and determinants. In the research, some crucial factors have been examined: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, social self-esteem, English language speaking anxiety as well as learning strategies for English language.

Our sample consists of 402 participants. There are 228 females and 174 males in our sample. Both international high school and university students in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Turkish students studying in Turkey at tertiary level have been sampled. Several sociodemographic factors such as socioeconomic situation, participants' place of living whether with their families, friends or dormitory, their ages, family size, their families' incomes and the number of their social club membership have been taken into account. Adequate univariate, bivariate, multivariate statistical procedures and some psychometrical techniques have been conducted in order to test reliability and validity of our instruments (measures).

Strong positive and statistically significant correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have been revealed in the research. Self-efficacy, social self-esteem and usage of learning strategies correlated positively with each other whereas English language speaking anxiety and extrinsic motivation had strong negative relationships with the mentioned variables. Turkish students were found to be more intrinsically motivated than Bosnian students from Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Turkish students also tended to score higher on self-efficacy and social self-esteem scales as well as to score lower on speaking anxiety scale. However, the differences in their average scores were not statistically significant. Bosnian and Turkish students did not differ in the usage of learning strategies. Furthermore, there were significant differences in all variables with regard to students' place of living: students who lived in dormitories or with their friends were socially more confident, self-efficient and intrinsically motivated than the students who lived with their families during high school or university attendance. Gender differences in none of the above mentioned variables have been gotten. In addition, differences between high school and university students were not statistically significant. It has also been confirmed that students' social club(s) membership can be predicted based on our main quantitative variables (e.g. intrinsic motivation, social self-esteem, English language learning strategies). Some contributions of this research have been highlighted and several ideas and topics were provided for farther researches in this field.

Keywords: Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, speaking anxiety, social self-esteem, self-efficacy, language learning strategies, communicative competence, second language acquisition, intercultural competence, EFL, L2, ELT, CLT, SLA, CLIL, ESP, EAP.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this PhD Dissertation titled ...The Relationships Among the Variables of Motivational Factors, Social Self Esteem and Efficacy, Speaking Anxiety and Strategies for EFL in Turkey and Bosnia and Herzegovina ... is based on my original work except quotations and citations which have been duly acknowledged. I also declare that this dissertation has not been previously or concurrently submitted for the award of any degree, at International Burch University, any other University or Institution.

Signature

Hakan AYDOĞAN

March 04, 2016

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT – Communicative Language Teaching
EAP - English for Academic Purpose
EFL – English as a Foreign Language
EIL – English as an International Language
ELT – English Language Teaching
ESL – English as a Second Language
ESP - English for Specific Purpose
IEP – Intensive English Program
SLA – Second Language Acquisition
TOEFL – Test of English as a Foreign Language
ANOVA – The Analysis of Variance
AUC – Area Under ROC Curves
C – Median (central point of a set of data)
CCA – The Canonical Correlational Analysis
df – Degrees of freedom
F – Value of F- ratio
K-S Z – Kolmogorov-Smirnov's statistic z
M – Average Value (arithmetic mean)
MRA – The Multiple Regression Analysis
MS – Mean Square or Variance (in ANOVA)
N – Sample size
n – Subsample size
p – The significance level of a particular test
R – Coefficient of Multiple Correlation
 R^2 – Coefficient of Multiple Determination
r – Pearson's Coefficient of Correlation
 r^2 – Coefficient of Determination

R_C – Coefficient of Canonical Correlation

ROC – The Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve

SD – Standard Deviation

SE – Standard Error

SE_M – Standard Error of Mean

$SE_{\Delta M}$ – Standard Error of Mean Difference

SS – Sum of Squares in ANOVA

t – The value of t-statistic

α – Cronbach's coefficient of reliability

β – Standardized regression coefficient

ΔM – Difference between two arithmetic means

EME - English-Medium Education/English-Mediated Education

EMI - English as a/the Medium of Instruction

EGAP - English for General Academic Purposes

ESAP - English for Specific Academic Purposes



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

To begin, linguistics applied to English language is described with main contributors and their theories. Secondly, some previous researches on English language teaching are provided. This part of the dissertation also covers main theories, classifications and studies about: motivational factors, social self-esteem, self-efficacy, speaking anxiety, and learning strategies.

1.1 ENGLISH LANGUAGE LINGUISTICS

Linguistics, as a scientific discipline which studies language can be divided into lots of subfields such as: phonology, morphology, semantics, semiotics, syntax, orthography, lexicology and pragmatics etc. Cognitive linguistics (e.g. Evans & Green, 2006), quantitative linguistics (e.g. Haitao & Wei, 2012), and generative linguistics (e.g. Chomsky, 1965) can also be referred.

According to Adele E. Goldberg (2003), one of the main linguistic topics is called *constructions*. They include: words, filled and partially filled idioms, morphemes, complex words, ditransitive constructions, covariational-conditional constructions and passive forms. These are functional forms and patterns in language such as English. Some of them are difficult to understand for beginners (i.e. for students who start to learn English languages). The example are idioms. Idioms can be composed of words which individual meaning is (or could be) different from the total meaning of the idiom.

For example, English language learners who are beginners in this activity can hardly understand idioms such as those cited by Norbert Schmitt (2000, p. 1): "kick the bucket", "bite the dust", and "give up the ghost".

Those idioms mean "to die" or "pass away". These students can also have problems with understanding phrasal verbs, such as: "break down", "give up" and "cut back on" etc.

Students can also have difficulty facing metaphors in English language. George P. Lakoff (1993) listed five misunderstandings of the dichotomy metaphorical-literal:

1. All subject matter and materials can be comprehended without metaphor (i.e. only literally).
2. All everyday (usual) language is only literal (i.e. not metaphorical).
3. All definitions from language lexicons are literal (i.e. not metaphorical).
4. Only literal (and not metaphorical) language can be contingently false or true.
5. All concepts used in the language grammars are literal (i.e. there are not any metaphorical concepts).

Therefore, learners must be ready to accept that every language is a mixture of literal and metaphorical meaning and, with help provided by teacher, they have to deal with specific lexical forms.

The verb position within a sentence can be one of the main problems for foreign language learners. Ian Roberts (1993) analysed examples from English, French and German language where the order of other sentence constituents, compared to the place of a verb is different. He claims that comparative research in linguistics must always consider cross-linguistic variations. Syntactic position of different word types is one of the many examples which undermine theories on Universal Grammar (UG) structures.

Vivian Cook (1974) wrote on language acquisition process. The first step is primary linguistic data (samples of actual speech) and the last step is the output (generative grammar and linguistic competence). A good linguistic theory has to be explanatory and adequate. She discussed the model which includes multiple stages of language acquisition. For instance, children hear some speech and assimilate it while they consequently form grammar schemes. Then, they use their knowledge (language performance). When they become older, they hear more speeches. Based on the new

experience, they correct and widen their grammar schemes and so on (Cook, 1974). This model on new English language learners can be applied especially to those whose mother tongue grammar is very different from English grammar.

Noam Chomsky, a prominent linguist, proposed the most outstanding theory of language acquisition. According to him (Chomsky, 1965), we are born with some linguistic abilities which he called *language acquisition device* (LAD). This innate ability includes some degree of recognition of syntactic relationships within a sentence (e.g. Chomsky, 1957). He also claimed that deep structure of all spoken languages is similar. Other features of language are learned through our cognitive and social developments. He also underlined the study of the grammatical sentences which are typical for (English) native speakers.

Azamat Akbarov (2010), highlighted and discussed the importance of relationship between grammar and other language and contextual components/functions: meaning, discourse, and social function. He provided illustrative examples for each of the mentioned components and links. Therefore, it can be said that learning and teaching foreign languages are some kind of intercultural and socioeducational transactions between teachers, students and teaching materials.

Mark C. Baker (2003) claimed that unrelated languages such as Japanese, Mohawk, and English are superficially different because there is a small number of "parameters" which defines them differently. In fact, they vary slightly because most of the language structure is universal, but sentence structures are formed in a different way. The variations across almost all languages in the world can be explained by only few of those "parameters" (or discrete choices). However, the basic, "universal machinery" of language is the same (Baker, 2003).

Steven Arthur Pinker (2005), a famous cognitive and experimental psychologist, discussed on mind-specializations (cognitive modularity). He claims that mind theory should lead to the direction of finding and describing subcomponents of general abilities, emotions and affections etc. He considers language and audition as a product of specialized mental machinery: timbre and pitch, egocentric and allocentric frames of reference, nouns and verbs etc.). He also claims that children

learn spoken language instinctively because of impact of the evolutionary heritage. On the other hand, they learn written language with difficulty and effort because it is in some way imposed and socially-constructed.

Ronald Wayne Langacker (1986) provided another cognitive approach. He coined the term *cognitive grammar*. According to him, language can only be described referring to cognitive processes and meaning is equivalent to conceptualization. This author also claims that syntax, morphology, and grammar must be considered together. In other words, they are not separated from each other and they consisted of different symbolic elements (Langacker, 1986).

Norbert Schmitt (2000) made a distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. The first one (also called *passive knowledge*) refers to understanding the meaning of words whereas the second one (*productive or active knowledge*) can be defined as producing words spontaneously in spoken and written language. Therefore, we can know the meaning of some words (without using them in everyday conversations) or we can frequently use them while speaking and writing.

William Labov (1972) wrote on the key features of methodology used to study language speaking styles. His findings, based on empirical studies of speech records, could be summarized as follows:

- 1) Speaking styles depend on attention paid to speech (the important factor is audio-monitoring, which is about monitoring own speech or listening to speech of others; this finding was supported by observational methods, studying interview situations and experimental methods).
- 2) There are no single style language speakers (the linguistic forms of speakers can vary across situations, topics, interlocutors and social contexts).
- 3) The most systematic data for linguistic analysis can be found in dialects, slangs and vernaculars (these non-standard varieties of language are mostly spoken during pre-adolescent period and they can be more regular and authentic than standard language styles).

- 4) Face-to-face interviews are the best ways of getting true quality for recorded speech (this is a type of systematic observation method which can be used as a mean for obtaining data suitable for quantitative analysis).
- 5) On the other hand, systematic observation of a speaker can produce higher levels of attention paid to speech (that is, these set of methods do not provide records of spontaneous speeches in spite of speaker's friendliness or his/her relaxedness.

Kathleen Bardovi-Harlig (1996) researched besides other topics, cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics and its place in educational context. She underlines that research in this field has yielded several results on differences between first- and foreign-language learners in their ways to acquire the target language:

- a. Differences in their choice of semantic formulas;
- b. Differences in the content of those semantic formulas;
- c. Differences in the usage of speech acts; and
- d. Differences in the form of those speech acts.

Furthermore, it seems that foreign language learners construct or spontaneously invent some patterns in their second language speaking and writing habits. One of those patterns is non-native grammar. Non-native grammars are also called interlanguage grammars (White, 2003). According to Lydia White (2003) second language (L2) learners, at the beginning, speak with some mistakes which are not random (i.e. they are systematic) and their speeches are to some extent influenced by universal grammar rules (i.e. by a sort of "genetic blueprint" for the notion what grammar can and cannot be like). But, it must be underlined that they are not completely caused by these rules. This reputable author also indicates three sources of crosslinguistic variations (White, 2003):

- a. Features of a specific functional category may vary from language to language.
- b. Some functional categories are present in some languages whereas others are not.
- c. Features can vary in their strength from language to language. They can yield different syntactic consequences.

In addition to the previous consideration, R. W. Langacker (1986, p. 13) wrote: "Because languages differ in their grammatical structure, they differ in the imagery that speakers employ when conforming to linguistic convention." Hence, cognitive and imagination habits (and their contents) of different language speakers are not the same. However, non-native English speakers can change their language mental schemes by using cognitive processes such as assimilation and accommodation.

Second language learners correct and adjust their language knowledge and skills by using *the conscious Monitor*. Stephen Krashen (1982) wrote on this and he identified three types of people based on the usage of "the conscious monitor":

- a. *Monitor under-users* (they do not want to be corrected while speaking foreign language; they rely on their feelings for correctness e.g. something is correct because it sounds right);
- b. *Monitor over-users* (they constantly check their foreign language speaking performance and they are always aware of their conscious knowledge); and
- c. *Optimal Monitor users* (they use their conscious Monitor when it is necessary and appropriate; this usage does not slow down the communication, it rather improves verbal interaction between interlocutors).

Krashen (1982) also stated that we, as teachers, need to make our students optimal Monitor users. That is because Monitor over-users are prone to perfectionism and cannot maintain communication on foreign language. On the other hand, Monitor under-users do not like feedback and probably will not try to improve their foreign language speaking performance.

We come to the conclusion that there are very useful models of both language acquiring and learning. However, language possesses the feature called discrete infinity and language has different functions. We cannot study the total language production because there are lots of its varieties. Besides that, the process of language learning can be investigated as well as being improved.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

English language teaching or training (ELT) is a process where teacher/lecturer transfers his knowledge and skills to students/candidates. These knowledge units and specific skills are related to English language learning. More precisely, students must be taught to learn, to read, to speak and to write in English, as well as to acquire English vocabulary, grammar and spelling/orthography.

This process can be very difficult working with students who have just started to learn English. The students whose mother tongue is not English are meant by this. These are called English as a second language (ESL) students (e.g. Alberta Education, 2009). Their mother tongue probably does not include grammar or pronunciation rules similar to those in English language. Therefore, teachers have to be flexible, tolerant and dedicated to their students. On the other hand, students usually come with different backgrounds and from various sociopolitical environments. The teacher's role and his main task is to understand individual differences and manage them adequately in the classroom environment.

Nowadays, English language is considered not only and primarily as a second or foreign language, but as a legitimate international language (EIL – English as an International Language; e.g. Garcia, 2013). This is related to immigration and globalisation processes, which are contemporary trends at the international level. Lourdes Ortega (2013) discussed second language acquisition (SLA) in modern times.

He claims that it must be transdisciplinary based (different scientific disciplines can contribute to reaching common goals as well as to critically evaluate the findings from other disciplines). He also underlines the importance of studies where bilingualism and multilingualism are researched. It can help us to better understand ontology of our language and to adequately design language education in the 21st century.

Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) examined the benefits and effectiveness of a college Intensive English Program (IEP). The main aim of this program is to develop students' basic interpersonal communication skills and cognitive academic language proficiency. These social and mental skills, as the part of English proficiency, are important for e.g. passing TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). These authors highlighted the contribution of such programs and learning methods to improve students' level of English, where English is second/foreign language for them.

Teachers/educators also have to motivate their students or to develop self-motivation strategies among them. Educational self-efficacy is one of the most desirable traits which should be developed in students. The other traits are general and social self-esteem which is closely related to one's own self-image. Moreover, the lecturer is responsible for introducing effective learning strategies to his/her students. He/she has to teach them how to learn. That is really a very important educational outcome. In English language teaching, it is also important to create a positive classroom atmosphere and to reduce speaking anxiety among students. Students should feel that they are supported by their teachers and accepted by their peers/classmates.

Creativity is a very important characteristic of contemporary educators/teachers. According to Pishghadam, Baghaei, and Shayesteh (2012), who developed English Language Teacher Creativity Scale (ELT-CS), educators' creativity has seven components (or aspects):

- a) Autonomy;
- b) Originality and elaboration;
- c) Fluency and flexibility (i.e. divergent thinking process and activities);
- d) Presentation of interesting press & materials to their students;

- e) Motivation (creative teachers can motivate themselves and elicit motivation among their students);
- f) Brain storming (a technique of producing, considering and testing different ideas with students in their classroom); and
- g) Personality features (traits, attitudes, characteristics, and charisma as a mixture of distinctive and original personality traits).

In the research conducted by Arslan and Akbarov (2012), students mostly agreed that English is an interesting language to learn. However, most of their participants (university students) do not prefer English to other school subjects (academic courses). Additionally, they feel confident when they speak and write in English and these students also think that English will be useful in their future jobs. As expected, most students agree that using English facilitates communication and interaction with the outside world and international institutions (Arslan & Akbarov, 2012). On the other hand, lots of students are not familiar with some basic English terms from their occupational fields and they want them in the syllabus. They want to have classes in which English terms from their occupational field are studied. But, students do not want that those classes are obligatory (Arslan & Akbarov, 2012).

Another study reveals students' attitudes and beliefs towards specific aspects of learning English language. This is the research which was conducted by Bernat and Lloyd (2007) on 262 students who were enrolled in one of the academic English programs. First, they did not find out the existence of gender differences in these beliefs. However, their results suggest that students think that:

- a) It is harder for adults than for children to learn a foreign language such as English.
- b) Some languages are easier to learn than the others.
- c) There are some students who have special abilities and skills for learning foreign languages.
- d) Despite the previous belief, everyone can learn to speak foreign language such as English.
- e) People who speak more than one language (e.g. other languages rather than their mother tongue) are perceived as very intelligent.

Additionally, most participants agree that English is a moderately difficult language to learn and use. Most of them also think that they possess medium levels of abilities required for learning English language. Lots of them agree that people from their countries have moderately developed abilities and skills for learning English language (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007).

Rieger (2009) conducted her research on 109 students who attended master's program at one of the Hungarian universities. She applied Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory and calculated average values for five categories of beliefs about English language learning. Students from her sample believe that the most important thing in learning English language is practicing with authentic materials. Motivation and expectations of learners are at the second place whereas types of learning and teaching approaches are third-ranked. The two aspects which are the least ranked are language aptitude and English language level of difficulty.

Douglas and Selinker (1992) conducted a study which was about students' performance on language proficiency tests. They made a distinction between field-specific and general tests of speaking proficiency. They wrote on oral interlanguage experience as well as on different factors which have impact on students' speaking proficiency during oral tests (i.e. test environment): physical conditions, personnel, organization, level of precision, time, instructions and propositional content. Their conclusions were defined in the following direction:

- 1) Changes in students' interlanguage performance can be influenced by any factor which is changed by test constructors;
- 2) Field-specific tests should be constructed by manipulating test (exam) environment, instructions, and technical and subtechnical language (with context embedded discourse);
- 3) Talk (speech) produced by students who take field-specific oral exams is not necessarily more complex or more targeted than it is in general knowledge exams.
- 4) There should be conducted grammatical and rhetorical analysis in order to discern these formal mistakes from the content (field-specific) mistakes.

Therefore, oral exams in language learning can yield subjective assessment of students' English knowledge and skills. This subjective estimates can cause students' dissatisfaction with English and speaking anxiety. This is especially the case among those learners who try to comprehend field-specific subject and materials from different scientific areas (while they are beginners in learning English as well as in taking exams in English): e.g. learning sociology and answering teachers' questions in English.

Gonen & Aydoğar, et al. (2014) conducted their research on 102 native and non-native English language teachers. Their results revealed that lots of teachers think that they should inform students of the reasons why they are being assessed and should explicitly instruct their students on how to do assessment. In addition, teachers agree that immediate feedback should be given to the students/learners.

What do teachers think about English language teaching and learning? Tercanlioglu (2005) conducted a research among 118 pre-service EFL teachers (most of these teachers were females). Horwitz's Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (also known as BALLI) was administered. This inventory consisted of five subscales:

- 1) The nature of language learning;
- 2) Learning and communication strategies;
- 3) The difficulty of language learning;
- 4) Foreign language aptitude; and
- 5) Motivations and expectations to learn foreign language (such as English).

This author did not find gender differences in beliefs about language learning and teaching. However, the highest scores were for motivational, expectational beliefs, and the beliefs on the nature of language learning. Beliefs about learning and communication strategies were at the third place in ranking whilst beliefs about foreign language aptitude and the difficulty of language learning were the last ranked categories of teachers' beliefs about language learning and teaching (Tercanlioglu, 2005).

According to Paul Nation (2013), teachers/educators should possess five key features or have to do five key activities in order to successfully teach English vocabulary:

- 1) Properly plans and provides well-balanced course and lessons;

- 2) Trains the students in the most useful vocabulary learning strategies;
- 3) Organises learning opportunities and exercises inside and outside the classroom;
- 4) Teaches vocabulary to his/her students; and
- 5) Tests the learners/students.

First, teacher should insist on learning high frequency words and then has to help students to develop strategies for acquiring low frequency words. It is not effective to learn the low frequency words separately. They can be comprehended by using vocabulary learning strategies such as: mnemonic techniques, guessing the meaning from context and using vocabulary cards in order to remember the meaning of those words (Nation, 1990).

Bardovi-Harlig (1996) underlines the importance of teaching regarding to students' needs with administering proper pedagogical materials (i.e. input stimuli). Teachers should facilitate the development of pragmatic competence among their students (therefore, to show pragmatic awareness). They also have to set goals at the beginning of the course (or lesson).

Diana Larsen-Freeman (2008) in her book *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching* made a list of language teaching techniques:

- 1) *Grammar-translation method* (it is a classical teaching method, firstly used in teaching classical languages such as Latin and Greek; the educational outcome of this technique is good knowledge of vocabulary and grammar whereas speaking English and using it in daily communication is disregarded);
- 2) *Direct method* (it is not allowed to translate words and sentences and communicating in English is underlined; this method is better than the first method but it is also an old approach to teaching language);
- 3) *Audio-lingual (Michigan) method* (it is an oral-based approach, which incorporates the knowledge from structural linguistics and behavioural psychology; students are encouraged and reinforced to acquire foreign language grammar patterns and not to use their native language grammar rules and forms);

- 4) *The Silent method* (this teaching technique transfers learning process to students and learners become more responsible for their comprehension of language knowledge and skills; this method is based on cognitive and structural approach, as well as on Chomsky's ideas on rule and habit formation);
- 5) *Suggestopedia* (this method includes elimination or reduction of negative affective states in students which can help them to overcome their foreign language speaking barrier);
- 6) *Community language learning* (it is based on affective-humanistic approach where teachers are in the role of "language counselors"; they support, accept and understand students in their way to internalize foreign language);
- 7) *Natural method* (students are targetly exposed to the English language used by its native speakers in order to comprehend basic communication skills)...

Other teaching methods are also based on humanistic psychology and pedagogy and on learning foreign language in a context. Larsen-Freeman (2008) highlighted the importance of teaching methods and outcomes which lead not only to mastering linguistic structures but rather to using English genuinely outside the classroom.

Jack Richards (2006), an internationally recognized name who gave contribution to language teaching methods, identified the following three phases of language teaching:

- A. Traditional approaches (till late 1960s);
- B. Classic communicative language teaching – CLT (1970s – 1990s); and
- C. Current (contemporary, modern) communicative language teaching (late 1990s to nowadays).

This author provided a list of teaching duties and principles while applying communicative language teaching (Richards, 2006): the focus of language learning is real communication; teachers should be tolerant of students' speaking errors (these errors are allowed because they are steps to achieving communicative competence); teachers should provide opportunities for learners to experiment with language; it is

recommended to let students discover grammar rules on their own; teachers should provide opportunities for students to develop fluency and accuracy; and it is recommended to link reading, listening, writing and speaking activities together.

The contemporary educational paradigm highlights the student-centered learning which has impact on English language learning (De Segovia & Hardison, 2008). This reform, relevant to English teaching lead to giving the priority to students' speaking skills and their active engagement in educational process. Educators should encourage learners' activities which are individual and self paced. Students should work on their own knowledge, skills and abilities whereas teachers professionally have to support them.

Communicative language teaching (CLT), which is a form of learner-centered approach pointed out the following claims (De Segovia & Hardison, 2008):

- a) The promotion of interaction and cooperative learning (by using pair and group work);
- b) The central role of learners/students in the learning process;
- c) An emphasis on searching for meaning versus just rote learning;
- d) Teachers' recognition of individual/idiosyncratic differences among students;
- e) Teachers are seen as facilitators of learning activities whilst students are actively engaged in this process; and
- f) Teachers have to present language forms and contents in context in order to help students to learn and to use language more effectively.

This paradigm includes the authenticity of learning subjects and materials i.e. there are authentic tasks, authentic class climate and atmosphere, authentic learner and authentic teacher (Trabelsi, 2014). In this context, authenticity refers to original English materials and teachers whose mother tongue is English (i.e. English native speakers). It is not always feasible, but we must aspire to this educational/learning ideal.

Nina Spada, a very famous theorist and researcher in second language teaching, defines communicative language teaching (CLT) as follows: "CLT is a meaning-based, learner-centered approach to L2 teaching where fluency is given priority over

accuracy and the emphasis is on comprehension and production of messages, not the teaching or correction of language form" (Spada, 2007, p. 272).

The popular approach to teaching English language is *Task-based language teaching* (TBLT). It implies purposeful and functional use of language and transforming every lesson or learning unit to a particular task for students.

William Littlewood (2004) identified two dimensions of learning tasks. The first is the continuum between focus on forms and focus on meaning. It is divided into several sections (the first sections are close to focus on forms whereas the last sections are near the focus of meaning): non-communicative learning, pre-communicative language practice, communicative language practice, structured communication, and authentic communication. The second one is the degree of students' involvement when working on a task.

According to Rod Ellis (2009), each learning activity must satisfy the following criteria in order to be labeled as "a task":

- 1) Students have to rely on their own knowledge and information resources, in order to complete this task (those resources can be both linguistic and non-linguistic);
- 2) The main focus of this teaching method should be on pragmatic and semantic meaning of words, utterances, and idioms;
- 3) Language has to serve as an instrument for achieving different outcomes, which does not need to be only educational.
- 4) Teachers should encourage their students to express their opinions and to independently find out the meaning of a particular word or utterance).

As can be concluded, this teaching approach (i.e. TBLT) is a non-traditional and unconventional method of teaching English language. The old teaching techniques, such as learning word by word, negligence of speaking aspect of language and insisting only on grammar acquisition are obsolete and outdated. Hence, students react positively on challenging, realistic, achievable and specific school/academic tasks and exercises. Some of them want school tasks to be practical and applicable. Other students like tasks which are related to abstract topics and concepts.

Arslan, Akbarov, and Baştuğ (2011) indicated that usage of visual aids in foreign language teaching is very important. It speeds up and facilitates the learning process through raising students' motivation and through stimulating their senses. These visual aids are (Arslan, Akbarov, & Baştuğ, 2011):

- a) video;
- b) television;
- c) computer;
- d) picture and flash cards;
- e) course books;
- f) boards (black, white, or smart); and
- g) posters.

Making a step forward, Gönen and Akbarov (2014) investigated usage of modern digital devices among students. They focused their research on applying mobile technologies not only in self-directed informal learning but in the formal academic context. The attitude of those researchers toward the usage of these innovative technologies is positive. They think that instructors have to "integrate these innovative technologies into the curriculum with sound facilitation and assessment strategies as well as being able to support the mobile practices of students" (Gönen and Akbarov, 2014).

When it comes to issue of exploring Instructors' perceptions relating to the implementation of classroom-based language assessment, interesting study has been conducted by Gönen and Akbarov (2015). The findings of the questionnaire were analyzed statistically with the understanding that the Instructors usually exercise their own beliefs concerning classroom-based language assessment (Gönen and Akbarov, 2015).

Because learning processes should be in accordance with learners' needs and habits, contemporary teachers have to adjust their lessons to students' preferences and attitudes as well as their way of learning. In other words, teachers should be digitally sensitive and trained to adequately fulfill learners' educational needs (Doğan & Akbarov, 2016).

In this dissertation, the complex relations between some series of educationally-relevant variables and factors are going to be examined. These variables (contributors) can be considered as causes, predictors or input factors for English language learning outcomes. They can also be in a role of mediators or moderating-variables. Finally, these variables could be considered as influenced by English language learning outcomes (e.g. getting low grade can decrease one's self-esteem, motivation, and self-efficacy).

The network which includes these determinants and factors is very broad and deep, therefore, talking about educational processes and activities does not mean strict mathematical description of the studied system. It is rather an empirical attempt to make a plausible model of a social phenomenon such as the process of education.

CHAPTER 3

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS

This part considers definitions of motivation, main theories and researches in this field. The importance of motivational factors in educational sciences and more precisely in foreign/second language learning and teaching will also be underlined.

3.1. Definitions and theoretical frameworks of motivation

Motivation can be defined as a collection of processes, factors, situations as well as internal and external rewards which influence one's behaviour and performance. Some of those factors are common for all people (food, water, secure home place, relationships etc.) and some of them are individually specific (e.g. a particular reward that someone perceives as his reward; a special urge or need which someone must meet at that particular moment and similar). Motivation is about drives, desires, needs, aspirations and goals of behavior (e.g. Cofer & Appley, 1967; Atkinson & Birch, 1970; Deci, 1975).

Brown (2000) provided three approaches (views, paradigms) in the study of motivation:

- a) *Behavioristic* (it includes: external forces, reward anticipation, and positive and negative reinforcement);
- b) *Constructivist* (this is the matter of: social context, interactive forces which control and impact one's behaviour, social status, group affiliation, and community); and
- c) *Cognitive* (internal forces by which a person is driven to explore his/her environment, acquire knowledge and manipulate/change the environment).

Furthermore, this author divides cognitive needs into several categories: the need for manipulation, the need for exploration, the need for activity, the need for knowledge, the need for stimulation and the need for ego enhancement (Brown, 2000).

Lots of researchers in psychology and educational studies have provided their own theories of motivation. Some of them are empirically based and the other theories have been pragmatically founded. The most famous theory have been created by Abraham Maslow (1943), a humanistic psychologist. Its title is: "The theory of hierarchial human needs". It has been designed as a pyramid of human needs/motives. The most basic needs are those of survival and of the basic instincts (feeding, drinking, sexual instinct, sleeping). On the next step, there are needs related to one's own security (having safe and protected home, having good health and stable life). The next cluster of needs, according to Maslow (1943), are those of relations to others and of social acceptance (group affiliation, loving and being loved). On the fourth step, there are self-esteem, dignity, self-respect, the respect obtained by others) and at the top of the pyramid is self-actualisation (to realize and achieve our potentials and talents). The concise review of this theory is shown in figure below.

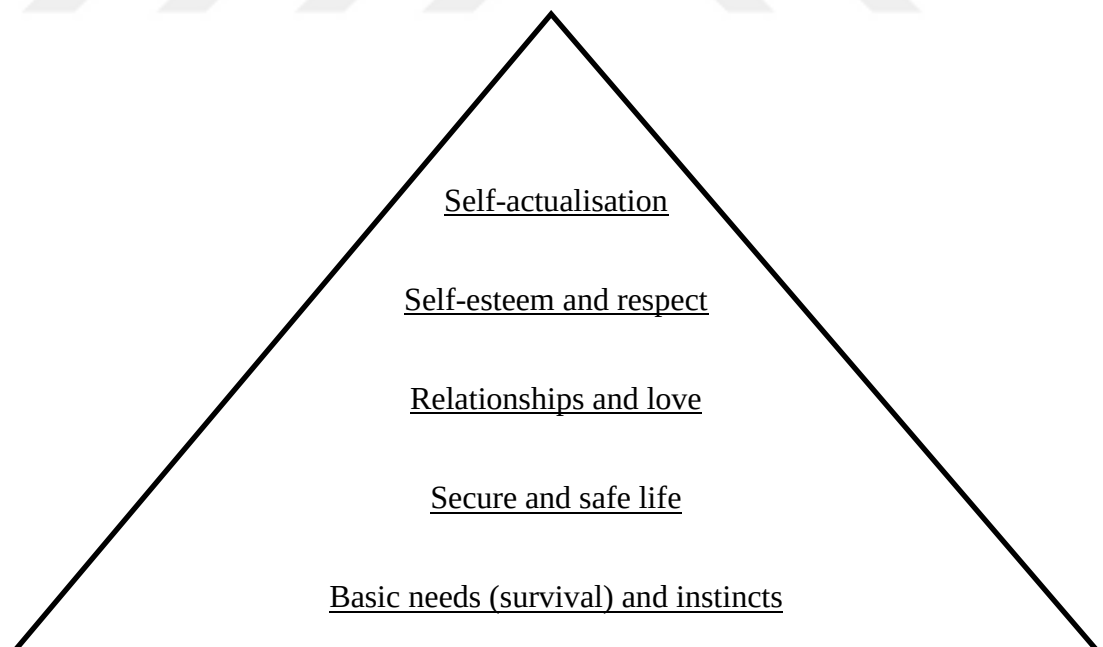


FIGURE 3.1 Maslow's pyramid of human needs (based on Maslow, 1943)

Other theorists have emphasized higher needs which differ us from animals. They consider basic needs only as our instincts. One of the most prominent theories of motivation is the one which has been proposed by Deci and Ryan (1995). It is called "Self-determination theory" (SDT). This theoretical framework considers three psychological needs which are connected to each other:

- a) competence,
- b) autonomy, and
- c) relatedness.

These needs are, according to Ryan and Deci (2000a; Deci & Ryan, 1995), innate and universal for all humans. The sense of competence is related to one's feeling that s/he is a successful, smart and capable person. Those persons have high self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-confidence. They believe that they can act effectively and achieve the goals which they have set. Autonomy is a need for freedom and people who think that they meet this need and feel that they have free choices to decide in their own lives. Relatedness is a motive which can be defined as Maslow's need for love and building relationships.

This theory is very useful in educational context because of its simplicity and wide application potential. However, its comprehensiveness is really questionable. We may wonder: "Does SDT include all main motivational factors relevant to starting and maintaining human behaviour?"

A psychiatrist William Glasser (1990, 1998) proposed reality theory which included the consideration of five human needs (the first one is basic and the others are psychological needs):

- a) basic/survival needs (hunger, sex, place for living, security);
- b) the need for freedom/autonomy;
- c) the need for love, belonging and affiliation (making relationships and group membership);
- d) the need for power/competence (dominance, authority, ability and respect); and
- e) the need for fun (enjoying various situations and activities).

According to Glasser (1990), students should be allowed to meet their needs in classroom. They should be safe in school, schoolyard and on the road from home to school. They should also be allowed to express their free wills and choices without violating the freedom of other classmates. Students can be members of different groups and have various interests. They should also have some fun in schools or universities. The school matter and teaching materials have to be interesting and to encourage: creativity, commitment as well as free expression of students' opinions and attitudes. If students are able and allowed to meet their psychological needs in educational context, they will be satisfied and will have positive attitudes towards their schools or universities.

Glasser's theory is the most popular framework of contemporary pedagogy and educology. It is simple, accurate, logical and can be well understood even by elementary school students. This author also identified processes which are under our conscious control – thinking and behaviour (action). On the other hand, emotions and physiology could not be as controlled as the previous two processes (Glasser, 1998). Therefore, teachers have to be aware of this notion and to act accordingly. Students do not like to be forced to do something. They must feel that they have a choice to act in some direction. Besides, students can tell their teacher that they will try to improve their behaviours (if it is inappropriate or inadequate). This is a recommended pattern, because otherwise (e.g. when student says he/she will certainly fix his/her behaviour), student can possibly fail to meet expectations of his/her teacher. The basic "axiom" in Glasser's choice theory is: "The only person whose behaviour can be controlled is our own behaviour" (Glasser, 1998).

As can be noticed, Glasser's theory is based on: human free will, the perception of choice and flexible change which are the factors that motivate a person (student) to make some positive change (e.g. to become more dedicated and successful student).

Frederick Herzberg has proposed the *Two-factor theory of motivation*. Regarding to this theoretical approach, motivational factors can be divided into two categories (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959):

- A. *Hygiene factors* (in educational context, those factors are: the safety of school environment, having enough money to pay for education, regular

maintenance of school/university lessons, regular attendance to school/university lessons; studying conditions etc.) and

- B. *Motivators* (the possibility to be creative and effective in school environment; receiving challenging tasks and exercises; the opportunity to be recognized as successful and prominent student; the opportunity to enhance own knowledge and use it in different contexts...).

The second category of motivational factors (the motivators) influences one's own happiness and his/her satisfaction with school/educational environment. If the first cluster of factors (the hygiene factors) is absent, students/learners are not happy and they do not feel emotionally fulfilled. On the other hand, if hygiene factors are present, students usually perceive them as normal, common and conventional (e.g. Repišti, 2013). That is, they do not lead to greater levels of subjective happiness.

Nowadays, we are trying to design educational environment to be safe, encouraging and supportive for both students and teachers. Despite this, some teachers do not know how to provide the classroom climate and atmosphere which is stimulating for students in order to express their own personality, talents, interests, values and abilities. As can be discerned, there is the problem with motivators, not with hygiene factors.

Another theory relevant for explaining motivation in education has been formulated in industrial/organizational psychology. This is the *Job characteristics theory* (e.g. Hackman & Oldham, 1980). This theory will be considered in educational/learning context. Hence, these theorists identified and described the following five key features in classroom environment:

- 1) *Task identity* (the place of the task in the larger project or school assignment i.e. to which extent it contributes to more general school activity/exercise);
- 2) *Task significance/Activity importance* (the significance of a school task to children's, adolescents' and students' lives and their academic performance);

- 3) *Task/skill variety* (the extent to which a particular school task or assignment requires the use of various abilities, capabilities, skills, strategies, talents and approaches);
- 4) *Task feedback* (the quality of received information and estimations from teachers; feedback must be accurate, task-specific, realistic, well-defined and performance-oriented); and
- 5) *Autonomy* (freedom and independence needed for working at a particular school task or for doing a particular activity which is assigned to a student).

If these five features of school tasks are present, students will feel that they study and learn in appropriate educational environments. Furthermore, these positive conditions will increase their performance and academic achievements. In addition, Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed motivating potential score which can be calculated when we multiply these features to each other: autonomy, task feedback and the sum of activity/task significance, task/skill variety and task identity.

To summarize, referring to the previously described and explained theories, some main categories of students' motivation can be listed:

- 1) *Physiological* needs (in school, students need a rest and a break in order to eat and drink something as well as to refresh themselves);
- 2) Need for *safety and security* (students/learners want to have safe learning environment and to some extent unchangeable and stable studying conditions);
- 3) Need for *freedom, autonomy and independence* (e.g. adolescents want to have their own privacy at the same time, they want the chance to express their opinions loudly);
- 4) *Social* needs (students should be allowed to engage in social interactions with their peers and other people as well as to work and study in pairs and groups);
- 5) *Cognitive* needs (learners should be encouraged to enhance their knowledge and to improve their learning skills and strategies); and
- 6) *Self-fulfillment* intentions (students should be allowed to express and actualize their talents, creativity and uniqueness).

3.2 Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation

The next theory is the most relevant approach for our research. Some authors divide motivational factors into *extrinsic* and *intrinsic*. Bénabou and Tirole (2003) think on extrinsic motivation as the perception of a person of his/her payoffs from taking a particular action or a task. In educational environment, students who are extrinsically motivated want concrete or practical rewards (such as good grades and public acknowledgement or recognition). These are called tangible rewards and are given to people who do not want to do a particular job, activity or task. By receiving (or in order to receive) this kind of reinforcement, those people start to do activities that are not interesting (Deci, Koestner, and Ryan, 2001). Learners who think that their effort is poorly paid will not continue to learn successfully because they consider their actions as the ratio of benefit and cost (cost-benefit analysis is common in economical and organisational sciences where material gain is crucial for business development, therefore, these type of students can be called "little economists").

On the other hand, intrinsically motivated people do something because of fun, enjoyment or challenge (e.g. Ryan & Deci, 2000b). This kind of motivation is very important for educators. Students who learn not for grades but for personal enjoyment from learning materials and exercises are more creative and dedicated to studying. They want to learn and they do it because they do not feel as they are forced to do it.

Intrinsic motivation to know, as a subtype of intrinsic needs, is related to exploration, curiosity and the epistemic motive to understand and know the world and ourselves (Barkoukis, Tsorbatzoudis, Grouios, and Sideridis, 2008). Hence, some students are aware of this need and try to direct their behaviours to meet this "intellectual urge". This authors also write on *intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation*, which is defined as the search for excitement, positive sensations and fun (Barkoukis et al., 2008).

Brown (2000, p. 165) wrote that "the intrinsic-extrinsic continuum in motivation is applicable to foreign language classrooms around the world." In addition and

according to this theorist, extrinsic and intrinsic factors can be easily identified, despite different cultural backgrounds of students and teachers.

Walker, Greene, and Mansell (2006) examined if self-efficacy and extrinsic and intrinsic motivation could predict student's cognitive engagements. Their research was conducted on 191 college students. Results showed that intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy were statistically significant predictors of cognitive engagement, whereas extrinsic motivation was not a significant predictor of this variable. Extrinsic motivation only predicted shallow cognitive engagement, on the other hand, intrinsic motivation is related to meaningful cognitive engagement (which included the usage of metacognitive strategies such as self-regulation, planning and self-monitoring). Intrinsic motivation also correlated positively with identification with academics (this is a students' perception of belonging to a particular academic/school environment and a mixture of their collective and academic self-esteem) and self-efficacy (Walker, Greene, & Mansell, 2006).

Digelidis, Kotsaki and Papaioannou (2005) conducted their study on 191 junior and senior high school students. Boys had higher scores on intrinsic motivation variables (enjoyment, satisfaction, and effort), as well as on extrinsic motivation variables (e.g. ego/competitive school climate). Moreover, junior high school students achieved higher scores than senior high school students on task orientation, task involving climate and autonomy supported climate as well as on ego/competitive school climate (Digelidis, Kotsaki, & Papaioannou, 2005). These results indicated that students are motivated (both extrinsically and intrinsically), or they are amotivated (i.e. have low scores on both extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation variables). Hence, these findings are very interesting and suggest that motivation among adolescents is determined by extrinsic and intrinsic factors which have almost equal effect on their performances and developments.

Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000) wrote on three types of intrinsic and the same number of extrinsic motivation components. Intrinsic motivation can be divided into:

- 1) *Stimulation* (intrinsically motivated students expect that their teachers and educational materials are stimulative and encouraging for thinking and exploring different scientific fields);
- 2) *Knowledge* (intrinsically motivated people like to acquire new knowledge, skills and methods); and
- 3) *Mastery/accomplishment* (intrinsically motivated students want to learn as much as possible in order to deeply understand learning materials and to enhance their knowledge and domain-related skills).

Extrinsic motivation, as stated before, also has three aspects or components (Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 1999):

- 1) *Regulation through identification* (extrinsically motivated students perceive a task or a goal as valuable, if it is important for them and if its finishing or mastering can lead to receiving concrete and public recognition).
- 2) *External regulation* (extrinsically oriented people do a particular task or activity to get possible reward or recognition); and
- 3) *Introjected regulation* (extrinsically motivated students could introject some regulations and rules from outer world but they accept them in order to maintain self-worth and confirm their ego-related qualities).

Noels, Pelletier, Clement and Vallerand (2000) found that stimulation, knowledge and mastery/accomplishment are significantly intercorrelated. In addition, regulation through identification, external and introjected regulation are also in statistically significant correlations with each other. In the case of intrinsic motivation components, these correlations were moderate while the aspects of extrinsic motivation had low values of correlational coefficients among themselves.

Besides, these authors applied self-determination theory in learning second language (L2) context. According to them, student can be motivated to learn second language not because s/he likes it, rather because s/he wants to use it as an instrument to achieve other goals (Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2000). The other type of student can be motivated to learn e.g. English language because s/he likes it and

enjoys learning languages. The first is mostly extrinsically motivated whereas the second type of student in our example is intrinsically motivated.

Stoeber, Feast and Hayward (2009) examined the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation with self-oriented and socially prescribed perfectionism. Their research was conducted on 104 university students. The results showed that intrinsic motivation for learning correlated with self-oriented perfectionism whereas extrinsic motivation correlated with socially prescribed type of perfectionism. That is, intrinsic motivation includes self-regulation and an intention to meet own criteria. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is influenced by external expectations of significant others (teachers, educators and parents...).

Habibian (2012) conducted her research on 55 PhD students from National University of Singapore. Her sample was small but balanced regarding to gender (i.e. there was almost equal number of males and females in the study). The results indicate that there was a positive and statistically significant correlation between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation ($r = .420$). From the magnitude of this coefficient, it was concluded that these types of motivation has in common cca. 17.6% of their variance. Besides, intrinsic motivation was in a positive and moderate correlation with students' confidence in learning, whereas extrinsic motivation was not. Intrinsic motivation also correlated with the learners' sense of independence (the magnitude of correlational coefficient was moderate). Feedback was important for both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated students whereas the role of the teacher was not.

Deci, Koestner and Ryan (2001) have found that giving external reward to internally motivated students can undermine and diminish their efforts. In other words, applying external rewards when it is not necessary to apply them can lead to lower performance and can destroy students' truly honest attitude towards learning process. The mentioned researchers have tried to incorporate the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation into self-determination theory and they have stressed that this relation is relevant for educational practice.

Deci et al. (2001) also wrote on *amotivation*, which is simply the lack of motivation among students i.e. they are not motivated extrinsically nor intrinsically. These kind of students do not want to learn even if they will be rewarded for their efforts and academic results. They do not like the subject matter and they do not want to understand it and are not interested in learning.

However, most of the students who are motivated intrinsically want to be extrinsically rewarded at times. This is because all of us, at least unconsciously, wish to obtain some recognition from other people who are important to us. This process is crucial for developing strong and stable self-confidence and adequate self-image (it is explained in handbooks and studies in developmental psychology and educational psychology). These recognitions can be: gold stars, honor roles, best-student awards, public praises and similar forms.

We, as teachers, must develop self-regulation processes in our students which lead to higher autonomy (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991), creativity and intrinsic motivation. We have to make a prolific classroom climate in order to enhance students' natural curiosity, internalisation and integration processes can be manifested (Deci et al., 1991).

In our research, the correlation between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation among students will be examined. The gender and other differences in these two types of motivation will also be studied. For that purpose, it is mandatory to know the related theoretical approaches. Therefore, the previous theoretical frameworks and their connections to each other have been described.

Personality traits (such as: extroversion, neuroticism, agreeableness, openness to new experience, and conscientiousness) and intelligence (e.g. verbal, general, spatial, perceptive/visual, inter/intrapersonal, kinesthetics and numerical) can also be related to motivation, but these variables (i.e. hypothetical constructs or concepts) are studied in psychological research and imply the usage of adequately calibrated psychological tests and questionnaires for which the licence is needed.

To sum up; motivation, especially the academic one, is a very important factor of the success at schools and universities. Teachers have to know how to detect low levels of intrinsic motivation among their students. Then, they have to plan how to make the studying environment better and a more interesting place for students.



CHAPTER 4

SOCIAL SELF-ESTEEM

In order to make an introduction to social self-esteem, the general self-esteem as well as its components (types of self-esteem) are defined and explained. In addition, the results of some previous studies which are relevant for learning/educational context are provided.

4.1.General self-esteem and its subtypes

Before coming to the definition of social self-esteem, it has to be determined that what general self-esteem is. General self-esteem is, according to Dong, Kopler and Collaco (2008) an aspect of one's self-concept, which is assumed to mediate different behavioural choices and actions. By viewing ourselves positively, we are feeling worthy, confident and successful. This kind of self-evaluation is a very wide concept which includes lots of narrower skills, competencies and successes in various situations. It can be considered as "median level of overall self-appraisal" (Brown, 2000).

This is one of the most studied psychological constructs and nowadays it is also considered as a kind of asset or resource (Emler, 2001). In a contemporary democratic atmosphere, we have a legitimate right to have high self-esteem, i.e. to be proud of ourselves and to have our own dignity. We are not allowed to publicly diminish and criticize the personality of others. All of us deserve to be treated as human beings and we need to respect the unique structure of personality traits, interests and attitudes of different people.

Thus, teachers should not criticize the entire personality of their students or label them as e.g. "lazy persons", "incapable students" or "unpromising persons". They are allowed to give them constructive and motivating feedback on their academic performances and achievements. Hence, teachers need to give the feedback for particular, specific tasks and school activities without generalizations on students' personality. The feedback can be given in the following form:

- 1) Firstly, we can openly talk to our students on his/her previous work which was good or acceptable (i.e. giving him/her positive feedback for those tasks which the student has done properly).
- 2) Secondly, as teachers, we can verbally expose why we are not satisfied with the student's current work or achievement. We have to provide reliable and verifiable arguments.
- 3) Thirdly, we have to teach the student how s/he can improve her/his skills, knowledge and consequently, her/his performance or grades. Of course, s/he needs to do it in her/his way and we do not want that s/he feels forced to do it strictly in a way as suggested.
- 4) Finally, we have to tell him/her that we believe in his/her abilities and potential to change his/her own behaviour/performance (the last advice is good for the student's self-esteem and the student who we are talking to feels that s/he is a worthy person who can be successful).

Pullmann and Allik (2008) conducted a research on 4572 university students and applicants who attend to universities. The results from their study suggested that self-reported general self-esteem is strongly correlated with academic/school performance. That is, students or participants who have high self-esteem also have superior academic grades and achievements. They believe in themselves in their capacities and intelligence, therefore, they achieve higher grades than those who are not self-confident. There is also a reversed relationship: superior academic grades strengthen students' general self-esteem and these are a kind of positive feedback. Students can think like that: "I did it successfully therefore my abilities are really good. I confirm I am a very smart student."

Clement, Dornyei and Noels (1994) conducted their research on 301 students from Budapest, Hungaria. They surprisingly found out that students' self-confidence is not

significantly related to classroom atmosphere. However, self-confidence was in statistically significant correlations with course difficulty, course usefulness, students' grades, activity in classroom, quality of homeworks, apparent motivation, student status, students' effort, communicative skills and English achievement (Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994).

The most frequently used measures of self-esteem are the following:

- a) Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965; it includes 10 items, five positively defined and the other five which are reverse-coded; it is good for prediction of long-term outcomes, because it is based on an approach to self-esteem which is considered as a trait, not as a state);
- b) State Self-Esteem Scale (SSES, Heatherton & Polivy, 1991; it consisted of 20 items and is used for predicting short-term outcomes);
- c) Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI, Coopersmith, 1967; it is a 50-item measure of how someone perceives himself/herself); and
- d) Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1964; this is a global measure of self-concept which consists of 100 items at five-point Likert scale).

There are some other types of self-esteem (Heatherton & Polivy, 1991): physical self-esteem, social self-esteem and performance self-esteem (the last one is a sense of one's general competence). Below is a list of different self-esteem dimensions (aspects) with their short explanations:

- 1) *Physical self-esteem* (an extent to which the particular person is satisfied with his/her body image, such as a perception of strength, physical beauty and body figure),
- 2) *Emotional self-esteem* (the degree to which a person is satisfied with his/her emotional life and the perception of one's ability to manage and control his/her own emotional states and expressions),
- 3) *Academic self-esteem* (an extent to which someone is satisfied with his/her own school/academic success and performance; it is highly influenced by academic achievements and by feedback from teachers),
- 4) *Collective self-esteem* (someone's perception of how much his/her group is worthy and successful; e.g. national self-esteem refers to the sense of pride and satisfaction with the national group this person belongs to), and

- 5) *Social self-esteem* (does person feel self-confident in social relations; this kind of self-esteem strongly correlates with one of the personality traits called extraversion).

4.2 Social self-esteem and intercultural learning atmosphere

Social self-esteem is, as indicated already, the sense of self-confidence while someone interacts with others (i.e. in social interactions and activities). Lawson, Marshall, and McGrath (1979) have defined social self-esteem as: one's perception of its own popularity, having good social skills, successful social orientation, self-confidence in social contacts and experiencing pleasure from social situations. Persons who have low social self-esteem are not self-confident, they are shy, they have difficulties in making friends and relationships and think that they are boring persons, that is, they are not fun and interesting to other people (Lawson et al., 1979).

A distinction has to be made between social self-esteem and social identity theory. Social identity theory is an approach where in-group identification and social categorization lead to intergroup discrimination (Rubin & Hewstone, 1998). Therefore, social identity is connected to collective (group) self-esteem and not to social self-esteem. Social self-esteem correlates with global self-esteem and includes various reactions expressed in different social situations while contacting with other people who can be similar or different than ourselves.

Only few studies have been conducted in order to examine social self-esteem and the related variables. Hence, by this study, we have an intention to provide a contribution in this field of research. Lawson et al. (1979) designed a psychological scale (precisely an inventory) for measuring social self-esteem. This scale consisted of 30 items and was called *The Social Self-esteem Inventory (SSEI)*. The initial version of SSEI has included 76 items, which have been rated by 265 subjects in order to estimate relevance of each item for self-esteem in social situations (i.e. social self-esteem or self-confidence). Its final version has been made to refer to the results of 128 participants and factor analysis. Every item in SSEI is in the form of six-point Likert scale and its authors have claimed that this is a unidimensional instrument (i.e.

it measures only one construct). Its reliability is very high but its factor structure (hypothetical validity) is not as these authors claimed (Kerla & Repišti, 2013).

In addition, there are more participants whose scores on this scale were above the average than those who scored below the average value. Therefore, people think that they are very self-confident in social interactions and situations. Kerla & Repišti (2013) have found out that female participants got higher results than male participants. These researchers also have found that social self-esteem moderately correlates with intercultural sensitivity. Later, the mentioned authors have improved this scale (SSEI) in order to measure only one construct and the result was a nine-item instrument whose acronym was SOSA.

The typical items for measuring social self-esteem are the following:

- a) "I feel confident while interacting with other people."
- b) "I easily meet other people or future friends."
- c) "I enjoy in group activities."
- d) "It is easy for me to make social contacts."
- e) "I like to participate in social manifestations and events."
- f) "I feel worthy while interacting socially."
- g) "I like collaborating with others."

Aydoğan, et al. (2013) examined relations between social self-esteem and English learning strategies. Their results indicate that there are positive, statistically significant correlations between social self-esteem and learning by vocabulary games as well as learning beside coursebook. However, learning styles (abstract style, active and involved style, questioning and reflective style and observing style) were not in statistically significant correlations with social self-esteem.

These authors have concluded that positive emotions and higher social self-esteem give rise to more usage of various learning strategies. Furthermore, by developing a feeling of social self-esteem in what students learn lexically, they build self-acceptance, self-confidence and trust through expanding their vocabulary knowledge and skills which are necessary for using it (Aydoğan et al., 2014).

In one of the other studies on this topic Gorbett & Kruczek (2008) examined relations between social self-esteem and family factors (variables). The results have shown that number of siblings and high levels of family cohesion have predicted stable and strong social self-esteem in young adults. Young adults attend to elementary or high schools, therefore, this research is relevant for educational context. That is because students' family situations and backgrounds can impact educational/academic outcomes. Unsatisfied adolescents will probably have lower school grades and their school performance is also negatively affected by inappropriate and non-supportive family relations. But, these are the topics that are mainly examined and studied in developmental psychology and in the field of mental health/hygiene.

An interesting research on social self-esteem (or social self-confidence) was conducted by Jones and Brown (1996). They examined the relationship between touch attitudes/behaviours and social-self esteem. These researchers found out that people who have high levels of social self-confidence like to touch other people as well as to be touched by others. Their experience with touching behaviours from early childhood are associated with their present levels of social self-confidence (Jones & Brown, 1996).

Therefore, students who have high social self-esteem want to be touched by other students or their classmates and want to be in closer contact with other learners. That is, the teacher has to allow this kind of behaviour among their students when s/he perceives that this will lead to better school/academic performance.

It also has to be mentioned that every type of self-esteem can be implicit or explicit. We almost always study the explicit form of self-esteem. However, the implicit one is examined through experimental designs and researches are conducted in laboratories. Researchers and theorists in this field think that this kind of self-esteem is a real one and it is not impregnated by social desirable responses (explicit measures are always, to some extent, influenced by participants' responses which are socially accepted and in accordance with the researcher's expectations).

It is important to mention that the analysis of British Council Project Team conducted in 2015 reported that English proficiency levels and qualifications of English teachers in universities are very good, but two widespread shortcomings were observed:

a) It was observed that most teachers have little or no training in the teaching of EAP/ ESP and consequently they lack the skills to develop needs-based EGAP curricula or to customise materials and activities to fit the specialist academic disciplines of students.

b) Also, most teachers constantly miss opportunities to introduce student-student interaction in the classroom. In the short term, this reduces students' progress in speaking skills; in the longer-term it undermines their confidence and ability to participate in class discussion or debate on their academic undergraduate programmes.

The recommendation of project team was that English teachers should have greater opportunities to access professional development as part of a quality assurance and accreditation scheme. In particular, training should be available in two key areas: EAP/ESP: All English teachers should undergo a short, intensive training programme in EAP/ESP3, and some teachers in each university should be offered longer-term training such as that available by distance from some universities. 4 Teaching speaking skills: All teachers should undergo training in techniques for incorporating student-student interaction at every stage of the lesson, with speaking integrated into every activity, regardless of the skill being practised. ELT publishers may offer such training as part of the package of materials sold to a university (British Council Project Team, 2015).

CHAPTER 5

SELF-EFFICACY

Self-efficacy is a construct similar to self-esteem. In school/academic environment, this variable is correlated with positive educational outcomes. Additionally, some research findings in this field are briefly explained.

5.1 Definitions and educational consideration of self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a well-defined concept developed by psychologist Albert Bandura (e.g. Bandura, 1977, 1993). In our context, it is student's perception of his/her capability to achieve some educational (developmental or cognitive) goal. In fact, students differ by their beliefs that they will succeed in achieving e.g. a particular grade, considerable amount of knowledge, a particular reward, recognition or acknowledgement etc. This concept is linked to self-esteem, self-confidence and also correlates with getting positive educational outcomes. Self-efficacy is a very wide construct applicable to the macropsychological environment. Hence, it can be defined as the ability to achieve developmental tasks (e.g. adaptation to school environment, finishing college, getting job, getting married, having children, succeeding in life...). On the other hand, self-efficacy is the skill required for achieving the main milestones in cognitive development (perception, memory, intelligence and learning abilities etc.).

That is, persons' sense of self-efficacy concerns their beliefs about how capable they will be in trying or doing something. It is important to have high levels of self-efficacy in all life stages and social situations.

That is especially the case in education because successfully completed education (elementary school, high school, university and specialization...) is a prerequisite or antecedent factor for the other outcomes/aspects (such as economic/financial and social situation) of life.

Mahyuddin, Elias, Cheong, Muhamad, Noordin & Abdullah (2006) examined the relationship between self-efficacy and students' English language achievements. They have conducted their research on 1146 students from eight secondary schools. Their findings indicate that there were more students who have had high levels of self-efficacy than those who have low levels of self-efficacy. This study was a correlational research, therefore, these authors have found that self-efficacy moderately correlates with expectancy beliefs, self-assertiveness and academic achievement efficacy.

Chan and Lam (2010) examined how different types of feedback from teachers impacts student's self-efficacy levels. They have conducted two studies. In the first one, these authors concluded that students who have received formative feedback showed a smaller decrease in their self-efficacy than those who have received summative feedback. Additionally, students who have received self-referenced feedback was feeling more self-effective than those who have received norm-referenced feedback.

In this context, the term *academic self-efficacy* can be introduced which is an educationally relevant subtype of general (global) self-efficacy. Our research is designed in order to examine academic self-efficacy in high school and university students. Academic self-efficacy is strongly correlated with academic self-esteem and lots of authors use these terms (concepts) as synonyms.

The main processes through which self-efficacy operates can be shown in the scheme below (Figure 5.1).

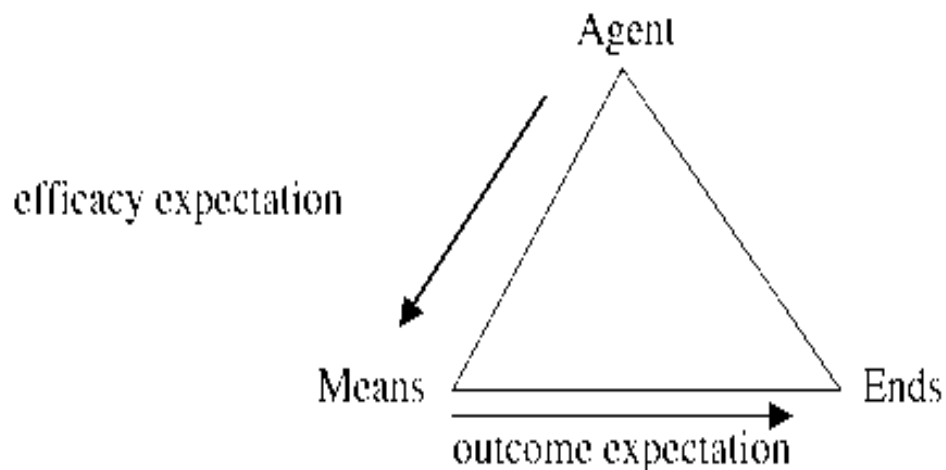


FIGURE 5.1 Triadic relations in expressing self-efficacy (Chen & Lam, 2010)

As can be seen in Figure 5.1, there is an agent (e.g. a student) who has its own efficacy expectation and s/he tries to achieve it by using different means. Then, our student forms a kind of outcome expectation. In the end, there are several outcomes (ends). If s/he is not satisfied with the achieved outcomes, her/his self-efficacy becomes undermined. Otherwise, her/his level of self-efficacy will increase.

Zajacova, Lynch, and Espenshade (2005) have conducted a study in order to investigate how self-efficacy and stress levels impact academic success of students. They have found that academic self-efficacy is a better, more consistent and robust predictor of academic success than psychological stress. These researchers have applied structural equation modelling (SEM), therefore, their results were very reliable and valid. They have also discussed on the relation between self-efficacy and stress. Someone who think that s/he is a self-effective person, is more likely to perceive school tasks as challenging, rather than as threatening or stressful (Zajacova et al., 2005). It has to be said again that teacher's role is very important in developing or maintaining stable self-efficacy and self-esteem in his/her students.

5.2 Multidimensional nature of self-efficacy and its educational consequences

In his review paper, Schunk (1991) has spotlighted relation between self-efficacy and academic motivation. He has taken this construct into consideration with other

related concepts: outcome expectations, attributions, perceived control, perceived value of outcomes and self-concept). Schunk (1991) has identified two groups of variables that can affect academic self-efficacy:

- 1) *situational variables* (e.g. rewards, feedback and recognition) and
- 2) *personality variables* (such as these cognitive and metacognitive factors - information processing and goal setting).

He wrote about antecedents and consequences of self-efficacy and its processes. For example, students who have low levels of self-efficacy will probably avoid the particular task. Unlike them, those who have a good sense of self-efficacy will participate confidently in the particular school activity, exercise or task (Schunk, 1991). Additionally, students who receive positive persuasory feedback from their teachers (e.g. "You are capable for doing this task.") can increase their levels of self-efficacy. On the other hand, anxiety negatively correlates with a sense of self-efficacy. However, Schunk (1991) warns us that students who really do not have the adequate skills (despite their high and stable self-efficacy) will not succeed totally in their school activities. This, to a certain extent, can decrease their self-efficacy levels.

Another psychological and educational concept - *learned helplessness* can be introduced here. It was developed by Martin Seligman (1975), and was defined as one's feeling that s/he cannot do anything to improve his/her current situation. Students who has constantly been experiencing a sense of failure in their past actions and situations can lose their self-confidence and lose the hope that things can be improved. When the conditions become better for them in the future, they cannot see the positive change and remain unhappy. Teacher/educator has to support every step they make and try to restore their sense of self-efficacy. This is a very common problem in classroom among students who get poor grades.

Bong and Skaalvik (2003) discussed on academic self-efficacy and academic self-concept. They believe that self-efficacy acts as an active precursor of academic self-concept and its development. Self-concept is one of the global constructs, therefore, it is wider than self-efficacy. For these authors, self-efficacy explains and predicts one's emotions, thoughts and actions, which was in some way, mentioned before. They discuss different factors which are responsible for shaping self-efficacy in

academic context: reinforcement from significant others, past experience, and social comparison.

When these factors are considered in English language learning environments, it is important that teachers give their students acceptable feedback and not to compare them to other students. It is also important that other students or peers do not loudly criticize their class colleagues. When they laugh at their classmates while they pronounce English poorly, it will decrease self-efficacy of those classmates. Teachers, therefore, must make a positive classroom climate where everyone is feeling successful, respected and capable to apprehend school materials and topics.

Zimmerman, Bandura and Martinez-Pons (1992) examined personal goal setting and self-efficacy beliefs. They have found out that efficacy for self-regulated learning positively correlates with efficacy for academic achievement (the coefficient value was moderate) and student grade goals (the correlation was low, but statistically significant). In their research (Zimmerman et al., 1992), efficacy for academic achievement positively correlated with student grade goals (moderate correlation) and final grades (low to moderate value of correlational coefficient). As can be noticed, efficacy for self-regulated learning is mostly a matter of intrinsic motivation whereas efficacy for academic achievement is connected to extrinsic motivation (e.g. to achieving good final grades).

Zimmermann (2000) argued that self-efficacy is a *multidimensional construct* which consists of: efficacy judgements, setting mastery criterion of one's own performance, efficacy beliefs about performing etc. It is also sensitive to variations in performance context and its measures are designed in order to examine self-efficacy in different situations or aspects of life.

Öztürk (2012) has highlighted that the crucial thing in developing stable or unstable self-efficacy is attribution of past accomplishments. The probability of giving up in persons who have high self-efficacy levels is little. However, those with low levels of self-efficacy are fixed to their deficiencies and inabilities being led to poorer performance. The second group of people make internal attributions which means that they ascribe failures to themselves (e.g. "I didn't pass this exam. It's only my

fault. I know I am a stupid person."). This kind of attribution can cause the symptoms of anxiety, depression and learned helplessness. Learned helplessness occurs when a person permanently fails in his/her activities. As time passes by, this person (a student) develops a specific way of thinking (e.g. "No matter what I do, I will always fail to succeed").

It can be concluded that self-efficacy is as important as both self-esteem and motivation. Moreover, it highly correlates with them. Self-efficacy strengthens students' motivation and makes them proud of themselves when they achieve something. Self-efficacy is related with preferred learning outcomes (e.g. good grades) and with academic self-esteem.



CHAPTER 6

SPEAKING ANXIETY

Foreign language speaking (oral) anxiety is typical for non-native English learners. This negative emotional state could decrease students' academic performance and achievements. Lots of studies conducted are described in order to examine speaking anxiety.

6.1 Definition, types and measurement instruments of anxiety

Anxiety can be considered as a personality trait or a situational state. Trait anxiety is a part of neuroticism which is a consistent personality trait. Anxiety includes the following emotions and states: fear, anticipation of failure, worry, discomfort, neuroticism and restlessness. This variable is studied in psychiatry (e.g. anxiety disorders: phobias, posttraumatic stress disorder – PTSD, obsessive-compulsive disorder – OCD etc.), clinical psychology and educational psychology (as test anxiety). In some cases, it is related to social anxiety, which is a term used for labeling the fear of social situations. Social anxiety is in a negative correlation with social self-esteem, which is, as mentioned before, another variable relevant for this dissertation.

Peter MacIntyre and Tammy Gregersen (2012) wrote on negative-narrowing power and positive-broadening power of emotion to learning and speaking languages. Anxiety has negative-narrowing power. Negative emotional states produce a restriction of potential language input. Systematic desensitization, as a method used in cognitive-behavioural psychotherapy can help students to overcome their anxiety in foreign language classroom.

In this dissertation, we are interested in the state anxiety. *State anxiety* is determined by the conditions in the social and physical environment. For example, students can experience speaking anxiety while teacher asks them to pronounce something, read a text in English or talk to other students in a foreign language. They also can experience some sort of verbal barrier or obstacle during the informal conversation with other English speakers.

In his research, Yahya (2013) pointed out that the most emphasized aspects of speaking anxiety were the fear of negative feedback and communication anxiety. In other words, students are the most anxious when they are asked by their teachers to speak in front of the class. We can call this kind of feeling *foreign language speaking anxiety*. This is a subtype of state anxiety, but it is also influenced by anxiety as a personality trait. Yahya (2013) has also mentioned the very important trend in our schools: teacher concentrates on helping students to pass their final exams and because of that, students lack language speaking skills i.e. pronunciation competencies.

Stoeber, Feast, and Hayward (2009) wrote on five aspects of speaking anxiety:

- 1) Worry;
- 2) Emotionality;
- 3) Lack of confidence;
- 4) Interference; and
- 5) Total (general) speaking anxiety.

The cited researchers claimed that speaking anxiety is a psychological construct which is related to perfectionism. They confirmed this hypothesis in their research (Stoeber, Feast & Hayward, 2009). Hence, socially prescribed perfectionism (as a subtype of this variable) positively correlated with total speaking anxiety, lack of confidence, and interference. On the other hand, self-oriented perfectionism (another type of perfectionism) positively correlated with worry whereas it was in negative correlations with interference and lack of confidence. Therefore, speaking anxiety is a sort of undesirable and maladaptive state, but a small amount of worry while speaking foreign language is not so handicapping for students.

Yaikhong and Usaha (2012) have developed an instrument which successfully measures English speaking anxiety – *Public Speaking Class Anxiety Scale* (PSCAS). It has very good content validity, construct validity and internal reliability. This scale is applicable among students who learn English as a foreign (second) language (EFL/ESL). It was developed by combining items of high quality from the following instruments:

- 1) Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24),
- 2) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS),
- 3) Speaker Anxiety Scale (SA), and
- 4) Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA-34).

As can be noticed, there are lots of instruments which measure foreign/second language speaking anxiety. In accordance to that, there is a plenty of research conducted in this scientific field. A review of studies here will be provided which are relevant for the purposes of this dissertation. The same instruments (measures) were used in a great number of them, therefore, the results can be compared to each other.

6.2 Studies on English language speaking anxiety

Tsiplakides and Keramida (2009) have implemented and evaluated some programs for helping students in overcoming foreign language speaking anxiety such as English. They have stated that students' unwillingness to speak English was not due to their lack of interest in English, laziness or misunderstanding of the value of learning this language. Students are really afraid of negative evaluation by their fellows and this is the main reason for experiencing speaking anxiety. These authors have provided the intervention strategies for reducing students' foreign language speaking anxiety:

- 1) establishing a learning community i.e. creating a supportive classroom atmosphere;
- 2) improving teacher-students relations;
- 3) providing indirect (rather than direct) correction for students' errors and mistakes;
- 4) teachers are expressing respect for students' need for self worth protection;

- 5) using non-verbal praises and recognitions; and
- 6) teacher immediacy (teachers quickly apply verbal and non-verbal methods which can relax the student and help him to calm down while answering the teacher's question).

Zhiping and Paramasivam (2013) examined English language speaking anxiety among international students. They have made observations and conducted interviews with postgraduate students at their university. It has been found out that the level of speaking anxiety is different between various nations which were included in their research. In other words, there was an impact of different cultural backgrounds. These authors have indicated several reasons for anxiety among international students (Zhiping and Paramasivam, 2013):

- a) shyness,
- b) fear of being in public,
- c) fear of speaking inaccurately (with mistakes), and
- d) fear of negative evaluation.

They have also collected students' coping strategies in these situations (Zhiping & Paramasivam, 2013):

- a) expressive reactions (e.g. laughing and smiling),
- b) being with friends,
- c) keeping silent (avoidance), and
- d) avoiding eye contact with teacher and classmates.

Subaşı (2010) also examined the main sources of speaking (oral) anxiety among students. According to the results from his study, they are: previous experience, teaching procedures, teachers' manners and personal reasons. Students have problems in self-presentation and they think that their English vocabulary size is small as well as they perceive themselves as non-competent (Subaşı, 2010). In this research, foreign language speaking anxiety is in a moderate and positive correlation with fear of negative evaluation.

In a more comprehensive way, Young (1991) has studied factors that impact language learning anxiety. He has identified the following precursors:

- 1) classroom procedures;
- 2) learners' beliefs and attitudes about language learning;
- 3) personal and interpersonal forms of anxieties;
- 4) instructors' attitudes and beliefs about language teaching;
- 5) interactions between instructor/educator and learner/student; and
- 6) language testing (quizzes, midterms, final exams...).

Therefore, it can be seen that there are lots of factors that can impact students' anxiety levels. These sources of foreign language anxiety or second language speaking anxiety are mutually correlated which can have both direct and indirect effects on academic performance.

In a sample of students, Woodrow (2006) has found that the main source of English language speaking anxiety is interacting with English native speakers. He has identified two main causes of this kind of anxiety - skills deficit and retrieval interference. In addition, the results indicated that the most anxious English language learners come from Japan, China, and Korea (Woodrow, 2006), probably because their languages are substantially different from English.

Sinnasamy and Karim (2014) examined how different aspects of foreign language speaking anxiety are related to library anxiety. The findings revealed that students' scores on library anxiety dimensions (subscales) significantly correlated with learner anxiety, speaking anxiety and self-evaluation anxiety. They used Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and Library Anxiety Scale (LAS), as measures of two kinds of anxiety (Sinnasamy & Karim, 2014). Hence, non-native speakers of English are afraid of speaking in English and use library services where it is necessary to have good English speaking and reading skills.

Ibrahim and Daud (2013) were interested in the effects of different teaching methods to the levels of foreign language speaking anxiety. They conducted a quasi-experimental study, where traditional teaching method was applied on the control group, and podcast as a teaching aid was applied on treatment group. Statistically significant differences were not found and it was concluded that podcast-aided teaching and traditional methods of teaching yielded almost the same effects on

students' speaking anxiety levels. The measurement instrument which those authors used in their study was Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA).

Aydoğan, et al. (2013) have conducted a research on language anxiety for oral communication. They have applied Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (Aydoğan, 2013), which consisted of 25 items and includes four subscales:

- a) self-confidence (while speaking English),
- b) lack of self-confidence (when somebody starts to speak English),
- c) fear to be less able (competent) than other students/classmates, and
- d) feeling relaxed.

As can be noticed, two of them were defined positively whereas the other two have negative connotations. The results from this study indicated that most of these subscales (i.e. English language speaking anxiety facets) are in statistically significant correlations with each other. On the other hand, beliefs about speaking English correlated with all mentioned speaking anxiety facets. Beliefs about learning English in general are not in statistically significant correlations with speaking anxiety variables whereas the intention for practicing English is significantly correlated with the lack of self-confidence and fear to be less able (competent) than others (Aydoğan et al. , 2014).

Doğan & Akbarov (2014) examined three facets of English language speaking anxiety: feeling worried, feeling confused and negative attitudes towards tests. Their results revealed a moderate, positive correlation between feeling worried and feeling confused. In addition, these facets are not in statistically significant correlations with students' ages and their English levels. However, there were gender differences: females scored higher than males on the subscale called *Feeling worried*, whereas males had significantly higher results on the *Negative attitudes towards test* subscale (Doğan & Akbarov, 2014).

To conclude, English language speaking anxiety can aggravate students' efforts to express their thoughts and emotions in this foreign language. Students can develop poor academic self-esteem and can remain quiet when an English teacher asks them to answer the question or to discuss in English language. Hence, this phenomenon is

very important for English language teaching and every teacher must be aware of it. The good thing is that speaking anxiety can be diminished by proper psychological and pedagogical techniques. Teachers have to have good counseling and active listening skills in order to help their students.



CHAPTER 7

LEARNING STYLES, STRATEGIES, SKILLS AND METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES

It is clear that students do not learn in the same way. There are a lot of individual differences among them. These learning differences can be classified and scientifically studied. Therefore, different learning styles, learning skills and learning strategies can be mentioned, and there are also metacognitive strategies, which are higher-level abilities. These terms (concepts) are similar and lots of authors/researchers use them interchangeably (e.g. learning skills and competencies).

7.1 Learning styles

One of the taxonomies of learning styles can be derived from *Experiential learning theory*. This is a multidetermined and a holistic model of learning where knowledge emerges from the transformation of learner's experience (Kolb, 1984). There are six propositions of learning through experience (Kolb & Kolb, 2005):

- 1) Learning has to be considered as the process (there is highlighted a great importance of adequate feedback) and not in terms of outcomes.
- 2) All learning must be seen as relearning (students examine, test and integrate their ideas through the process of learning).
- 3) Differences and conflicts between the opposite poles of adaptation to the world drive the learning process. Students have to take actions and reflections to compare their life experience with learning materials and exercises. They need to think and feel what they learn.
- 4) Learning is considered as the holistic process which is necessary for the adaptation to the world.

- 5) Learning is a result of reciprocal interaction between the subject (student) and his/her environment.
- 6) Learning is a creative process which leads to flexible knowledge that can be created and recreated by this person and the factors from physical and social environment.

The mentioned theorist has identified four learning styles based on his theory (Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Kolb, 2005):

- a) *Diverging style* (Students who have this type of learning styles are good at gathering information from different sources, they like group activities, they are open to new experiences, they have wide cultural interests, they like arts and want to receive personalized type of feedback);
- b) *Converging style* (These individuals prefer technical tasks and processes rather than abstract thinking or imagination; they also like practical application of scientific laws and theories; they do not like too much social interactions);
- c) *Assimilating style* (Individuals whose learning is based on this style such as logical things and abstract concepts do not want to frequently interact with other people; they like exact sciences such as mathematics and physics; they also like to read, examine and test different ideas and hypotheses); and
- d) *Accommodating style* (Students who have accomodating learning style prefer to gain information from other people; they like to set goals, plan and achieve these goals; these individuals can totally express their skills in management, marketing and business economy; they learn through their own experience with others).

These four learning styles can be represented graphically, as it is shown in Figure 7.1 below. They are created by crossing four types of interaction between a person (in our case, a student) and the environment (in our case, the educational context: learning materials, tasks and syllabi etc.): concrete experience (CE), reflective observation (RO), abstract conceptualization (AC) and active experimentation (AE). Every learning style has two dominant dimensions which defines itself.

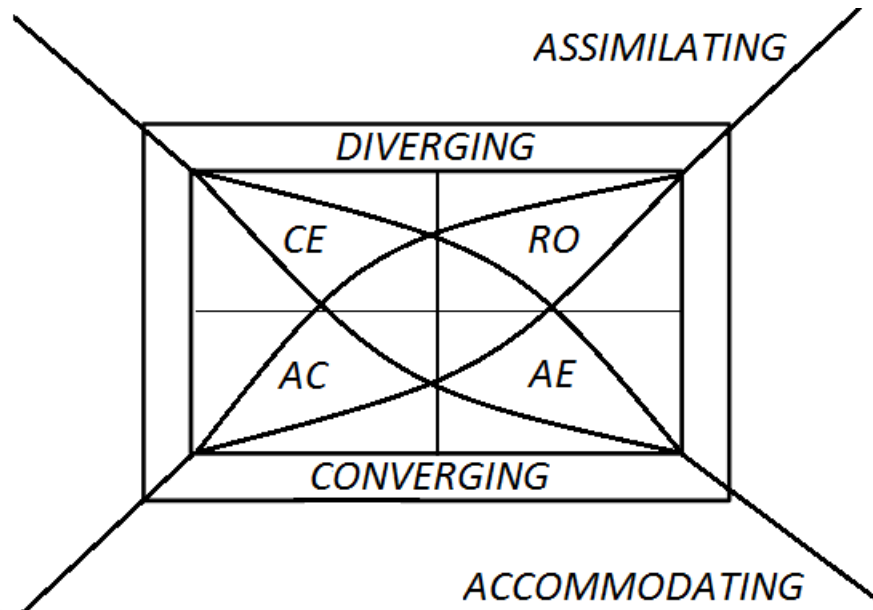


FIGURE 7.1 Four learning styles and their dimensions (Kolb, 1984)

As can be seen from Fig. 7.1, converging style is characterized by abstract conceptualization (AC) and active experimentation (AE). Diverging style includes concrete experience (CE) and reflective observation (RO). Assimilating learning style is defined by abstract conceptualization (AC) and reflective observation (RO) whereas accommodating style is characterized by concrete experience (CE) and active experimentation (AE).

Results from the research conducted by Wang & Huang (2006) have shown that there are statistically significant differences in learning achievement levels between students who use the four mentioned learning styles: diverging learning style is better than accommodating and converging learning styles; whereas assimilating style is better than accommodating and converging learning styles. Diverging and assimilating styles are almost equally efficient as well as converging and accommodating styles. The previous study has been conducted on 455 students who have been involved in Web-based learning programs.

Aydoğan et al. (2013) have applied Learning Styles Inventory (LSI) in their research, which is a measure of the following learning styles:

- a) Abstract style,
- b) Active and involved style,

- c) Questioning and reflective style, and
- d) Observing style.

Based on the results from their study, active and involved learning style positively correlates with questioning and reflective style. Other learning styles are not in statistically significant correlations with each other. They neither correlate significantly with positive and negative emotions, nor with social self-esteem (Aydoğan et al., 2013).

Ormrod (2008) defines learning styles as follows: the combination of cognitive styles and dispositions which can influence how students usually learn. He wrote on *verbal style* (these students prefer to learn the material which is given verbally) and *visual style* (students who predominantly learn in this way want that learning materials are presented through pictures, graphs or schemes). There is also *kinesthetic learning style*, but because learning materials are not commonly presented in the form of physical activity and this learning style has not been studied frequently.

Lujan and DiCarlo (2006) examined the modes of information presentation (i.e. the presentation of learning materials and lessons), which are in accordance with students' learning styles: visual (learning from charts, graphs and diagrams), auditory (learning from listening to music and speech), writing/reading (learning from printed material), and kinesthetic (learning through touches, moves and gestures). Their results suggested that most students prefer multiple modes of information presentation, i.e. they combine different learning styles which leads to better school performance and knowledge acquisition. Therefore, teachers should modify their teaching methods in order to (Lujan & DiCarlo, 2006):

- a) meet students' individual needs and preferences;
- b) provide different modes of information presentation; and
- c) not treat all students in a similar way.

Learning styles are probably linked to *thinking styles*. Pušina and Akbarov (2012) examined psychometrical properties of an instrument which is the operationalization of Sternberg's theory on thinking styles (*Theory of Mental Self-Government – MSG*).

Pušina and Akbarov (2012) provided a review of characteristics of these styles, more precisely, of their dimensions:

- a) functions (legislative, executive, and judicial);
- b) form (hierarchical, monarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic);
- c) level (global and local);
- d) scope (internal and external); and
- e) leaning (liberal and conservative).

Students use different thinking styles in their everyday life to solve problems, to interact or to finish their daily duties. Teachers have to be aware of their students' thinking styles because these styles can predict learners' educational outcomes such as academic performance, efficacy and effectivity.

