



HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

The Department of Foreign Language Education
Program of English Language Teaching

AN EXPLORATION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING SELF-CONCEPT



Hajar GOLMOHAMMADZADEH KHIABAN

Master's Thesis

Ankara, (2018)



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YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME BENLİK ALGISİNİN ARAŞTIRILMASI

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Master's Thesis

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Acceptance and Approval

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To the Graduate School of Educational Sciences,

This thesis entitled "An Exploration of Language Learning Self-Concept" has been approved as a thesis for the Degree of **Master** in the **Program of English Language Teaching** with the **Department of Foreign Language Education** by the members of the Examining Committee.

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Abstract

The present study aimed to explore Language Learning Self-Concept and investigate its relationship to student proficiency level. To this end, a sequential exploratory mixed design was adopted throughout the study. Based on the literature review and student responses to an open-ended questionnaire, an initial item pool consisting of 54 items was generated. After an evaluation of content validity followed by the initial piloting of the questionnaire, the scale was conducted to an independent sample of 201 students. The participants were from 3 settings including English Time Language School, Middle East Technical University School of Foreign Languages and Çankaya University Prep-school with Language proficiency levels ranging from beginner to advanced. Exploratory factor analysis yielded a 38 item scale with the following 7 factors: Aptitude, Self Regulation, Effort, Linguistic Resources, Production, Reception, and Articulation. The scale was validated through exploratory factor analysis and internal consistency reliability. The reliability tests confirmed the internal consistency of the scale. The study tried to investigate whether student proficiency level had an impact on language learning self concept in terms of the different dimensions of the scale. The students at higher levels reported higher scores of self concept at all the 7 components of the scale. This finding indicated that student proficiency level was a predictor of language learning self-concept. It also confirmed the predictive validity of the scale. It is suggested that a better understanding of the students' self-perceptions can help teachers with their lesson planning, giving feedback to students, and different forms of teacher-student interaction.

Keywords: language learning self-concept, scale development, proficieny level.

Öz

Bu çalışma, dil öğrenimi benlik algısını incelemeyi ve bu yapının öğrenci yeterlilik düzeyiyle ilişkisini araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Bu amaçla, çalışma boyunca keşfedici ardışık desen benimsenmiştir. Alanyazın taramasına ve açık uçlu bir ankete verilen öğrenci yanıtlarına dayanarak başlangıç madde havuzu oluşturuldu. Başlangıç madde havuzu, şu yapıları temsil eden 54 maddeden oluşmuştur: eylemlilik, çaba, öz-değerlendirme, üstbiliş, dil öğrenim beceriler, ve sosyal karşılaştırma/ referans çerçevesi. Anketin ilk pilot uygulaması tarafından takip edilen içerik geçerliğinin değerlendirmesinden sonra ölçek, 201 öğrenciden oluşan bağımsız bir örneğe uygulanmıştır. Katılımcılar, English Time Dil Okulu, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu ve Çankaya Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü/ Hazırlık Eğitimi Birimi olmak üzere üç ana kurumdandır. Öğrencilerin seviyesi, başlangıç ve ileri düzey arasında değişkenlik göstermiştir. Açımlayıcı (keşfedici) faktör analizi, 7 faktörlü (yatkınlık, öz-düzenleme, çaba, dilsel kaynaklar, üretim, alımlama, ve sesletim) 38 maddelik bir ölçek sağlamıştır. Ölçeği doğrulamak için atılan adımlar, açımlayıcı (keşfedici) faktör analizi ve iç tutarlılık güvenilirliği olmuştur. Güvenilirlik analizleri, ölçeğin iç tutarlılık güvenilirliğini onaylamıştır. Dahası, yordama geçerliğini doğrulayan bir karşıt grup analizi gerçekleştirildi. Çalışma ayrıca, öğrenci seviyesinin dil öğrenimi benlik algısı üzerine ölçeğin farklı boyutları açısından etkisi olup olmadığını araştırmaya çalışmıştır. Daha yüksek seviyedeki öğrenciler, ölçeğin 7 bileşeninin tümünde daha yüksek benlik algısı puanları bildirdiler. Bu bulgu, öğrenci seviyesinin dil öğrenimi benlik algısının bir yordayıcısı olduğunu göstermiştir. Öğrencilerin kendini daha iyi algılamaları, öğretmenlere ders planlamalarında ve öğrencilere geri bildirim vermelerinde, ve farklı öğretmen-öğrenci iletişim biçimlerine yardımcı olabilir.

Anahtar sözcükler: dil öğreniminde benlik algısı, ölçek geliştirme, yeterlilik seviyesi.



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Symbols and Abbreviations

LLSCS: Language Learning Self-Concept Scale

EFA: Exploratory Factor Analysis

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

MANOVA: Multivariate analysis of variance



Chapter 1

Introduction

This study aims to explore self-concept and investigate the underlying constructs that shape self-concept. To this aim, the present work has devised a measure for language learning self-concept and has further investigated the relations of self-concept to the variable of student proficiency level. In this chapter, background of the study, statement of the problem, rationale for the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, and definitions of the key terms will be touched upon respectively.

Background of the Study

Self-concept has been defined as “a self-description judgment that includes an evaluation of competence and the feelings of self-worth associated with the judgment in question” (Pajares and Schunk, 2005, p.105). Researchers have studied self-concept in relation to L1 in psychology-related studies. They have also investigated some self related beliefs such as self efficacy and self-esteem in the SLA and foreign language learning domains (e.g. Oxford and Nyikos,1989; Ehrman and Oxford, 1995; Chamot & O'Malley, 1996; Yang 1999; Rubio, 2007). However, self-concept has been neglected in these fields of research.

A recent study by Marsh, Hau, and Kong (2002), involved a study on Chinese students seeking to prove the efficiency of their reciprocal effects model. Their study revealed that pre-existing positive self-concept has a positive effect on general academic achievement, and language achievement. They also realized that teaching non-English subjects in English led to negative academic self-perceptions on the part of students.