7.2 Learning strategies

Learning strategies are tools which are more or less used by students while learning for school subjects. Learning strategies are primarily studied in educational psychology and there is a plenty of articles written on them. The most frequently used instrument (in assessment of learning language) for measuring these strategies is *The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning- SILL* (Oxford, 1990). It consists of six subscales, which measure the following learning strategies (the first three strategies are direct whereas the last three of them are indirect strategies):

- a) *memory strategies* (storing and retrieving information),
- b) *cognitive strategies* (understanding and producing language),
- c) *compensation strategies* (overcoming limitations in learning language),
- d) *metacognitive strategies* (planning, managing and monitoring language learning),
- e) *affective strategies* (emotional regulation and motivational control), and
- f) *social strategies* (cooperating with other fellow students while learning language).

According to Alison Mackey and Susan Gass (2005) in strategy-based research, we try to determine second language learning strategies and other relevant variables. This could be done through: conducting observational study, asking learners to

provide synchronic and/or retrospective commentary on their mental processes whilst completing task and learners' computer-assisted tracking on different measures.

Hong-Nam & Leavell (2006) conducted a study which revealed these results: cognitive, compensation, metacognitive and social strategies are used more frequently than memory and affective strategies. These results were statistically significant. Their research was conducted on students whose English knowledge was at beginning, intermediate and advanced level and student's English proficiency level was determined by self-ratings and objective tests. There were no significant differences in using different learning strategies between students at these three English proficiency levels except for compensation strategies. Intermediate-level students use this strategy more than other students (which were at beginning and advanced level). However, these findings have limited generalization potential because most of the participants were of Japanese and Taiwan nationality.

According to Rebecca Oxford (1990), English language learning strategies have the following features:

- 1) They are problem-oriented;
- 2) These strategies are not always observable (i.e. they are not so transparent);
- 3) They are often conscious;
- 4) They can be defined as specific actions taken by the learner;
- 5) These strategies expand the role of teachers/educators;
- 6) They contribute to communicative competence (which is the main goal);
- 7) They allow students/learners to become more self-directed;
- 8) Learning strategies are flexible;
- 9) These strategies are influenced by lots of factors (i.e. they are multidetermined);
- 10) Learning strategies can be taught (i.e. they are not inherited or fixed);
- 11) They include many aspects of the student/learner, not just the cognitive;
and
- 12) They directly and indirectly support learning.

Hence, our students can be taught to use various learning strategies consciously and flexibly. English language teachers must be aware that these strategies ("learning tools") are not always observable and include cognitive, emotional, motivational and behavioural factors. In addition, learning strategies should be task-oriented and contextually relevant in order to yield positive academic outcomes (such as task performance, achievement of a particular school grade etc.).

In his review article, Lee (2010) presented some older classifications of learning strategies. One of those classifications divide learning strategies into two groups: strategies that directly affect learning process (e.g. deductive and inductive reasoning verification, practice, memorisation...) and processes/activities that are indirect contributors of learning (making opportunities for practicing language and tricks of production). The other classification is trichotomous and include the following strategies: metacognitive, cognitive (both direct) and social-affective strategies which are in some way contextually dependent (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985).

Li and Chun (2012) wrote on memorisation and elaboration learning strategies where the first one is more shallow whereas the second one is more profound. Both strategies are in small positive and statistically significant correlations with students' reading performance. Their participants used memorisation strategy more frequently than elaboration strategy. Gender differences were small and did not moderate the relation between these strategies and students' reading performance (Li & Chun, 2012).

Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) found statistically significant gender differences in using different learning strategies. Females prefer to use social and affective strategies more frequently than males. This finding is explainable when we consider it in the context of gender intelligence stereotyping. Lots of people think that males have greater general intelligence than females. This type of intelligence mostly includes inductive and deductive reasoning. Moreover, people think that females possess better social skills than males and that they are more successful in emotional expression. The two mentioned notions are not totally true, but they are internalized

into self-image of males and females. As a consequence, they become to think in accordance with those stereotypical claims.

In their study, Aydoğar and Akbarov (2014) did not find statistically significant gender differences in the usage of six learning strategies. However, the significance of t-statistic was marginal for social learning strategies (women, on average, scored higher than males). The last finding supports some results (those for females) from the research conducted by Hong-Nam and Leavell. Other results from this study (Aydoğar and Akbarov, 2014) suggest that most of the learning strategies are significantly correlated to each other. In addition, students' English level and age were not in statistically significant correlations with any of the learning strategies.

Jungert and Rosander (2010) conducted their study on 213 university students and examined the relations between learning strategies and self-efficacy. Their results reveal that students who use strategies which include influence to course structure and content have significantly higher levels of self-efficacy. Additionally, students who are familiar with social learning strategies (out-of-class and in-class interaction) also have a good sense of self-efficacy.

Jurković (2006) investigated vocabulary learning strategies (VLS), relevant for general and subject-specific knowledge of English language. These strategies include (Jurković, 2006):

- a) Finding the meanings of new English words (e.g. in available vocabularies in digital or analog forms);
- b) Memorising them and retaining their meaning in long-term memory; and
- c) Recalling and using these words when it is necessary in conversation, reading or writing in English.

Students/learners can recognize ("discover") the meaning of a particular English term, or they can recall it (because they really remember what its meaning is). The first is a low-level process, and the second implies that student has successfully incorporated the particular term into his/her cognitive schemas. Teachers have to reinforce and support the process of recalling and deep understanding of foreign

language terms because this is a legitimate mode of learning and it is an example of long-term memory storage.

Jurković (2006) implemented a five-step program for vocabulary strategies acquisition at her university. Those five steps (or phases) were:

- 1) Preparation (she analysed and estimated the prior students' knowledge related to a specific learning strategy);
- 2) Presentation (she presented a new English language learning strategy and demonstrated how it can be used);
- 3) Practice (the mentioned strategy was practised through learning usual classroom material);
- 4) Evaluation (her students evaluated this learning strategy – its application potential and to which extent it helped them to achieve learning goals); and
- 5) Expansion (students tested how successfully they can make positive transfer of the mentioned learning strategy i.e. to apply it in other contexts and situations).

Yang (1999) examined relations between students' beliefs about English language learning and learning strategies proposed by R. Oxford. Using factor analysis, he identified four classes of learners' beliefs:

- a) Beliefs about structural/formal aspect of studies;
- b) Beliefs about English language achievement;
- c) Learners' self-efficacy and expectations about learning English language; and
- d) Perceived value and nature of learning spoken foreign language (such as English).

This researcher conducted canonical correlation analysis (CCA), in order to find out what the correlation between the two sets of variables is (these two sets are beliefs about learning and learning strategies). First result was that of positive correlation between self-efficacy and all six learning strategies. Self-efficacy correlates the most with functional/practice strategy (e.g. watching English TV movies, shows and serials; listening to English radio broadcasting etc.). Students' perceptions of the

value and nature of spoken English were in a positive correlation with oral-practice strategies (i.e. pronunciation and verbal communication). Among 505 participants, the most frequently used learning strategy is formal oral-practice strategy. The secondly ranked were compensation strategies than social strategies. The least frequently used strategies were: metacognitive, functional practice strategies and cognitive-memory strategies.

Chamot (2004) claimed that learning strategies are not always directly available. Despite this notion, they can be assessed and studied. According to him, one of the functional methods to do this is the think-aloud individual interview. The student is given a learning exercise or task and is asked to verbally describe his/her own thoughts while solving it. Teacher/educator can manage this activity by asking the appropriate questions such as:

- "What are you thinking right now?"
- "How can you approach this problem?"
- "Is it difficult or easy for you?"
- "Are you using some strategies to do it or working on it spontaneously?"

Students' mental processes while doing a particular school task can also be understood by group discussion. Teacher can give a task to his students waiting till they finish it and then start classroom discussion on cognitive processes which students use in this school activity (Chamot, 2004). Teachers must be aware of students' learning characteristics, as well as of various cultural and contextual influences. Lecturers/educators who have an intention to explain learning strategies to their students have to give explicit and integrated instructions to them. These instructions should be in mother tongue for the beginning-level students whereas for more advanced and proficient-level students these instructions must be expressed in English (Chamot, 2004).

Ames & Archer (1988) wrote that learning strategies include processes of self-planning, self-monitoring and information processing while learning. Their results indicated that usage of learning strategies was in a positive and moderate correlation with mastery goal orientation, however, it was not significantly correlated with performance goal orientation. Mastery goal orientation includes: understanding

learning materials and tasks, receiving prompt and adequate feedback from teachers, supportive school climate and the awareness of knowledge gaining values in classroom etc. Performance goal orientation is an extrinsically based students' orientation. Those students who are oriented towards performance, study in order to get a reward or to achieve top grades. They usually compare their achievements with the achievements of others in their classes.

Stegers-Jager, Cohen-Schotanus, and Themmen (2012) examined how learning strategies, motivation and participation in a scheduled learning process impact school performance. Participation included: guided individual study, skills training attendance and lecture attendance. These predictors are variables which are relevant for self-regulated learning (SRL). Their research was based on the answers provided by 672 high school students. They applied structural equation modelling and found that participation in scheduled learning process mediated the relationship between learning strategies and motivation. However, in their research, deep learning strategies negatively correlated with school performance. Deep learning strategies were:

- 1) Metacognition;
- 2) Organisation; and
- 3) Elaboration.

Hence, the usage of learning strategies is a matter of authentic learning and implicit interests for learning and understanding presented materials. On the other hand, learning strategies are used less frequently by those students who do not show genuine interest for academic materials (readings, presentations, homeworks and assignments...). Likewise, learners who are extrinsically motivated are not interested enough for learning how to learn whereas intrinsically motivated students investigate different learning strategies which can help them to adequately acquire new knowledge and connect it to the previously learned things.

7.3 Learning skills and competencies

Boyatzis & Kolb (1995) defined skills as "a combination of ability, knowledge, and experience that enables a person to do something well. "Learning skills include all

cognitive, social, organisational, technical and other skills and competencies which are used by students while learning and mastering school lessons and materials.

There are three key features of (learning) skills (Boyatzis & Kolb, 1995):

- a. They are knowledge-rich and domain specific;
- b. We develop, shape and improve skills by practice; and
- c. Skill refers to an integrated interaction and transaction between the person (student) and the environment (educational/learning context).

Therefore, skills are usually based on one's knowledge and performance in a specific learning field or domain (e.g. in mathematics, linguistics, pedagogy...). They are not fixed or unchangeable. Furthermore, skills are flexible and can be improved which is very important in educational work and teaching activities.

When skills become sophisticated and recognised as outstanding, they are called *expertise* and the largest number of experts think that someone must have at least 10 years of experience in the particular domain to be proclaimed expert (Repšiti, 2011). Teacher's expectations of students should not be very severe and rigorous, because this leads to the atmosphere of perfectionism. This kind of institutional (school) atmosphere does not tolerate mistakes during learning process and can be counterproductive. Children and students have not enough mental and professional capacities to be "little experts of their lives" and to fulfill all teachers' and parents' expectations.

Boyatzis and Kolb (1995) listed twelve skills which are useful in all managerial positions such as in our case teaching position: adapting, helping and delegating, planning, quantitative analysis, information gathering, information analysis, technology management, taking action, entrepreneurship, relationship, leadership and setting/managing goals. These skills are transferable which means that can be transmitted to and applied in lots of working environments.

Wulf and Shea (2002) claimed that we must distinguish simple skills from complex skills in learning. According to these theorists, the results from studies which investigated elementary (simple) skills cannot be generalized to more complex skills and learning activities. For example, observational learning and conditional learning

are not the same as learning social skills and acquisition of difficult mathematical concepts and task solving procedures. Therefore, research in the area of learning skills must be domain-specific.

Nevgi, Virtanen, and Niemi (2006) researched *collaborative learning skills* through open-ended questions, interviewing and online discussion techniques. Collaborative learning skills include: help-seeking behaviour, getting feedback from peers/classmates, working in study groups and achieving learning goals through collaboration and interaction with others. Every student has his own group role and school tasks which they have to do. He/she has to respect group rules, do his work before deadlines and contribute to group project finalization.

Some learning skills are transferable: technical skills (using computers, applications, programs, softwares etc.), social skills (empathy, understanding, active listening, assertiveness, altruism etc.), numeric skills (mathematical, computing and calculation skills), verbal skills (writing, reading, speaking). On the other hand, other skills are applicable in particular fields (Repšti, 2013): e.g. musical skills (sense of rhythm and sounds), sophisticated psychomotor and body/physical skills (eye-hand coordination, finger dexterity, reaction time, running and jumping etc.).

Other skills are related to specific English language domains: reading, writing, speaking, and listening or spelling, vocabulary, understanding and using English in life situations (e.g. in social interactions). For example, H. S. Alyousef (2006) listed six skills which students need in order to successfully read English texts:

- 1) Vocabulary and structural skills;
- 2) Automatic recognition skills;
- 3) Formal discourse structure knowledge and skills;
- 4) Synthesis and evaluation strategies and skills;
- 5) World/content background knowledge; and
- 6) Metacognitive knowledge and skills monitoring (self-monitoring skills during learning).

As can be noticed, the previous list is a mixture of learning knowledge, skills, and strategies, therefore, lots of authors do not make a distinction between these three

cognitive aspects of learning. Moreover, they study and research them as related constructs which, according to them, they have convergent meaning and refer to the same thing.

Learning skills can be derived from the *Theory of multiple intelligences* (Gardner, 1983). Gardner proposed seven groups of intellectual abilities i.e. seven intelligences:

- a) *Logical-mathematical* (this ability refers to inductive-deductive intelligence aspects and it is very close to general intelligence; it includes: noticing patterns, manipulation with numbers – calculation skills and making conclusions from general to specific and vice versa);
- b) *Visual-spatial* (the ability to visualize things and to rotate them in the mind);
- c) *Verbal-linguistic* (this type of intelligence includes: verbal production as well as determining and understanding the relations between words);
- d) *Bodily-kinesthetic* (body skills and abilities which include manipulation of objects with hand as well as coordination between different parts of the body);
- e) *Musical-rhythmic* (abilities which are necessary to correctly detect: pitch, tones and rhythms in music and speech);
- f) *Interpersonal* (social and emotional intelligence in interactions with other people);
- g) *Intrapersonal* (ability to detect personal i.e. inner experiences, thoughts, emotions and states).

Later, Gardner added another two types of intelligence - naturalistic and existential abilities. *Naturalistic* intelligence includes making distinction between natural stuff and things which are handmade i.e. produced by humans (Gardner & Moran, 2006). This kind of intelligence can also be described as the set of abilities which are required in natural sciences (physics, biology and chemistry...). *Existential* intelligence refers to someone's ability to answer existential/life questions (What is the meaning of life? Why do we live the way we live? What is the essence of life?). It is a kind of spiritual or religious intelligence.

Every intelligence type can be linked to the particular group of skills which can be relevant for learning process. Verbal-linguistic and logical-mathematical set of skills are the most important in learning context. However, interpersonal intelligence is necessary for group work in classroom whereas visuo-spatial intelligence and musical-rhythmic intelligence and skills are required while studying arts. The most important set of skills for English language learning are verbal-linguistic skills.

M. Celce-Murcia, Z. Dornyei and S. Thurrell (1995) examined communication competencies and skills which they divided into five subcategories:

- a. linguistic competence (having the knowledge of grammar, phonology, morphology, lexicology and syntax);
- b. discourse competence (combine language structures into different sorts of texts);
- c. actional competence (using language in social contexts);
- d. strategic competence (knowing both verbal and non-verbal strategies); and
- e. sociocultural competence (e.g. sociocultural code of language use in communication).

The mentioned authors proposed their model based on the previous models which included similar components (dimensions). One of these previous models was created by Michael Canale and Merrill Swain (1980). They divided communication competence into four subskills: grammatical competence, discourse competence, strategic competence and sociolinguistic competence.

The main contribution of Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) is the interrelation between these five subcompetencies. Language speaker uses these competencies together and his speaking proficiency depends on his/her skill to combine these communication tools.

Related to the communicative competencies, Nakatani (2006) conducted a research on oral communication strategies. His participants were 400 English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. He developed an instrument which he called *Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI)*. It consists of subscales which measure

strategies for coping with listening and speaking problems during communication. The findings from this study suggest that learners with high levels of oral proficiency frequently use the following strategies: social affective, negotiation of meaning and fluency oriented strategies (Nakatani, 2006). As can be noticed, there is a very tiny distinction between communicative/communication skills and strategies. Communication skills and competencies mostly include language knowledge and its pragmatic component whereas communication strategies include also affective and social components.

Aydoğan and Gupta (2014, in press) examined, among other topics, self-reported verbal intelligence in 125 students from international colleges in Sarajevo. Their results suggest that, on a scale from one to five, participants estimated their verbal skills to be 4.29 (this is the arithmetic mean of their answers). Therefore, students believe that they have above-average levels of verbal intelligence. They also assessed their learning skills as higher than average (the arithmetic mean was 4.08).

Aydoğan and Akbarov (2014c) conducted a study about attitudes towards English language usage and intercultural sensitivity of students. Some of their variables are relevant for the insight to English language learning skills and competencies. They got statistically significant correlations between self-reported English competence and all intercultural sensitivity variables as well as between self-reported verbal abilities and five intercultural facets (interaction engagement, respect for cultural differences, interaction enjoyment, interaction attentiveness and interaction confidence).

7.4 Metacognitive strategies

Metacognition is a term from cognitive psychology and cognitive linguistics. In a brief explanation, it is a set of strategies for monitoring and understanding one's own mental processes. Metacognition has a central role in learning and it is a key feature of strategic learners (Chamot, 2004). These strategies are common for self-regulated learners who often use a strategy called metacognitive knowledge monitoring – MKM (Isaacson & Fujita, 2006). Metacognition could be divided into two subcategories i.e. it has two levels (Shen & Liu, 2011): *comprehension level* (setting

learning goals and selecting cognitive strategies while learning) and *experienced level* (using specific metacognitive strategies during the learning process).

Zimmerman (1998) wrote on three phases of using metacognitive and self-regulating strategies:

- 1) *Forethought* phase (a sense of self-efficacy, strategic planning and goal setting);
- 2) *Performance* phase (self-monitoring, self-instruction and attention focusing);
- 3) *Self-reflection* phase (some kind of evaluation process, which includes the extent to which goals were achieved and personal reactions to it).

As can be noticed, metacognition is a conscious process which is superior cognitive process than perception, thinking and learning. Metacognitive strategies include self-efficacy, self-motivation and giving instructions to ourselves (i.e. providing self-feedback). In other words, this is a sort of higher level thinking or higher-order processing.

There is a small body of research in this field. Lots of researchers focus on learning strategies where they usually examine middle-level cognitive processes. However, several studies were found which deeply examines metacognitive strategies and their relevance for educational outcomes.

Chamot (2004) identified four recursive processes of metacognition:

- a) *Planning* (make a plan of learning, i.e. defining and designing each step in advance);
- b) *Monitoring* (monitoring production, comprehension and recall processes);
- c) *Problem-solving* (when students perceive difficulties, they try to overcome them with different approaches to specific tasks); and
- d) *Evaluating* (self-reflection; the evaluation of our own work on the particular task or of our learning activities).

Successful students use those strategies more frequently than those who are not educationally successful. They plan, monitor, reinforce and support themselves when they perceive the obstacle (e.g. the task is difficult), and evaluate the whole process of resolving school problems or their active participation in learning activities.

O'Neil and Abedi (1996) developed a psychological instrument in order to measure the usage of metacognitive strategies. It was called *State Metacognitive Inventory*. It was composed of four subscales: Awareness, Planning, Cognitive strategy and Self-checking. Full and reduced version of this inventory has very good reliability (internal consistency). Their research was conducted on students from community colleges and high schools. Additional result was a positive and statistically significant correlation between state metacognition and students' performance in mathematics. Among the mentioned subscales, the highest correlations were found for cognitive strategy and planning.

Shen and Liu (2011) examined a program which was quasi-experimentally tested in order to estimate its potential to improve metacognitive strategies among students. The results suggested that general metacognitive strategy, self-planning and self-monitoring were significantly improved. This program was designed to help participants to: make learning plan, understand the basic concepts related to metacognition, apply self-modifying strategy, evaluate one's own learning performance, detect differences among learners' achievements and find possible contributors to participants' learning difficulties, etc.

Veenman, Van Hout-Wolters, and Afflerbach (2006) composed a list of terms which can be used almost synonymously with metacognition: metacognitive awareness, metacognitive experiences, judgement of learning, metacognitive knowledge, executive skills, metacomponents, self-regulation, metamemory and metacognitive beliefs. These authors highlighted the interaction between metacognitive strategies and domain-specific knowledge (Veenman et al., 2006). In addition, metacognitive abilities are closely related to cognitive abilities, but these terms cannot be used interchangeably. They also discussed on dialectical nature of metacognition if it is a conscious or an automatic process and if it could be general or just domain-specific.

Veenman et al. (2006) divided assessment methods of metacognition into two groups:

- a) *Off-line* methods (the assessment is conducted before or after the particular school activity/exercise) and

- b) *On-line* methods (the assessment is conducted during task-solving process which is a some kind of formative evaluation).

Veenman, Wilhelm and Beishuizen (2004) found that the frequency of using metacognitive strategies increases with age. This could be possible because the level of intelligence also increases while we get older. But, these authors showed that one part of metacognitive strategies variance was independent of participants' general intelligence. They concluded that metacognition is a general (to some extent – task independent ability) and individual (person-related) characteristic across different age groups (Veenman et al., 2004).

Based on the previous empirical findings, it can be supposed that intrinsically motivated students use metacognitive strategies more efficiently than extrinsically motivated students. These strategies have a great impact on school/academic performance and achievement. They also can lead to better comprehension and understanding of learning materials.

Educators should teach metacognitive strategies to their students, but there is a disagreement between theorists in the way how they have to be taught. Some of them think that the teacher has to give extra classes to his/her students. Others claim that the lessons on metacognitive strategies have to be included in standard curriculum of the particular school subject/course.

Students do not need to have high intellectual abilities (i.e. general intelligence), in order to acquire and assimilate these strategies. With an appropriate facilitator, who could be for example an English language teacher or instructor, students can learn how to use metacognitive strategies. They should also acquire other learning strategies which can be applied together with metacognitive strategies.

Metacognitive and other learning strategies must be recognised by students as the tools which can help them to acquire new knowledge, understand topics which are studied at the class and to achieve good school grades. It is hard to change students' learning habits, styles and strategies which they usually use. However, it is not

impossible and every teacher has to try to encourage positive change in his/her students as well as to make positive classroom climate.



CHAPTER 8

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND STATISTICS IN EDUCATION

It is of vital importance to provide a brief summary of methodological and statistical techniques which can be applied in the research of foreign/second language comprehension. Hence, the following subchapters are about qualitative and quantitative methodology as well as about parametric and nonparametric statistics.

8.1 Methodology in educational science

Researchers have developed lots of methods for examination and investigation of the educationally relevant variables. Variable is a feature which is not fixed (i.e. it is not a constant). Its values change across participants, research situations and time. One variable can cause the other and that is an *independent variable*. On the other hand, a variable whose values are changed or influenced by values from another variable is called *dependent variable*. If predictions are to be made based on some sets of variables, those are called *predictors*. The predictions are made for the output variable which is called *criterion*.

Another classification of variables divide them into discrete variables and continuous variables. Discrete variables can be: *dichotomous* (e.g. gender – male and female; test performance – passed or failed), *trichotomous* (e.g. intelligence – below the average, average and above the average), and *polychotomous variables* (e.g. academic grades: A – excellent, B – excellent with small knowledge/skills deficiency, C – very good, D – good, E, - sufficient, and F – insufficient).

On the other hand, continuous variables are scale-based where there are lots of different values which represent the level of one's skill, knowledge and personality trait or test performance. The examples are: self-esteem, results on English language exam, numeric intelligence and reading velocity measured in number of words per minute etc. Most of the variables used in this dissertation are continuous whereas there is also a small number of discrete variables (which are sociodemographic characteristics of our participants).

Variables can be divided by their measurement levels into four groups (e.g. Hancock & Mueller, 2010):

1. *Nominal* variables (e.g. marital status: married vs. single; the colour of eyes: green, blue, brown and black; nationality: Turkish, Bosnian, English, French and Spanish etc.);
2. *Ordinal* variables (e.g. ranking lists of students based on their results on final exams, midterms or homework assignments);
3. *Interval* variables (e.g. scales and questionnaires which measure personality traits, motivation, affective states and tests of intelligence and performance, etc.: aggression, perfectionism, job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, fear, life satisfaction - well being, task performance, emotional intelligence and physical self esteem...); and
4. *Ratio* variables (height, weight, length and substance concentration...).

The research questions and hypotheses to specify the relationship between studied variables are defined. Hypotheses are claims or assertions about the relations of relevant variables and about differences between some features (or levels) of variables. Besides, it has to be indicated that statistically significant or non-significant relations or differences between variables/levels is expected. Regarding to this, there are null-hypotheses and affirmative/alternative hypotheses. The following examples are provided:

1. There is a positive and statistically significant correlation between students' learning habits and their test performances.
2. Foreign language learning skills do not correlate significantly with personality traits of students.

3. There is not statistically significant gender differences in metacognitive strategies among students.
4. There are statistically significant differences between Turkish and Bosnian university students in English communication competencies and strategies.

When the previous studies have showed that results in a particular field converge, the hypotheses is proposed which are in accordance with these findings. These hypotheses are mostly affirmative. Otherwise, the hypothesis can be proposed based on logical explanations and expectations.

The next step is hypothesis testing or significance testing. According to Kothari (2004): "hypothesis testing helps to decide on the basis of a sample data whether a hypothesis about the population is likely to be true or false." Therefore, it is tested if our results are obtained due to chance (i.e. random factors), or they are really valid findings. The absolute confirmation of hypothesis cannot be gotten, instead it is said that a particular hypothesis can be accepted with some error (in social sciences and it is usually 5%-error or 1% error).

We can have four scenarios while testing and accepting or refusing hypotheses (e.g. Kothari, 2004):

- a. We accepted the correct hypothesis.
- b. We refused the incorrect hypothesis.
- c. We accepted the incorrect hypothesis.
- d. We refused the correct hypothesis.

The first two scenarios are favorable as well as acceptable. But, it can happen that we have accepted the hypothesis which is in fact false but has been accepted or the hypothesis which is true but has been refused. If the incorrect affirmative hypothesis is accepted (confirmed), this is the 1st type of error. When the correct affirmative hypothesis is refused, this is called the 2nd type of error.

Population values (results) are called *parameters* (e.g. arithmetical mean of English language speaking proficiency measured by scales or oral tests in population of non-

native English speakers). Sample values (scores, results) are called *statistics* and they are estimates of parameters (e.g. reading performance in a particular school whose students are our participants). As the sample is larger and more representative, the participants' scores (statistics) are closer to population values.

Alison Mackey and Susan Gass (2005) in their book *Second Language Research: Methodology and Design* provided a comprehensive review of research methods.

They described the following *quantitative methods* and designs:

- a. Associational (correlational) research;
- b. Experimental and quasi-experimental research;
- c. Repeated measures design;
- d. Time-series design;
- e. One-shot design; and
- f. Factorial design.

The thing that these methods (or research types) have in common is getting quantitative data which can be analysed statistically. Experimental studies are usually conducted on small number of participants whereas correlational studies are conducted on a larger number of individuals.

Correlational research includes the calculation of coefficients of correlation and association between studied variables. Correlation can be positive or negative (regarding to the sign of correlation), or can be low, moderate or high (regarding to the magnitude of its coefficient). Correlation does not imply causation.

Causation is typical for experimental research designs where the confounding factors can be controlled and independent variables (e.g. their levels such as the magnitude of applied stimuli) can be manipulated. In experimental designs, there are at least two groups: one is experimental (where the stimuli are applied) and the other is control group (which is without a treatment or with a treatment which is a substitute for real treatment).

In his *Handbook of Parametric and Nonparametric Statistical Procedures*, Sheskin (2007) provided four major types of experimental designs:

- a. Pre-experimental designs;
- b. Quasi-experimental designs;
- c. True experimental designs; and
- d. Single-subject experimental designs.

When the effects of treatment is repeatedly measured, it is the case of repeated measures design. Time-series design is a similar form of researching approach. One-shot design is applied at the particular point in time. It serves to detect and measure current state, performance or achievement (e.g. English language skills or knowledge) of our participants. On the other hand, factorial design includes at least two independent variables (e.g. A –teaching method and B – gender of participants), and they could be in interaction with each other (A x B).

Mackey and Gass (2005) also described and explained the following *qualitative methods*:

- a. Ethnographies;
- b. Interviews;
- c. Case studies;
- d. Diaries/journals; and
- e. Observational studies.

The main scope of ethnographic studies is to describe ("rich descriptions") cultural and social behaviour of a group (e.g. a tribe or a nation). In our context, languages (precisely slangs) of American ghettos or language forms in African tribes can be studied. The notes are made as objectively as possible and after that a research report is written.

Interviews can be: structured, semi-structured and unstructured, regarding to pre-prepared questions (if the interviewer adheres to the question order and asks a participant only things which are in the interviewing form, this is the case of structured interview; on the other hand, if interviewer deviates from the prepared

questions, or allows the participant to talk at his/her own pace, this is a kind of semi- or unstructured /free/ interviewing).

Case study is conducted with one person as a participant. As researchers, it is intended to describe the participant's motivation, anxiety and metacognitive strategies usage etc. in more details. For example, a native Japanese speaker who begins to study English and follow him/her during his/her effort to acquire and comprehend English pronunciation, grammar rules and spelling can be examined.

The journals or diaries of participants can also be analyzed. This is a subtype of content analysis where the following items can be examined about participants' usage of grammar, spelling errors, general composition of his/her writings and usage of metaphors and/or literal meanings of words etc.

Observational studies include participatory observation (where the researcher directly communicates with his/her participants e.g. lives with them, does various activities which they usually do, speaks with them and participates in their rituals and everyday duties) and non-participatory observation (where the researcher is trying to retain objectivity and to record the behaviour patterns and outcomes of the particular group of people).

8.2 Statistics in educational science

Statistics can be divided into two broad categories – descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. *Descriptive statistics* includes tabular and graphical organization and representations of data (e.g. frequencies and percents of participants in the research; arithmetic means and standard deviations of results/scores, the range of data etc.). *Inferential statistics* is based on probability theory and includes conducting of statistical tests and calculating the statistical significance of test results i.e. p-values (e.g. Repišti, 2012).

Statistics could also be (based on the number of analysed variables and complexity of relationship between them):

- a) Univariate,

- b) Bivariate, and
- c) Multivariate.

Univariate statistics contains measures of central tendency and variability of data (Repišti, 2012; Sheskin, 2007): arithmetic mean, weighed mean, geometric mean, harmonic mean, median, mode, standard deviation, interquartile range, percentiles, minimal and maximal values...). These values are calculated for every considered variable. *Bivariate* statistics include the calculation of coefficients and conducting tests with two variables. The examples are calculation of correlation coefficients (between two variables which are supposed to be correlated) and t-tests (calculating the significance of differences between two groups of participants). Correlational/associational coefficients are: Pearson's r , Spearman's ρ , Kendall's tau, phi-coefficient, tetrachoric coefficient and coefficients of partial correlation and association (Kothari, 2004). T-tests can be calculated for independent and dependent (paired) samples (Sheskin, 2007).

On the other hand, the most complex methods are those of *multivariate* statistics. There are lots of variables and their interactions. The examples are: canonical correlational analysis, cluster analysis, explorative and confirmative factor analysis (EFA and CFA), multivariate regression analysis (MRA), multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and their variations.

The third way to classify statistical methods is based on normal curve. Almost every phenomenon and variable in the nature and society and things are distributed according to normal (Gaussian) curve. If our data is distributed so, *parametric* statistical techniques (Neideen & Brasel, 2007; Sheskin, 2007) is used: e.g. Pearson's correlational coefficient, analysis of variance (ANOVA), t-tests, etc.. If not, *nonparametric* tests and calculation of nonparametric coefficients e.g. Spearman's rho coefficient for ranked data, Mann-Whitney U test, Kruskal-Wallis test, sign test and chi-squared test etc. have to be conducted. (Neideen & Brasel, 2007).

If a statistic is significant, it cannot be concluded that it is more or less significant just based on p-value (e.g. $p < .05$, $p < .01$, or $p < .001$). The effect size also has to be calculated meaning which value indicates the magnitude of difference between

compared groups or magnitude of relation between two or more variables (Sullivan & Feinn, 2012).

In addition, when a correlational/associational study is conducted, the common (shared) variance between studied variables can also be calculated. It can be obtained by squaring correlational or multiple correlational coefficient, that is, r^2 or R^2 (Repišti, 2012). When this/these value(s) are multiplied by 100, the percentage of shared variance is gotten. This measure (value) is a sort of effect size in correlational studies.

In the figure below, some statistical techniques are listed (which serve as typical examples), in accordance with the mentioned and explained classifications of statistics (Figure 8.1).

	Parametric statistics	Nonparametric statistics	
Univariate methods	Arithmetic mean (M)	Median (Mdn or C)	Mode (Mod or D)
	Standard deviation (SD)	Interquartile range (IQR)	Semi-interquartile range (SQR)
Bivariate methods	t-test for independent and dependent samples	Mann-Whitney U test	Wilcoxon's Test
	Pearson's product-moment coefficient (r)	Spearman's rho (r_s) Coefficient	Kendall's tau coefficient
			Chi-squared test
Multivariate methods	Analysis of variance (ANOVA)	Kruskal-Wallis test	Friedman's Test
	Simple and multiple linear regression analysis	Ordinal regression analysis	Binary logistic regression analysis

FIGURE 8.1 Statistical methods/techniques (Sheskin, 2007 and Kothari, 2004)

Measures of central tendency are participants' average results on variables. However, measures of variability or dispersion are values which indicate to which extent our data vary (Sheskin, 2007). Arithmetic mean is the average score on a variable (test, personality trait, motivational factor etc.). Median is the value whose place is in the middle of arranged data. Mode is the most frequent value (score) in a particular data set. Standard deviation is the root of average distance of participants' results from the average value (i.e. the mean). Interquartile range is the range which have 50% of average results. Semi-interquartile range is a range of 25% results which are around the average value (in this case, the average value is median).

T-test compares two groups in order to find significant differences between them. If we have, for example, experimental and control group, it can be applied t-test there for independent samples. Otherwise (e.g. if the participants' scores are repeatedly measured on a particular variable), t-test can be applied for dependent samples. Nonparametric counterparts of t-tests are mann-Whitney U test and Wilcoxon's test.

Pearson's r coefficient measures the correlation between two normally distributed variables. It is a linear measure of correlation. Its nonparametric counterparts are Spearman's rank coefficient and Kendall's tau coefficient (e.g. Kothari, 2004). Chi-squared test can provide information on the statistical significance between two or more frequencies (i.e. numbers of people in every group).

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) can be simple (one-way ANOVA) or complex (two-ways or three ways ANOVA). It is a parametric technique and is usually used in experimental studies as well as in quasi-experimental research designs. This is, in some way, an extension of t-test because there are more than two groups of participants to be compared there (e.g. Sheskin, 2007). In addition, the number of independent variables is larger and their interactions (i.e. their joint/shared impact on dependent variables) can also be examined. There are main effects (single effects of each independent variable) and effects of interaction (shared effect of two, three or more independent variables) in ANOVA (e. g. Repišti, 2012). Its nonparametric counterparts are Kruskal-Wallis and Friedman tests.

In regression analysis, one predictor and one criterion can be implemented. This is a simple form of regression analysis. Otherwise, there could be two or more predictors and one criterion. This is the case of multiple regression analysis (MRA). Multiple coefficient of correlation can also be applied there which is a measure of association between the set of predictors and a particular criterion (Sheskin, 2007; Repišti, 2012). By MRA, different models can be tested with various number of predictors that can be included in this statistical procedure. Nonparametric counterparts of the multiple regression analysis are for example ordinal regression and binary logistic regression analysis.

In foreign/second language education, statistics can be used, for example, to analyze the following:

- a) Speaking velocity differences between native and non-native English speakers (where t-test for independent samples or Mann-Whitney U test can be applied).
- b) Speaking correctness between the mentioned groups of participants (it can also be applied t-test for independent samples or one of its nonparametric counterparts).
- c) Correlation between language learning skills, strategies and test performance (there can be the application of Pearson's r coefficient of linear association, or e.g. Spearman's rank coefficient).
- d) Relationship between foreign language teaching methods and students' results on final exams (in order to investigate this relationship, Pearson's r coefficient, Spearman's ρ coefficient or Kendall's tau coefficient can be applied).
- e) Relationship between students' studying/learning habits and their scores on school/academic assignments (there could be calculation of the same coefficients as for 'c' and 'd' examples above).
- f) Intercultural differences in English language speaking anxiety (if we have only two groups of participants to be compared, for example, Croatian and Japanese students, t-test is used for independent samples; otherwise, analysis of variance – ANOVA will be conducted).
- g) Prediction power of academic self-esteem, verbal intelligence, self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation on foreign language test performance

among students/learners (multiple regression analysis – MRA will be conducted, because academic self-esteem, verbal intelligence, self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation are predictors and test scores are criterion in this case).

- h) Effects of task-based teaching method is observed while students' English language test scores are obtained before the application of TBTM and after it has finished (t-test is conducted there for dependent samples, or its nonparametric counterpart, because participants/students are followed through the time and their test scores are measured in two time points).
- i) Differences between number of people who attend to English, French and Spanish courses (the number of people who attend to each language course is called the frequency of participants in each course category; in order to compare those frequencies, chi-squared test is conducted; if the result is statistically significant, it is pointed out that there is unequal number of learners who attend to each of the mentioned language courses).

In this dissertation, the following statistical measures and tests are used which covers both descriptive and inferential statistics:

- 1) Arithmetic means (M) and standard deviations (SD);
- 2) Range of results/scores (minimal and maximal scores are calculated);
- 3) T-tests for independent and dependent samples and their statistical significance;
- 4) Pearson's coefficient of correlation (r) and its statistical significance;
- 5) Coefficients of determination (i.e. Pearson's coefficients squared) in order to determine the common variance of our variables;
- 6) Multiple regression analysis (MRA), because there are lots of predictors and one criterion;
- 7) Canonical correlational analysis (CCA), in order to investigate the relationship between two sets of variables);
- 8) Cluster analysis, in order to try to classify the participants into several groups based on their results on psychological and pedagogical scales (instruments, measures).

The ROC (acronym for *Receiver Operating Characteristic*) curve analysis is also used. This technique helps us to determine predictive power of our main quantitative variables (social self-esteem, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, social self-esteem, English language speaking anxiety and learning strategies), when criterion variable is dichotomous (binary). When a plot of this curve is drawn, its position can indicate the usefulness of the particular variable. Furthermore, the area under the curve (AUC) is examined as well as its statistical significance. This method is usually used in biomedical sciences, but nowadays it is applicable in social sciences as well. Hence, the association between one quantitative (interval and continuous) and one dichotomous (dummy, binary or two-level qualitative) variable is examined in the research.

Therefore, it is planned to use univariate, bivariate and multivariate methods of parametric statistics. This is because the methods of parametric statistics are more accurate and yield more valid results compared to the nonparametric statistical methods.

Both statistical and methodological approaches are linked to our thesis because an empirical study has been conducted. Furthermore, it was based on quantitative methodology and advanced statistical techniques. This kind of approach guarantees more valid and reliable results. Thus, the application of theories in statistics and methodology makes the process of collecting and analyzing data more objective, correct and scientific.

CHAPTER 9

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

This section will include both research questions and hypotheses which was proposed in order to examine relations and differences in the variables among students/participants. The main variables of our research were: motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic), social self-esteem, self-efficacy, English language speaking anxiety and the six learning strategies.

9.1 Research questions/objectives of the study

Based on the findings from the previous studies, the following research questions were proposed:

1. Are the participants more extrinsically or more intrinsically motivated for learning English as a foreign/second language?
2. Do our variables correlate significantly with each other?
3. Are there any gender differences?
4. Are there any differences between Turkish and Bosnian students?
5. What are the relationships between main variables and sociodemographic factors?
6. Can we predict self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills based on our main variables?

9.2 Research hypotheses

In accordance with the proposed objectives of the study (research questions), the following hypotheses (in italic) are defined with some explanations provided:

1. There are high levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation among students.
2. The correlations between our main variables are statistically significant.
3. There are no statistically significant differences between males and females in the five main variables.
4. Turkish and Bosnian students differ in their social-self esteem and do not differ in other variables.
5. There are some significant correlations between our main variables and sociodemographic factors.
6. Based on participants' results on the main variables, their self-reported levels of English skills and knowledge can be predicted.



CHAPTER 10

METHODOLOGY

In this part, the sample, instruments and procedure of the research are discussed. In the first subchapter, the sociodemographic characteristics of the participants are presented. In the second subchapter, some information is provided on the scales and questionnaires used. In the last subchapter of this section, the process of the research as well as data processing are described.

10.1 Participants

The sample consisted of 402 participants. The mean age of our participants was $M = 18.24$ and standard deviation was $SD = 1.89$. The minimum age of the participants was $X_{\min} = 15$, whereas their maximum age was $X_{\max} = 23$. The arithmetic mean of males' age was $M = 17.99$, with the standard deviation of $SD = 1.84$. The range of males' age was from 15 to 23 years. The mean age in the subsample of females was $M = 18.43$ (standard deviation was $SD = 1.92$). Their minimum age was 15 and maximum age was 23, as in the subsample of males.

The subsample (high school students) were, on average, 16.73 years old (standard deviation of their age was $SD = 1.14$). The range of high school students' age was from 15 to 19. University students were from 18 to 23 years old. The arithmetic mean of their age was $M = 19.59$, whereas the value of standard deviation was $SD = 1.32$.

Gender distribution of our sample is presented in the figure below (Fig. 10.1).

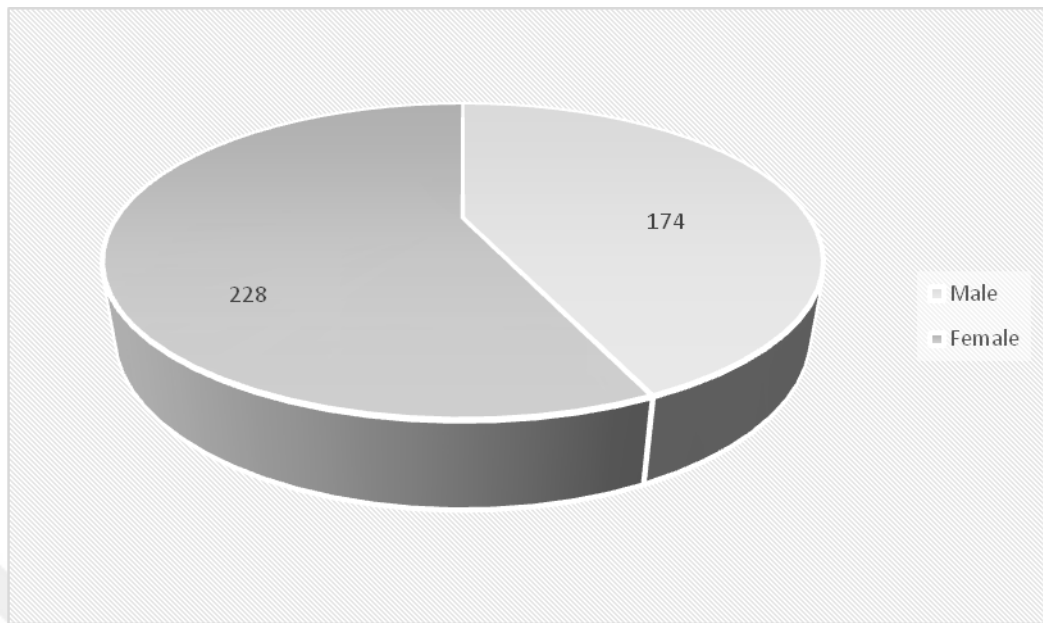


FIGURE 10.1 Gender distribution of our sample

As can be seen (Fig. 10.1), in the sample were more females ($n = 228$, i.e. 56.7% of the total sample) than males ($n = 174$, i.e. 43.3% of the total number of participants).

Figure 10.2 below is the graphical representation of the number of high school as well as university students.

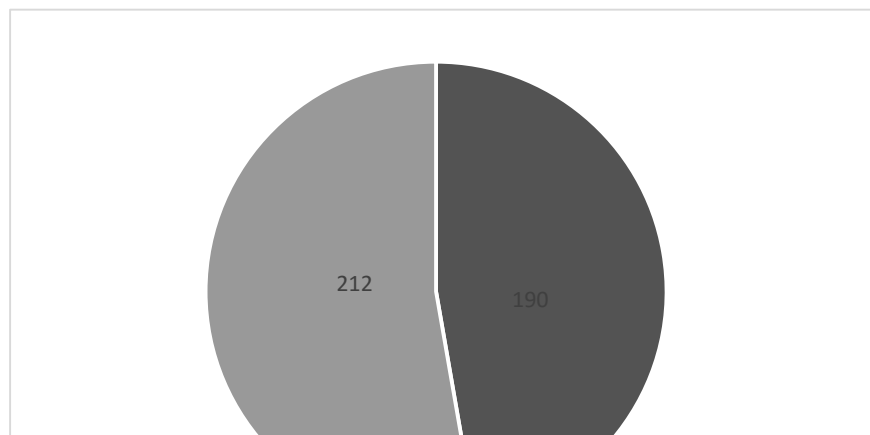


FIGURE 10.2 High school/university attendance

In Figure 10.2, it can be seen that in the sample, there were more university students ($n = 212$, which is 52.7% of the total sample) than high school students ($n = 190$, i.e. 47.3% of the total number of participants in the research).

The nationality of our participants is displayed in Figure 10.3. In our main analysis, the results of Turkish and Bosnian students are compared because they were the most numerous groups of participants in our sample.

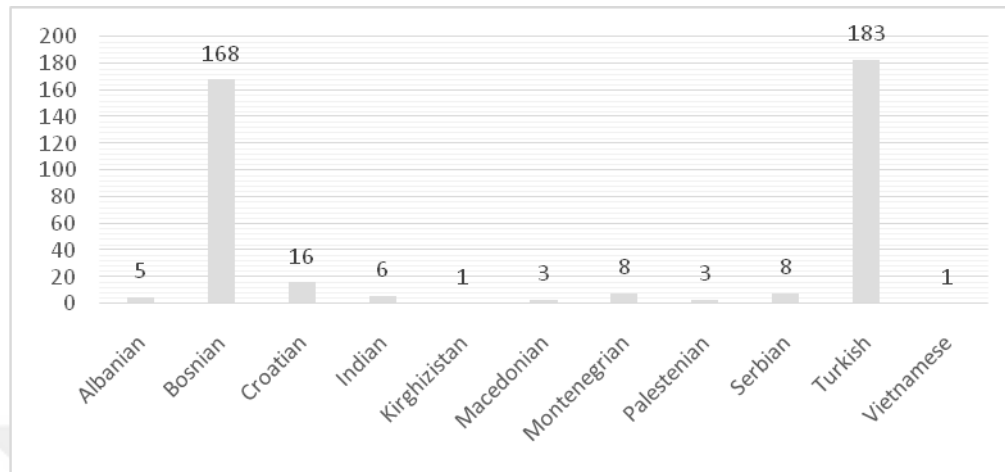


Figure 10.3 Nationality of the participants

As can be noticed (Fig. 10.3), the most numerous nationality was Turkish ($n = 183$; i.e. 45.52% of the total sample), then Bosnian ($n = 168$; i.e. 41.79% of all participants in the research), Croatian ($n = 16$; 3.98%), Serbian and Montenegrin (both $n = 8$; 1.99% for each nationality group), Indian ($n = 6$; 1.49%) and Albanian ($n = 5$; 1.24%). In our sample, there were three Macedonians as well as Palestenians (each 0.75% of the total sample). There was also one participant who was from Kirghizistan and one subject who was Vietnamese (each 0.25% of all participants in our sample).

Our participants were also asked to provide information on their monthly income in US dollars. It was decided to provide them with answering format which consists of five categories: below 500 dollars, 500 – 1000 dollars, 1000 – 1500 dollars, 1500 – 2000 dollars, and more than 2000 dollars (Figure 10.4).

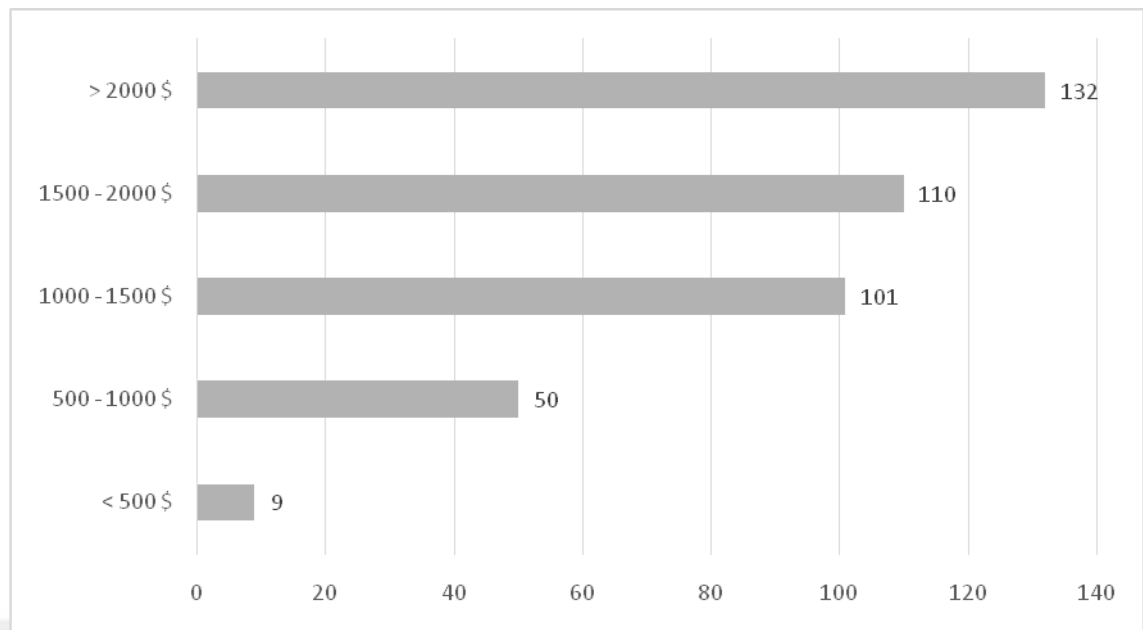


FIGURE 10.4 Participants' income per month

In Figure 10.4, it is seen that most of the participants report that their monthly income was higher than 2000\$ ($n = 132$; i.e. 32.8% of the total sample). On the other hand, 110 participants (26.2% of all subjects) have monthly incomes from 1500 to 2000 dollars, 101 subjects (i.e. 24.0% of the total sample) earn from 1000 to 1500 dollars per month, 50 participants (12.4%) have monthly incomes from 500 to 1000\$, and only nine subjects (2.2% of the total sample) reported that their monthly earnings were less than 500 dollars.

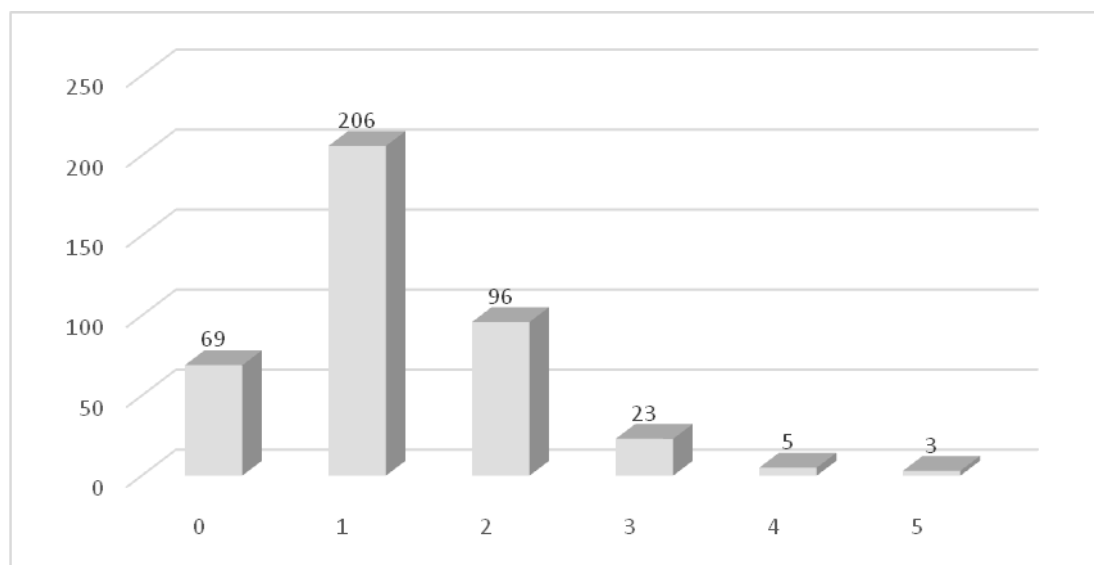


FIGURE 10.5 Number of participants' social clubs

From Figure 10.5, it can be noticed that most of our participants are members of one social club ($n = 206$; i.e. 51.24% of the total sample). Among our subjects, 96 of them participated in two social clubs ($n = 96$; 23.88% of the total number of participants). 23 participants (5.72%) are members of three social clubs, five subjects (1.24%) are members of four clubs and three participants (0.75%) are in five social clubs. Among our participants, 69 of them (i.e. 17.16% of the total sample) are not members of any social club.

Because the social self-esteem of the participants are examined, it is useful to know how many members there are in their families. Family size of our subjects is displayed in Figure 10.6.

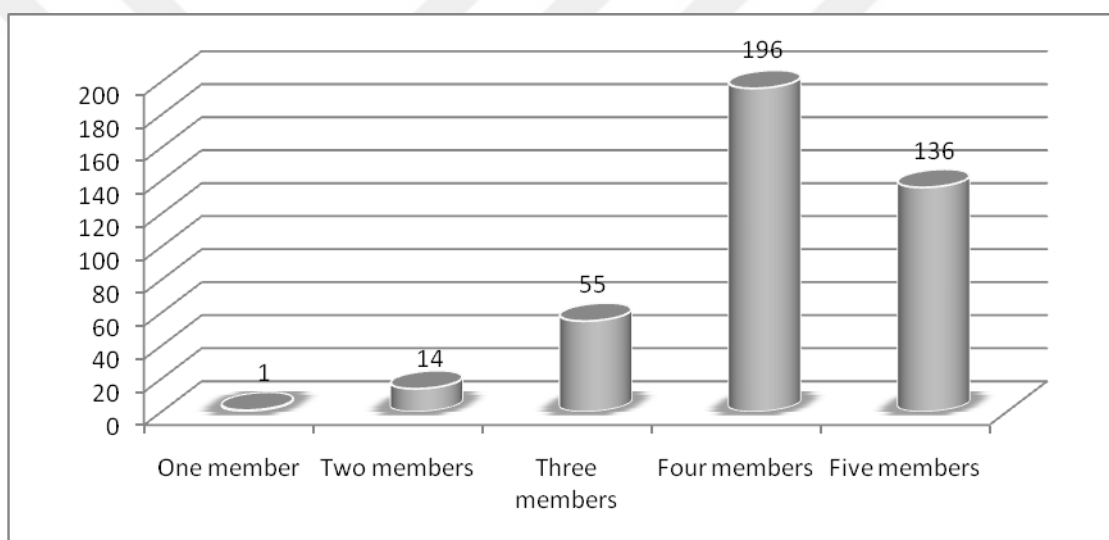


FIGURE 10.6 Family size of our participants

As can be noticed from Fig. 10.6, participants' family size ranged from one to five members. Most of them live in four-member families ($n = 196$; 48.76% of total participants). 136 subjects (33.83%) have families of five members, 55 (13.68%) participants live in three-member families whereas 14 (3.48%) students have families of two members. Only one participant (0.25%) reported that he/she lives alone.

Next figure (Fig. 10.7) depicts participants' answers linked to question: "Where/with whom do you live during the high school/university attendance?" The following

options were provided to them: "in a dormitory", "with your family", and "with your friends".

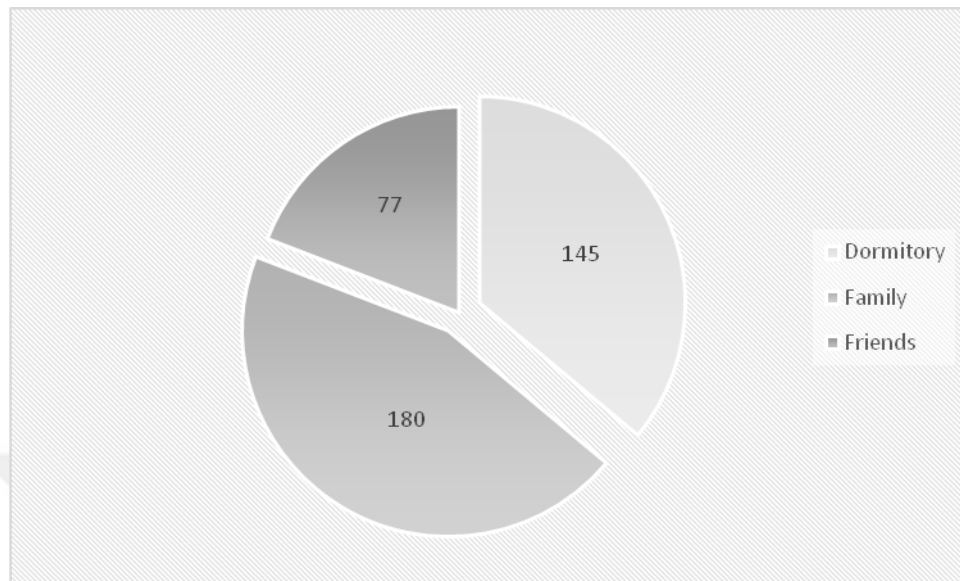


FIGURE 10.7 Where/with whom do the participants live during schooling?

As it is clear from Fig. 10.7, most of the participants live with their families ($n = 180$; i.e. 44.8% of the total sample). On the other hand, 145 of them (36.1%) live in a dormitory and 77 of the participants live with their friends (19.2% of total number of subjects).

10.2 Instruments and measures

In this research, five psychological scales have been applied. In addition, our participants were asked some sociodemographical questions on: their gender, age, nationality, attending high school or university, being member of some social clubs (and how many clubs), the number of members in their families as well as where (or with whom) they live while attending to high school or university. They were also asked to estimate their English language skills and usage on the Likert seven-point scale.

Self-Efficacy in English Language Learning and Using Scale (SEELUS, Aydoğan, 2014). This measure consists of 12 items which are the indicators of self-efficacy while learning and using English language. All items are in the form of five-point

Likert scale. Six of them are reversely-coded (i.e. 1 means 5, 2 means 4 etc.): 1, 3, 4, 6, 7 and 8. When a sum of participant's answer (after recoding) is taken, the score on this scale is gotten. This sum can also be divided by 12 and the average result (the arithmetic mean of answers for every participant) can be gotten. In the research, SEELUS had excellent reliability because its Cronbach's alpha coefficient was $\alpha = .930$ (this coefficient must be above .700 in order to achieve the appropriate level of internal consistency i.e. reliability).

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, Oxford, 1989) is divided into six parts: A (Remembering more effectively; 9 items), B (Using all your mental processes; 14 items), C (Compensating for missing knowledge; 6 items), D (Organizing and evaluating your learning; 9 items), E (Managing your emotions; 6 items), and F (Learning with others; 6 items). Therefore, there are 50 items in total. The answering format is Likert five-point scale where higher number indicates higher level of learning strategies. The participants' results were calculated by averaging their answers on all items of every subscale. Part E had poor correlations among its items and some of the items of other parts were not related enough to the main construct which is measured. Because of that, part E and some other items were excluded from further analysis. After it has been done, reliability coefficients of SILL subscales (i.e. parts) were as following: $\alpha = .904$ (part A with 7 items); $\alpha = .945$ (part B with 11 items); $\alpha = .894$ (part C, consisted of 5 items); $\alpha = .884$ (part D, consisted of 6 items), and $\alpha = .854$ (part F with 4 items). As can be noticed, these coefficients suggest that SILL subscales are reliable and internally consistent. The most reliable subscale is B and the least reliable subscale is F. This is due to the number of items (statements) in the particular subscale (higher number of items usually produces higher value of Cronbach's alpha coefficient).

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation for English Learning Scale (IEM – ELS, Aydoğan & Repišti, 2014) consists of 14 items, where first seven items measure intrinsic and last seven items measure extrinsic motivation. We have two subscales – Intrinsic motivation subscale and Extrinsic motivation subscale there. Every item is given in the form of five-point Likert scale (numbers indicate: 1 – complete disagreement with the statement, 2 – disagreement, 3 – neither agreement nor disagreement, 4 – agreement with the statement and 5 – absolute agreement with the particular

statement). In the current research, these subscales showed a very good internal consistency i.e. reliability. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for Intrinsic motivation subscale and Extrinsic motivation subscale were $\alpha = .889$ and $\alpha = .795$, respectively.

Speaking Anxiety Scale – English language (SAS – EI, Aydoğan, 2014) is a compilation of items from different relevant scales which best represent the concept of English language speaking anxiety. It consists of 16 items. All of them indicate feelings and manifestations of speaking anxiety state. Because it is a new instrument, exploratory factor analysis was conducted in order to estimate its construct (factorial) validity. The data matrix was appropriate for conducting factor analysis: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's measure of sample adequacy was $KMO = .974$ (it is above .700) and Bartlett's test of sphericity yielded statistically significant result ($\chi^2 = 5429$, $df = 120$, $p < .001$). Based on Kaiser-Guttman's criterion (eigenvalue over 1), one factor was extracted which indicates that this scale is unidimensional (the eigenvalue for this factor was 10.441). Therefore, SAS – EI measure one construct, is called English language speaking anxiety. Its Cronbach's coefficient was $\alpha = .945$, which indicates very high level of reliability. The answering format of this instrument is also Likert five-point scale.

Social Self-Esteem Scale (SSES, Repišti & Kerla, 2013) consists of nine items. This scale is made from the Social Self-Esteem Inventory (SSEI, Lawson et al., 1979). SSEI has 30 items and lots of them are redundant or are indicators of extraversion. Repišti and Kerla (2013) chose nine items which were highly saturated with social self-esteem factor. In the research, the mentioned adapted and revised scale was used. Five items are reversely-coded: 1, 6, 7, 8 and 9. After their recoding, participant answers are summed up and the total score is gotten. The arithmetic means of results were calculated because in this way it is easier to compare them with theoretical (expected) average values.

10.3 Research procedure and data processing

This research was conducted in 2015. The participants were the students of some private international high schools and a private university in Bosnia and Herzegovina as well as the students studying at a State university in the Aegean region of Turkey studying in various programs which are similar and equivalent to each others in terms of content, competence and level. The English level of the students participating the research varied between Intermediate and Advanced. Maximum attention has been paid to make sure that the English competence levels of students both in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Turkey are the same or very close to each other for the health of the scientific study. It took them approximately 30 minutes to answer all questions on mentioned scales. Our participants stated that they had properly understood the content of questions (statements, items). Those questions were not hard and complicated for them at all. It has to be added that this study was conducted referring to professional ethics in our field and our participants were told that their answers will be used only for scientific purposes and were told to be honest and precise in their answers of questionnaires.

After the data has been collected, the database was made by entering them in SPSS for Windows (version 16.0). By using this statistical software, all psychometrical and statistical analyses were conducted. In addition, figures (graphs and diagrams) were made in MS Excel 2010. Both descriptive and inferential statistical values were conducted in order to bring even more detailed view of collected data and information.

CHAPTER 11

RESULTS

The current distribution and curriculum of English language teaching in Turkish universities do not give full support to the academic programmes or internationalisation. Students enter preparatory school with low English proficiency levels and low motivation. Preparatory school classes do not fully address these problems as the curriculum is perceived to be lacking in relevance and the classes are not delivered at the time in a student's academic career when they could be most effective (British Council Project Team, 2015).

When it comes to findings of this study, firstly the descriptive statistical values were calculated, which are displayed below, in Table 11.1. The following values were entered: M – arithmetic mean (average result); SD – standard deviation (the measure of dispersion); Min – minimum value; Max – maximum value, and R – range of data (calculated by this formula: $R = \text{Max} - \text{Min}$).

TABLE 11.1 Descriptive statistical values of scales and subscales

Variables	M	SD	Min	Max	R
Self-efficacy	4.29	0.63	1.33	5.00	3.67
Remembering more effectively (part A of the SILL)	4.23	0.69	1.29	5.00	3.71
Using all mental processes (part B of the SILL)	4.24	0.66	1.27	4.82	3.55
Compensating for missing knowledge (part C of the SILL)	4.26	0.69	1.40	5.00	3.60

Organizing and evaluating learning (part D of the SILL)	4.26	0.62	1.17	5.00	3.83
Learning with others (part F of the SILL)	4.28	0.68	1.25	5.00	3.75
Intrinsic motivation	4.34	0.58	1.86	4.86	3.00
Extrinsic motivation	2.12	0.63	1.57	4.43	2.86
Speaking anxiety	1.94	0.70	1.38	4.38	3.00
Social self-esteem	4.22	0.69	1.33	4.89	3.56

In the Table 11.1 it can be noticed that the average result of self-efficacy while learning and using English is above the expected (theoretical) value, that is, above $X = 3$. The average result on the self-efficacy scale is $M = 4.29$ which indicates that our participants perceive themselves as very self-efficient i.e. highly capable and able to learn English and apply learned skills and knowledge in the real context outside the classroom. It can also be noticed that standard deviation of their answers is small ($SD = 0.63$), which suggests that their assessments of self-efficacy are mostly in accordance with each other.

The participants in this research reported that they have high levels of learning strategies. The average estimates are as follows (in brackets are standard deviations): $M = 4.23$ for remembering more effectively ($SD = 0.69$), $M = 4.24$ for using all mental processes while learning a subject/unit ($SD = 0.66$), $M = 4.26$ for compensating for missing knowledge ($SD = 0.69$), $M = 4.26$ for organizing and evaluating one's own learning ($SD = 0.62$), and $M = 4.28$ for learning with others i.e. collaborating while studying ($SD = 0.68$). There are also small dispersions of participants' answers, therefore, they answered in quite a similar way.

Our students estimated their level of intrinsic motivation as high ($M = 4.34$), whereas their average results on extrinsic motivation subscale was lower than the theoretical average value, i.e. than $X = 3$ ($M = 2.12$). Standard deviations of provided answers were low and answers vary less for intrinsic than for extrinsic motivation (in the case

of intrinsic motivation SD = 0.58 vs. standard deviation of extrinsic motivation SD = 0.63).

The English language speaking anxiety of our participants is low ($M = 1.94$). But, in this case, the standard deviation of their answers was the highest ($SD = 0.70$). Therefore, for this scale, answers differ most from one another. However, the range of their answers is not the widest ($R = 3.00$), e.g. it is narrower than for organizing and evaluating one's own learning (where $R = 3.83$).

Finally, participants reported that their social self-esteem is very high ($M = 4.22$). Hence, they are, on average, outgoing, communicative, self-confident while socially interacting and they can easily make new contacts and meet unknown people. The standard deviation for social self-esteem is $SD = 0.69$ and the range of answers is $R = 3.56$.

In order to be more detailed and precise, frequencies for every answering category for each item in *Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)* were displayed graphically. Therefore, the five figures (Fig. 11.1. to Fig 11.5) are going to be explained because this instrument has five subscales or parts (as mentioned earlier, part E was excluded because of its poor reliability and validity).

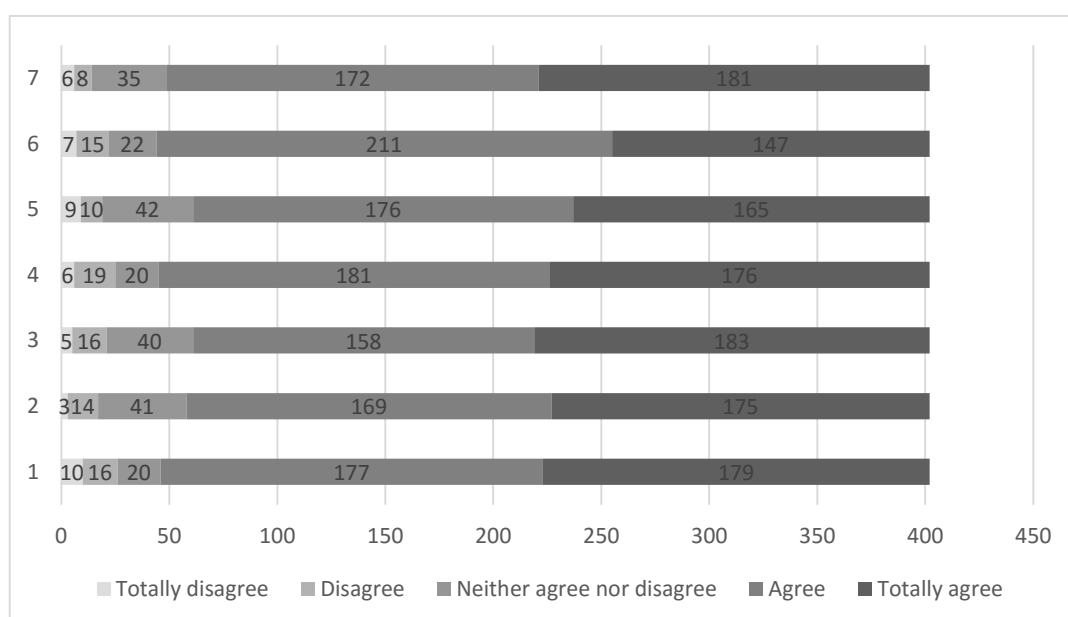


FIGURE 11.1 Remembering more effectively (part A of SILL)

The numbers from 1 to 7 are numeric labels for seven items in this part of SILL. The first item was: "I think of the relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English". 179 respondents said that they totally agreed with the content of this item, whereas 177 of them agreed with it. On the other hand, only 20 of them were indecisive (they answered "neither agree nor disagree"), 16 participants disagreed with this item and 10 participants totally disagreed with it.

The next item was: "I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them." 175 participants said that they totally agree with this item, 169 respondents agreed with its content, 41 subjects neither agreed nor disagreed, 14 of them disagreed, whereas only three participants totally disagreed with the content of this item. It can be concluded that the most part of our sample use new English words in sentences in order to let them be remembered.

The third item was: "I connect the sound of an English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word." In this case, frequencies of participants for each answering category was as following: $n = 183$ for "totally agree", $n = 158$ for "agree", $n = 40$ for "neither agree nor disagree", $n = 16$ for "disagree", and $n = 5$ for "totally disagree". Hence, most of them usually connect sounds and images of English words to help them remember it.

The next statement was: "I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used." 176 respondents said that they totally agree with this statement and 181 participants said that agree with. On the other hand, a very small number of participants chose the following answering options: "neither agree, nor disagree" ($n = 20$), "disagree" ($n = 19$), and "totally disagree" ($n = 6$).

The fifth item was: "I use rhymes to remember new English words." 165 participants said that they totally agree with it whereas 176 of them agreed with this item. 42 respondents neither agreed nor disagreed, 10 respondents disagreed, and 9 subjects totally disagreed with it. Generally speaking, our participants usually use rhymes to remember new English words.

The next statement was: "I physically act out new English words. "The largest number of participants chose the option "agree" (n = 211) and "totally agree" (n = 147). Others chose the following options: "neither agree, nor disagree" (n = 22), "disagree" (n = 15), and "totally disagree" (n = 7). Therefore, lots of them physically act out new English words.

The last item in this part of the SILL was: "I remember the new words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board or on a street sign. 181 subjects totally agreed with it, 172 agreed with its content, 35 of them picked the option "neither agree, nor disagree", 8 participants disagreed and only six of them totally disagreed with this item.

As can be noticed in Fig. 12, all distributions of answers are shifted to higher values (i.e. to categories "agree" and "totally disagree"). In order to statistically check if this distributions differ from the normal curve, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were conducted for each item. The results are displayed below, in Table 11.2.

TABLE 11.2 K-S tests for determining normality of distributions (part A)

No. of item	K-S Z	Df	P
1.	.281	402	.000
2.	.255	402	.000
3.	.262	402	.000
4.	.275	402	.000
5.	.264	402	.000
6.	.303	402	.000
7.	.260	402	.000

It can be concluded from the Table 11.2 that in each case the difference between distribution of answers and normal curve is statistically significant (values of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z–statistic ranged from .255 to .303 and for all of them $p < .001$). Hence, our participants very frequently use the learning strategy labeled as "remembering more effectively".

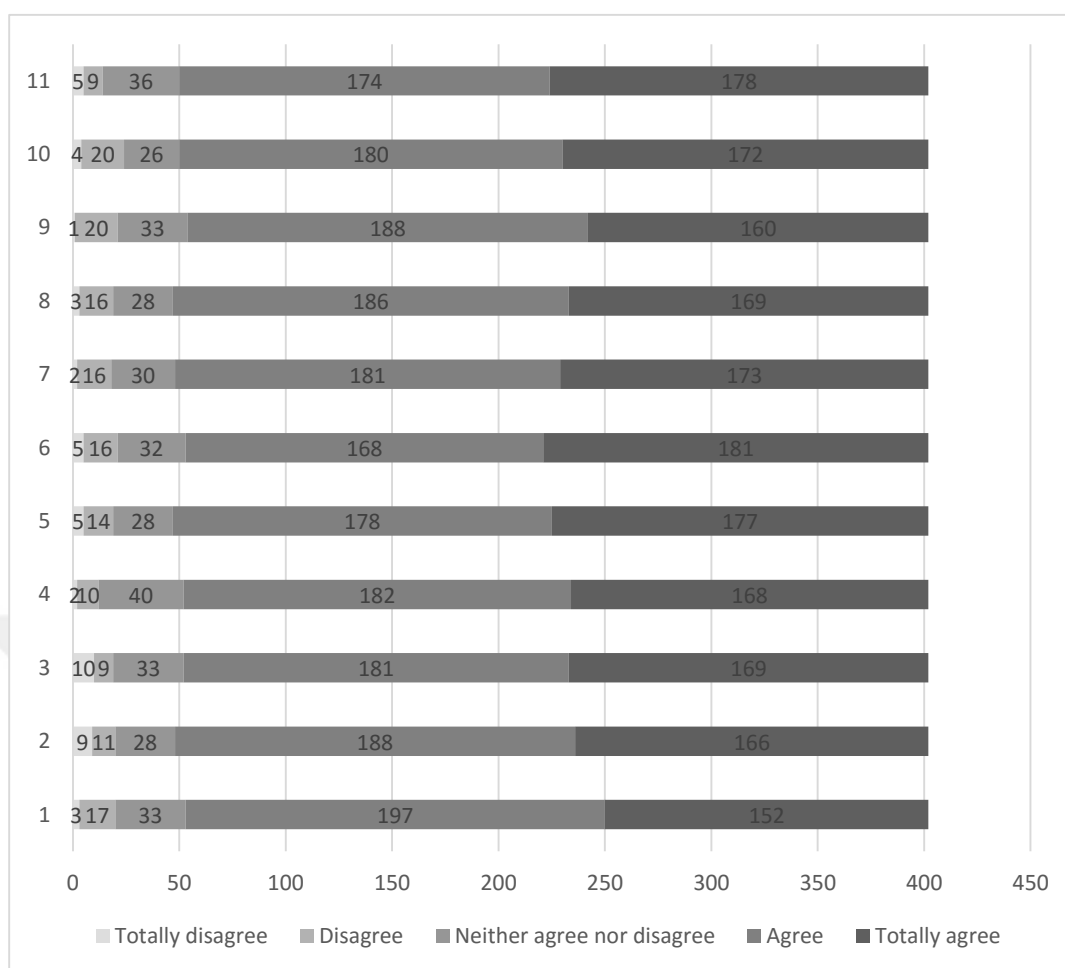


FIGURE 11.2 Using all mental processes (part B)

Figure 11.2 follows the logic of the previous figure. As can be noticed, there is a larger number of participants who agreed or totally agreed with items in part B of the SILL than those who are indecisive (neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement) or who disagreed with the content of presented items.

152 participants totally agreed with the first statement ("I say or write new English words several times"), 197 of them agreed, 33 neither agreed nor disagreed, 17 disagreed and only three totally disagreed with its content. Hence, they usually say or write new English words several times in order to remember and learn them.

166 participants totally agreed with the item: "I try to talk like native English speakers". 188 of them agreed, 28 neither agreed nor disagreed, 11 disagreed and 9

totally disagreed with the content of the mentioned statement. Therefore, lots of our respondents really try to talk like native English speakers.

In the case of the third item of part B ("I practice the sounds of English"), 169 subjects totally agreed, 181 subjects agreed, 33 neither agreed nor disagreed, 9 disagreed and 10 totally disagreed with this statement. Students, hence, usually practice the English sounds.

168 of our respondents said that they totally agree with the item: "I use the English word I know in different ways", whereas 182 participants said that they agree with its content. On the other hand, 40 of them neither agreed nor disagreed, 10 disagreed and only 2 subjects totally disagreed with it. The participants apply English vocabulary in different ways.

In the case of the item: "I start conversations in English", 177 participants totally agreed, 178 of them agreed, 28 neither agreed nor disagreed, 14 disagreed and 5 totally disagreed with this statement. Students usually start conversations in English in this research.

181 participants totally agree with the statement: "I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English." 168 subjects agreed, 32 neither agreed nor disagreed, 16 disagreed, and 5 participants disagreed with this item. Therefore, they watch English TV shows and go to movies spoken in English language.

Considering the statement: "I read for pleasure in English", 173 subjects totally agreed whereas 181 agreed with this item. On the other hand, a very small number of them chose other answering categories: "neither agree, nor disagree" ($n = 30$), "disagree" ($n = 16$), and "totally disagree" ($n = 2$). Hence, the students really read for pleasure in English.

In the case of the statement: "I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English", 169 participants picked the option "totally agree" and 186 of them chose the option "agree". Other answering options were chosen by the following number of

participants: n = 28 ("neither agree, nor disagree"), n = 16 ("disagree"), and n = 3 ("totally disagree").

160 participants totally agreed with the item: "I try to find patterns in English", whereas 188 subjects agreed with it. 33 respondents chose the option "neither agree, nor disagree", 20 of them said that they disagree and only one participant said that s/he totally disagrees with the content of this item. Hence, lots of our participants usually try to find patterns while learning English language.

In the case of the statement: "I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand", distribution of frequencies was as following: n = 172 ("totally agree"), n = 180 ("agree"), n = 26 ("neither agree, nor disagree"), n = 20 ("disagree"), and n = 4 ("totally disagree"). Therefore, the most part of our students have a habit to find meanings of English words by dividing each of them into parts that they can understand.

For the last item, i.e. "I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English", frequencies for each answering category were the following: n = 178 ("totally agree"), n = 174 ("agree"), n = 36 ("neither agree, nor disagree"), n = 9 ("disagree"), and n = 5 ("totally disagree"). That is, lots of our participants usually make summaries of information that they read or hear in English language.

As in the previous case (part A), we also tested normality of distributions for each of the items in part B of the SILL questionnaire. The results are given below, in Table 11.3.

TABLE 11.3 K-S tests for determining normality of distributions (part B)

No. of item	K-S Z	df	P
1.	.276	402	.000
2.	.279	402	.000
3.	.272	402	.000
4.	.250	402	.000
5.	.259	402	.000
6.	.258	402	.000

7.	.253	402	.000
8.	.262	402	.000
9.	.264	402	.000
10.	.268	402	.000
11.	.258	402	.000

Based on data in the Table 11.3, it can be concluded that all differences are statistically significant (Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z was from .250 up to .279, df = 402, and all $p < .001$). Therefore, our participants often use all their mental processes in order to improve their English language learning process.

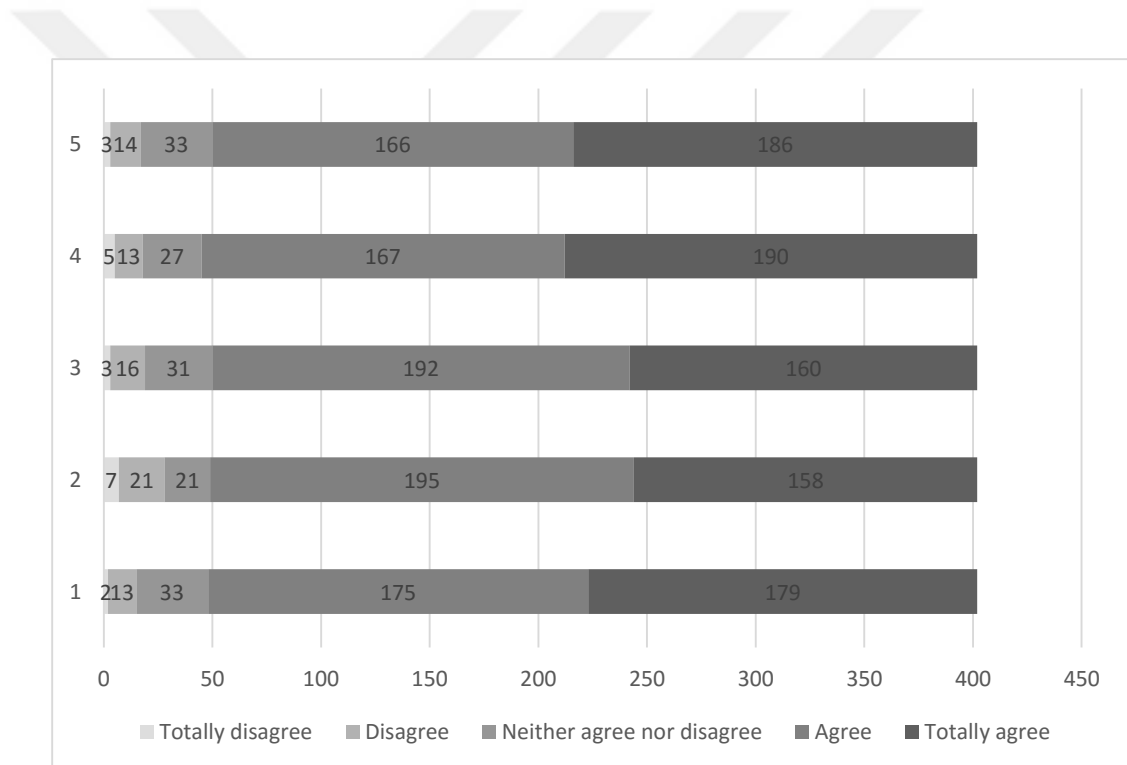


FIGURE 11.3 Compensating for missing knowledge (part C)

There are five items in the part C of the SILL (Fig. 11.3). Answers linked to the first statement ("To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses."), were distributed as following: $n = 179$ ("totally agree"), $n = 175$ ("agree"), $n = 33$ ("neither agree nor disagree"), $n = 13$ ("disagree"), and $n = 2$ ("totally disagree"). These

findings indicate that a lot of students make guesses in order to understand unfamiliar and new English words.