One of the researches in foreign language learning self-concept is Mercer's (2011b) case study. Through this longitudinal study, Mercer found out that self-concept is language specific and one's self-concept in one language cannot be used to define his or her self-concept in a different language thus confirming Yeung and Wong's (2004) claims that self-concept is domain specific. In her data, she also came across evidence of stable and dynamic features of self-concept. Stable self-concepts seem to be the “core” beliefs which are more central to an individual's sense of self. Dynamic features on the other hand are the beliefs that

are “peripheral”, more related to ability and more task specific rather than global (Markus and Wurf, 1987, p.302). This is also in line with Harter’s (2006) claim that core self beliefs are less likely to change.

Lau, Yeung, Jin, & Low (1999) made some changes to Marsh’s Academic Self-Description Questionnaire. They changed the school subjects with the four skills of speaking, reading, listening and writing. They applied this questionnaire to university level students in Hong Kong and concluded that a general global EFL domain exists in self-concept and the four skills can be represented only by this global dimension. However, the shortcoming of that research was that they did not take the more specific subcomponents of EFL into account (e.g. pronunciation) and the scale did not allow lower order EFL self-concepts such as English speaker self-concept or writer self-concept (Mercer, 2011a).

Other studies in the area of SLA and FLL are generally about other self related constructs. Some of these studies include research on identity like that of Morita (2004), on learner beliefs as mentioned in the work of Barcelos (2003) on a critical review of belief research in SLA, and also research on L2 linguistic self-confidence for which the work of de Saint Léger and Storch (2009) can serve as a good example. Other work involves research on self-efficacy (e.g. Magogwe and Oliver, 2007; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006), on self (Pellegrino, 2005), and metacognition (Victori and Lockart, 1995).

Horwitz made a key contribution to the field of learner beliefs by developing the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) questionnaire (Horwitz 1985, 1987). This questionnaire was used in many studies on beliefs. However, many believe that questionnaires are not capable of fully accounting for the complex and dynamic beliefs of learners and qualitative research might be a much better choice in these cases (e.g. Woods, 2003; Benson and Lor, 1999). That is one of the reasons the present study has used a combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches to research- sequential exploratory mixed method- which will be discussed later.

In another major study that Pellegrino (2005) conducted on a number of American students of Russian, she found out communication in a foreign language may pose the risk of being misunderstood and hinder students’ ability to present

their true self. She concluded that for a full communicative competence in L2, learners need to be able to express themselves fully and comfortably in the target language. She also mentions the role of self-concept in students' behavior and willingness to communicate.

There have also been numerous studies on Self efficacy and its relation to other constructs. Bong and Skaalvik (2003) mention that self efficacy might be a building block of self-concept. In her questionnaire survey in Australia, Woodrow (2006) concluded that self- efficacy is the strongest predictor of oral performance. Based on these findings she proposed an adaptive model of language learning taking into account self-efficacy, motivation, anxiety, goals and strategies. (Cited in Mercer, 2011a)

In their study with intermediate level French students, Mills, Pajares & Herron (2007) found out that self efficacy for self regulation is the most significant predictor of achievement and there is a strong relationship between self efficacy and self regulatory strategy use. In another study by Mills et al. (2006) on self efficacy and gender, female students demonstrated a higher self efficacy for listening skill than male students. These studies remind us of the importance of demographic factors in self beliefs which should not be ignored. Mills et al. (2006) suggest that students with low self efficacy may experience anxiety and anxiety might affect their self efficacy beliefs in turn. Pellegrino (2005) has a similar idea and suggests that low self-concepts lead to anxiety and proposes that to reduce anxiety, it is better to promote student self-concept rather than focusing directly on anxiety.

Another key contribution to self related studies is Dörnyei's (2005) " L2 Motivational Self System." This model is based on the two ideal and ought to selves. Ideal L2 self is the attributes one desires to have as an L2 learner and it has a promotive focus. Ought to L2 self is what one thinks they ought to possess and has preventive focus (Dörnyei, 2005; Higgins, 1998).

These self guides become important when they give the learner enough motivation to reach their ideal or ought to selves and fill the gap between their real and ideal selves (Dörnyei, 2005). It seems that self-concept has a significant effect

on motivated behavior (Csizér and Kormos, 2009). The constructs have given rise to lots of interest and research in SLA and also mainstream psychology.

In short, measures that have been developed and used for self-concept include:

Marsh's self description questionnaires. These questionnaires measure learning self-concept in general and a criticism they have faced is that even though they include academic self-concept items, they hold the presumption that even the specific self-concept items have a general self-concept as their basis. In other words, they believe in an underlying general self-concept under more domain specific self-concepts. This was disproved by the Australian self description questionnaire data, which showed low correlation between verbal and math academic self-concept, shedding doubt on the notion of an underlying general self-concept which might be responsible for more specific areas of self-concept. In contrast the opposite sometimes seem to be true. This means that the more domain specific areas of self-concept are responsible for global self-concept (Wenglinsky,1996). Moreover, Marsh's scale is not a language learning specific scale. Considering the issues associated with the hierarchical nature of a measure for a single global academic self-concept, Marsh, Byrne, and Shavelson (1988) questioned the theoretical and empirical identity and definition of a global academic self-concept and suggested its use be discontinued .

Despite these complications, lau et al. (1999) adopted Marsh's questionnaire and modified the items for language learning skills. So each skill area included six items: "I have always done well in _," "Work in _ is easy for me," "I get good marks in _," and "I learn things quickly in _." Responses ranged from definitely false (1) to definitely true (8). Parallel items were included for the five skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing, and global English. Other than the problems mentioned about Marsh's questionnaire, this questionnaire fails to account for all subcomponents of EFL concept such as vocabulary and pronunciation and it does not include lower order components such as speaker or writer self-concept.