Agreement with the second item (i.e. "When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures") was also high (158 participants totally agreed and 195 agreed with the content of this item). On the other hand, 21 chose the option "neither agree, nor disagree", the same number of participants chose the option "disagree" whereas seven of them said that they totally disagree. Hence, our participants use gestures when they can't think of a word during conversation in English.

The third item ("I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English") yielded the following distribution of frequencies (answers): $n = 160$ ("totally agree"), $n = 192$ ("agree"), $n = 31$ ("neither agree, nor disagree"), $n = 16$ ("disagree"), and $n = 3$ ("totally disagree"). That is, lots of our respondents make up new words if they do not know the right ones in English language.

The next item (i.e. "I read English without looking up to every new word") is a good indicator of intuitive or implicit knowledge and spontaneous usage of English. 190 participants said that they totally agree with this item, 167 students agreed with it, 27 of them neither agreed nor disagreed, 13 disagreed and only 5 participants totally disagreed with the content of this statement.

The last statement in part C was: "If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing." Distribution of participants' answers was as following: $n = 186$ ("totally agree"), $n = 166$ ("agree"), $n = 33$ ("neither agree, nor disagree"), $n = 14$ ("disagree"), and $n = 3$ ("totally disagree"). Hence, if students can't remember an English word, they usually use a phrase of word that means the same thing as the original one.

Reviewing the frequencies given above (Fig. 11.3), it can be noticed that lots of students agreed and totally agreed with the statements of SILL's part C. Therefore, the distribution of the participants' answers is left-skewed. To test it statistically, Kolmogorov-Smirnov's Z-values (Table 11.4) was calculated.

TABLE 11.4 K-S tests for normality of distributions (part C)

No. of item	K-S Z	Df	P
1.	.263	402	.000
2.	.296	402	.000
3.	.269	402	.000
4.	.272	402	.000
5.	.270	402	.000

In the Table 11.4, it can be seen that K-S Z-values ranged from .263 to .296. All of them indicate that differences between these distributions and the normal curve are statistically significant (all p s < .001). Hence, our participants are good at compensating for missing knowledge.

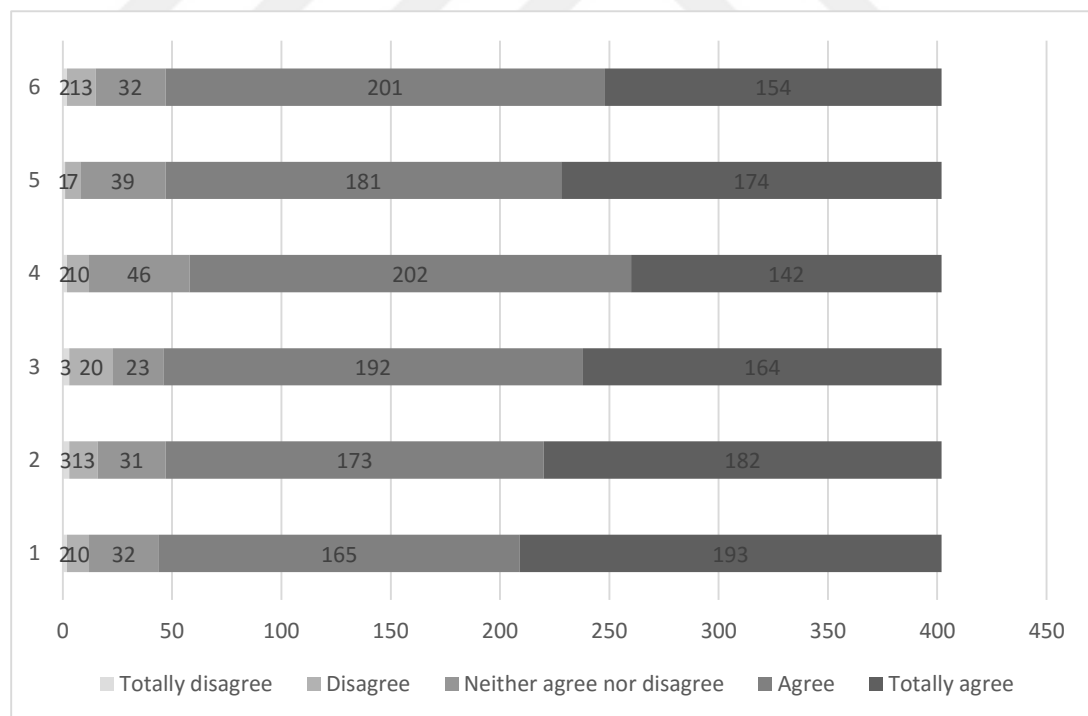


FIGURE 11.4 Organizing and evaluating learning process (part D)

Analyzing participants' answers in part D of the SILL questionnaire, it can be seen that there is a pattern similar to the previous cases. We will briefly describe the results for every item of the part D.

193 subjects totally agreed and 165 agreed with the item: "I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better." On the other hand, 32 neither agreed nor disagreed, 10 disagreed whereas only two subjects totally disagreed with this item. Therefore, lots of participants can notice mistakes they make and use information to improve their English language performance.

In the case of the statement: "I try to find out how to be a better learner of English", frequency distribution was as following: $n = 182$ (these participants totally agreed with the content of this item), $n = 173$ (agreed), $n = 31$ (neither agreed, nor disagreed), $n = 13$ (disagreed), and $n = 2$ (totally disagreed with its content). There is a large number of students who try to find out how to be a better learner of English language.

Statement number three ("I plan my schedule so I have enough time to study English") has the following distribution of answers (frequencies): $n = 164$ (totally agreed with it), $n = 192$ (agreed), $n = 23$ (neither agreed nor disagreed), $n = 20$ (disagreed with it), and $n = 3$ (totally disagreed with the content of this item). Hence, lots of students plan their schedules in order to have enough time to study English language.

For the next item ("I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English"), 142 participants said that they totally agree with it, 202 of them said they agree with its content, 46 were not sure and 10 disagreed and only two subjects totally disagreed with it. Therefore, our participants usually look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.

Item number five ("I have clear goals for improving my English skills") yielded the following results: $n = 174$ ("totally agree"), $n = 181$ ("agree"), $n = 39$ ("neither agree, nor disagree"), $n = 7$ ("disagree"), and $n = 1$ ("totally disagree"). As can be seen, the

greater part of our sample reported that they have clear goals for improving their English language skills.

The last item in the part D was: "I think about my progress in learning English".154 participants said that they totally agree with this item whereas 201 of them agreed with it. On the other hand, 32 subjects chose the option "neither agree, nor disagree", 13 respondents disagreed with it and only two participants totally disagreed with the content of the mentioned statement.

In this case, Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test was conducted as well. The results are shown in Table 11.5.

TABLE 11.5 K-S tests for normality of distributions (part D)

No. of item	K-S Z	df	P
1.	.286	402	.000
2.	.265	402	.000
3.	.276	402	.000
4.	.266	402	.000
5.	.265	402	.000
6.	.268	402	.000

From the Table 11.5, the following conclusion can be made: all distributions differ from the normal curve and this difference is statistically significant (K-S Z-values were from .265 to .286; df = 402, all $p < .001$). That is, our participants reported that they are very good at organizing and evaluating their own learning process.

Finally, those analyses for the last part of the SILL questionnaire (part F) was repeated.

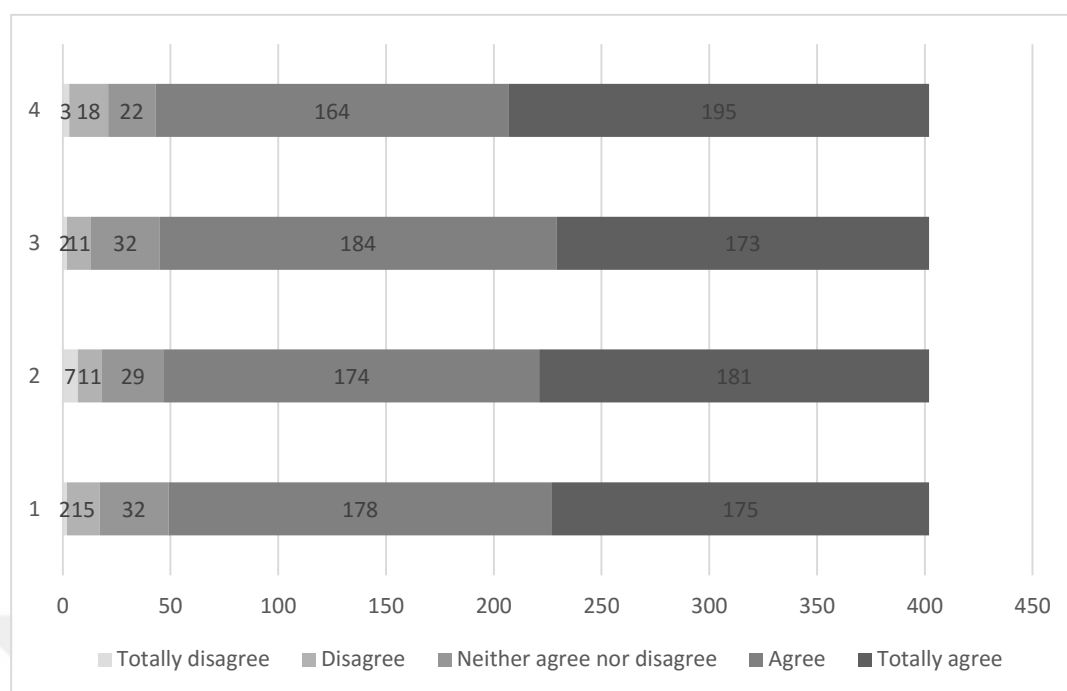


FIGURE 11.5 Learning with others (part F)

The first item of part F was: "If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again." 175 participants totally agreed with this item and 178 of them agreed with its content. 32 respondents were not sure, 15 of them disagree and only two totally disagree with this statement (Fig. 11.5).

In the case of the second statement ("I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk"), distribution of frequency was as following: $n = 181$ ("totally agree"), $n = 174$ ("agree"), $n = 29$ ("neither agree, nor disagree"), $n = 11$ ("disagree"), and $n = 7$ ("totally disagree"). This means that lots of our respondents ask English speakers to correct them when they talk.

The next item ("I ask for help from English speakers") yielded the following results: 173 respondents totally agreed with it, 184 subjects agreed with its content, 32 subjects neither agreed nor disagreed, 11 of them disagreed whereas only two participants totally disagreed with this statement. Hence, students often ask for help from English speakers.

195 participants totally agreed with the last statement ("I ask questions in English"). 164 participants agreed with it, 22 of them were indecisive, 18 subjects chose the

option "disagree" and three participants chose the option "totally disagree". Therefore, there is a large number of students who ask questions in English in order to improve their performance and to use their English knowledge and communicational skills.

TABLE 11.6 K-S tests for normality of distributions (part F)

No. of item	K-S Z	Df	P
1.	.256	402	.000
2.	.257	402	.000
3.	.256	402	.000
4.	.280	402	.000

In the Table 11.6, it can be noticed that all Kolmogorov-Smirnov coefficients are statistically significant. Their values were from .256 to .280 and were significant at a level of .001 (because all $p < .001$). That is, our students reported high levels of English language learning strategy labeled as "learning with and from others".

The socially desirable responding (also known as dissimulation) has to be considered there. Participants tend to give their answers in a positive and expected direction. Because of that, our findings can be accepted with some criticism. However, these results suggest that students (at least implicitly) know and use English language learning strategies.

In order to test our first hypothesis (i.e. intrinsic motivation for learning is in a positive and moderate correlation with extrinsic motivation for learning), the Pearson's product-moment correlational coefficient (r) has been calculated. After that, this correlation was displayed by using scatter plot representation (Figure 11.6).

A high, negative and statistically significant correlational coefficient ($r = -.876$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$) has been gotten. Therefore, our first hypothesis has been rejected because this coefficient was negative. Besides, our finding is logical and intuitive because it is somehow expected that someone who is highly extrinsically motivated has low levels of intrinsic motivation. When this value was squared, the coefficient

of determination – which was $r^2 = .767$ has been gotten. This means that these variables have in common 76.7% variance. This number is very high and indicates that someone's level of extrinsic motivation can be predicted by knowing his/her level of intrinsic motivation and vice versa.

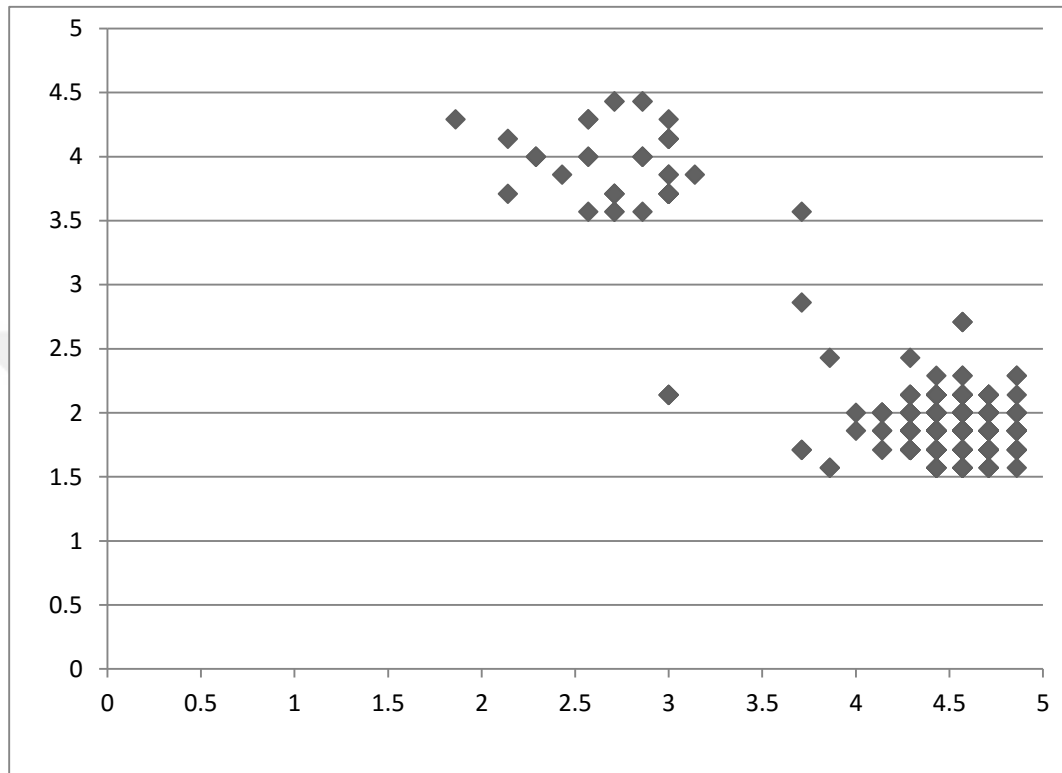


FIGURE 11.6 Scatter plot of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

As can be noticed from Figure 11.6, subjects who scored high on intrinsic motivation scored low on extrinsic motivation. Those who had high scores on extrinsic motivation had low results on intrinsic motivation. It can also be noticed that there was a very small number of average results. That is, participants tended to give extreme answers (i.e. close to values 1 and 5).

To test the second hypothesis, the correlational coefficients between social self-esteem and English language speaking anxiety was calculated. It was proposed that social self-esteem negatively correlates with this kind of speaking anxiety. This coefficient is very high, negative and statistically significant ($r = -.915$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). Hence, speaking anxiety strongly depends on someone's level of social self-

esteem. In fact, they share 83.7% of variance (because in this case determination coefficient was $r^2 = .837$). This correlation is displayed graphically in Figure 11.7.

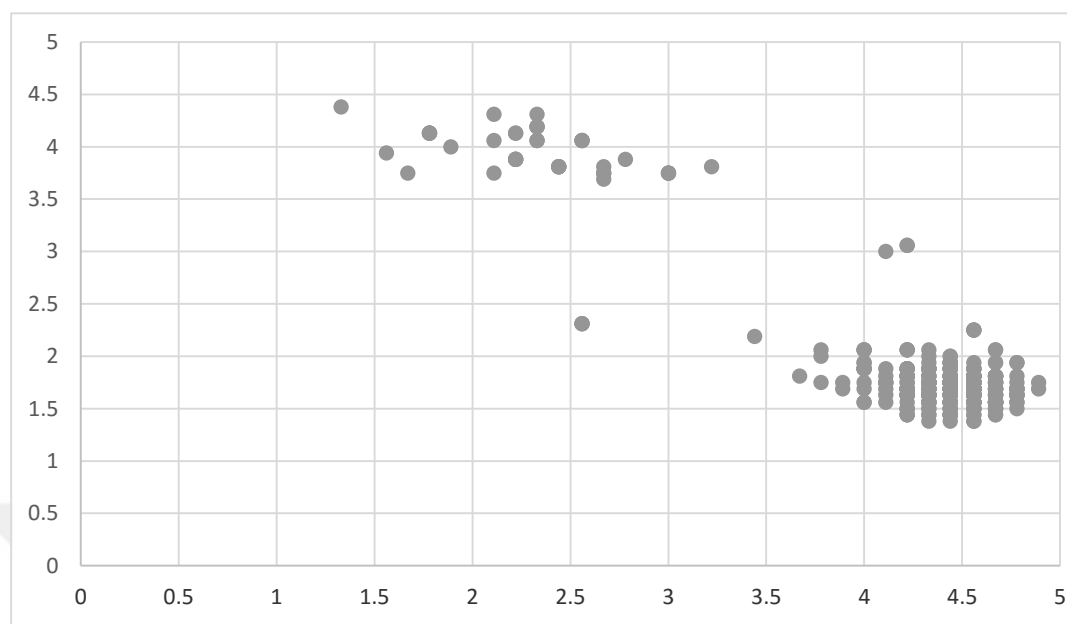


FIGURE 11.7 Scatter plot for speaking anxiety and social self-esteem

The trend similar to that of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be perceived. Therefore, students who showed high levels of social self-esteem also showed low levels of speaking anxiety. On the other hand, those who thought that they are not self-confident in social relations had low scores on English language speaking anxiety. This finding suggests that variables such as extraversion and general self-esteem could also be linked to foreign language speaking anxiety. This finding supports the second proposed hypothesis.

To examine if the first part of our third hypothesis can be accepted, the procedure which was applied in the two previous cases has been repeated. We were interested in the relationship between self-efficacy and speaking anxiety and it was proposed that this correlation would be negative.

This coefficient was high, negative and statistically significant ($r = -.794$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). That is, self-efficacy negatively correlates with speaking anxiety as does social self-esteem. They have 63% of common variance because coefficient of

determination is equal to .630. This correlation is displayed in scatter plot (Figure 11.8).

As can be seen in this scatter plot, participants who estimated themselves as efficient had low levels of speaking anxiety. On the other hand, students who did not believe in their skills and abilities scored higher on speaking anxiety.

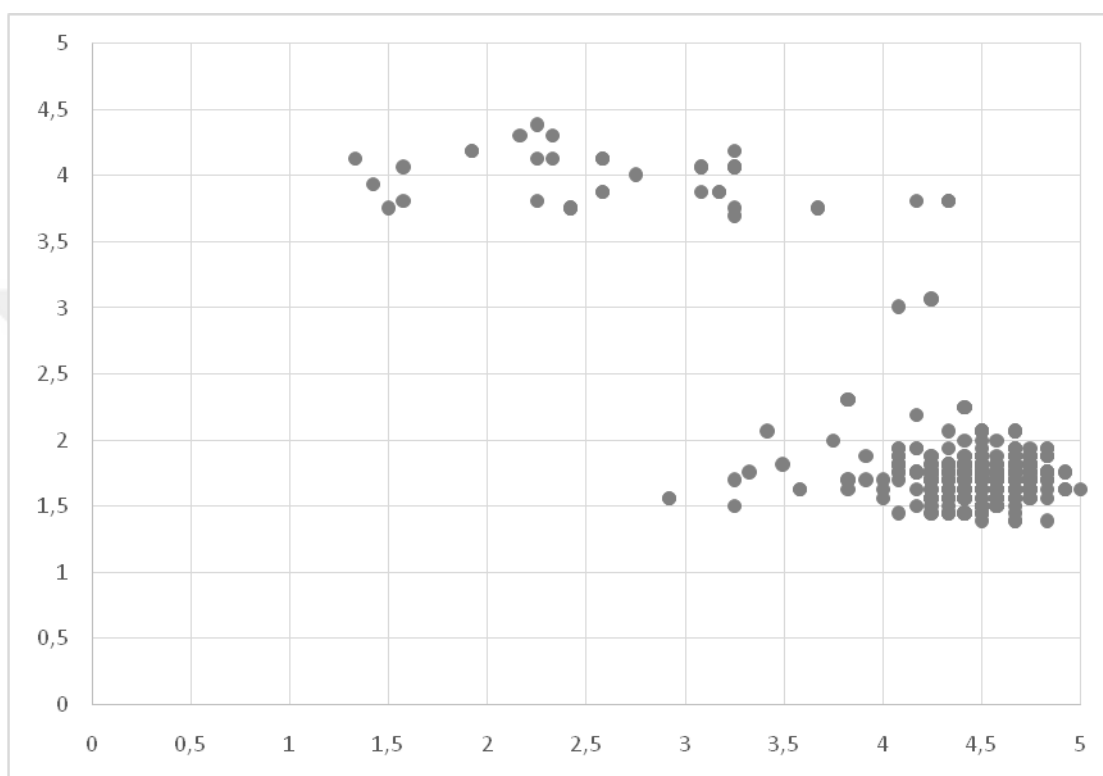


FIGURE 11.8 Scatter plot for self-efficacy and speaking anxiety

It can be said that the first part of the third hypothesis is proved. To test the other part of the mentioned hypothesis, correlational coefficients were calculated between self-efficacy on the one hand and learning strategies on the other hand.

TABLE 11.7 Relationships between self-efficacy and speaking anxiety with learning strategies

Learning strategies	Self-efficacy	Speaking anxiety
Remembering more effectively (part A)	.875	-.837
Using all mental processes (part B)	.858	-.886

Compensating for missing knowledge (part C)	.823	-.850
Organizing and evaluating learning (part D)	.824	-.862
Learning with others (part F)	.803	-.840

Note: all coefficients are significant at the level .001

As it can be noticed (Table 11.7), self-efficacy is in high, positive and statistically significant correlations with: remembering more effectively ($r = .875$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), using all mental processes ($r = .858$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), compensating for missing knowledge ($r = .823$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), organizing and evaluating one's own learning ($r = .824$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), and learning with others ($r = .803$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). The conclusion is: self-efficacy is the very important facilitator of English language learning strategies usage. Because these are correlational coefficients, this conclusion can be defined in the opposite direction: effectively used learning strategies produce higher levels of academic self-efficacy.

On the other hand, speaking anxiety is in high, negative and statistically significant correlations with: remembering more effectively ($r = -.837$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), using all mental processes in order to learn efficiently ($r = -.886$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), compensating for missing knowledge ($r = -.850$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), organizing and evaluating learning process ($r = -.862$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), and learning with others ($r = -.840$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). Therefore, speaking anxiety decreases the usage of English language learning strategies. Besides, students who are not skilled in applying learning strategies have high levels of speaking anxiety.

According to the last two findings, the other two parts of our third hypothesis has been proved. Hence, all English language learning strategies positively correlate with self-efficacy, on the other hand, they negatively correlate with speaking anxiety.

To confirm, or reject our fourth hypothesis (i.e. there are no gender differences in all analysed variables), several t-tests were conducted. Results are displayed in tables 8, 9, and 10.

TABLE 11.8 Gender differences in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation levels

Motivation	Gender	N	M	SD	ΔM	T	df	p
Intrinsic	Male	174	4.37	0.56	0.05	0.786	400	.432
	Female	228	4.32	0.59				
Extrinsic	Male	174	2.11	0.59	-0.02	-0.186	400	.852
	Female	228	2.13	0.66				

In the Table 8, it can be seen that average intrinsic motivation for males was $M = 4.37$ and for females $M = 4.32$. T-statistic indicates that the difference between their average results is not statistically significant ($t = 0.786$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Males, on average, scored $M = 2.11$ on Extrinsic motivation subscale, whereas this results for females was $M = 2.13$. This difference is not statistically significant ($t = -.186$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Therefore, there were no gender differences in motivational levels.

TABLE 11.9 Gender differences in self-efficacy, speaking anxiety, and social self-esteem

Variables	Gender	N	M	SD	ΔM	T	Df	p
Self-efficacy	Male	174	4.34	0.53	0.08	1.409	400	.160
	Female	228	4.26	0.69				
Speaking anxiety	Male	174	1.93	0.68	-0.01	-0.110	400	.912
	Female	228	1.94	0.71				
Social self-esteem	Male	174	4.26	0.64	0.06	0.848	400	.397
	Female	228	4.20	0.72				

In the case of self-efficacy (Table 11.9), male participants scored higher ($M = 4.34$) than female participants ($M = 4.26$). However, this difference is not statistically significant ($t = 1.409$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Hence, males and females almost equally believe in their skills and abilities while learning and using English language.

Furthermore, there are no gender differences in English language speaking anxiety ($t = -0.110$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Males' and females' average results were very similar (M

= 1.93 compared to $M = 1.94$). This finding is very important for teaching context because females have higher levels of anxiety as a trait than males. That is, English language speaking anxiety is a more specific phenomenon and can be reduced by applying different psychological techniques.

Males and females do not differ significantly by their levels of social self-esteem ($t = 0.848$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Arithmetic means of their results were $M = 4.26$ and $M = 4.20$, respectively. Therefore, they are almost equally self-confident in different social contexts and in new social situations.

Nex table (Table 11.10) contains results of t-tests conducted to examine if there are gender differences in five types of English language learning strategies. It was expected that these differences would not be statistically significant.

TABLE 11.10 Gender differences in English language learning strategies

Learning strategies	Gender	N	M	SD	ΔM	T	df	p
Remembering more effectively	Male	174	4.28	0.60	0.08	1.128	400	.260
	Female	228	4.20	0.74				
Using all mental processes	Male	174	4.31	0.61	0.12	1.799	400	.073
	Female	228	4.19	0.70				
Compensating for missing knowledge	Male	174	4.31	0.65	0.10	1.383	400	.168
	Female	228	4.21	0.72				
Organizing and evaluating learning	Male	174	4.26	0.59	0.01	0.168	400	.866
	Female	228	4.25	0.64				
Learning with Others	Male	174	4.28	0.64	-0.01	-0.030	400	.976
	Female	228	4.29	0.70				

In the case of the part A of SILL questionnaire, on average, males scored 4.28 and arithmetic mean of females' results was $M = 4.20$. This difference ($\Delta M = 0.08$) is not statistically significant ($t = 1.128$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). This finding means that males

and females similarly use learning strategy labeled as "remembering more effectively".

Next, there are no differences in males' and females' results linked to the part B of the SILL questionnaire ($t = 1.799$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Mean value of males' scores was $M = 4.31$, whereas arithmetic mean of females' results was $M = 4.19$. Therefore, males and females are almost equally efficient while using all their mental processes in order to improve their learning process.

In the part C, average results for males and females are $M = 4.31$ and $M = 4.21$, respectively. It can be noticed that males scored higher than females but this difference is not statistically significant ($t = 1.383$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Hence, they have similar patterns and levels of compensating their missing knowledge.

In the case of part D of the SILL questionnaire, average score for males is $M = 4.26$, and for females $M = 4.25$. This is a very small and statistically insignificant difference ($t = 0.168$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). It can be concluded that males and females are equally successful in organizing and evaluating their own learning process.

Last part of the SILL questionnaire (part F) yielded the following average scores $M = 4.28$ (for males) and $M = 4.29$ (for females). The difference between them is statistically insignificant ($t = -0.030$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$).

According to the aforementioned results, all parts of the fourth proposed hypothesis has been confirmed. That is, there were no gender differences in: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, speaking anxiety levels, social self-esteem and all five English language learning strategies.

Because the information on high school and university attendance among our participants has been collected, it is going to be tested if there exists any differences between students who attended to high school and those who were at university. For this purpose, the t-tests and results were also applied which are shown in the following tables (Table 11.11 to Table 11.13).

TABLE 11.11 Differences in motivation between high school and university students

Motivation	Institution	N	M	SD	ΔM	T	df	p
Intrinsic	High school	190	4.37	0.55	0.05	0.798	400	.425
	University	212	4.32	0.60				
Extrinsic	High school	174	2.10	0.58	-0.04	-0.650	400	.516
	University	228	2.14	0.67				

For the case of intrinsic motivation (Table 11.11), average result of high school students was $M = 4.37$, whereas the average score of university students was $M = 4.32$. However, this difference ($\Delta M = 0.05$) was not statistically significant ($t = 0.798$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Hence, high school students and university students reported similar levels of intrinsic motivation. They claimed that they were interested in learning and that they enjoyed it. Additionally, their levels of intrinsic orientation (motivation) are high.

Participants' extrinsic motivation was below average: for high school students $M = 2.10$ and for university students $M = 2.14$. The difference between these mean values ($\Delta M = -0.04$) was statistically non-significant ($t = -0.650$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Therefore, high school and university students are almost equally oriented to gain reward or public recognition. In addition, their average levels of extrinsic orientation (motivation) are low.

TABLE 11.12 Differences in self-efficacy, speaking anxiety, and social self-esteem between high school and university students

Variables	Institution	N	M	SD	ΔM	T	df	p
Self-efficacy	High school	190	4.28	0.57	-0.03	-0.359	400	.719
	University	212	4.31	0.68				
Speaking anxiety	High school	190	1.91	0.66	-0.06	-0.916	400	.360
	University	212	1.97	0.73				
Social self-esteem	High school	190	4.25	0.64	0.05	0.856	400	.393
	University	212	4.20	0.73				

In the Table 11.12, it can be read that self efficacy for high school students was $M = 4.28$ and for university students $M = 4.31$. This small difference between these average scores ($\Delta M = -0.03$) is not statistically significant ($t = -0.359$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Therefore, both high school and university students have high levels of self-efficacy in educational context. It was claimed that they are: efficient, effective, self-confident, skillful, self-directed and academically successful.

These two groups also do not differ significantly in their levels of English language speaking anxiety ($\Delta M = -0.03$; $t = -0.916$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Arithmetic mean in the group of high school students was $M = 1.91$ and in the group of university students $M = 1.97$. Hence, both groups of students have low levels of English language speaking anxiety. It means that they do not usually experience speaking anxiety in situations where they have to speak in English.

They also do not differ enough in social self-esteem levels ($\Delta M = 0.05$; $t = 0.856$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Arithmetic mean of scores of high school students was $M = 4.25$ whereas this value was $M = 4.20$ in the group of university students. The conclusion is: they have similar levels of social self-esteem. In addition, they think that they are socially competent, socially intelligent and open to new experiences and extraverted.

The previous findings indicate that the distinctions between high school and university students cannot be made based on their self-efficacy, English language speaking anxiety and social self-esteem.

TABLE 11.13 Differences in learning strategies between high school and university students

Learning strategies	Institution	N	M	SD	ΔM	t	df	p
Remembering more effectively	High school	190	4.24	0.60	0.02	0.267	400	.790
	University	212	4.22	0.76				
Using all mental processes	High school	190	4.26	0.59	0.04	0.633	400	.527
	University	212	4.22	0.73				
Compensating	High school	190	4.28	0.63	0.05	0.751	400	.453

for missing knowledge	University	212	4.23	0.75				
Organizing and evaluating learning	High school	190	4.27	0.57	0.03	0.525	400	.600
	University	212	4.24	0.66				
Learning with Others	High school	190	4.34	0.63	0.10	1.443	400	.150
	University	212	4.24	0.71				

Looking at the Table 11.13, it can be seen that in the case of "remembering more effectively" (part A of the SILL), high school students, on average, scored $M = 4.24$ and university students scored $M = 4.22$. This difference ($\Delta M = 0.02$) was not statistically significant ($t = 0.267$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). It means that high school and university students similarly use learning strategy labeled as "remembering more effectively".

These two groups do not differ in using all their mental processes (part B of the SILL), in order to learn English ($t = 0.633$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). The first group (high school students) had arithmetic mean $M = 4.26$, whereas average score of the second group (university students) was $M = 4.22$. Hence, both groups reported high levels of using all mental processes during learning English language.

Compensating for missing knowledge (part C of the SILL) yielded the following arithmetic means: $M = 4.28$ (for high school students) and $M = 4.23$ (for university students). However, the difference between them ($\Delta M = 0.05$) was statistically insignificant ($t = 0.751$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Therefore, their levels of this learning strategy were equal and high. Both high school and university students know well how to compensate for their missing (English language) knowledge.

Both groups reported that they successfully organize and evaluate their learning ($M = 4.27$ for high school students and $M = 4.24$ for university students). But, the difference between these values was not statistically significant ($t = 0.525$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). That is, both groups had almost the same level of this learning strategy.

In the end, high school students slightly differ from university students in their intention/habit to learn with others ($M = 4.34$ vs. $M = 4.24$). However, this difference ($\Delta M = 0.10$) was statistically non-significant ($t = 1.443$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Therefore, both high school and university students frequently learn with others seeking for their feedbacks and support during learning process.

To test our fifth hypothesis, several t-test analysis (t-tests for independent samples) was also conducted. In this hypothesis, it was assumed that Bosnian and Turkish students do not differ by their levels of motivation (both intrinsic and extrinsic) and speaking anxiety. It was also proposed that these groups differ by their social self-esteem and some learning strategies. Results are displayed in the tables below (Table 11.14 to Table 11.16).

TABLE 11.14 Differences in motivation between Bosnian and Turkish students

Motivation	Nationality	N	M	SD	ΔM	t	Df	p
Intrinsic	Bosnian	168	4.26	0.66	-0.14	-2.144	349	.033
	Turkish	183	4.40	0.53				
Extrinsic	Bosnian	168	2.22	0.74	0.16	2.332	349	.020
	Turkish	183	2.06	0.55				

Surprisingly (see Table 11.14), there were statistically significant differences between Bosnian and Turkish students in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. On average, Turkish students scored $M = 4.40$ and Bosnian students scored $M = 4.26$ on intrinsic motivation subscale. This difference ($\Delta M = -0.14$) was statistically significant ($t = -2.144$, $df = 349$, $p < .05$). Turkish students reported higher levels of intrinsic motivation compared to Bosnian students.

On the other hand, Bosnian students scored higher ($M = 2.22$) than Turkish students ($M = 2.06$) on extrinsic motivation subscale. This difference in favor of Bosnian students was statistically significant ($t = 2.322$, $df = 349$, $p < .05$). Therefore, Bosnian students are more extrinsically motivated than Turkish students.

These results indicate that the first part of our fifth hypothesis has to be rejected. Furthermore, our findings are very interesting and they give contribution to investigating and describing crosscultural context. Turkish students learn English language because they enjoy it. On the contrary, Bosnian students learn because they have to learn in order to get a reward or public recognition.

TABLE 11.15 Differences in self-efficacy, speaking anxiety, and social self-esteem between Bosnian and Turkish students

Variables	Nationality	N	M	SD	ΔM	t	df	p
Self-efficacy	Bosnian	168	4.23	0.71	-0.11	-1.518	349	.130
	Turkish	183	4.34	0.59				
Speaking anxiety	Bosnian	168	2.02	0.81	0.12	1.528	349	.127
	Turkish	183	1.90	0.61				
Social self-esteem	Bosnian	168	4.14	0.77	-0.13	-1.658	349	.098
	Turkish	183	4.27	0.63				

In the Table 11.15, it can be seen that Turkish students scored higher ($M = 4.34$) than Bosnian students ($M = 4.23$) on self-efficacy scale. Despite this, the difference between their arithmetic means ($\Delta M = -0.11$) was not statistically significant ($t = -1.518$, $df = 349$, $p > .05$). Accordingly, Bosnian and Turkish students think that they are almost equally self-efficient.

As for the English language speaking anxiety, Bosnian students scored higher ($M = 2.02$) than Turkish students ($M = 1.90$), but even in this case the difference between their average results was not statistically significant ($t = 1.528$, $df = 349$, $p > .05$). That is, levels of English language speaking anxiety are almost equal in Turkish and Bosnian participants.

Further, Turkish students had higher arithmetic mean of their results ($M = 4.27$) than Bosnian students ($M = 4.14$). Despite the size of this difference ($\Delta M = -0.13$), it was statistically insignificant ($t = -1.658$, $df = 349$, $p > .05$). However, p-value was close to the critical value for accepting statistical significance ($p = 0.098$ vs. $p = .05$). It is

possible that this finding will be statistically significant in some other studies where the same variables and groups of participants are investigated. This result suggests that the second part of our fifth hypothesis was partially proved.

TABLE 11.16 Differences in learning strategies between Bosnian and Turkish students

Learning strategies	Nationality	N	M	SD	ΔM	t	df	p
Remembering more effectively	Bosnian	168	4.18	0.81	-0.08	-0.997	349	.320
	Turkish	183	4.26	0.61				
Using all mental processes	Bosnian	168	4.16	0.78	-0.13	-1.716	349	.087
	Turkish	183	4.29	0.59				
Compensating for missing knowledge	Bosnian	168	4.19	0.79	-0.10	-1.313	349	.190
	Turkish	183	4.29	0.64				
Organizing and evaluating learning	Bosnian	168	4.21	0.69	-0.08	-1.208	349	.228
	Turkish	183	4.29	0.60				
Learning with Others	Bosnian	168	4.21	0.77	-0.11	-1.497	349	.135
	Turkish	183	4.32	0.63				

Finally, the differences in learning strategies were tested. Bosnian and Turkish students do not differ significantly in learning strategy labeled as "remembering more effectively" ($\Delta M = -0.08$; $t = -0.997$, $df = 349$, $p > .05$). Their average results were $M = 4.18$ (for Bosnian students) and $M = 4.26$ (for Turkish students).

In the case of using all mental processes (part B of the SILL questionnaire), Bosnian students scored $M = 4.16$, whereas Turkish students scored $M = 4.29$. However, this difference was statistically insignificant ($t = -1.716$, $df = 349$, $p > .05$). But, p-value was not that much different from threshold/critical value ($p = 0.087$ vs. $p = 0.05$). Hence, other studies could yield results in favor of Turkish students.

It seemed that Turkish students are better in compensating for missing English knowledge ($M = 4.29$) than Bosnian students ($M = 4.19$). Despite that, the difference between these arithmetic means ($\Delta M = -0.10$) was not statistically significant ($t = -1.313$, $df = 349$, $p > .05$). It means that they almost equally compensate for their missing knowledge.

These groups also do not differ significantly in organizing and evaluating their learning process ($t = -1.208$, $df = 349$, $p > .05$). Average result for the group of Bosnian students was $M = 4.21$ and for the group of Turkish students $M = 4.29$. These groups are almost equally successful in organizing and evaluating their English language learning process.

In the case of learning with others (part F of the SILL questionnaire), Bosnian students, on average, scored $M = 4.21$, whereas Turkish students scored $M = 4.32$. T-test revealed that this difference was not statistically significant ($t = -1.497$, $df = 349$, $p > .05$). Accordingly, both groups of students like to learn with and from others but none of the groups does it more frequently than the other.

Referring to the aforementioned findings, it can be concluded that the last part of our fifth hypothesis has to be rejected. That is, this hypothesis can be almost totally dismissed. Bosnian and Turkish students had similar results in lots of variables but they differed in their levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

In our sixth hypothesis, it was assumed that intrinsic motivation should be in positive relationships with five learning strategies. However, we do not expect that extrinsic motivation is in positive and statistically significant correlations with different learning strategies. In order to test this, the Pearson's product-moment coefficients of correlation has been calculated. The resulting data are displayed in tables 11.17 and 11.18.

TABLE 11.17 Relationship between intrinsic motivation and learning strategies

Learning strategies	Pearson's r	p
Remembering more effectively	.857	.000
Using all mental processes	.911	.000

Compensating for missing knowledge	.884	.000
Organizing and evaluating learning	.881	.000
Learning with others	.868	.000

As can be noticed, all coefficients in the Table 17 are high, positive and statistically significant. According to this, intrinsic motivation positively correlates with: remembering more effectively ($r = .857$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), using all mental processes during learning ($r = .911$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), compensating for missing knowledge ($r = .884$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), organizing and evaluating learning ($r = .881$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$) and learning with others ($r = .868$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$).

The following conclusion can be made: students who are intrinsically motivated use learning strategies very frequently. Accordingly, students who know how to use various English language learning strategies enjoy English language learning very much.

TABLE 11.18 Relationship between extrinsic motivation and learning strategies

Learning strategies	Pearson's r	p
Remembering more effectively	-.810	.000
Using all mental processes	-.865	.000
Compensating for missing knowledge	-.837	.000
Organizing and evaluating learning	-.824	.000
Learning with others	-.868	.000

In the Table 11.18, it can be seen that all coefficients are high, negative and statistically significant. Hence, it can be concluded that extrinsic motivation negatively correlates with: remembering more effectively ($r = -.810$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), using all mental processes ($r = -.865$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), compensating for missing knowledge ($r = -.837$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), organizing and evaluating the process of learning ($r = -.824$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$) and learning with others ($r = -.868$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$).

This finding means that extrinsically motivated students have problems while using different English language learning strategies. They do not use them or they use them very rarely. This conclusion could also be defined as following: students who do not use learning strategies properly (or do not use them at all) are primarily influenced by expectations of their parents and teachers (e.g. they have to get good grades or to be awarded in some way).

To have a closer look at the differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation mechanisms, the average results on them for six groups of participants have been compared. Those groups were: males, females, high school and university students, as well as Bosnian and Turkish students. An analysis where six paired-samples t-tests were included has been conducted.

It will be investigated if participants in all of the mentioned groups have higher results for intrinsic motivation compared to their scores for extrinsic motivation. The results of paired-samples t-tests are shown in the following tables (Table 11.19 to Table 11.21).

TABLE 11.19 Differences between levels of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in males and females

Group	Motivation	M	SD	ΔM	T	df	p
Males	Intrinsic	4.37	0.56	2.26	26.729	173	.000
	Extrinsic	2.11	0.59				
Females	Intrinsic	4.32	0.59	2.19	27.320	227	.000
	Extrinsic	2.13	0.66				

In the subsample of males, scores for intrinsic motivation were higher ($M = 4.37$) than those for extrinsic motivation ($M = 2.11$). This difference ($\Delta M = 2.26$) is statistically significant ($t = 26.729$, $df = 173$, $p < .001$). Females also scored higher on intrinsic motivation subscale ($M = 4.32$) than on extrinsic motivation subscale ($M = 2.13$). This difference is also statistically significant ($t = 27.320$, $df = 227$, $p < .001$). Based on this, it can be concluded that males as well as females have higher level of intrinsic motivation compared to their level of extrinsic motivation.

TABLE 11.20 Differences between levels of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation among high school and university students

Group	Motivation	M	SD	ΔM	T	df	p
High school students	Intrinsic	4.37	0.55	2.27	28.882	189	.000
	Extrinsic	2.10	0.58				
University students	Intrinsic	4.32	0.60	2.18	25.504	211	.000
	Extrinsic	2.14	0.67				

If the data in Table 11.20 is compared to those in Table 11.19, some similar statistical patterns will be noticed. High school students had high levels of intrinsic motivation ($M = 4.37$) and low levels of extrinsic motivation ($M = 2.10$). It was reported that they are predominantly motivated intrinsically and this finding is statistically significant ($t = 28.882$, $df = 189$, $p < .001$).

University students also scored high on intrinsic motivation subscale ($M = 4.32$). Arithmetic mean of their results on extrinsic motivation subscale was $M = 2.14$. This difference ($\Delta M = 2.18$) is statistically significant ($t = 25.504$, $df = 211$, $p < .001$). The conclusion is: both high school and university students had higher intrinsic than extrinsic motivation.

TABLE 11.21 Differences between levels of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation among Bosnian and Turkish students

Group	Motivation	M	SD	ΔM	T	df	p
Bosnian students	Intrinsic	4.26	0.66	2.04	19.566	167	.000
	Extrinsic	2.22	0.74				
Turkish students	Intrinsic	4.40	0.53	2.34	30.388	182	.000
	Extrinsic	2.06	0.55				

In the Table 11.21, it can be seen that intrinsic motivation level among Bosnian students is higher ($M = 4.26$) than their level of extrinsic motivation ($M = 2.22$). This result is statistically significant ($t = 19.566$, $df = 167$, $p < .001$). That is, despite the

fact that they had higher extrinsic motivation than Turkish students (which was found previously), they are more intrinsically motivated rather than extrinsically (compared to two motivational subscales).

Turkish students were more intrinsically motivated ($M = 4.40$) than extrinsically one ($M = 2.06$), as well. This difference ($\Delta M = 2.34$) is, though, statistically significant ($t = 30.388$, $df = 182$, $p < .001$). According to the last two findings, the prevalent type of motivation among our participants (no matter whether they are Turkish or Bosnian students) is intrinsic motivation.

In order to test our seventh hypothesis, the canonical correlational analysis (CCA) has been conducted. There were two sets of variables. The first set included: intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy and social self-esteem. The second set consisted of five aforementioned learning strategies (i.e. part A to part F of the SILL questionnaire). We were interested if these sets are mutually correlated. Additionally, statistically significant canonical correlation was expected.

If these sets of variables significantly correlate to each other, it will be concluded that self-esteem, intrinsic motivation and social self-esteem are relevant and meaningful variables for the educational context (more precisely, for the English language learning environment).

Our canonical analysis yielded three canonical dimensions (more precisely, three pairs of canonical components because each set had its own three canonical dimensions), which are common to these two sets of variables. First, it has been examined whether this solution is statistically significant. The results are in Table 11.22.

TABLE 11.22 Significance of the three-dimensional solution

Test name	Value	F	Df	p
Pillais	1.041	42.060	15	.000
Hotellings	11.132	291.413	15	.000
Wilks	0.073	114.560	15	.000

According to the numbers presented in the Table 11.22, it can be concluded that the obtained solution is statistically significant (e.g. Wilks statistic = 0.073, $F = 114.560$, $df = 15$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, what has been interested was whether some or all of the three extracted canonical dimensions were statistically significant. In Table 11.23, there are the results of the second analysis.

TABLE 11.23 Significance of the extracted canonical components

Roots	Wilkslambda	F	Df	p
1 to 3	0.073	114.560	15	.000
2 to 3	0.877	6.707	8	.000
3 to 3	0.993	0.926	3	.428

As confirmed before, if these pairs of dimensions (components) are taken together (i.e. 1 to 3), the solution will be statistically significant (Wilks lambda = 0.073, $df = 15$, $p < .001$). If the second and the third extracted pair of dimensions (2 to 3) are taken only, the solution will be still significant (Wilks lambda = 0.877, $F = 6.707$, $df = 8$, $p < .001$). However, if the only third pair of dimensions (3 to 3) is analysed, this solution will be statistically non-significant (Wilks lambda = 0.993, $F = 0.926$, $df = 3$, $p > .05$). Therefore, the first two components can be retained.

Variables in smaller sets are called dependent whereas those in larger sets are independent variables (or covariates). First, the canonical coefficients in the set of dependent variables will be determined. These coefficients indicate how much results on variables influence canonical dimension (component) scores. The standardized canonical coefficients have been displayed in order to provide an accurate and understandable interpretation of results (Table 11.24).

TABLE 11.24 Standardized canonical coefficients for dependent variables

Dependent variable	Component 1	Component 2
Intrinsic motivation	0.360	-0.968
Self-efficacy	0.321	1.794
Social self-esteem	0.374	-0.745

As can be noticed (Table 11.24), social self-esteem results have the largest impact on scores linked to the first retained canonical component. It practically means that if social self-esteem increases by one standard deviation, the result on the first component increases by 0.374, taking other variables as constants. The next dependent variable is intrinsic motivation: an increase of one standard deviation produces 0.360 (of standard deviation) higher results on the first canonical component. In the case of the second retained component, the most influenced variable was self-efficacy. If the result on this variable increases by one standard deviation, the result on the second component increases by 1.794 standard deviations.

It has also been found that the first canonical component explained 89.81% of the variance of these three variables. The second component explained 7.15% of their variance. It means that the first component covers larger part of variables' indicators or manifestations) than the second component. These extracted components also explained some part of the variance of variables in the second set (that is, of the independent variables or covariates): 82.32% (the first component of the dependent variables) and 0.84% (the second component of the first set of variables). Hence, the first extracted component is the most important in making a link between these two sets of variables. Further, standardized coefficients for independent variables or covariates are displayed. These variables are five learning strategies. The values are shown in Table 11.25.

TABLE 11.25 Standardized canonical coefficients for independent variables
(covariates)

Dependent variable	Component 1	Component 2
Remembering more effectively	0.215	2.557
Using all mental processes	0.358	-0.961
Compensating for missing knowledge	0.106	-0.887
Organizing and evaluating learning	0.249	-0.210
Learning with others	0.115	-0.467

As can be seen (Table 11.25), "using all mental processes" is a variable which has the strongest influence on the first canonical component (0.358 standard deviations). It was followed by "organizing and evaluating learning" (0.249 standard deviations) and "remembering more effectively" (0.215 standard deviations).

In the case of the second canonical component, if there is an increase of one standard deviation in "remembering more effectively", there is also an increase of 2.557 standard deviations in the second canonical component. Therefore, this learning strategy is the most influential variable among all covariates.

The first canonical component explained 90.76% of variance of independent variables (i.e. learning strategies). The second canonical component explained 2.67% of their variance. These components (dimensions) also explain some variance of the dependent variables: 83.19% and 0.31%, respectively. Therefore, the first component is the most important in making the connections between these two sets of variables.

Based on the first pair of components, the canonical correlation between the first set (intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, and social self-esteem) and the second set (five learning strategies) of variables have been calculated. Its value was $R_C = .518$ and this coefficient was statistically significant ($p < .001$). Hence, our seventh hypothesis has been confirmed. The first pair of components are predominantly defined by social self-esteem and by using all mental strategies during learning English language. It also includes intrinsic motivation, organization and evaluation of one's own learning.

High levels of social self-esteem decrease the levels of speaking anxiety and produces better attention during the English classes. When somebody is self-confident and emotionally stable, he/she has better predispositions to use all his/her mental processes in academic purposes. Accordingly, if somebody has high levels of intrinsic motivation, he/she will use learning strategies more frequently. More precisely, he/she will be better in evaluating and organizing his/her learning process.

Our last hypothesis refers to the relationship between analysed variables and self-reported measure of English knowledge and skills. Motivation (both intrinsic and

extrinsic), speaking anxiety, social self-esteem and learning strategies are taken as predictors and self-reported English knowledge/skills was a criterion variable. Some multiple regression analysis has been conducted (MRAs) in order to obtain meaningful and interpretable results.

Before this statistical procedure, we calculated Pearson's correlational coefficients (r) between self-reported level of English skills and knowledge on the one hand and other variables on the other hand. The results are shown in tables 11.26 to 11.28.

TABLE 11.26 Relationship between self-reported level of English knowledge/skills and motivation

Motivation	Pearson's r	p
Intrinsic	.707	.000
Extrinsic	-.673	.000

Intrinsic motivation positively correlates with self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills (Table 11.26). The value of this coefficient is high and statistically significant ($r = .707$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). Hence, students who are intrinsically oriented (motivated) usually report higher levels of their English skills and knowledge.

Extrinsic motivation is in negative and significant correlation with self-report measure of English language skills and knowledge ($r = -.673$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). It means that students who are predominantly motivated to gain some kind of reward or recognition report that their English knowledge and skills are poor.

Therefore, it is very important that students are motivated intrinsically rather than extrinsically. Teachers have to make positive and fun classroom atmosphere in order to enhance intrinsic motivation among their students. Students should perceive English language learning as something that is useful, joyful and interesting for them. This kind of perception will help them to achieve an excellent academic performance and improve their skills, strategies and proficiency of English language.

TABLE 11.27 Correlations between self-reported level of English knowledge/skills and: self-efficacy, speaking anxiety, and social self-esteem

Variables	Pearson's r	p
Self-efficacy	.797	.000
Speaking anxiety	-.678	.000
Social self-esteem	.685	.000

All coefficients in the Table 11.27 are statistically significant. Accordingly, self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills are positively correlated with self-efficacy ($r = .797$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$) and social self-esteem ($r = .685$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$), whereas they negatively correlate with English language speaking anxiety ($r = -.678$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$).

These findings suggest that self-efficacy, as a positive attitude toward oneself and his/her abilities is a very relevant variable for levels of English language knowledge and skills. Self-confident and self-efficient students think that they possess high levels of abilities, skills and strategies useful in English learning and its usage. This finding is in accordance with Albert Bandura's theory of self-efficacy. He stated that this variable is a very important one for educational/academic context.

Social self-esteem is a variable which facilitates the usage of foreign languages, because it covers constructs such as: communication skills, extraversion, social competence and interpersonal (social) intelligence. Therefore, students who have high levels of social self-esteem easily apply and use English language in social contexts. They are self-confident and they can adapt to different social situations where they have to communicate with different types of people (i.e. with various interlocutors).

Low levels of English language speaking anxiety can improve students' expression of emotions, attitudes, and ideas through communicating with the others in English. Because they are not tense, anxious, or fearful and they can easily manage the usage

of their knowledge and skills. It can be concluded that high self-efficacy, low speaking anxiety, and high social self-esteem have positive impacts on one's English knowledge, skills, and usage of this language in both inside and outside (real) classroom context.

TABLE 11.28 Relationship between self-reported level of English knowledge/skills and five learning strategies

Learning strategies	Pearson's r	p
Remembering more effectively	.701	.000
Using all mental processes	.657	.000
Compensating for missing knowledge	.667	.000
Organizing and evaluating learning	.244	.000
Learning with others	.649	.000

It can be noticed that all correlational coefficients in the Table 11.28 are positive and statistically significant. Self-reported estimate of English knowledge and skills is highly correlated with learning strategy labeled as "remembering more effectively" ($r = .701$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). That is, students who reported high levels of English knowledge and skills use very frequently strategies which help them to remember more effectively.

Participants who think that they have high levels of English knowledge and skills usually use all their mental processes in order to master English language materials ($r = .657$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). This coefficient is moderate to high and accounts for 43.16% of common variance which is shared by these two variables.

Students who report high levels of English language skills and knowledge know very well how to compensate for missing knowledge ($r = .667$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). These pair of variables have in common 44.49% of variance. That is, students who have positive attitude towards themselves think that their skills and knowledge are extraordinary and they efficiently use compensation strategies in order to maintain their performance on high level.

The correlational coefficient between self-reported estimate of English knowledge/skills and learning strategy labeled as "organizing and evaluating learning process" is small, positive and statistically significant ($r = .244$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). Those participants who positively evaluate their knowledge and skills also report that they are successful in organizing and evaluating their learning.

Finally, self-reported measure of English knowledge and skills is positively correlated with variable "learning with others" ($r = .649$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). The percentage of their common factors (i.e. shared variance) is 42.12%. Therefore, students who estimate their English skills and knowledge as highly usually learn with others and use this strategy to improve their English language performance.

The three multiple regression analysis has been conducted. The first one tested if intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors are statistically significant predictors of self-reported English knowledge and skills (this was the criterion variable). In the second one, the self-efficacy, English language speaking anxiety and social self-esteem have been included as predictors. The criterion was the same. In the last one, predictors were five learning strategies whereas the criterion was self-reported level of English knowledge and skills (tables 11.29 to 11.31).

The model testing to see if there is a statistically significant contribution of motivational factors to self-reported level of English knowledge was statistically significant ($F(2, 399) = 209.560$, $p < .001$). Taken together, those factors highly correlated with self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills ($R = .716$, $p < .001$). They explained 51.2% of its variance. To have a closer look at these two predictors, the unstandardized (B) and standardized (Beta – β) regression coefficients have been calculated (Table 11.29).

TABLE 11.29 Motivational factors as predictors of self-reported English knowledge and skills

Motivation	B	SE _B	β	T	p
<i>Constant</i>	1.939	0.927	-	2.091	.037

Intrinsic	1.057	0.151	.506	6.984	.000
Extrinsic	-0.441	0.139	-.230	-3.174	.002

Intrinsic motivation was a better predictor ($\beta = .506$, $t = 6.984$, $p < .001$) than extrinsic motivation ($\beta = -.230$, $t = -3.174$, $p < .01$). Intrinsic motivation had positive relationship with self-reported levels of English language knowledge and skills (moderate correlation). On the other hand, extrinsic motivation was in negative relationship with the criterion variable (small correlation). According to the aforementioned findings, the first part of our eighth hypothesis has been confirmed.

The model where self-efficacy, English language speaking anxiety and social self-esteem were the predictors of self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills was also statistically significant ($F(3, 398) = 236.889$, $p < .001$). Coefficient of multiple correlation was positive, high and statistically significant ($R = .801$, $p < .001$). These three variables explained 64.1% of the criterion's variance, that is, more than the motivational factors did. In table 11.30, the regression coefficients for predictors were given in order to determine which predictor is the best in explaining the results and variance of our criterion.

TABLE 11.30 Self-efficacy, speaking anxiety, and social self-esteem as predictors of self-reported English knowledge and skills

Variables	B	SE _B	β	t	p
<i>Constant</i>	-0.237	0.844	-	-0.281	.779
Self-efficacy	1.321	0.101	.687	13.137	.000
Speaking anxiety	-0.138	0.133	-.080	-1.041	.299
Social self-esteem	0.101	0.138	.057	0.729	.466

In the Table 11.30, it can be noticed that self-efficacy is the only statistically significant predictor ($\beta = .687$, $t = 13.137$, $p < .001$). It is highly correlated with levels of English knowledge and skills. Neither the English language speaking anxiety was a statistically significant predictor ($\beta = -.080$, $t = -1.041$, $p > .05$), nor the social self-esteem ($\beta = .057$, $t = 0.729$, $p > .05$). Hence, self-efficacy significantly contributes to explaining the variance of the criterion.

Reviewing these findings and the findings from correlational analysis, the second part of our eight hypothesis has been confirmed. In addition, English language speaking anxiety and social self-esteem probably contribute to criterion's levels through the mechanism of self-efficacy.

The last model was also statistically significant ($F(5, 396) = 81.024, p < .001$). Therefore, the last part of our eighth hypothesis has been confirmed. The coefficient of multiple correlation was also high, positive and statistically significant ($R = .711, p < .001$). Those predictors explained 50.6% of variance of students' self-reported English language knowledge and skills. To test the predictive power (criterion validity) of five learning strategies, the unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients for every predictor has been calculated (see Table 11.31).

TABLE 11.31 Learning strategies as predictors of self-reported English knowledge and skills

Learning strategies	B	SE _B	β	t	P
<i>Constant</i>	-0.096	0.298	-	-0.323	.747
Remembering more effectively	0.430	0.163	.244	2.634	.009
Using all mental processes	0.711	0.244	.392	2.920	.004
Compensating for missing knowledge	-0.120	0.177	-.069	-0.681	.496
Organizing and evaluating learning	0.314	0.181	.161	1.734	.084
Learning with others	0.007	0.162	.004	0.044	.965

As can be seen (Table 11.31), "remembering more effectively" (part A and the SILL questionnaire) and "using all mental processes" (part B of the SILL questionnaire) are the two significant predictors. The best predictor is the usage of all mental processes during learning ($\beta = .392, t = 2.920, p < .01$). The second important predictor refers to learning strategy labeled as "remembering more effectively" ($\beta = .244, t = 2.634, p < .01$).

On the other hand, the following variables were not significant predictor of our criterion variable: compensating for missing knowledge ($\beta = -.069$, $t = -0.681$, $p > .05$), organizing and evaluating own learning process ($\beta = .161$, $t = 1.734$, $p > .05$), and learning with others ($\beta = .004$, $T = 0.044$, $p > .05$). It can be noticed that in the case of "organizing and evaluating learning", p -value is close to the critical value ($p = .084$ vs. $p = .05$). That is, in some similar studies, statistically significant value of p can be obtained.

To examine self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills in more details, the arithmetic means of its results have been calculated. These calculations were conducted in order to test the differences in this variable, by gender, institution attendance and nationality.

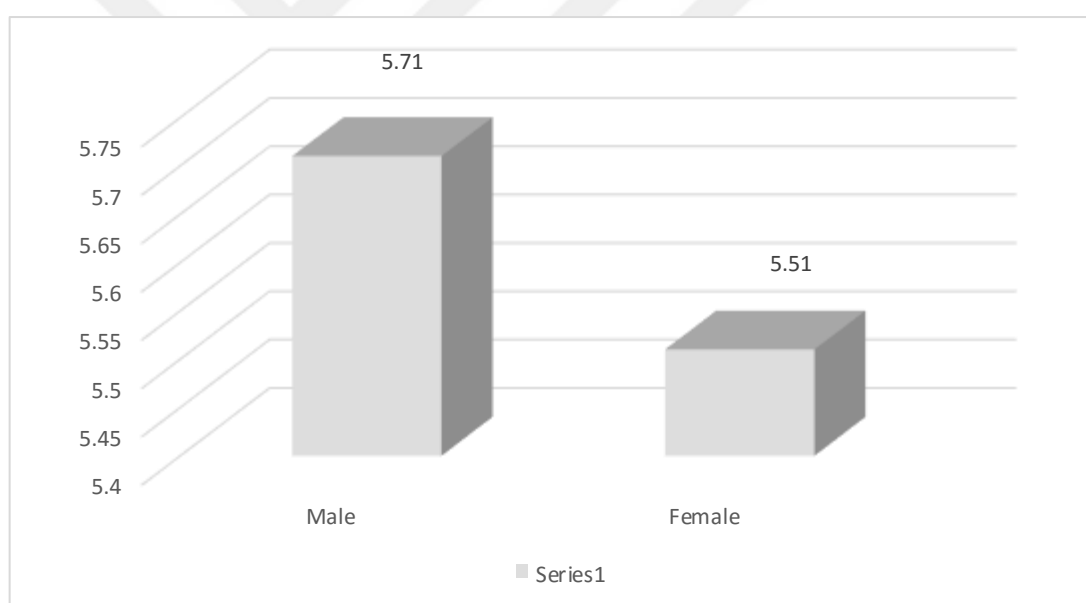


FIGURE 11.9 Gender differences in self-reported levels of English knowledge/skills

In the Figure 11.9, it can be noticed that males, on average, scored higher than females ($M = 5.71$ vs. $M = 5.51$). To test if this difference was statistically significant, the t-test for independent samples were used (see Table 11.32 below).

TABLE 11.32 Results of t-test for determining gender differences

Group (gender)	N	M	SD	ΔM	T	Df	P
Males	174	5.71	1.09	0.20	1.633	400	.103
Females	228	5.51	1.29				

As can be seen (Table 11.32), this difference ($\Delta M = 0.20$) was not statistically significant ($t = 1.633$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Hence, males and females in our sample reported approximately similar levels of English knowledge and skills. It can be noticed that there is slightly higher variability of females' results ($SD = 1.29$), compared to the males' results ($SD = 1.09$).

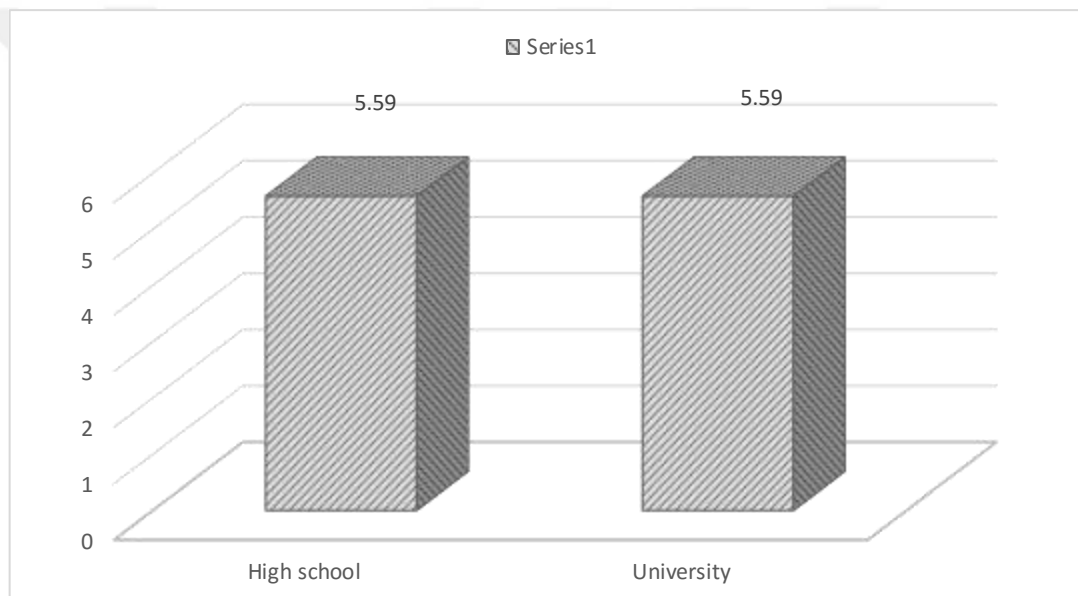


FIGURE 11.10 Differences in self-reported levels of English competence by institution

In Figure 11.10, it can be seen that high school and university students, on average, reported the same levels of English knowledge and skills (both $M = 5.59$). Because their arithmetic means are equal, the t-test for independent samples (the difference between them is zero) was not conducted. Therefore, high school and university students similarly estimated their own English proficiency levels.

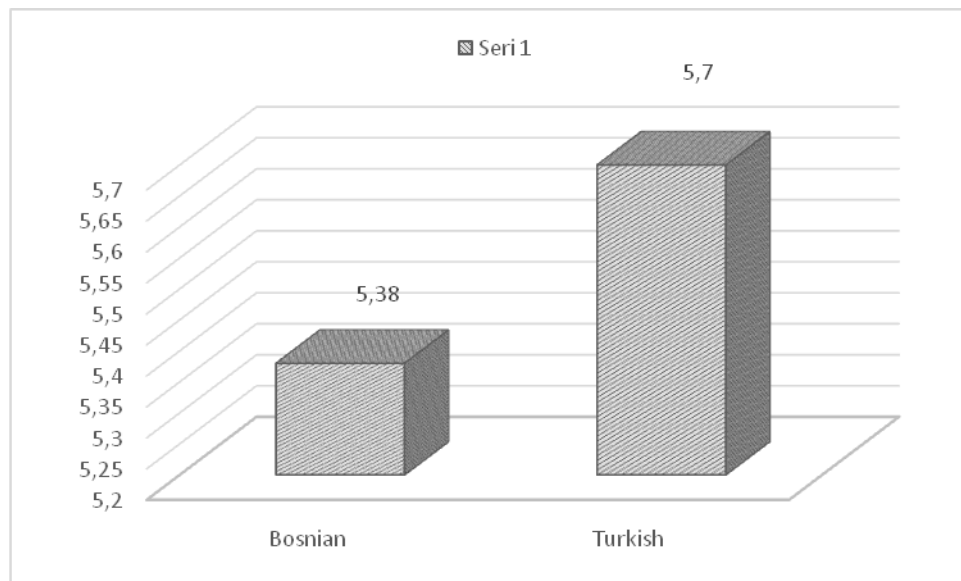


FIGURE 11.11 Nationality differences in self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills

Turkish students reported higher levels of English knowledge and skills ($M = 5.7$) than Bosnian students did ($M = 5.38$). This difference is tested in order to determine its significance (applying t-test for independent samples). These results are displayed in Table 11.33.

TABLE 11.33 Results of t-test for nationality differences

Group (nationality)	N	M	SD	ΔM	T	Df	P
Bosnian students	168	5.38	1.32	-0.32	-2.456	349	.015
Turkish students	283	5.70	1.11				

As can be noticed (Table 11.33), this difference ($\Delta M = -0.32$) is statistically significant ($t = -2.456$, $df = 349$, $p < .05$) in favor of the Turkish students. Therefore; the Turkish students estimated their levels of English competence as higher than those of the Bosnian students. This finding can be considered in the context of their intrinsic motivation. High intrinsic motivation levels really lead to high self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills.

To put our findings in a broader context, correlations between social self-esteem and some sociodemographical variables (income per month, number of clubs where

participants participate and number of participants' family members) have been calculated. For this purpose, Pearson's product-moment coefficients of linear correlations were also calculated.

Correlation between monthly income and social self-esteem was small and statistically insignificant ($r = .072$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$). Therefore; knowing only information on participants' monthly incomes, their levels of social self-esteem can not be predicted. This finding was anticipated because financial situation of subjects neither implies the quality of their social habits and extraversion nor the openness to social experiences.

However; the relationship of other relevant variables with social self-esteem has been investigated. In the framework of social psychology, it can be predicted that a person with high level of social self-esteem will be a member of various social clubs and the size of their families will be important, as well.

Before proceeding to these analysis, the correlation between income per month and social self-esteem has graphically been displayed (Fig. 11.12).

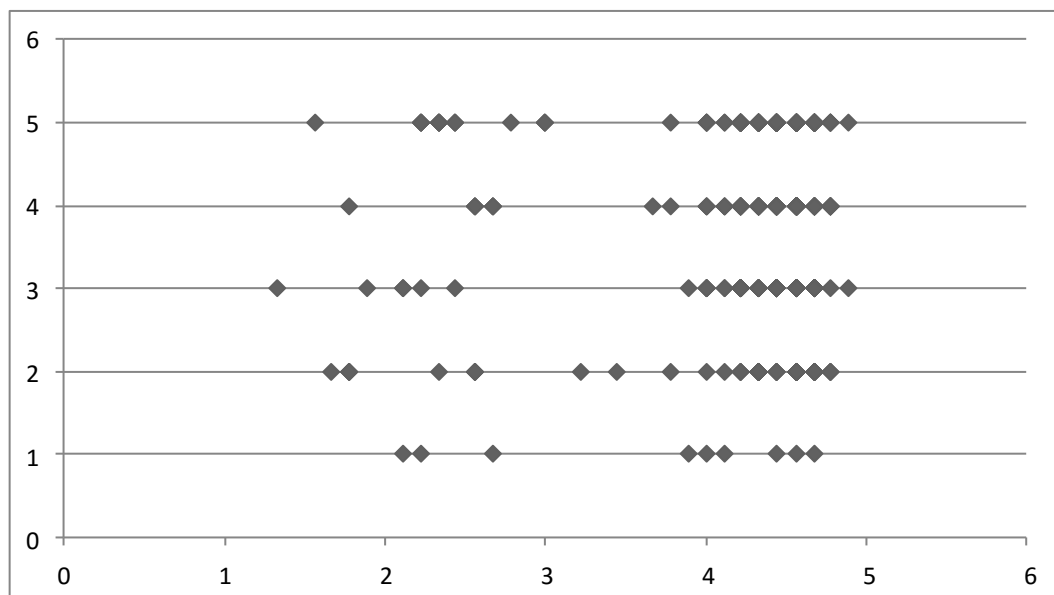


FIGURE 11.12 Scatter plot for income per month and social self-esteem

As can be noticed (Figure 11.12), these data do not follow the particular trend, i.e. there is not any linear correlation between these two variables.

Correlation between the number of clubs where our subjects participated and social self-esteem was low to moderate and statistically significant ($r = .360$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). These variables shared 12.96% of their variance.

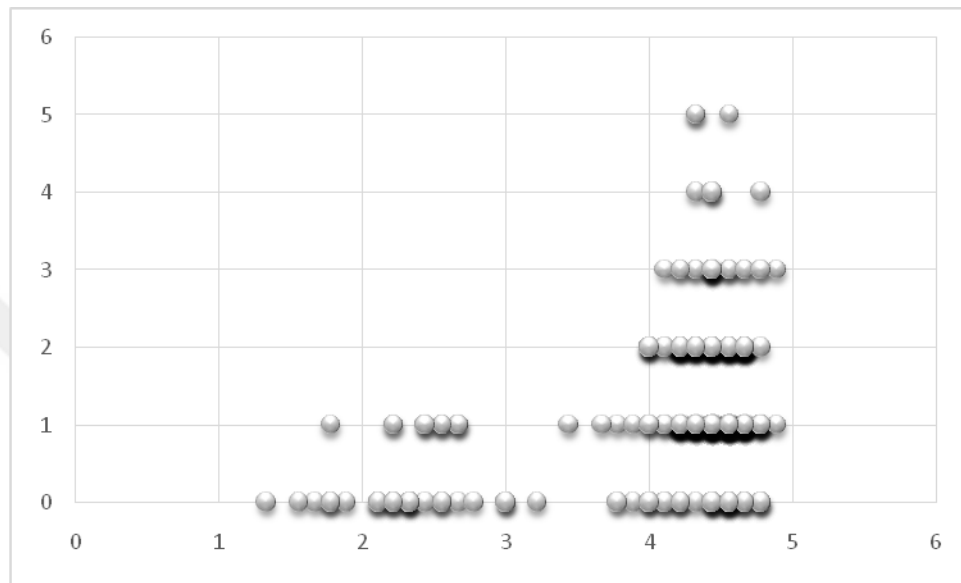


FIGURE 11.13 Scatter plot for social clubs membership and social self-esteem

In Figure 11.13, a sort of patterns in the distribution of obtained results can be noticed. When the number of social clubs increases, social self-esteem also increases. This trend is not ideal or perfect and there is a tendency toward the right side of this graph. Therefore; students with higher levels of social self-esteem wanted to participate in more clubs than those who had low levels of social self-esteem.

Family extent is positively and significantly correlated with social self-esteem ($r = .524$, $df = 400$, $p < .001$). These two variables have in common 27.46% of their variance (because coefficient of determination was $r^2 = .2746$). This correlation is displayed in Figure 11.14.

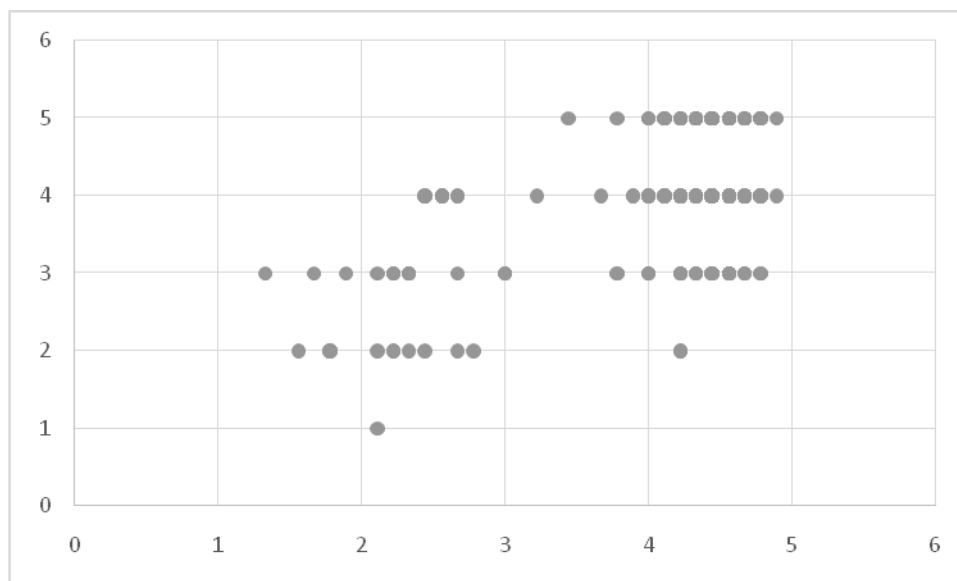


FIGURE 11.14 Scatter plot for family extent and social self-esteem

As can be seen (Figure 11.14), there is a trend of our data which allows us to make the following conclusion: if a family has lots of members, social self-esteem of these members turn out to be high. In other words, students whose family, for example; has five members will have higher levels of social self-esteem than those students whose families have e.g. two or three members.

Accordingly, the number of social clubs and the extent of family are basically good predictors of social self-esteem levels. This expectation will be tested by conducting multiple regression analysis where social self-esteem will be a criterion variable. The results are displayed in Table 11.34.

First, whether our regression model is statistically significant or not has been examined. Based on the calculated F-statistic and other relevant values ($F(2, 399) = 83.510$, $p < .001$), it can be concluded that this model is statistically significant. The coefficient of multiple correlation ($R = .543$, $p < .001$) was also calculated which indicated that our variables are significantly correlated with the criterion (i.e. social self-esteem). The coefficient of multiple determination was $R^2 = .295$, which indicated that those variables shared 29.5% of the variance.

TABLE 11.34 Predictive validity of social clubs membership and family extent

Predictors	B	SE _B	B	t	P
<i>Constant</i>	2.439	0.157	-	15.557	.000
Number of social clubs	0.122	0.036	.160	3.416	.001
Number of family members	0.396	0.041	.453	9.684	.000

It can be noticed (Table 11.34) that family extent ($\beta = .453$, $t = 9.684$, $p < .001$) was better predictor than the number of social clubs ($\beta = .160$, $t = 3.416$, $p < .01$). Both predictors were statistically significant.

In order to test the differences in social self-esteem levels and regarding to the place where students live, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) has been applied. We had one independent variable (place of living during going to high school or university), with three levels (categories): with family, with friends, and in dormitory. We also had one dependent variable (social self-esteem). The results of the conducted analysis are shown in Table 11.35.

TABLE 11.35 Results of ANOVA for place of living and social self-esteem of students

Source of the variance	SS*	Df	MS**	F	P
Between groups	5.191	2	2.595	5.600	.004
Within groups	184.935	399	0.463		
Total	190.126	401			

* SS – sum of squares

** MS – mean square (variance)

As can be noticed (Table 11.35), the variance between groups (i.e. between students who live in dormitory, with family and with friends) is higher ($MS = 2.595$) than the variance within groups ($MS = 0.463$). The ratio between them is statistically

significant ($F(2, 399) = 5.600, p < .01$). Therefore, social self-esteem levels differ between some or all these groups of students.

To test precisely which groups differ among themselves, a post-hoc test has been conducted (Scheffe's test). This procedure will provide the values for differences between these three groups as well as their statistical significance (Table 11.36).

TABLE 11.36 Results of Scheffe's post-hoc test for determining group differences

Pairs of groups		Mean difference*	Standard error	P
In dormitory	With family	0.140	0.076	.186
In dormitory	With friends	-0.164	0.096	.233
With family	With friends	-0.304	0.093	.005

* this is the difference between arithmetic means of groups

The difference between results of students who live in dormitories and those who live in their families ($M_{\text{diff}} = 0.140$) was not statistically significant ($p > .05$) despite the fact that the first group scored higher (but not high enough) than the second group.

The difference between scores of students who live in dormitories and participants who live with their friends ($M_{\text{diff}} = -.0164$) was also statistically insignificant ($p > .05$). Those who live with friends scored slightly higher than students who live in dormitories, but this difference was not large enough to be statistically significant.

Finally, students who live with friends scored higher than those who live with their families and the difference between their average results was statistically significant ($M_{\text{diff}} = -0.304, p < .01$). According to this finding, participants who live with their friends had higher levels of social self-esteem than those who live with their families. This result can be explained easily. Family is a safe place for adolescents and they do not need to be socially competent to confirm their places in family surroundings. However, when students live with their friends, they have to be socially intelligent in order to maintain their social positions in the particular group of peers.

In Figure 11.15, the arithmetical means of results for each of these three groups of students have been displayed. This bar chart will help to visualise the magnitude of the aforementioned differences.

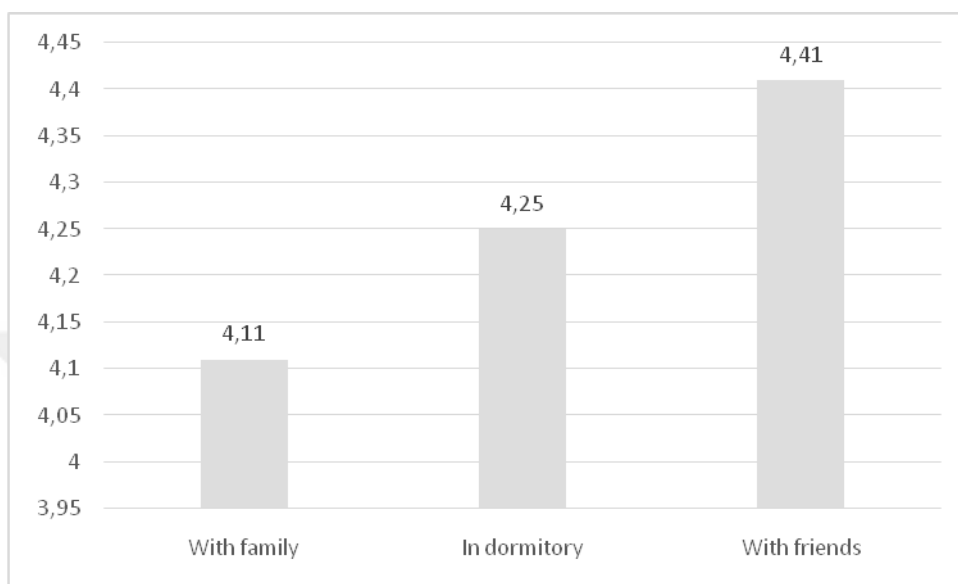


FIGURE 11.15 Social self-esteem levels for three groups of students

As can be seen, the highest arithmetic mean was that of students who live with friends ($M = 4.41$). The next arithmetic mean is for those who live in dormitories ($M = 4.25$) whereas the lowest value was that of students who live with their families ($M = 4.11$).

Two types of conclusions can be drawn here. The first one is: living outside the house (family) and with other people/peers increases social self-esteem of students. The second one is: students who have high levels of social self-esteem choose to live outside their own homes and want to be surrounded by their peers rather than by their family members. Their high social self-confidence allows them to make new friendships and live with others. These kind of students can easily accept social support as well as expressing their feelings, attitudes and thoughts in different social occasions.