Another key contribution mentioned before is BALLI. Horwitz created four themes for her ESL-BALLI including: foreign language aptitude, nature of

language learning, learning and communication strategies, motivation and expectations. But first of all, this questionnaire is too broad for our subject which is language learning self-concept. Because it includes items about language learning beliefs in general and not specific to self-concept. However, there are other problems associated with this scale some of which are: the items are created from opinions of teachers rather than students. Moreover, the themes are not based on statistical analyses such as principal components, factor analysis, cluster analysis, communality estimates, or correlations. Her measurements comprise only descriptive statistics and they appear problematic for analysis (Kuntz, 1996).

Another scale developed is Burden's Myself As A Learner Scale which is a general academic scale and is not specific to language learning.

There are also other tools for self-concept such as Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale, Second Edition (The Way I Feel About Myself), The Tennessee Self Concept Scale or The Florida Self Concept Scale. But none of these are specific to language learning and they also lack the methodological sophistication of the scales mentioned above.

As a result, there is a lack of a scale specific to language learning self-concept in literature and this study aims to develop a scale for this purpose which shall be used in future studies.

Statement of the Problem

Due to the fact that the studies that focus solely on language learning self concept are rare, the present study has tried to explore the construct by means of developing a questionnaire followed by statistical analysis including exploratory factor analysis and contrasting group analysis in order to get a fuller insight into the language leaning self concept and related constructs, among Turkish students.

Rationale for the Study

Recent studies in beliefs and self-concept in particular are moving towards qualitative studies and are trying to avoid the depersonalized nature of quantitative research in this area. Ushioda (2009) has emphasized the value of research approaches which take account of situated learner individuality and accommodate

complexity. Case study is an approach which is being used in some of these studies. However, this is not to undermine the value and importance of quantitative approaches and use of questionnaires. Not every method is perfect and qualitative research and case studies on beliefs do have some shortcomings. For example, a major criticism that is usually made for case studies is that the results of such studies cannot be generalized. Therefore, qualitative and quantitative approaches to belief research should act in a complementary manner.

In qualitative studies, self-concept has generally been measured by use of self-description questionnaires some of which are Burden's "Myself As a Learner Scale" and also Marsh's Academic Self-Description Questionnaire. While these measures have been used in a large number of studies, there is still a need for an instrument which measures language learning self-concept specifically. Taking the great interest in language learning self-concept into account and also given the fact that self-concept is significantly important in language learning domain because of identity issues and the self, such a scale for language learning self-concept can prove really useful and necessary. Taking into account that none of the previously devised measures could be used for the purpose of this study, a scale was developed using a sequential exploratory mixed design.

Research Questions

Following the above-mentioned research gap in literature, the study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the underlying components of language learning self-concept?
2. Do students at higher levels of language proficiency (level C, upper-intermediate and advanced) and students at beginner levels (level A, beginner and elementary) have different levels of language learning self-concept in terms of the different dimensions of language learning self-concept?

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study can be explained from two aspects. First, the researcher gained valuable insight into learner self-concepts and other related constructs such as self-efficacy, and learned about the components that help shape, develop, and affect language Learning Self-Concept. Awareness of the factors that student self-concept is sensitive to, helps educators recognize and avoid the situations, actions, and factors that threaten student self-concept and work more on aspects that promote a healthy sense of self in learners. This knowledge will help the researcher who is also a teacher and also the other educational institutes with whom the findings of the study will be shared to understand learners and their needs much better and to better structure their classes. The findings have also implications for curriculum and test designers.

Another outcome of the study is the language learning self-concept questionnaire which can be used by other researchers and teachers as an instrument to find out more about their students' language learning self-concept. This makes a big body of research on foreign language learning self-concept possible. Researchers who use this scale will be able to investigate the relationship between self-concept and achievement, motivation and other self related constructs.

Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of this study is the shortcomings that a quantitative scale might have in measuring psychological constructs such as self-concept. The items might be imposing a predetermined frame on the complex nature of beliefs. In order to solve this problem, the researcher performed a qualitative study before the item generation phase and the items were mostly driven from learners' experiences and feelings. Another limitation is the number of the participants which did not exceed 200. This number is enough for exploratory and contrastive studies, but another set of participants were needed to further validate the scale by performing confirmatory factor analysis. Unfortunately, CFA could not be performed and the factor structure of the scale still needs to be confirmed. A third limitation is the limited number of educational institutes where the questionnaire

was administered and this could lead to response bias. That is why the researcher does not aim to generalize the findings over larger populations.

Definitions of Terms

Self-Concept: Self-concept is what an individual thinks of himself or herself in a specific domain. These thoughts of oneself are not necessarily the facts but just what the individual thinks and feels about his or her abilities (Mercer, 2011a).

Self-Efficacy: "A context-specific assessment of competence to perform a specific task" (Pajares and Miller, 1994, p.194).

Self-Regulation: The ability to monitor and make adjustments to one's language learning strategies (Ellis, 1997).

Effort: Attempts that an individual makes consciously and with persistence to achieve a certain goal (Meltzer, Katzir-Cohen, Miller and Roditi, 2001).

Linguistic Resources: In the present study, linguistic resources have been referred to language learning sub-skills such as grammar and vocabulary.

Reception: Receptive skills of listening and reading comprehension

Production: Productive skills of writing and speaking, producing the language

Articulation: Pronunciation, producing the sounds of a language

Language learning Aptitude: Compared to other learners, how competent is an individual in learning a foreign language, in certain amount of time and under certain conditions (Carroll & Sapon, 1959, 2002)

Frames of Reference: The standards that individuals evaluate themselves against (e.g. social comparisons) (Skaalvik, 1997).

Motivation: "A state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 120)

Conclusion

In this chapter, an overview of previous work on self-concept and self-beliefs was presented followed by the relevant measures for beliefs in literature. In addition, statement of the problem, rationale for the study and research questions which guided the research throughout the study were discussed. The chapter then moved on to present significance of the study and limitations. The final section was a definition of key-terms used in the study. In the following chapter, a detailed review of literature will be provided. Next, the theoretical framework and the methodological procedures will be presented in the methodology section. The results will be introduced in the findings chapter and the final chapter will include a discussion of the findings, pedagogical and methodological Implications and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Introduction

There is so much confusion with regards to self-concept as this is a popular construct and is studied by researchers in various fields. According to Marsh (1990d), self-concept is an intrinsically complex and a multidimensional structure. There are many terms that are used interchangeably with self-concept; some of them are quite similar that it is hard to differentiate between them. There are different theoretical understandings of self-concept too; for instance, self-esteem, self-worth, self-efficacy, self-beliefs, self-perception, and identity. These understandings and assumptions vary according to the field of study. According to Brinthaupt and Lipka (1992), this complexity comes from the wide popularity of self-constructs and this results in disagreement on how to define, measure and follow the development of self-constructs. Although it is widely popular, no theorists have defined the tenets of self-concept and the information that we have is derived from research on the effect of self-concept on human performance and behavior (Shunck, 2005). Researchers have studied the construct under the focus and in relation to similar constructs. For that reason, studies that focus specifically on self-concept are rare in the literature of self-studies. The following section includes some definitions of self-concept offered by renowned figures in the field.

Self-Concept

Self-concept is considered as a psychological construct and it has a long history of research. Self-concept consists of “beliefs, hypothesis and assumptions” an individual has about himself (Coopersmith & Feldman, 1974, p.199). Essentially, it is what the individual thinks about the kind of person they are, their beliefs and their most important traits. According to Pajares & Schunk (2005), a person’s self-concept is a person’s “representation” of his or her self-knowledge and the extent to which this knowledge is true relies heavily on how much this person knows themselves (p.101).

As Pajares and Shunk (2005, p.101) believe, self-concept is formed through a person's "interpretations of the reflected appraisals of others." In this sense, Cooper Smith (1967) calls self-concept a mirror reflection of how others who matter to us have seen and continue to see us. Furthermore, Pajares and Shunk (2005, p.102) see self-concept as a "compass" that guides our future behaviour.

Emphasizing the concept of domain, Mercer (2011a) defines self-concept as what an individual thinks of himself in a specific domain. These thoughts of oneself are not necessarily facts, but just what the individual thinks and feels about their abilities. According to Hamlyn (1983, p. 241), self-concept is "the picture of oneself". Mercer calls this self-perception and in her definition domain does not seem to always refer to a specific subject area.

According to Pajares and Shunk (2005, p.105) self-concept is "a self-description judgment that includes an evaluation of competence and the feelings of self-worth associated with the judgment in question". Moreover, Marsh and Shavelson (1985) assigned 7 main characteristics to self-concept. They see self-concept as organized, hierarchical, multifaceted, stable, developmental, evaluative, and differentiable. They differentiate between the main, more general self-concept which is the individual's overall sense of self and the more domain specific, facet-bound self-perceptions. An individual's perceptions of their self starts off as more general and then narrows down to different areas of their life and into separate domains and skills. That is what is meant by hierarchical self-concept. We have a general perception of self as "myself as a person" or "myself as a student" and then we have a more specific self-concept as "me as a language learner" or "my English pronunciation skills" and so on. Interestingly, individuals become more aware and conscious of these detailed self-perceptions as they grow older. You can find self-concept in every aspect of life. It can be emotional, social, physical or academic or even more. However, the hierarchical nature of self-concept by far has attracted the most interest.

Self-Concept in Psychology

Definitions of self-concept in psychology based studies are mostly based on Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton (1976) model of self-concept which is referred to as a "landmark" by Marsh (2007, p.8); it also plays an important role in the definitions

formed for self-concept later on. This model defines self-concept as a hierarchical construct which starts with general self-concept at the top, divides into academic and non-academic self-concept and is then divided into subject areas and domains. These self-concepts can then be divided into more specific domains such as tasks and that bring us to self-efficacy.

Marsh and Shavelson (1985) revised this model. Their version is slightly more detailed and although it follows the hierarchical order, it is more multi-faceted and it has more subdivisions. The most important difference is that academic self-concept is divided into math academic self-concept and verbal academic self-concept. The third model presented by Marsh, Byrne, & Shavelson (1988) is even more elaborate and detailed; it contains a wider variety of subcomponents of these two academic self-concepts. There is also a foreign language self-concept in this model.

What these three models have in common is the hierarchical nature of their defined self-concept so that each subcomponent is defined under its higher order category. However, some researchers including Harter (1998) believe that the proposed models are too simple and a hierarchical presentation of self-concept does not actually reveal the complex and interrelated structure of self-concept. The complex structure of self-concept is influenced by different domains and contexts. Harter argues that the “statistical structures” provided by models do not represent the “psychological” structure experienced by learners (1998, p.579). According to her, individuals organize their self-concept in their mind differently.

Similar Constructs

For a better understanding of self-concept, and also for research findings to be accurate, we need to be able to distinguish between similar belief constructs. Three constructs that seem close to each other in this area are self-esteem, self-concept and self-efficacy. The key difference between these three constructs is the level of specificity and also the relative importance of cognitive and evaluative self-beliefs involved (Mercer, 2011a).