Because social self-esteem correlated with students' self-efficacy and English language speaking anxiety, two analyses of variance have been conducted (ANOVAs) to examine the differences among the three mentioned groups. The arithmetic means have also been displayed graphically.

TABLE 11.37 Results of ANOVA for place of living and self-efficacy levels

Source of the variance	SS	Df	MS	F	P
Between groups	11.034	2	5.517	14.958	.000
Within groups	147.161	399	0.369		
Total	158.195	401			

In the Table 11.37, it can be seen that the variance between groups was several times higher ($MS = 5.517$) than the variance within groups ($MS = 0.369$). This result was statistically significant at .001 level ($F(2,399) = 14.958$, $p < .001$). Therefore; our model with the place of living as independent variable and self-efficacy as dependent was significant. It means that some or all groups differ from each other. To test which differences are statistically significant, Scheffe's post hoc test has been applied again. Its results are displayed in Table 11.38.

TABLE 11.38 Scheffe's post hoc test for comparing groups by their self-efficacy levels

Pairs of groups		Mean difference	Standard error	P
In dormitory	With family	0.287	0.068	.000
In dormitory	With friends	-0.107	0.086	.456
With family	With friends	-0.394	0.083	.000

In the Table 11.38, it is clear that there was a significant difference among students who lived in dormitories and those who lived with their families ($\Delta M = 0.287$, $p < .001$). Because this difference is positive and statistically significant, it can be concluded that participants who lived in dormitories had higher levels of social self-esteem than the students who lived with their families.

There was not statistically any significant difference between the average results of the participants who lived in dormitories and those who lived with their friends ($\Delta M = -0.107$, $p > .05$). Therefore, these two groups reported, on average, similar levels of self-efficacy.

The third comparison of these groups revealed that participants who lived with their friends scored higher than the participants who lived with the members of their families. The difference between their arithmetic means was statistically significant ($\Delta M = -0.394$, $p < .001$).

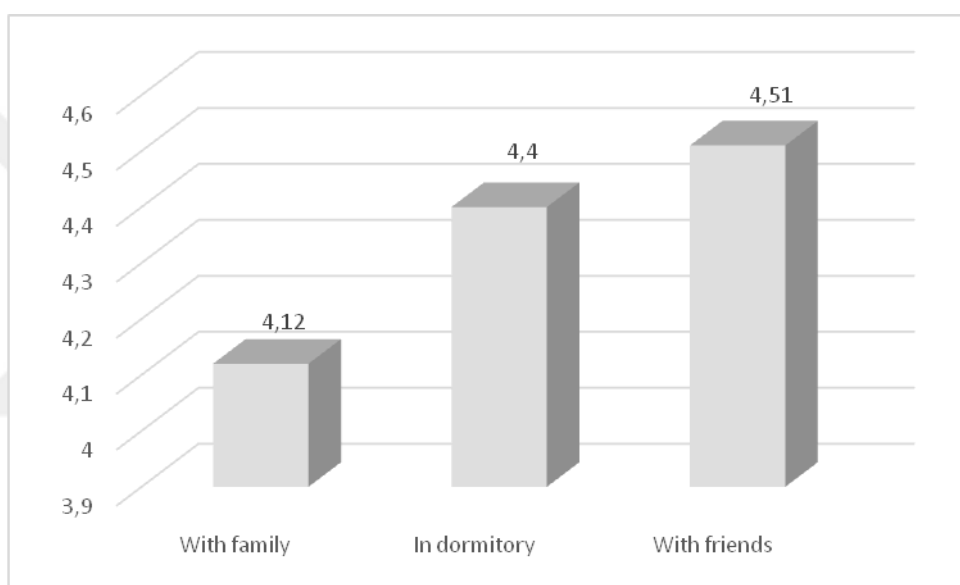


FIGURE 11.16 Self-efficacy levels for all three groups of participants

As can be noticed in the Figure 11.16, the highest level of self-efficacy was typical for students who, when studying, lived with their friends ($M = 4.51$). The arithmetic mean of results for students who lived in dormitory was $M = 4.4$, whereas it was $M = 4.12$ for students who lived with their families.

The following conclusion can be made: students who live outside their homes (in dormitories or with their friends) have higher levels of self-efficacy compared to those who live with the members of their own families.

TABLE 11.39 Results of ANOVA for place of living and English speaking anxiety levels

Source of the variance	SS	Df	MS	F	p
Between groups	4.806	2	2.403	5.072	.007
Within groups	189.046	399	0.474		
Total	193.852	401			

Table 11.39 displays the data for English language speaking anxiety (dependent variable) and place of living (independent variable with three levels or consisted of three categories). The variance (mean square) between groups was $MS = 2.403$ and the within groups' variance was $M = 0.474$. Their ratio was statistically significant ($F(2, 399) = 5.072, p < .01$). In Table 11.40, we displayed results of Scheffe's post hoc test in order to examine these differences in more details.

TABLE 11.40 Scheffe's post hoc test for comparing groups by their speaking anxiety levels

Pairs of groups		Mean difference	Standard error	P
In dormitory	With family	-0.210	0.077	.025
In dormitory	With friends	0.026	0.097	.965
With family	With friends	0.236	0.094	.043

Students who lived with their families (see Table 11.40) showed higher levels of English language speaking anxiety than those who lived in dormitories. The difference between their average results was statistically significant ($\Delta M = -0.210, p < .05$). Therefore; students who live with the members of their family are less self-confident when they speak in English and they feel tense, anxious and some kind of fear while communicating in English.

On the other hand; the difference between those who lived in dormitory and those who lived with their friends was not statistically significant ($\Delta M = 0.026$, $p > .05$). These two groups shared similar social characteristics: they did not live in their family surrounded homes but they liked to be surrounded by their friends or roommates etc.

Participants who lived with the members of their families scored lower than those who reported that they lived with their friends ($\Delta M = 0.236$, $p < .05$). The interpretation of this finding is similar to the first interpretation of numbers in this table. Hence; participants who lived with their friends rather than with the members of their families had low levels of English language speaking anxiety.

Finally, these three arithmetical means have been displayed graphically (see Figure 11.17). Some kind of trend in our data will be seen regarding to the place of living during their studying and English language speaking anxiety levels.

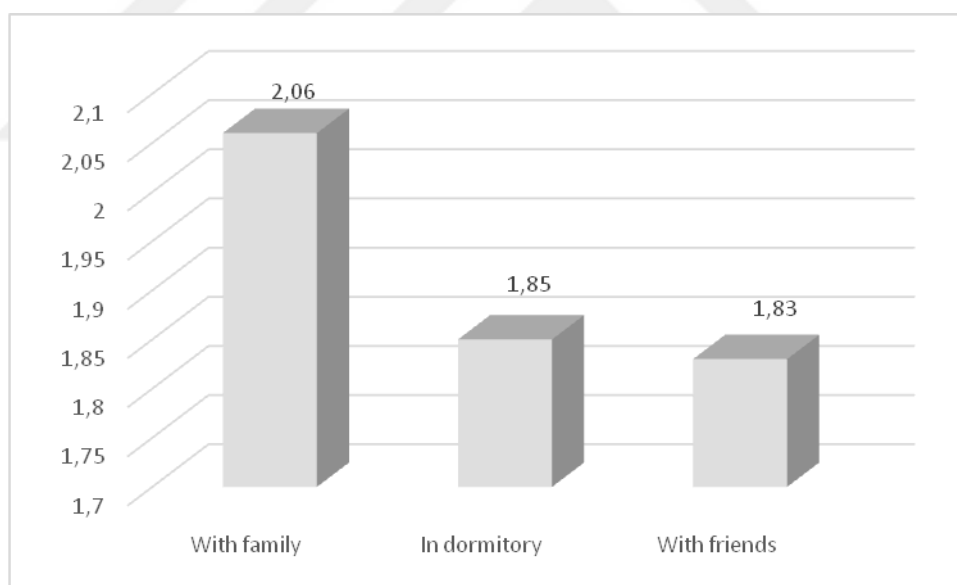


FIGURE 11.17 Differences in speaking anxiety levels between the three groups of students

This figure (Fig. 11.17) shows that English language speaking anxiety levels are the highest for those students who lived with their families ($M = 2.06$). Lower levels of this kind of anxiety was typical for students who lived in dormitories ($M = 1.85$) as well as with their friends ($M = 1.83$).

The last findings suggest that social self-esteem is a very important variable for the context of English learning and its usage. In fact, participants' behavioral patterns and social habits (e.g. living with family members or with friends) are influenced by it. Consequently; students' levels of English language speaking anxiety depend on the aforementioned variables and behavioral tendencies. Accordingly; social life and interactions of students should be known in order to get a complete picture of one's usage of English knowledge and skills.

Because the data has been collected on the participants' place of living, it will be useful to consider and analyze it in the context of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as well as regarding to subjects' subjective estimate of their English knowledge and skills. The data are shown in the following tables and figures. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Scheffe's post hoc tests were also applied to find out if there existed any significant differences.

TABLE 11.41 Differences in intrinsic motivation with regard to place of living

Source of the variance	SS	Df	MS	F	p
Between groups	3.889	2	1.944	5.969	.003
Within groups	129.987	399	0.326		
Total	133.876	401			

ANOVA revealed (Table 11.41) that the between groups variance was $MS = 1.944$, while the within groups variance was $MS = 0.326$. The first type of variance was significantly higher than the second type, and this result was statistically significant ($F(2, 399) = 5.969, p < .01$). Therefore; there is a statistically significant difference between some or all these three groups of students. These findings have been closely explored in Table 11.42.

TABLE 11.42 Results of Scheffe's post hoc test for intrinsic motivation levels

Pairs of groups		Mean difference	Standard error	p
In dormitory	With family	0.148	0.063	.069
In dormitory	With friends	-0.103	0.080	.438
With family	With friends	-0.251	0.078	.006

As can be noticed (Table 11.42), the difference in the intrinsic motivation levels among the students who lived in dormitories and those who lived with their families was not statistically significant ($\Delta M = 0.148$, $p > .05$). However; the p-value almost exceeds the conventional level of significance ($p = .069$ compared to $p = 0.05$). Hence; some of the similar studies will probably reveal statistically significant findings (i.e. students who live in dormitories will have higher levels of intrinsic motivation than students who live with their family).

There was not any statistically significant difference in the intrinsic motivation levels among the participants who lived in dormitories and those who lived with their friends ($\Delta M = -0.103$, $p > .05$). Therefore; students were similarly influenced by these two ways of living.

The third finding was that students who lived with their families had significantly lower levels of intrinsic motivation compared to the students who lived with their friends ($\Delta M = -0.251$, $p < .01$). The surroundings outside participants' families have positive impact on their intrinsic motivation. They enjoy studying process more when they are not with the members of their families possibly because they rely on themselves and have to use self-regulation processes and design their learning environment. These differences were also displayed below in Figure 11.18.

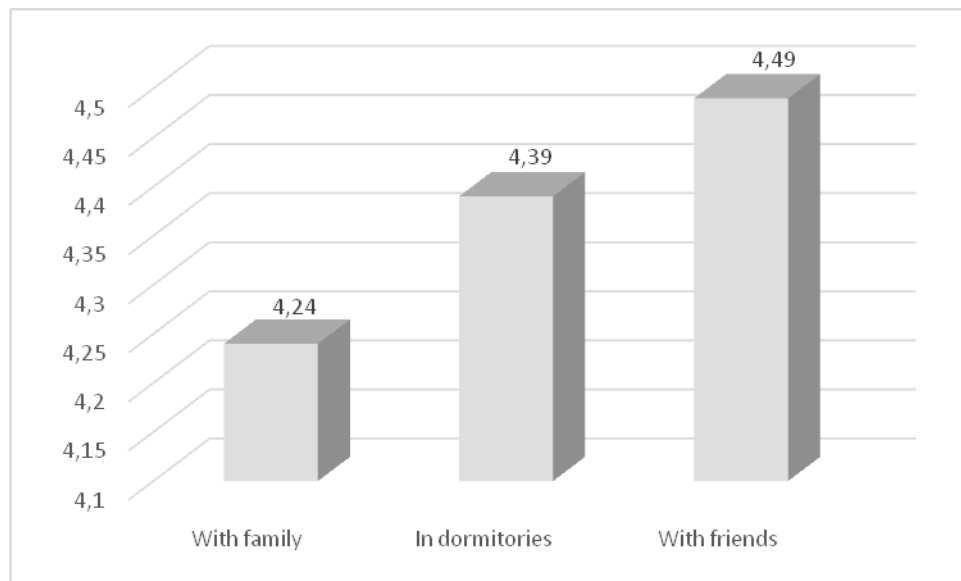


FIGURE 11.18 Graphical display of arithmetic means for three groups of students

As can be seen (Figure 11.18), average level of intrinsic motivation for the mentioned three groups of participants were: $M = 4.49$ (for those who lived with their friends), $M = 4.39$ (for students who lived in dormitories during their studying), and $M = 4.24$ (for students who lived with members of their family). Accordingly; the highest levels of intrinsic motivation were typical for participants who lived with their friends; though, the lowest arithmetic mean was of those students who live with their families while they studied.

This analysis has been repeated in order to determine the differences in extrinsic motivation levels as well as in subjective assessment of English knowledge and skills. As can be seen, there were statistically significant findings in both aforementioned cases. As a matter of fact; the differences between groups in extrinsic motivation levels followed the opposite pattern compared to those results obtained in the case of intrinsic motivation levels (tables 11.43, 11.44, and Figure 30).

TABLE 11.43 ANOVA for examining differences in extrinsic motivation levels

Source of the variance	SS	Df	MS	F	P
Between groups	7.023	2	3.511	9.207	.000
Within groups	152.170	399	0.381		
Total	159.193	401			

The sum of squares between groups was $SS = 7.023$ whereas the sum of squares within groups was $SS = 152.170$ (Table 11.43). Further calculations indicated that variances between and within groups were $MS = 3.511$ and $MS = 0.381$, respectively. This finding was statistically significant ($F(2, 399) = 9.207, p < .001$).

Therefore; groups (students who lived in dormitories, with their friends and with their family) differed by their levels of extrinsic motivation as it was expected according to the results for intrinsic motivation levels. In order to investigate these differences, Scheffe's post hoc test (Table 11.44) was applied.

TABLE 11.44 Results of Scheffe's post hoc tests used for comparing each pair of groups

Pairs of groups		Mean difference	Standard error	P
In dormitory	With family	-0.271	0.069	.000
In dormitory	With friends	-0.017	0.087	.981
With family	With friends	0.254	0.084	.011

As can be noticed in Table 11.44, students who lived in dormitories scored lower than the students who lived with their families. This difference was significant at the $p = .001$ level ($\Delta M = -0.271, p < .001$). Hence; students' living with the members of their families increases extrinsic motivation. These students learn because they want to get good grades, recognition or some kind of external reward.

Participants who lived in dormitories and those who lived with their friends do not differ significantly ($\Delta M = -0.017, p > .05$). Therefore, these two groups of students

had approximately the same levels of extrinsic motivation, but lower levels compared to those participants who live with their families.

Finally; respondents who lived in their family environment scored higher than those who lived with their friends. This difference was statistically significant ($\Delta M = 0.254$, $p < .05$). This finding is consistent with the two previous results. Figure 11.19 is graphical representation of groups' average results.

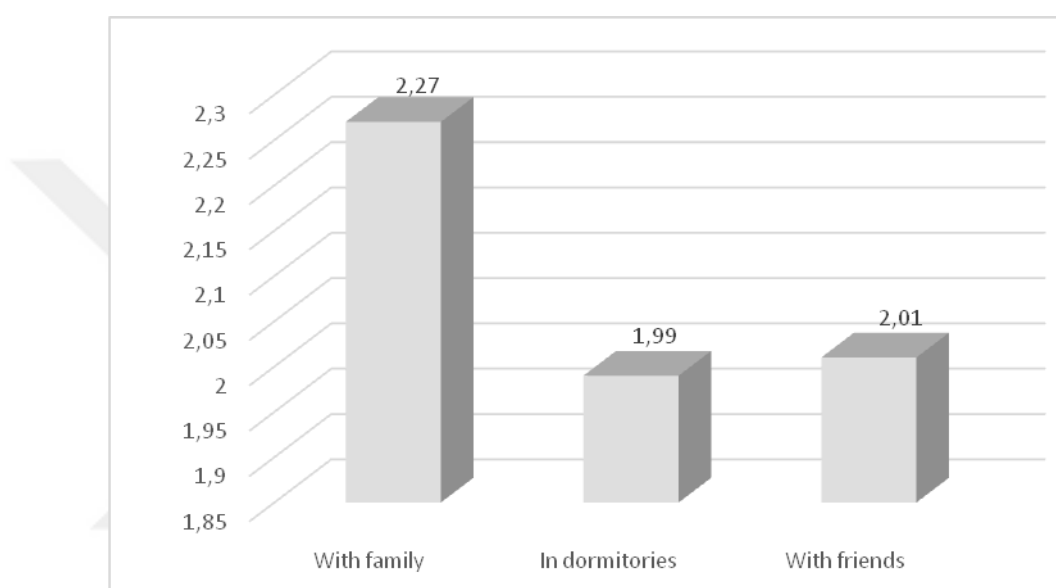


FIGURE 11.19 Arithmetic means for extrinsic motivation levels

It is quite clear that students who are with their families while attending to high schools and universities had the highest results on Extrinsic motivation scale ($M = 2.27$) among these three groups. Those who lived with their friends during their study scored, on average, $M = 2.01$. The lowest value of arithmetic mean was obtained among those respondents who lived in dormitories when they are studying.

Because variables such as the following: English language speaking anxiety, social self-esteem, extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy in educational/academic context etc. are related to subjective assessment of English language knowledge and skills, we repeated analysis of variance for the last mentioned variable. Similar results were expected regarding to these for intrinsic

motivation, social self-esteem and self-efficacy. The results of one-way ANOVA are displayed in tables 11.45 and 11.46.

TABLE 11.45 Results of ANOVA for subjective estimate of English knowledge and skills

Source of the variance	SS	Df	MS	F	p
Between groups	36.465	2	18.232	13.264	.000
Within groups	548.443	399	1.375		
Total	584.908	401			

In the case of this variable, the sum of the squares among the groups was $SS = 36.465$ while the sum of squares within groups was $SS = 548.443$. According to SS and df -values (degrees of freedom), mean square (variance) among groups was $MS = 18.232$ and the mean square within groups was equal to $MS = 1.375$. Furthermore; the ratio of variances was statistically significant ($F(2, 399) = 13.264, p < .001$).

It can be concluded that there exists a difference in subjective assessments of English knowledge and skills which is influenced by the three different types of living during high school or university attendance. As can be seen (Table 11.46), there were two statistically significant differences out of the possible three pairs of comparisons.

TABLE 11.46 Post hoc comparisons for three groups of students

Pairs of groups		Mean difference	Standard error	P
In dormitory	With family	0.580	0.131	.000
In dormitory	With friends	-0.068	0.165	.920
With family	With friends	-0.648	0.160	.000

There was statistically significant difference in students' estimates of their English knowledge and skills when those who lived in dormitories as well as with their families were compared ($\Delta M = 0.580, p < .001$, Table 11.46). Students who lived in dormitories scored significantly higher than those who lived with their families.

However; there was not statistically significant difference between the average results of participants who lived in dormitories and those who lived with their friends during high school and university attendance ($\Delta M = -0.068$, $p > .05$). This result is similar to the several previously mentioned findings.

Finally; respondents who lived with their families scored significantly lower than those who lived with their friends ($\Delta M = -0.648$, $p < .001$). Hence; students who spent their time with friends outside their homes estimated their English knowledge and skills as very well-developed and proficient. On the other hand; those who lived in the family surroundings thought that their English knowledge and skills are lower.

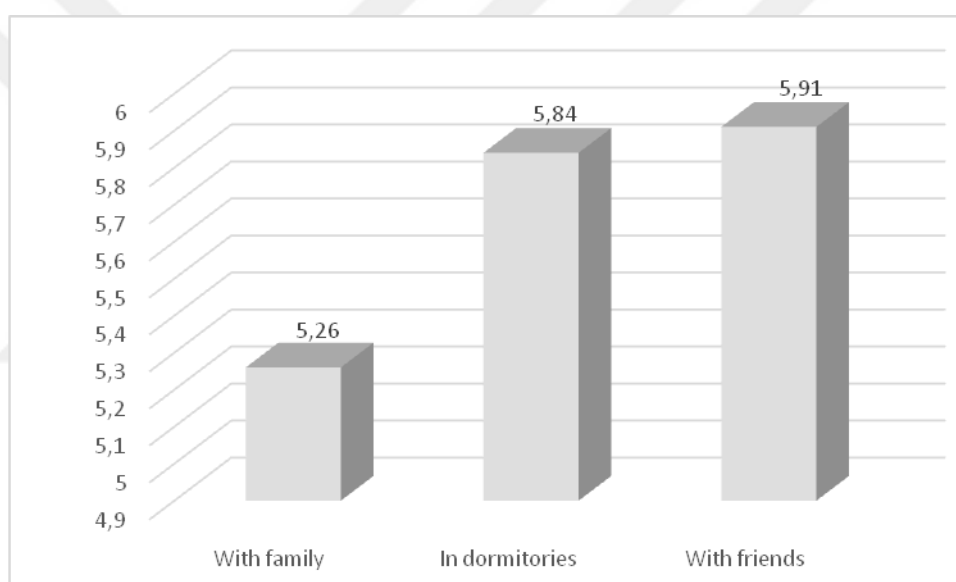


FIGURE 11.20 Average results of three groups of students

In the Figure 11.20, it can be seen that subjectively estimated levels of English knowledge and skills are quite similar for respondents who lived in dormitories ($M = 5.84$) and with their friends ($M = 5.91$). However, arithmetic mean of these assessments in the group of those who lived with their families was smaller ($M = 5.26$).

We were also interested in social club membership of our participants because the usage of English knowledge and skills are closely related with social context or social background and the habits of students. Several ROC-curve analysis was

conducted in order to examine the extent to which participants' club membership could be predicted. The results were summarized in the following figures (Figure 32 to Figure 33) and their interpretations. Social club(s) participation was dichotomous variable (1- yes, 0 – no) whereas: intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, social self-esteem, English language speaking anxiety, self-efficacy, total result for five learning strategies and self-report measure of students' English knowledge and skills were continuous (quantitative) variables.

If the area under the curve (AUC) is statistically significant, it means that we can predict social club participation knowing participants' results on the continuous variables. Our results will be more reliable if this area deviates from the central diagonal (the area under this diagonal is .500) in one of the two directions (i.e. its value is high enough or low enough compared to the threshold of .500). If AUC is higher than .600 or lower than .400, then it is sufficient to discriminate those who are and who are not members of social club(s). If AUC is higher than .700 or lower than .300, our test is good in differentiating those who are and those who are not members of social club(s). If this measure is higher than .800 or lower than .200, our test is very good for its main purpose.

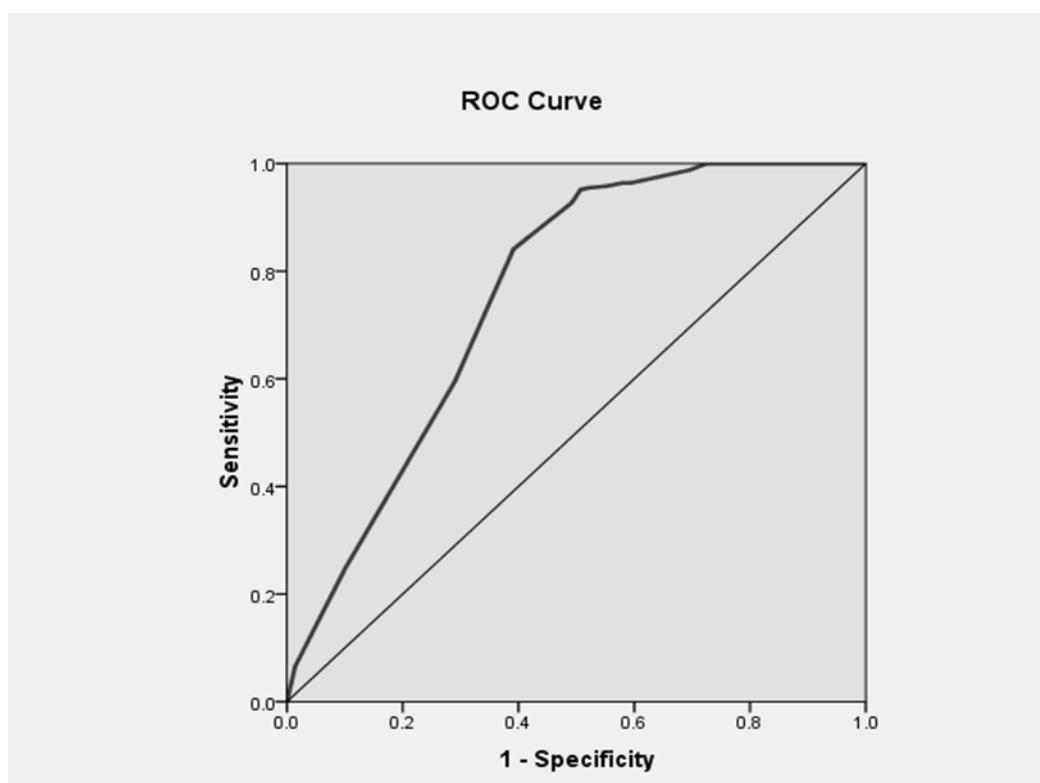


FIGURE 11.21 ROC curve for intrinsic motivation

As can be seen (Figure 11.21), this curve really differs from the diagonal and this finding is statistically significant ($AUC = .756$, $SE = .038$, $p < .001$). The value of AUC indicated that our test is good in discriminating these two groups of students. In other words, knowing participants' levels of intrinsic motivation allows us to make conclusions about their social club(s) membership. Students with high levels of intrinsic motivations are more likely to be members of one or some social clubs. However, those with low results on Intrinsic motivation scale are less likely to be social club(s) members.

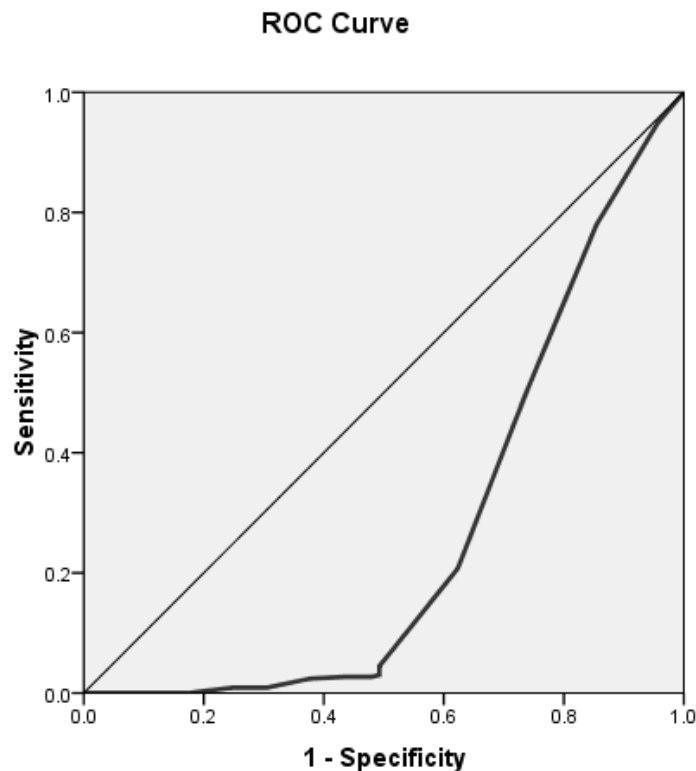


FIGURE 11.22 ROC curve for extrinsic motivation

It can be noticed (Figure 11.22) that ROC curve for extrinsic motivation is below the diagonal line. It means that low results on Extrinsic motivation scale indicate that students are more likely to be members of social club(s). The area under curve significantly differs from diagonal line ($AUC = .267$, $SE = .041$, $p < .001$). Because its value is lower than .300, this test is a good indicator of social club(s) membership.

It can be concluded that results of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation followed the reverse directions. Hence; students who were members of social club(s) had high levels of intrinsic as well as low levels of extrinsic motivation. These findings are in accordance with the previous results when associations were analysed between the number(s) of social clubs and our main variables (e.g. intrinsic motivation, social self-esteem and self-efficacy, etc.).

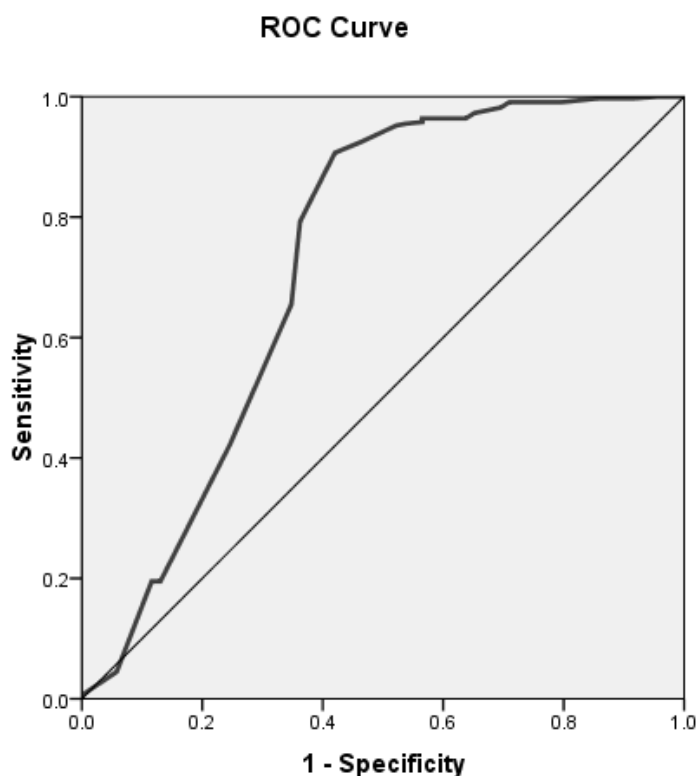


FIGURE 11.23 ROC curve for social self-esteem

ROC curve for social self-esteem levels was above the reference (i.e. diagonal) line (Figure 11.23). The area under it was $AUC = .727$, standard error of its estimate was $SE = .042$ and this test was statistically significant ($p < .001$). As expected, high levels of social self-esteem increased the likelihood of social club membership. On the other hand, students who were not socially confident or extraverted were less likely to be members of one or some social club(s).

It has already been determined that social self-esteem highly correlates with English language speaking anxiety. In fact, this correlation is strong and negative.

Accordingly; the following result is expected: low levels of English language speaking anxiety are associated with membership in one or various social club(s). To test it, the ROC curve analysis was tested and its graphical representation is displayed below, in Figure 11.24.

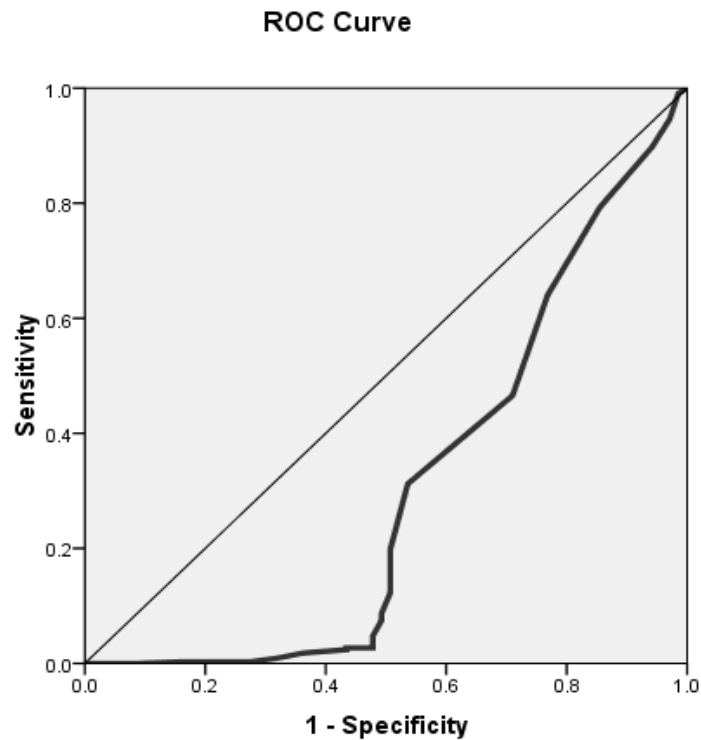


FIGURE 11.24 ROC curve for English language speaking anxiety

As can be noticed (Figure 11.24), ROC curve for English language speaking anxiety was below the reference (diagonal) line. The area under the curve was $AUC = .304$ and standard error was $SE = .042$ which revealed statistically significant result ($p < .001$). Because AUC was under .400, our test had sufficient power and reliability to distinguish between those who were social club(s) members and those who were not members.

Hence; lots of students who were members of social club(s) had low levels of English language speaking anxiety. However; lots of students who were not members of any social club scored high on English language speaking anxiety scale.

This finding has already been explained and it follows a logic of other findings obtained by analysis in this study.

Self-efficacy is highly and positively correlated with social self-esteem and it is expected that students who have high levels of self-efficacy will be the members of at least one social club. However; those who do not perceive themselves as self-efficient will be less likely to be members of one or more social club(s). The results are displayed in Figure 11.25.

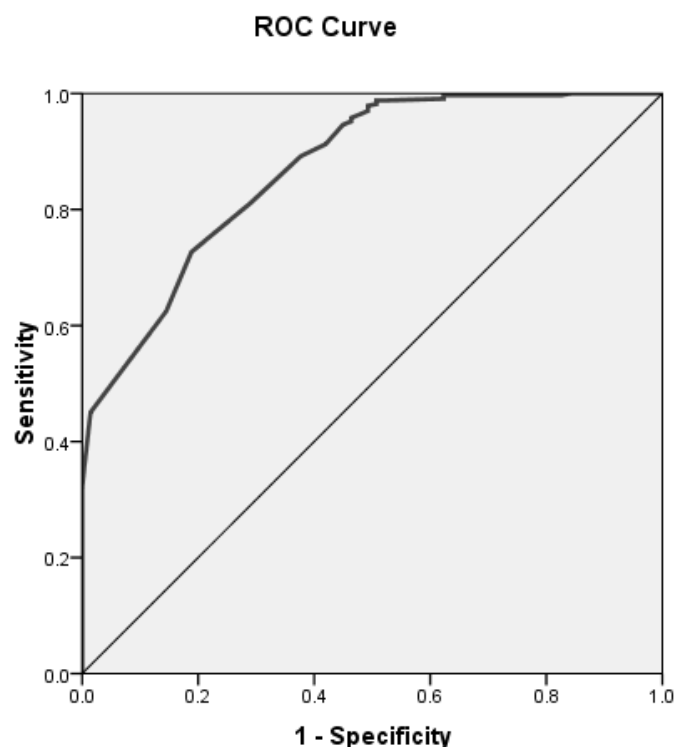


FIGURE 11.25 ROC curve for self-efficacy

In Figure 11.25, it can be seen that ROC curve for self-efficacy is above the diagonal line. The area under it was $AUC = .870$, the value of its estimate error was $SE = .023$ and this result was statistically significant ($p < .001$). The value of AUC was very high and indicated very good discriminative power of the applied test. In fact; this was the second highest value among the seven analyzed variables.

These findings indicated that self-efficient students are more likely to be the members of at least one social club. However, students who think that they are not self-efficient are less likely to participate in social clubs. Self-efficacy is closely linked to self-confidence and self-esteem and it is a positive predictor of different social, psychological and educational outcomes. Therefore, it is not surprising that aforementioned results were gotten.

It was also examined that how total scores for learning strategies (five separate scores which were combined and considered together) predict social club membership. Because the high levels of intrinsic motivation and low levels of extrinsic motivation indicated well-developed English language learning strategies, it is expected that successful usage of these strategies will be associated with the social club membership. The results are displayed in Figure 11.26 with some statistical interpretations below this figure:

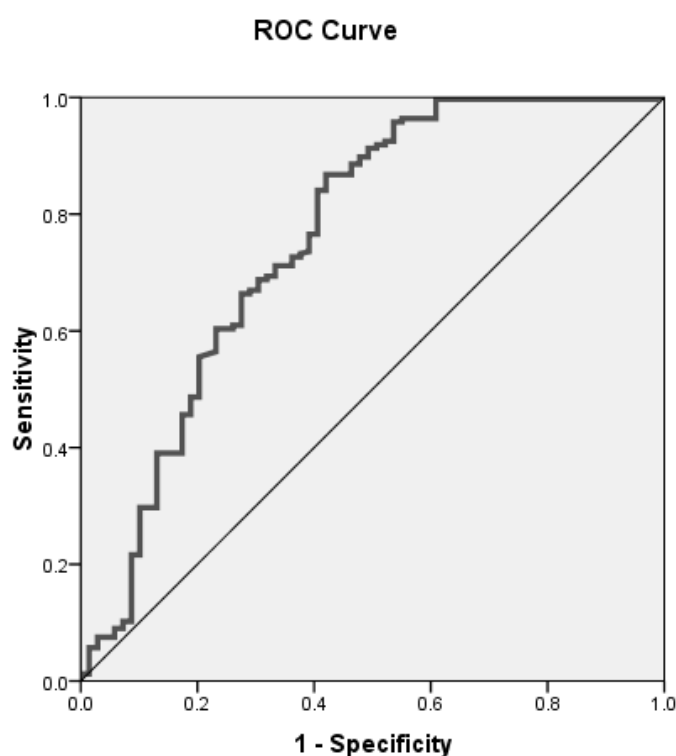


FIGURE 11.26 ROC curve of total scores for learning strategies

It is clear that this curve was located above the reference line. Therefore; the area under it was higher than .500. When considered more precisely, AUC was .759, SE (standard error) was .037 and this result was significant at the level of .001 ($p < .001$). The value of AUC was an indicator of good discriminative power of the conducted test.

Hence, if a student frequently applied different learning strategies (compensating for missing knowledge, using all mental processes, evaluating learning process and learning with others...), it was more likely that s/he was a member of at least one social club. However, it can be predicted that students who are not well-skilled in using learning strategies will not be members of any social club as well.

In the end, ROC curve analysis was repeated in order to examine predictive/discriminative power of self-reported estimate of English knowledge and skills. The results are graphically displayed in Figure 11.27.

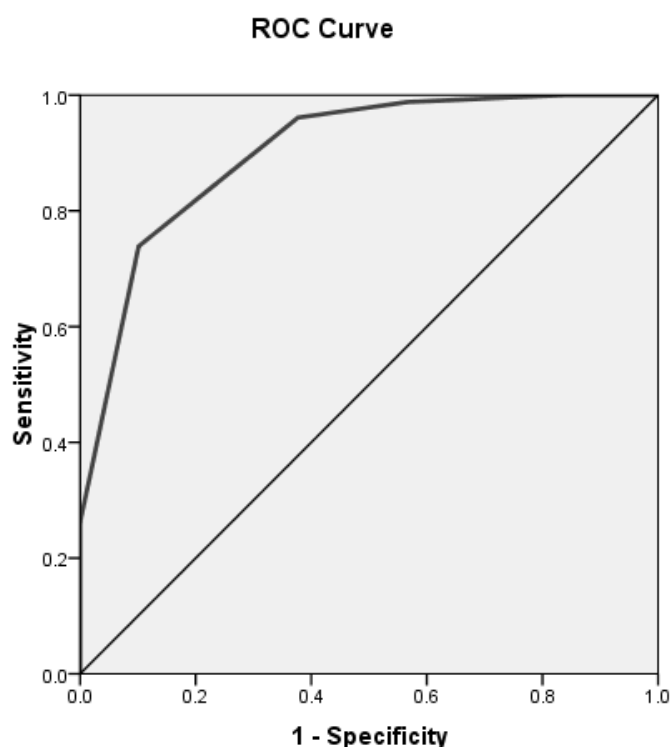


FIGURE 11.27 ROC curve for self-reported measure of English knowledge and skills

ROC curve for self-reported estimate of English language knowledge and skills were very different from the reference (diagonal) line (Figure 11.27). Area under this curve was $AUC = .901$, standard error was $SE = .020$, and this difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$). The value of AUC was the highest obtained values (compared to the other six variables and their ROC curves).

According to this analysis; as the results indicate, students who estimated their English skills and knowledge as high and well-developed were the members of one or more social club(s). On the other hand, lots of participants who believed that their English language and skills were poor were not members of any social club.

To summarize; among the intrinsically motivated, self-efficient and socially confident participants who have low levels of English language speaking anxiety and who think that they possess very good English knowledge and skills are more likely to be members of at least one social club. They also reported high levels of effective usage of various learning strategies.

CHAPTER 12

DISCUSSION

In this respect, as mentioned before, there has not been any large body of conducted research in these fields (especially in the field of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for English language learning and its use). However, the results are compared with the findings of a small number of other authors in these scientific areas.

Categorically, some of them examined the relationships between extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy (e.g. Tabarnero & Hernandez, 2011) and some others examined speaking anxiety levels and extrinsic motivation (e.g. Waseem & Jibeen, 2013), or for example, gender differences in the levels of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Oketić & Ilić, 2014), self confidence and intrinsic motivation (Waschell & Kernis, 1996), or the relationship between motivation and several learning strategies (Chang, 2005).