Self-esteem. Self-esteem is a global sense of self which depends on an individual’s overall judgment and evaluation of themselves and as Mercer (2011a) defines it, an individual’s judgment of his self-worth. It is related to a person’s

value system and contains more evaluative components (Mercer, 2011a). Coopersmith (1967) differentiates self-concept from self-esteem saying that self-concept is the totality of one's self-knowledge whereas self-esteem is the evaluative component of self-concept. He views self-esteem as the "personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds toward himself" (p. 4). Pajares and Schuck (2005) report that other researchers view self-concept as the cognitive component of the self and the self-esteem as the affective

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy, on the other hand, is more task based and cognitive in nature (Harter, 1999). Pajares and Miller (1994, p.194) define self-efficacy as "a context-specific assessment of competence to perform a specific task." Self-efficacy may be a predictor of student ability to perform certain tasks (Bandura, 1984). Similarly, Ching (2002) reports that students with high levels of self-efficacy have more confidence over their capabilities; they can set goals and strive to achieve them. The higher their self-efficacy beliefs, the more challenging are the goals they set for themselves. These students attribute failure to a lack of effort or lack of knowledge.

Bandura (1997) states that self-efficacy affects human behaviour through four major psychological processes: cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes. Goal setting and analytic thinking are examples of cognitive processes. On the other hand, he believes that motivation is a product of what people believe they can accomplish and it is generated cognitively. As one of the variables affecting motivation positively, Bandura mentions challenging goals. As an example for affective processes, he mentions how the level of perceived coping self-efficacy beliefs can determine the level of anxiety a person may experience. Finally, he describes selection processes by stating that people's perceived self-efficacy beliefs have a direct impact on the choices they make, how these choices determine in what ways they are going to improve and how it shapes the course of their life.

With regards to the distinction between these three constructs we may conclude that Self-concept is not as specific and as context dependent as self-efficacy and it contains both affective and cognitive elements. It refers to an individual's judgment of their own competence in a specific domain. Thus, self-

concept is more domain specific than self-esteem and involves a cognitive element which self-esteem does not. Moreover, it seems that the most global and least specific of the three constructs is self-esteem. Self-efficacy is the most specific while self-concept is less specific; and while self-concept is less context specific, it is still domain specific.

The level of self-concept in a domain which has a high personal value for the individual may impact their self-esteem. However, this idea has not yet been proven (Mercer, 2011a). In accord, Pajares and Schunk (2005) also state that although an individual may be good at a particular subject, it may not necessarily increase their self-esteem since they would not link that subject to their feelings of self-worth; there is no personal value associated with it.

Pajares and Schunk (2005) report that self-efficacy is believed to be a part of or a kind of self-concept. They mention that some other researchers consider self-concept as a generalized self-efficacy. Additionally, according to Pajares & Schunk (2005), in some studies they are considered to be the same thing. However, Pajares and Schunk (2005) draw the line between conceptual differences and operational differences. Conceptually, “self-efficacy is a judgment of capability to perform a task or engage in an activity” and self-concept is a “self-descriptive judgment that includes an evaluation of competence and the feelings of self-worth” (p.104). Thus, they conclude that self-efficacy is a part of self-concept because self-concept includes judgment of capability, which is inevitably and eventually judged depending on our beliefs on how we can perform at certain tasks. In other words, they state that whether you are good or not good at something specific or even general, self-concept starts with your experience at performing tasks and solving problems.

According to Pajares and Schunk (2005), self-efficacy items revolve around capability and thus, consist of sentences such as “Can I speak well?”, etc. Whereas self-concept questions deal with “being” and “feeling” for instance, “who am I?” or “How do I feel about myself as a writer?” The answer to these self-efficacy questions reflect a person’s self confidence in performing a specific task while the answer to their self-concept questions reveal how they view and feel about themselves in that particular area.

However, it is not easy to distinguish between self-efficacy and self-concept especially when they are measured in the same domain. It is hard to tell when self-efficacy stops and self-concept starts. Pajares (1996) suggests that self-efficacy can be subsumed under self-concept, but he also holds that the problem with this idea is that the research findings may not be accurate when you investigate the relationship between constructs.

Academic Self Concept

Having all the definitions of self-concept in mind, we can thus say that academic self-concept is an individual's self-concept in the academic domain. Mercer (2011a) defines it as "an individual's self-perception of competence and their related self-evaluative judgements in the academic domain" (p. 14).

Felson (1984) calls academic self-concept "self-appraisals of academic ability" (p.944), and states that it effects performance because of its effect on anxiety, effort, and also level of persistence. Feather (1988) also believes that academic self-concept is how an individual evaluates their ability in the academic domain and they view it as a kind of academic self-efficacy but only in broader terms.

Academic self-efficacy and academic self-concept share a central component named perceived competence (Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998). According to some researchers, perceived competence and perceived capability are the key ingredients of self-concept and self-efficacy respectively (e.g., Harter, 1982; Marsh, 1990c). Moreover, some researchers point out that there is a self-efficacy component in self-concept (Bong and Clark, 1999; Schunk, 1991), and Pajares (1996) goes further by claiming that these constructs may be indistinguishable at domain specific levels. According to the results of Self-Description Questionnaire, there are two separate factors reported by students: cognitive and motivational factors (Skaalvik and Rankin, 1996). Researchers report that the cognitive factor of academic self-concept is empirically indistinguishable from academic self-efficacy (Skaalvik and Rankin, 1996). However, the only fact that is proven is that there are lots of overlaps between the two beliefs.

Another difference between academic self-concept and self-efficacy lies in the way these constructs are shaped. While social comparisons (Festinger, 1954), internal comparisons (Marsh, 1986) and reflected appraisals by significant others (Rosenberg, 1979; Harter, 1999) help mold one's self-concept, self-efficacy is mostly affected by prior mastery experiences and at times, by verbal persuasion from credible others.

One more distinction is time orientation. As mentioned by Bong and Skaalvik (2003), there is a time focus in both self-concept and self-efficacy beliefs. Although they are both the result of past experiences, self-concept is past oriented while self-efficacy is future oriented. A look at some questionnaire items will clarify this claim. Self-concept items usually include sentences like "I am good at . . .," "I am hopeless . . .," or "I have done well . . ." but self-efficacy items start with "How confident are you that you can . . .?" Or "I am confident that I will be able to . . ." Therefore, the wording in self-concept items can draw students' attention to their past accomplishments. Self-efficacy sentences, on the other hand, focus on future expectancies. However, it is worth noting that similar past experiences do not mean similar self-concept or self-efficacy beliefs.

Foreign Language Learning Self-Concept

There have not been many research studies conducted on self-concept and SLA or FLL. Mercer's (2011b) is one of the few works in the field. However, there is good amount of research on learner self-beliefs and on the relationship between self-concept and other constructs that are significant in foreign language learning. As Pajares & Schunk (2005) also emphasize, learner self-beliefs play an important role in their learning and self-beliefs are often an inseparable element of motivation studies (Pajares and Schunk, 2005).

In second language acquisition, various self-beliefs have also been recognized as playing an important role in success and achievement. In addition, Mercer (2011b) reports that in a wide range of studies self-beliefs are a key variable in studying the relationship between self-beliefs and other constructs (e.g., Dornyei, 2005). But in the field of foreign language learning, the number of studies conducted so far are still quite rare.

Mercer (2011b) mentions some key points to consider in belief research. When studying beliefs, we should bear in mind that beliefs cannot be studied in isolation from their contexts. Second, beliefs are not static and they alter through time and context. Third point to consider is the complex nature of them, and any research approaches studying beliefs should account for these characteristics. She also categorizes belief research into two main groups; the first group tries to identify types of beliefs while the other focuses on establishing taxonomies (reported in Mercer, 2011b). Moreover, there is also a third type which focuses on the nature of the relationship between beliefs and key variables such as achievement (Oxford and Shearin, 1994; Yang, 1999) and learner autonomy (Cotterall, 1995).

With regards to change in focus, Mercer (2011b) reports that research in the field of beliefs has shifted from mainly cognitive approaches to including affect throughout the years. According to her, it is also acknowledged that beliefs are "socially situated" (p.337) and context dependent. She states that this view asserts "the importance of contexts, social interactions, and an individual's personal history" (p.337). Thus, self-concept research which started from mainly cognitive perspectives moved towards socio-cultural views. The complexity theory-based approaches seem to be the focus of most research studies now. Mercer also followed a complexity theory-based approach in her 2011 case study. In short, complexity theory offers to substitute the simple cause-effect views of the world with more holistic models which is composed of complex dynamic systems (Morrison, 2008).

There are many belief related areas in SLA that are also experiencing this complexity shift; for instance, Larsen-Freeman (2006) ; Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011). According to Pajares (1992), complexity theory can help us handle the "messiness" in belief systems and helps us analyze from a holistic perspective. Instead of seeing everything in a cause-effect relationship, complexity theory suggests perceiving the world comprehensively through the lens of multiple complex dynamic systems (Morrison, 2008). In such a system, there are many interrelated elements which in themselves carry some complexity. Imagine a complex system seated within other complex systems. There is no way such a system can be understood completely without using a holistic perspective.

The following paragraphs include examples of some research findings related to self-concept and language learning. Because the studies that mainly focus on self-concept and language learning are rare, we have continued the review with some studies on other self-related constructs and foreign language learning. In the light of the data retrieved from learner beliefs, we hope to gain some more insight about self-concept.

The findings of Mercer's (2011b) case study also confirmed the idea of core and peripheral beliefs (Mercer, 2009; Markus & Wurf, 1987) as in her data, core beliefs remained somehow untouched and peripheral beliefs appear to be the changing ones. However, she also mentions Showers' (1992) concept on "compartmentalization" of the negative and positive beliefs and she concludes that may be the reason why the student holds on to her positive self-beliefs in the domain and does not change them. And as a result, overall self-concept in the domain and more specific task based beliefs may seem contradictory. Mercer states that processes such as compartmentalization, self enhancement, self-verification and self-protection are all involved in the formation and change of self-concept and that is definite proof that self-concept is a highly complex and multidimensional construct. Based on her data, she asserts that the above mentioned processes might be involved in both core and peripheral beliefs and these two beliefs may impact each other. She explores stable perceptions of self in her data by describing the concept of "dynamic stability" (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, p. 43) as stable beliefs with a degree of certainty and confidence.

In their research with university students, Lau et al. (1999) state that a single global EFL construct can appropriately and adequately represent the four traditional language skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing); they considered these skills as interrelated. However, their survey was carried out with questionnaire items that were too broad and general and it only considered the skills with no room for any potential subcomponents of the skills (Mercer, 2011a). Furthermore, such a holistic view would hinder any discrimination between higher level and lower level learners as according to Harter (1999a), more advanced higher level learners tend to have more complex layers of self-concept.

In their study with multilingual teachers of primary and high school teachers who also spoke English, Yeung and Wong (2004) found that self-concept is

language specific for multilingual learners and that it is not possible to draw conclusions about one's self-concept in one language by investigating the construct in another language. This can be considered as further evidence for the multifaceted nature of self-concept.

Mills et al. (2007) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and strategy use and they found that self-efficacy for self-regulation greatly affects achievement. Yang (1999) also found a strong correlation between self-efficacy and strategy use. In another study on self-efficacy, Woodrow (2006) found that self-efficacy is the number one predictor of oral performance.

In her study on the role of self-representation in language use, Pellegrino (2005) focused on the social construction of the self and learners willingness to communicate in foreign language. While speaking in a foreign language, the individual is facing the risk of not being able to represent her true self and being misunderstood. Their self-image may be represented falsely in a foreign language. That is why the learner may use some strategies to protect their self-image. She holds that the construction of self is achieved through internal and socio-environmental factors. She claims that presenting the self in full and with comfort is a key factor in realizing communicative competence.

The studies mentioned above are just some examples selected from the many research studies in the field of foreign language learning self-concept as well as learner beliefs in relation to foreign language learning. However, as mentioned previously, the work on SLA/ FLL and self-concept in specific seems to be rare. This is perhaps due to a lack of scale on language learning self-concept which accounts for the complexity and multidimensional structure of self-concept. Below, a summary of the related measures is provided.