Nonetheless, the findings about the relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation are not in accordance with the findings from a study of Habibian (2002). She got positive and moderate correlation between those two types of motivation. In contrast to her findings, we got a high negative correlation between them. Habibian (2002) conducted her research on PhD students and these students can have both intrinsic and extrinsic orientations. This is because they want academic title and at the same time they like the specific scientific field they investigate. On the other hand, high school and college students learn different subject and they do not like all of them. However, there are some of these students who really enjoy getting general knowledge of various scientific fields. In view of the aforementioned reasons, the divergence between ours and Habibian's findings can be explained.

Another striking point is that our findings are in accordance with the results of the study obtained by Tabarnero and Hernandez (2011). In their study, there was a significant negative correlation between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. In addition, those authors concluded that self-efficacy positively correlate with intrinsic motivation and negatively correlate with extrinsic motivation which were our findings, too.

In the light of overall results and discussions, the results of the study obtained by canonical correlational analysis (CCA) revealed positive correlation between intrinsic motivation and English language learning strategies. In a similar vein, these findings were in accordance with the results of Stegers-Juger et al. (2012). The motivated students usually use different learning strategies in order to achieve academic goals. Our results are similar to the results of Chang's study (2005). In his research, intrinsic motivation highly correlated with all foreign language learning strategies.

Taken together; the research offers that for accomplishing the functional use of the language by legitimate attempts, it is of vital importance to encourage them to try out the language to engage communicatively and obtain sensible challenges. Route learning and mechanistic way of using the learning strategies should be avoided to consolidate the personal growth, individual accomplishment, initiative taking, self-direction and independence for the expression of meaning in teaching English as a foreign language as the language involves the whole person.

Another relevant consideration is that Kerla and Repišti (2013) conducted a research on the gender differences in social self-esteem. Their study revealed that females scored higher on Social-self esteem scale. Contrary to their own ones, our research does not support these findings. Our research yielded statistically non-significant gender differences ($M_{\text{males}} = 4.26$, $M_{\text{females}} = 4.20$, $t = 0.848$, $df = 400$, $p > .05$) because the mean value of males' results was just slightly higher than that of females. Of course, it can be noticed that both groups scored very high on Social self-esteem scale. Because our sample was larger than the sample of these researchers, our results have stronger reliability and validity. Another reason of incongruence between these two findings is the structure of ours and their sample. Their sample consists of high

school students whereas our sample consists of both high school and university students. In spite of these differences, our and their researches revealed high levels of social self-esteem among students. Generally speaking, participants estimate themselves as highly self-confident and believe in their social skills (i.e. think that their social and emotional intelligence is high).

Considering the points above, Aydoğan et al. (2013) got similar results to ours: social self-esteem positively correlated with learning strategies for English language. In other words, someone who is an extroverted, outgoing and self-confident person will use learning strategies more frequently than someone who is introverted and socially anxious.

It can also be implicated that this study revealed that there were no gender differences in extrinsic and intrinsic motivation levels. It was also concluded that there were no differences on these variables between high school and university students. The results are similar to results obtained by Oletić & Ilić (2014).

In as much as their self-concept and self-evaluation are consistent with their exposition in social settings, the learners with high social self-esteem feel less anxious and more motivated. Therefore they are more close to academic achievement as they have high level of potential for self-actualization. In other words, these learners enjoy communication and socializing process more regarding English not as a subject matter but as a way of life style. These type of learners take more life satisfaction balancing their cognitive outcomes and social self-esteems with what they aim in the process of developing interpersonal relationships where they associate their individual accomplishments with their peers and group work successes.

Parallel to that, the results of the study were also similar to those obtained by Waschull and Kernis (1996) as well as Waseen & Jibeen (2013). The first two researchers, based on their empirical study, concluded that self-confidence positively correlates with intrinsic motivation and negatively correlates with negative emotions (such as anger, anxiety, etc.). In this study, there is a positive relationship between social self-confidence and intrinsic motivation as well as negative relationship between speaking anxiety and social self-confidence. The second two researchers

(Waseen & Jibeen, 2013) found out that speaking anxiety level is higher in those students who are more instrumentally (i.e. extrinsically) motivated. Our research revealed the same results. This is due to the instrumental learning (these students want only good grades, they are opportunists and have utilitarian goals).

Accordingly, the findings on the relationship between the number of social club(s) membership and social-self esteem levels were supported by Jones and Brown (1996). In their research, participants who had high levels of social self-esteem reported that they like to touch other people and to be touched by them. In addition, they like to communicate with lots of people with various backgrounds. Correlatively, our participants also liked to interact with lots of people and be members of different social clubs. Similarly, those who lived in dormitories or with their friends had higher social self-esteem than students who lived with their families. When students live outside their homes, they have better chances to meet other people and communicate with them. Their relations with others include verbal communication, developing strategic interactive approach, physical touch and involvement in various group/social activities etc.

Apart from the fact that self-efficacy positively correlated with self-reported measure of participants' English knowledge and skills, the practical consequences of Bandura's theory have been proved (1977, 1993). Likewise, Bandura stated that high levels of self-efficacy increases students' productivity and academic achievement. Our findings are also in accordance with those of Mahyuddin et al. (2006) and Zajacova et al. (2005): self-efficacy is very important for academic efficacy and effectivity as well as for expectancy beliefs on learning.

In addition, self-efficacy positively correlated with using of English language learning strategies and this correlation supported findings of Junger and Rosander (2010). In other words, students who believe in themselves will use different learning strategies more frequently with correct strategic investments which lead to positive educational outcomes in genuine problem-solving tasks.

To associate it pedagogically to the right context here, the findings of the high school and university students participants in the research reveals that their being

non-addictive to externally motivating rewards enables them to establish a solidaristic attitude in participatory learning and disposition in terms of communicative interactions and interpersonal relationships rather than competitive and non-community learning strategies by enhancing cognitive processes.

Moreover, Aydoğan and Akbarov (2014) got positive and statistically significant correlations among different learning strategies, which were our results, as well. Hence, English language learning strategies positively correlate to each other which means that students who use one or some series of learning strategies for the negotiation of meaning and communicative purposes for genuine interactions regarding the class as a team also use other learning strategies (with similar frequency of their usage). To exemplify, carrying out meaningful tasks, not ignoring the content, injecting inductive learning instead of rule learning, exploiting subjects in a stress-free way, using more task-based materials, involving the learners keeping them responsible for the ownership of their own learning, emphasizing the functional skills of the language, triggering the intrinsic motives and allowing the comprehensible input are only some of the clues to implement these strategies in the educational context.

Finally, students estimated their English knowledge and skills highly. This finding is supported by the results of study conducted by Aydoğan and Gupta (2015). In their research, students believed that their verbal intelligence as well as English language knowledge and skills are well-developed. Hence, students (in both studies) had very positive image of themselves as the learners of English language. When allowed, they can express genuine interests and enthusiasm in tasks, not only being linguistically involved but also promoting the intrinsic motivation being engaged in activities for their own sake which foster the cooperative negotiation. Likewise, communicative purpose and the interactive nature of the language engage learners with real-world contexts and trigger the inspiration for the production and comprehension of the language by motivating learners in a supportive community lessening the speaking anxiety and the affective domain through the facilitator role of the language teacher in the EFL settings.

In the similar fashion, Akbarov et al. (2014) referring to their research, concluded that self-confidence was negatively related to other facets of English language speaking anxiety, the former of which gives rise to collaborative learning for the exchange of information. In the study, low social self-esteem were seen to be correlated with high levels of speaking anxiety i.e. there was a negative correlation between these two variables. Therefore, the findings are in accordance with the findings of Akbarov et al. (2014). This finding provides us with more interactive classes where meaning focused and content-centered teaching occur by maintaining the group cohesiveness. To sum up, the social aspect of the language equips learners with meaningful connections, comprehensible input and collaborative fruitful efforts.

In brief, in this context, internalizing English with the accurate learning strategies bring out productive emotional outcomes matching students' self-identity with a successful social adjustment in the target language. In our case, it has been found out that when the correct feedback is embedded with the correct learning strategies, their self-estimates and self-perceptions let themselves develop an autonomy and they feel a sense of belongingness with the learning environment in which they reveal low level of inhibiting filters and higher level of communicative competence.

In conclusion, a feature with unstable social self-esteem and self-efficacy risks academic achievement, but the high level of efficacy and esteem generate anxiety-free and safe learning atmosphere with a positive attitude to learning process as the learner enhances his/her own self-worth without exhibiting any social avoidance. All in all, secure high self-esteem brings about positive emotions and creativity helping the learner to be included in the social context when given the meaningful input in promoting the self-confidence. Then the learner will be the controller of his/her own learning decision making process leading to ease in social interactions without a feeling of alienation by active trial and self-actualizing their whole personalities.

CHAPTER 13

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the main and additional findings and regarding to our hypotheses, several conclusions are made. These conclusions are useful for defining some important contributions of this dissertation.

The first hypothesis was partially confirmed. Our participants had high levels of intrinsic motivation ($M = 4.34$), but low levels of extrinsic motivation ($M = 2.12$).

The second hypothesis was completely confirmed. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were in statistically significant correlation, but their relationship was negative ($r = -.876$). Hence, they shared 76.7% of variance. Because we got very high proportion of common variance, some additional explanations of it has to be provided. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can be considered as two totally opposite hypothetical constructs. Thus, students who are mostly motivated intrinsically do not want to be rewarded by their teachers, classmates or parents. They also primarily do not want public recognition for their achievements, success, excellent grades and other positive learning outcomes. On the other hand, students who are primarily motivated extrinsically want public recognition as well as material and/or verbal rewards. Therefore, almost every student who really enjoys learning process does not have extrinsic intentions. Likewise, almost every student who learn something without positive attitude toward it or is not authentically dedicated to learning English will not express intrinsic intentions. Social self esteem was in high negative and statistically significant correlation with English language speaking anxiety ($r = -.915$). These two quantitative variables had in common 83.7% of their variances. Self-efficacy was in moderate negative and statistically significant correlation with English language speaking anxiety ($r = -.794$).

The variance overlapping between these variables was 63%. English language learning strategies were in high positive and significant correlations with self-efficacy (the values of correlational coefficients ranged from $r = .803$ – for "learning with others", to $r = .875$ – for "remembering more effectively"). Furthermore, English language speaking anxiety correlated negatively and significantly with learning strategies. These coefficients ranged from $r = -.837$ (for "remembering more effectively") to $r = -.886$ (for "using all mental processes").

In addition to our second hypothesis, intrinsic motivation positively correlated with all five learning strategies (e.g. for "remembering more effectively" this coefficient was $r = .857$, while for "using all mental processes" it was $r = .911$), whereas extrinsic motivation correlated negatively with these group of variables (values of these coefficients ranged from $r = -.811$ – for "remembering more effectively" to $r = -.868$ for "learning with others"). As can be noticed, these coefficients were very high which indicated very strong relationship between the analyzed variables.

Also, the results of obtained canonical correlational analysis (CCA) revealed positive, moderate, and statistically significant correlation among the first set of variables (intrinsic motivation, social self-esteem, and self-efficacy) and the second set of variables (i.e. English language learning strategies. The value of this coefficient was $R_C = .518$. Two statistically significant pairs of canonical components were extracted which can be best explained by relationship between social self-esteem and "using all mental processes" as well as between self efficacy and intrinsic motivation on the one hand and "remembering more effectively" on the other hand. Thus, that hypothesis of ours has been confirmed, too.

Our third hypothesis can also be accepted: i.e. there were no gender differences on our main variables (the first arithmetic mean in brackets is that of males, whereas the second is that of females): intrinsic motivation ($M = 4.37$ vs. $M = 4.32$), extrinsic motivation ($M = 2.11$ vs. $M = 2.13$), self-efficacy ($M = 4.34$ vs. $M = 4.26$), English language speaking anxiety ($M = 1.93$ vs. $M = 1.94$), and social self-esteem ($M = 4.26$ vs. $M = 4.20$). There were no gender differences in English language learning strategies, but in the case of "using all mental processes", the significance did not differ very much from the 0.05 level of significance ($p = .073$, $M_{\text{males}} = 4.31$ vs.

$M_{\text{females}} = 4.19$). These negative results can be explained in a more detailed way. In the 21st century, males and females receive almost equal educational treatments. In other words, their educational rights are guaranteed (both genders are considered as equal subjects of educational process); therefore gender differences in the context of learning are almost ignored. Neither males nor females are favored or having some advantage over the other gender group. Thus, our findings are not surprising.

The fourth hypothesis was partially confirmed. Turkish students studying in Turkey and Bosnian students studying in Bosnia and Herzegovina did not differ significantly in the following variables (the first arithmetic mean in the brackets is the average result of Bosnian students, and the other arithmetic mean is the average score of Turkish students): social self-esteem ($M = 4.14$ vs. $M = 4.27$), self-efficacy ($M = 4.23$ vs. $M = 4.34$), and English language speaking anxiety ($M = 2.02$ vs. $M = 1.90$). These two groups did not differ either in five English language learning strategies with the exception of "using all mental processes", where the significance of t-test was close to .05 ($p = .087$; $M_{\text{Bosnians}} = 4.16$ vs. $M_{\text{Turks}} = 4.29$). On the other hand, Turkish students scored significantly higher on Intrinsic motivation scale ($M = 4.40$) and significantly lower on Extrinsic motivation scale ($M = 2.06$) compared to Bosnian students ($M_{\text{intrinsic}} = 4.26$ and $M_{\text{extrinsic}} = 2.22$).

The fifth hypothesis was also confirmed because some differences were found with regard to socioeconomic variables. Thus, in the case of sociodemographic variables, monthly incomes of their parents and themselves were in low and non-significant correlation with social self-esteem ($r = .072$). However; social self-esteem was not only in positive and statistically significant correlations with the family extent ($r = .524$), but also in correlations with the number of clubs of which students were the members ($r = .360$). Multiple regression analysis revealed family extent as a better predictor ($\beta = .453$) compared to number of social clubs ($\beta = .160$). Both predictors were statistically significant for predicting participants' levels of social self-esteem.

To put it in a nutshell; among the intrinsically motivated, self-efficient and socially confident participants who have low levels of English language speaking anxiety and who think that they possess very good English knowledge and skills are more likely to be members of at least one social club. Without fail, students with high levels of

intrinsic motivations are more likely to be members of one or more social clubs. On the contrary, students' living with the members of their families increases their extrinsic motivation. These students tend to learn because they want to get good grades, recognition, or some kind of external reward.

Yet, students who live outside their homes (in dormitories or with their friends) have higher levels of self-efficacy compared to those who live with the members of their own families. In contrast to them, students' living with the members of their families increases extrinsic motivation. These students learn because they want to get good grades, recognition, or some kind of external rewards. Surprisingly enough, the highest levels of intrinsic motivation were typical for participants who lived with their friends.

Supposing that English language learning students enjoy studying English process more when they are not with the members of their families merely because they rely on themselves and they respectively use self-regulation processes more effectively in foreign language learning and design their learning environments. There is not any statistically significant differences in the intrinsic motivation levels among the participants who lived in dormitories and those who lived with their friends and English language speaking anxiety levels are the highest for those students who lived with their families. Nevertheless, lower levels of this kind of anxiety was typical for students who lived in dormitories as well as with their friends.

Similarly, students who lived with their families showed higher levels of English language speaking anxiety than those who lived in dormitories hitherto. Therefore; students who live with the members of their family are seen to be less self-confident when they speak in English and they feel tense, anxious, and some kind of fear while communicating in English. Hence, participants who lived with their friends rather than with the members of their families had relatively low levels of English language speaking anxiety.

To put it simply, the research also offers that living outside the house (family) and with other people/peers increases social self-esteem of students. Accordingly, students who have high levels of social self-esteem choose to live outside their own

homes and want to be surrounded by their peers rather than by their family members. By virtue of their high social self-confidence, they are allowed to make new friends and live with others. Moreover, this kind of students can easily give and accept social support as well as expressing their feelings, attitudes, and thoughts during social occasions notwithstanding the inhibiting affective factors.

Furthermore, participants who live with their friends had higher levels of social self-esteem than those who live with their families. This result can be explained easily. It goes without saying that family is a safe place for adolescents and they do not need to be socially competent to confirm their places in family surroundings. However, when students live with their friends, they have to be socially intelligent in order to maintain their social positions in the particular group of peers.

What is more, if a family has lots of members, social self-esteem of these members turn out to be high. In other words; students whose family, for example; have five members will have higher levels of social self-esteem than those students whose families have e.g. two or three members.

Seeing that social self-esteem is a significant factor in the educational context which facilitates the usage of foreign languages, it should be kept in mind that it covers constructs such as: communicational skills, extraversion, social competence, and interpersonal (social) intelligence. Therefore, students who have high levels of social self-esteem easily apply and use English language in social contexts. They are self-confident and they can adapt to different social situations where they communicate with different types of people.

Since high levels of social self-esteem decrease the levels of speaking anxiety and produces better attention during the English classes, if the English learner is self-confident and emotionally stable, he/she has better predispositions to use all his/her mental processes in academic purposes. Accordingly, if somebody has high levels of intrinsic motivation, he/she will use learning strategies more frequently. More precisely, he/she will be better in evaluating and organizing his/her learning process.

To recapitulate, once the number of the membership of social clubs increases, social self-esteem also increases. Therefore; students with higher levels of social self-esteem want to participate in more clubs than those who have low levels of social self-esteem. To abridge, English language learners with high level of social self-esteem will presumably be a member of various social clubs, too and the size (extent) of their families will be important, as well.

The last hypothesis has completely been confirmed. The self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills were in positive correlations with: intrinsic motivation ($r = .707$), self-efficacy ($r = .797$), social self-esteem ($r = .685$), and English language learning strategies (from $r = .244$ for "organizing and evaluating learning" to $r = .701$ for "remembering more effectively"). This self-reported estimate of participants' English knowledge and skills negatively correlated with extrinsic motivation ($r = -.673$) and English language speaking anxiety ($r = -.678$). In addition; multiple regression analysis (MRA) revealed intrinsic motivation ($\beta = .506$) as a better predictor than extrinsic motivation ($\beta = -.230$). Self-efficacy is the best predictor ($\beta = .687$), compared to English language speaking anxiety and social self-esteem. It has to be remembered that "English language and skills" was the criterion variable. In conformity with it, the mentioned independent variables are statistically significant predictors of English language and skills. Finally, when learning strategies for English language were considered as predictors, two of them were statistically significant – "remembering more effectively" ($\beta = .244$) and "using all mental processes" ($\beta = .392$). It is clear (from the beta-coefficients) that the second predictor was better than the first one.

Furthermore, the other average values, associations, and variables were also analyzed. In general, participants had high levels of self-efficacy ($M = 4.29$), high levels of social self-esteem ($M = 4.22$), and low levels of English language speaking anxiety ($M = 1.94$). They also use all learning strategies very frequently and efficiently: "remembering more effectively" ($M = 4.23$), "using all mental processes" ($M = 4.24$), "compensating for missing knowledge" ($M = 4.26$), "organizing and evaluating learning" ($M = 4.26$), and "learning with others" ($M = 4.28$).

The results suggested that there were no significant differences in intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation among high school and university students (for intrinsic motivation: $M_{\text{High school}} = 4.37$ and $M_{\text{University}} = 4.32$; for extrinsic motivation: $M_{\text{High school}} = 2.10$ and $M_{\text{University}} = 2.14$). These two groups did not differ in their levels of: self-efficacy ($M_{\text{High school}} = 4.28$ and $M = 4.31$), English language speaking anxiety ($M_{\text{High school}} = 1.91$ and $M_{\text{University}} = 1.97$), and social self-esteem ($M_{\text{High school}} = 4.25$ and $M_{\text{University}} = 4.20$). Finally, the differences were not statistically significant for learning strategies for the usage of English language.

The findings also revealed that there were no significant gender differences on the self-reported measure of English knowledge and skills ($M_{\text{Males}} = 5.71$ and $M_{\text{Females}} = 5.51$). Additionally; high school and university students did not differ in this variable (arithmetic mean for both groups was $M = 5.59$). However, Turkish students studying in Turkey had significantly higher average results than the Bosnian students studying in Bosnia and Herzegovina ($M = 5.70$ vs. $M = 5.38$, respectively).

With respect to ROC curve analysis, valid predictions of participants' social club(s) memberships can be made based on their: self-efficacy, social self-esteem, English language speaking anxiety, extrinsic motivation levels, intrinsic motivation levels, effectiveness in using learning strategies, and self-reported estimate of English knowledge and skills. The last continuous variable was the best predictor of respondents' social club(s) membership. In this case, the area under the curve was very large and its value was $AUC = .901$.

The overall results imply that Turkish students estimated their levels of English competence higher than those of Bosnian students. This finding can be considered in the context of their intrinsic motivation in view of high intrinsic motivation levels and it really leads to high self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills. Likewise, in the research high school and university students similarly estimated their own English proficiency levels. Inasmuch as the mentioned methodological considerations, it can be epitomised that students who estimate their English skills and knowledge as highly usually learn with others and use this strategy to improve their English language performance.

To illustrate, those learners of EFL who positively evaluate their knowledge and skills are successful in organizing and evaluating their learning. That is, students who have positive attitude towards themselves think that their skills and knowledge are extraordinary and they efficiently use compensation strategies in order to maintain their performance on high level. In contrast to some others, students who have high levels of English knowledge and skills use very frequent strategies which help them to remember more effectively.

As a consequence of the research; high self-efficacy, low speaking anxiety and high social self-esteem have positive impacts on one's English knowledge, skills, and usage of this language both inside and outside (real) classroom context. As a result, they are observed to be more ready for new challenges and more open to cooperation receiving more satisfaction in setting goals, self-regulating and achieving them by sustainable motivation. Moreover; their being willing for participations and maintaining longer period of motivation when provided appropriate feedback, and supportive environment increase their creativity and competence in foreign language learning.

CHAPTER 14

IMPLICATIONS

The research leads to the pedagogical implication that there is a negative relationship between the speaking anxiety in English language learning and the social self-esteem and self-efficacy. It will be more proper to carry out educational activities in EFL to enhance the social self-esteem and self-efficacy of students in mainstream classes. The author resolves these challenges by creating a supportive, threat-free surrounding and by tempting self-reflection. It will harness the interest of students by allowing them to receive satisfaction from their success and they will easily set attainable goals. Providing students with authentic tasks, promoting critical thinking and actual performance, enhancing a friendly rapport in EFL classrooms keep them sufficiently intrinsically motivated and foster their social self-esteem.

Another outstanding implication in the research is that the weaker the self esteem of English learners, the stronger the inhibition to possess the weak ego will be, which is a conducive predictor to building self-esteem when coping with affective factors. Therefore, it is recommended that English teachers' attitudes be in a way not to trigger the extrinsic motivation which will be hazardous to students' autonomy. Beliefs with the internalised orientation of task motivation and higher level of self-efficacy will increase the performance, academic achievement and the personal satisfaction of students in the context of English language learning. According to the results of this research, the students with higher level of self-efficacy get to be more decisive, persistent, self-regulated, goal-oriented and these properties will necessarily decrease the English speaking anxiety.

Accordingly, taking the personal experiences and association of real life situations with their own needs and interests which are the most important predictors of self-efficacy as the departure point, giving them chances to self-actualise themselves by affirming beliefs in their ability will be the fundamental element raising their self-efficacies.

Besides, it has also been found out that there is a strong relationship among the intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, social self-esteem and their English knowledge and skills. In order to intensify their English skills and knowledge, the tasks and activities should be arranged in a manner that they could increase their intrinsic motivation by diversified materials, self-efficacy and social self-esteem without the students' addiction of gratification and worthless praises and the immediate prizes of teachers. Internally rewarding and self-generating motivational behaviours will create enhanced self-esteem and fulfillment in students. Glorification of short-term driven motivational impetus will make the students dependent on external rewards as the drives will be externally administered and distract the retention of knowledge in the long-run.

According to report by British Council Project Team (2015) the curriculum should be shifted away from English for General Purposes (EGP) towards English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP), and EGAP classes should be customised to cater for students' specialist academic fields. In this way, motivation should be improved because students would not be repeating what they failed to learn several times in school, and because they will now see the relevance of the curriculum to their academic studies. The recommendations imply that all English teachers should undergo a short, intensive training programme in EAP/ ESP, and some teachers in each university should be offered longer-term training such as that available by distance from some universities. In this way, English teachers will have the confidence and the skills to teach a more relevant curriculum, using materials which they could adapt and customise to students' academic disciplines. Students' extrinsic motivation would be improved by a curriculum and materials which are perceived as relevant. Teachers would have the skills and confidence to deliver more interactive lessons. Students' speaking skills and confidence would be improved. Students' intrinsic motivation would be improved by more dynamic lessons. All teachers

should undergo training in techniques for incorporating students' interactions at every stage of the lesson with speaking integrated into every activity, regardless of the skill being practised (British Council Project Team, 2015).

Additional recommendation of British Council Project Team urges that the approach to English mediated education should be shifted from traditional English Medium Instruction (EMI), where the lecturer takes little or no responsibility for the language used, to Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), in which the lecturer uses strategies that take account of students' language limitations in line with developments in most European countries. EMI academics should be required to undergo training and to take responsibility for their students' learning by adopting a range of language and technological strategies to facilitate learning. Academic lecturers would feel more confident and effective when teaching through the medium of English. Students would receive the English language support they need throughout their undergraduate and (where appropriate) graduate study. Students' learning load would be reduced as lecturers 'accommodate' their language limitations and employ strategies to ensure that communication and motivation are improved in the academic classroom (British Council Project Team, 2015).

Reviewing the results of this research, it can be understood that disheartening the students' attempts to speak by constant corrections will overwhelm their easiness and create a self-doubt and inhibition with defence mechanisms by raising their defensive reactions and preventing input. Encountering challenging tasks and the inhibition will make it harder for them to overcome their negative feelings and enhance the risky factors causing speaking anxiety impairing the performance. As long as their emotional security is maintained, their self-esteem will conceivably boost and enrich their insights to English learning and their stress will be alleviated. Only then they can develop an understanding of intercultural communication achieving cross-cultural connectivity by discovering their own worthiness with a positive evaluative attitude in successful interactions without being ostracized by peers. Then EFL learners will not withdraw in the presence of others as their positive self-evaluation will not be expatriated and they will perceive more worthy.

The contextual layers which have provided insight into the implication that there is a close relationship between the self-esteem, sense of efficacy and academic achievement and proficiency of English language learners when properly channeled. When they are confident in their academic English skills, they will substantiate persistence and ultimately sustain a longer period of engagement by strengthened intrinsic motivation at their disposal fostering their own learning.

To shed valuable light on the research, how EFL teachers react to affective variables and cognitive domains of students lowers the apprehension and the influence of the quality of students' deployed input. The neurolinguistic facts underlying the language learning processing tend to explain that heightened anxiety will lead to less contribution, diffused trouble and more discouragement in students stemming from a fear of failure. It also slows down the spirit of cooperation, peer interaction and kills the in-class relationships. Utilizing the educational technology and audio-visual aids in the learning environment also facilitates the active attainment of students.

To illustrate, teachers' role as a facilitator should replace the traditional authoritative attitudes to soften the classroom climate and let the students feel more secure as they are acutely sensible to non-threatening ways of communicative tasks, social acceptance and positive reinforcement as speaking anxiety has a debilitating influence on language learning. Considering all these factors affecting the students' perceptions, it is the English teachers' duty to let the students feel relaxed and motivated with a sense of empowerment by providing differentiated instruction so that they could communicate with their interlocutors with low inhibited levels or without speaking anxiety at all. Anxiety arousal is pertinent to non-stress-free learning settings and it definitely impedes raising self-efficacy and delays the achievement and enhancing awareness.

An important implication of the research is that the two dependent variables of 'remembering more effectively' and 'using all mental processes' revealed that English learning strategies and English knowledge and skills were found to have strong relationships for the entire range of social emotional learning. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that students should frequently use these two learning

strategies incorporating 'remembering more effectively' and 'using mental processes' in EFL.

It is also noteworthy that one of the outcomes of this research is the determination of intrinsic motivation and learning strategies which have positively strong relationship and connectedness with one another. To encourage the employment of the proper learning strategies, it will be convenient to enhance the intrinsic motivations of students and strengthen their English skills which is not an insurmountable endeavor at all.

It has been brought to light that 'the family extent' and 'the number of social clubs to which students attended' have been found to be the predictors of the levels of the students' social self-esteem. Thus, it is possible to claim that the social self-esteem of the students with a lot of family members and who join many social club activities will accordingly increase. Students' growing up in crowded families and increasing the social club activities they join is recommended for enhancing the social self-esteem.

It has been discovered by the research that there is a positive relationship between their intrinsic motivations and the number of the social clubs of which the students are members. To increase their English language skills, it will be proper to increase the socialization process in the direction of intrinsically motivated behaviors and goals. Similarly, it has been found out that students living with their families are seen to have a higher level of intrinsic motivation.

The truth of the matter is that students lacking intrinsic motivation can be encouraged to stay with their friends to increase their intrinsic motivation. Nevertheless, the English learning anxieties of the students living with their families have been found out higher than the anxieties of students living with their friends or in dormitories. Therefore, students suffering from speaking anxiety can be recommended to live with their friends or in dormitories to a certain extent to reduce the speaking anxiety. For those living with their families, it can be recommended that they can live with their friends or in dormitories even for a permanent while resulting in improved learning and yielding active involvement to L2. By balancing the length of stay both

with families and friends interchangeably, the lacked traits in intrinsic motivation and speaking anxiety can be compensated and fostered.

It is EFL teachers to help them identify their actual needs and be adjusted with their own emotional literacies and display more self-efficacy. When their self-efficacy levels increase, students will feel more comfortable and confident with English learning as a result of their positive perceptions allowing for a growth in acquisition and social-emotional learning.

It can be inferred from all these correlations that students living with their friends outside their family settings are seen to have higher level of social self-esteem, locus of control and self-assurance as a result of their beliefs in their ability to achieve. Accordingly, it can be urged that arrangements can be done for students to spend time with their friends and live outside their family settings to increase their social self-esteems, problem-solving techniques, to develop their mental processing, emotional competence, self-regulation and to expand the task engagement to EFL.

In particular, the incomes of the students or their families haven't been found to correlate significantly with any of our variables and it can be inferred that income of the students cannot be a determinant of any cognitive growth or competence of English learning.

The results of the study can be used to improve teaching practice in both high schools and universities. Intrinsic motivation levels in students have to be increased by giving them interesting, creative and stimulating materials to learn. We can also make relaxed atmosphere where teachers will not yell at students when they give negative answer and where teachers will support every students' step to acquiring new knowledge and skills. Teachers should be educated to decrease students' high levels of foreign language speaking anxiety and to increase their levels of self-efficacy and social self-esteem. In addition, the support by peers is also a very important factor. Students should feel and perceive their classmates, understand and support them.

CHAPTER 15

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The main contributions of this dissertation, especially its empirical part, are the following:

1. The approach of the research was a quantitative one and our data has been processed statistically in order to obtain reliable and valid results.
2. The sample of students was large ($N = 402$) and included lots of groups of students: males and females, Turkish and Bosnian students, high school and university students, participants who had different socioeconomic backgrounds, etc.
3. Lots of analysis (t-test, analysis of variance – ANOVA, multiple regression analysis – MRA, canonical correlational analysis – CCA, correlational analysis, ROC curve analysis...) have been conducted. Both descriptive and inferential statistical procedures have been applied as well as univariate, bivariate, and multivariate techniques. It has been done because study design was complex and the educational context is complex, as well. Only one or two variables have been analyzed and only partial picture of what is happening in teaching and studying environment has been provided.
4. Lots of relevant variables (motivational, social, personality, and educational variables) have been analyzed for the English language learning context.

5. Some important conclusions have been made: social self-esteem was related to the usage of learning strategies for English language, self-efficacy was related to intrinsic motivation, English language speaking anxiety was in strong negative correlation with self-reported levels of English knowledge and skills as well as with using learning strategies; males and females had almost equal levels of all important variables; some other sociodemographic variables had impact on social self-esteem, and social self-esteem determined the levels of educationally relevant factors driven by social and affective emphasis.

All in all, there is also an intercultural contribution of our study. Students of two nations – Turkish and Bosnian ones have been compared. The main findings which are also interesting for sociologists, pedagogists, anthropologists, ethnologists, and psychologists, are the following:

1. Bosnian and Turkish students have high levels of intrinsic as well as low levels of extrinsic motivation. However, Turkish students have significantly higher levels of intrinsic motivation and lower levels of extrinsic motivation compared to Bosnian students.
2. On average, Turkish students scored higher than Bosnian students on self-efficacy and social self-esteem scales. Additionally, they scored lower on English language speaking anxiety scale. However, these differences were not statistically significant.
3. There were no differences in foreign language learning strategies although Turkish students scored a little bit higher on using all mental processes.

Grounded on the mentioned traits; Turkish students, compared to Bosnian students, differ in levels of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Turkish students learn different materials because they enjoy it and because it is an interesting process for them. Bosnian students learn in a similar way, but the process of learning is less interesting for them.

Last but not least, these contributions can easily be applied to other studies in this field and some of them can serve for better understanding and improving English language teaching environment. The other researchers are advised to include some

additional (but not less important) variables: learning habits; self-regulation; metacognitive strategies for learning; conscientiousness, persistency, and emotional stability as personality traits; amotivation (the lack of motivation among students); teachers' influence; school grades, etc.



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APPENDIX – INSTRUMENTS AND MEASURES

GENERAL (SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC) QUESTIONS

Gender: male / female

Your age: _____

Are you attending to high school or university? High school / University

Your nationality: _____

Are you a member of a/some social club(s)? YES / NO

If yes, how many clubs are you a member of? _____

How many family members do you have? _____

What is your monthly income (in dollars)?

- a) 0 -500
- b) 500-1000
- c) 1000-1500
- d) 1500-2000
- e) more than 2000

Where do you live during high school and university attendance?

- a) in dormitory
- b) with my family
- c) with my friends

SUBJECTIVE MEASURE OF ENGLISH KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS

How would you estimate your English language skills and knowledge (1 – poor to 7 – excellent):

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

SELF-EFFICACY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING SCALE

Please read the following items and for each of them choose your level of agreement with it by ticking the appropriate number next to it. In other words, choose to which extent the content of particular item is typical for you? The numbers mean:

1 – I strongly disagree with the item (it is not typical for me at all)

2 – I do not agree with the item (it is not typical for me)

3 – I do not agree or do not disagree with the item (it is moderately typical for me)

4 – I agree with the item (it is typical for me)

5 – I strongly agree with the item (it is very typical for me)

No.	Item					
1.	I am anxious while using English.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I am self-confident when using English.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	While learning English, my self-esteem decreases.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I do not believe in myself when I have to learn something new in English.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I learn new things in English easily.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Compared with others, I am a bad English speaker.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I believe I have poor predispositions for learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I have low self-esteem while speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I have a natural gift for English language.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I consider myself as a competent English speaker.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	My English learning strategies are efficient.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I believe in my skills while using English.	1	2	3	4	5

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

Please, pick the appropriate number which represents the extent to which you agree with the following statements (1- not at all to 5 – totally agree).

Part: A

1. I think of the relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English. 1 2 3 4 5
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them. 1 2 3 4 5
3. I connect the sound of an English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word. 1 2 3 4 5
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used. 1 2 3 4 5
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words. 1 2 3 4 5
6. I physically act out new English words. 1 2 3 4 5
7. I remember the new words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board or on a street sign. 1 2 3 4 5

Part: B

1. I say or write new English words several times. 1 2 3 4 5
2. I try to talk like native English speakers. 1 2 3 4 5
3. I practice the sounds of English. 1 2 3 4 5
4. I use the English word I know in different ways. 1 2 3 4 5
5. I start conversations in English. 1 2 3 4 5
6. I watch English language, TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English. 1 2 3 4 5

7. I read for pleasure in English. 1 2 3 4 5
8. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English. 1 2 3 4 5
9. I try to find patterns in English. 1 2 3 4 5
10. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
1 2 3 4 5
11. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.
1 2 3 4 5

PART:C

1. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
1 2 3 4 5
2. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
1 2 3 4 5
3. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
1 2 3 4 5
4. I read English without looking up to every new word.
1 2 3 4 5
5. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing. 1 2 3 4 5

Part: D

1. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
1 2 3 4 5
2. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
1 2 3 4 5

3. I plan my schedule so I have enough time to study English.

1 2 3 4 5

4. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.

1 2 3 4 5

5. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.

1 2 3 4 5

6. I think about my progress in learning English.

1 2 3 4 5

Part: E

1. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.

1 2 3 4 5

2. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.

1 2 3 4 5

3. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.

1 2 3 4 5

4. I can notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying English.

1 2 3 4 5

Part: F

1. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.

1 2 3 4 5

2. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.

1 2 3 4 5

3. I ask for help from English speakers.

1 2 3 4 5

4. I ask questions in English.

1 2 3 4 5

INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION SCALE

Please choose the number which best represents your agreement with the listed statements below (1- I do not agree at all , to 5 – I totally agree).

Part One

I speak English because I enjoy it. 1 2 3 4 5

I write in English because I like it. 1 2 3 4 5

I dedicate lots of time to learn English because I am interested in it. 1 2 3 4 5

Generally speaking, I like English language. 1 2 3 4 5

I don't learn English only to achieve good grades but also to get personal satisfaction in it. 1 2 3 4 5

I receive personal satisfaction in learning English. 1 2 3 4 5

English learning is fun for me. 1 2 3 4 5

Part Two

I learn English to widen my environment. 1 2 3 4 5

I learn English to gain prestige. 1 2 3 4 5

I learn English to reach upper level. 1 2 3 4 5

I learn English because it will increase my social acceptance. 1 2 3 4 5

I learn English to achieve specific grade. 1 2 3 4 5

I learn English because teachers want me to do so. 1 2 3 4 5

I learn English to fulfill parents' expectations. 1 2 3 4 5

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SPEAKING ANXIETY SCALE

Please answer the questions by signing from 1 to 5.

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Neutral 4. Agree 5. Strongly Agree

I can understand English, but I cannot always speak it. This is because:

1. I feel shy to speak English. 1 2 3 4 5

2. I am afraid of making mistakes. 1 2 3 4 5

3. I find it easier to listen to English than speaking. 1 2 3 4 5

4. I do not like listening to English language. 1 2 3 4 5

5. I really do not want to learn English. I learn it because I have to learn it.

1 2 3 4 5

6. I am having to think in my mother tongue when I try to speak in English.

1 2 3 4 5

7. I think it is easier to understand a foreign word than to recall that word and use it.

1 2 3 4 5

8. I have not made enough practise in speaking English in my life. 1 2 3 4 5

9. I put pressure on myself when I try to speak English. 1 2 3 4 5

10. I do not have good spoken skills in my mother tongue too. 1 2 3 4 5

11. My English is not at the advanced or upper-intermediate level to let me speak English. 1 2 3 4 5

12. I can not remember the words upon need when I speak English. 1 2 3 4 5

13. There is not any practise atmosphere to speak English in my environment.

1 2 3 4 5

14. My English teachers have not allowed me to talk English in class while I was learning. 1 2 3 4 5

15. My English teachers always got angry with me when I used incorrect word/s.

1 2 3 4 5

16. The word order of English (syntax) is just the opposite of my own mother tongue. 1 2 3 4 5

SOCIAL SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

Nine statements are listed below. Please choose the number which represents to which extent you agree with statements (where: 1 means "not at all" to 5 – "completely agree"):

1. I find it hard to talk to strangers. 1 2 3 4 5

2. I make friends easily. 1 2 3 4 5

3. I am confident in social situations. 1 2 3 4 5

4. I am lively and witty in social situations. 1 2 3 4 5

5. I am confident at parties. 1 2 3 4 5

6. When I am with other people I lose self-confidence. 1 2 3 4 5

7. People do not find me interesting. 1 2 3 4 5

8. I am more shy than most people. 1 2 3 4 5

9. I am nervous with people who are not close friends. 1 2 3 4 5

CURRICULUM VITAE

Hakan Aydoğan was born on 06 March 1973, in Malatya. He received his BS degree in ELT at Dokuz Eylul University in 1997 and M.S. degree at the same university in 2002 in Izmir, Turkey. He started his teaching career at TOMER as English Instructor in Izmir and then taught English at Izmir Institute of Technology as English Lecturer till 2009. During this time he was appointed to Arizona State University as lecturer in 2004 for research and then to Ukraine and Finland between 2005 and 2008 to teach Turkish Culture and Language officially by Ministry of National Education. Upon returning Turkey, he started to teach at Celal Bayar University as English Lecturer and also worked in European Union Youth Projects' Office of the university as Coordinator for four years as of 2009. He joined and implemented dozens of EU Youth and Life Long Learning projects held both in Europe and Turkey. Afterwards, he started to teach at Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University in 2014 and he still teaches at various Tourism Departments and English Preparation classes at the same university. He speaks fair Russian and intermediate level of German, Bosnian and Italian. His research interests include applied linguistics, second language acquisition, foreign language teaching, cognitive linguistics, EFL, ESL, intercultural communication, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, discourse studies, etc.