Other Self Related Constructs

Three other constructs related to self-concept are Celement's L2 linguistic self-confidence, metacognitive person knowledge and identity.

Celement's L2 linguistic self confidence. According to Clément and Kruidenier (1985), Clement's L2 linguistic confidence is a person's confidence in using the L2 rather than learning it. It seems the focus of the construct is on

spoken production. Clement and Kruidenier (1985) categorize perceived proficiency in communicating in a second language as the cognitive aspect of the construct and anxiety as the affective element. Mercer (2011a) states that the inclusion of an anxiety component is what sets self-efficacy apart from L2 linguistic self-confidence. As another difference between the two constructs, she points to the fact that self-efficacy is domain specific whereas L2 linguistic self-confidence is not. In the literature, the two terms of L2 linguistic self-confidence and anxiety have been mentioned along with each other, and sometimes anxiety has been referred to as low self confidence in using the language (MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997).

In comparing self-concept to L2 linguistic self-confidence, it is worth mentioning that the affective component of self-concept focuses on the “evaluative feelings associated with the self-beliefs in the domain” but the affective dimension of L2 linguistic self-confidence focuses on the feelings of anxiety (Mercer, 2011a, p. 17). It seems that the competency dimension of Clement’s L2 linguistic confidence can be seen as a part of self-concept and the affective aspect which is anxiety can be viewed as an outcome of low competency beliefs (Mercer, 2011a). This can explain how the two constructs are related.

Person knowledge. Flavell (1979) classifies metacognitive knowledge into person, task, and strategic knowledge. Person knowledge is basically general knowledge about the factors that influence human learning in any way and relating it to the self. Age or motivation are examples of the factors that influence L2 learning (Wenden, 1998). Person knowledge also includes self-efficacy beliefs as it includes learners’ perceptions about their own effectiveness as learners as well as their perceptions of their ability to achieve certain goals (Wenden, 1998). Unlike self-concept, Person knowledge also includes information about other people and how these factors in learning relate to them. Furthermore, person knowledge is more cognitive and more task based. Flavell and Wellman (1977) believe it is developed later in life; however, a number of other researchers have stated that learners of all ages possess this knowledge and beliefs in one way or another (Wenden, 1998).

Another interesting characteristic of person knowledge is that it is “stable knowledge” (Wenden, 1998, p.516). In other words, it is explicit knowledge to

which the students have access to and are conscious of. In Mercer's (2011a) comparison of self-concept to person knowledge, she states that self-concept does not include information about other people or anything close to general knowledge, and has a broader domain than just the task level. Besides, not all types of self-concept are stable and accessible for learners. There is explicit and implicit self-concept (Bandura, 1986; Rudman and Spencer, 2007). Students have either no access to their implicit self-concept or they do and they cannot report it because they do not have the language for it. When we consider the relationship between self-concept and person knowledge, it is possible to conclude that self-concept includes that part of person knowledge that involves the self and the part that refers to others can be viewed as a frame of reference in self-concept that forms elements of one's self-concept (Mercer, 2011a).

Identity. Another concept which has attracted the attention of researchers and is somehow close to or related to self-concept is identity. According to (Norton, 2000, p.5), identity is "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed in time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future." In a sense, it refers to how an individual relates his sense of self to the world and how this sense interacts and is influenced within different contexts. So as Mercer (2011a) puts it, self-concept is a base on which identity operates. The main difference is the focus of researchers on identity and self-concept. Self-concept is not concerned with the relationship and interaction of these feelings to the outside world. It does not stand separate and isolated from context; however, only the focus of research is different. The focus of identity research is on how the learner negotiates their self-concept to the outside world and is focused on the social nature of the self, their relationship with others and how they construct their sense of self. According to Mercer (2011a), "Self-concept is concerned more with the inner psychological sense of self in a particular domain, rather than with the interplay of this with a particular socio-cultural context or community of practice" (p.18). She adds, "self-concept is the mobile core sense of self which the learner takes with them to different contexts" (p.19). It is also worth noting that these two constructs affect each other.

The Dynamic Nature of Self-Concept

Self-concept is a dynamic construct and is susceptible to change over time. But the debate in literature remains over what aspects and to what extent self-concept beliefs might be dynamic (e.g., Burns, 1982; Markus and Wurf, 1987; Mercer, 2009 ; Hattie, 1992). Generally, it is believed that the more general self-concept is, the less likely it is to change. Moreover, self-concept at a more domain specific level is more prone to change (Marsh, 1989, 2006). Young and Mroczek (2003) state that different domains of self-concept undergo various changes over time.

Hattie (1992) points to the fact that more global beliefs can be so integrated and deep that they may not be available to conscious access and thus, not available to change. According to Harter (2006), this is because more global and general self-beliefs are formed at an earlier stage in life; thus, these are less likely to change.

Markus and Wurf (1987, p.302) make a distinction between “core” and “peripheral” self-beliefs saying that the core beliefs are the ones that are the most “elaborate” and important to the individual’s sense of self. Because of their importance and “centrality” to an individual’s self-concept they are more resistant to change. Peripheral self-beliefs are less important and less central. They also believe that there is no fixed self-concept but one which is always changing. They believe that we have a “current” self-concept which is self-concept of the moment (p.306). They introduce the term “working self-concept” and they believe a lot of the confusing results from research on self-concept can be explained by understanding this term and the fact that self-concept is a continuously changing construct.

Mercer (2011a) also points out that there are aspects of self-concept which are shared across domains and those are the ones that may experience little change; on the other hand, there are aspects of self which are more task specific and are expressed by actual behaviors and those are the ones that change the most. She believes that the more experience a learner has at a particular domain, the less likely their self-concept will change over time. Mercer calls the more

dynamic self-beliefs “situational” (Mercer, 2011a, p.75). Time and circumstances are the two factors through which self-concepts may change.

The Process of Self-Concept Formation

In this section, the researcher has tried to synthesize the factors that affect or form self-concept from the literature. However, since self-concept is a multidimensional construct, it is seemingly quite difficult to present these factors separately and to categorize them independently from each other. Each factor is likely to be mentioned under other factors and how it influences other factors in different ways.

The I/E model. One of the important attempts in the literature to categorize these factors has been that of Marsh’s (1986) internal/external frames of reference model (the I/E Model). By internal frames of reference, Marsh refers to the cross-domain comparisons students make between their own perceived abilities in different subjects (math/verbal). By external frames of reference, he actually refers to the comparisons students make between their own perceived competence in one subject with their perception of other students’ competence in the same subject (Marsh, 2006).

Mercer (2011a); on the other hand, believes that Marsh’s (1986) definitions of the frames are too narrow, and within the same framework, she has given a much broader definition of frames of reference and has assigned more factors to internal and external category. In the following paragraphs, the researcher has given a summary of Mercer’s (2011a) extension of I/E model.

In her data of her case study (2011b), Mercer also found evidence of cross-domain comparisons, but more extensive than merely verbal/ math domains. In addition, she found out that these comparisons were made based on the perceived relevance and the importance of the subject to the learners in a specific domain. Another factor that Mercer (2011a) added to Marsh’s I/E model, was the role that learners beliefs played in affecting their self-concept. She states that learner beliefs about the process of language learning in general and their beliefs about each specific language were involved in shaping their self-concept. She also

points out to the indirect influence of attributions on learner self-concept. Another internal factor that Mercer (2011a) found in her data and is missing in the I/E model was affect. Affective factors that influence learner self-concept could be factors on their own or the result of external factors such as critical experiences.

In regard to the external frames of reference, Mercer mentions the following facets which also exist in the literature: social comparisons, previous language learning/use experiences, perceived experiences of success and failure, feedback from significant others and reflected appraisals. But she also adds a fifth factor called “critical experiences”. She differentiates these experiences from similar constructs in the literature (such as critical incidents, etc.) and defines them as “experiences that have taken place in the past, either at a fixed point in time or over an extended period of time, and which have been assigned some kind of critical significance by learners retrospectively in their own subjective accounts of their language learning development” (Mercer, 2011a, p. 147). She summarizes the possible critical experiences as: Travel experiences, Encounters with significant others, Periods of transition implying new frames of reference (e.g. school-university), Isolated events of success in language use/ learning. In the following paragraphs, we have reviewed the literature related to these factors in more detail.

Culture. Culture is an important factor in the beliefs an individual may have about themselves and their process of learning. What values the society appreciates in different individuals is of importance here. According to Markus & Kitayama (1991), the values asserted by society can influence and determine an individual’s experiences and how they see and internalize these experiences. As mentioned previously, self is formed through our experiences and our interpretations of our experiences.

An elaborate example of different culture and values would be the contrast between Western and Eastern cultures. Usually Western culture is individualistic and focuses on attending to the self as an individual and appreciating its difference and independence. But in Eastern culture, which is collectivist, the focus seems to be the opposite; the focus lies in recognizing others, trying to fit in with the society and being interdependent. That is how collectivist and individualist cultures are defined. Markus & Kitayama (1991) report that the definition of self in psychology

has mostly revolved around the Western side of it and we have taken a “mono-cultural” approach to the self (p. 224). In this approach, the self is viewed away from any context whereas, as reported by Markus & Kitayama (1991), many believe that independent view of the self will not fit into collectivist cultures definitions of the self. Individuals in these cultures form their self-concepts partly in connection to others. In other words the “views of the self—the independent and the interdependent—can have a systematic influence on various aspects of cognition, emotion, and motivation” (Markus & Kitayama, 1991 ,p. 225).

More research on collectivist and individualistic cultures and their effect on the self is concerned with self-concept consistency in relation to these two distinct cultures. Self-concept exists both at an individual level and in relation to others; people have different perceptions of the self as an individual, as partners of significant others and as members of social groups (Chen, Boucher, & Tapias, 2006). English & Chen (2007) explore how individuals who show low consistency across relationship contexts tend to exhibit high temporal consistency within the same contexts. They suggest that this is the definition of a self-concept which is based on “if-then” terms (English & Chen, 2007). This means that an individual’s self-concept may be consistent or expressed in consistent terms, in relation to the same people or the same social roles; but on the other hand, vary with different people and different social roles.

The reason for the above mentioned difference may be that in some cultures such as the Eastern culture which is dialectical (Peng&Nisbett, 1999) and collectivist (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989), self-concept is very responsive to others and that is what makes it inconsistent and variable. People in Eastern culture ascribe these fluctuations and inconsistencies to themselves and express it in self descriptions whereas Western people view these variations as something caused by external factors and they do not view this as a part of their own self-concept. That is the reason they do not express these changes as elements of their self-concept.

As an impact of culture and thought systems on self-concept, we can refer to dialecticism, which refers to a system of thought in which change in personality is viewed as very natural and a normal outcome of context variation. Other than expectation of change, this system accepts dynamism, contradiction as well as

holistic perception (Peng & Nisbet, 1999). A self-concept within this system of thought is more dynamic and changes according to context. People in this culture believe that inconsistency and change in personality is normal and they explain these fluctuations with situational factors (Choi, Nisbett, & Norenzayan, 1999). In contrast, people in Western cultures develop a more coherent and decontextualized sense of self. On the other hand, in dialectic cultures, value is placed on the individual's ability to change in accordance to the requirements of the group. As a result, self is more prone to change. In contrast, individualistic cultures encourage people to form a unique, coherent self which is context independent and stable (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

When it comes to expressions of self, people from Eastern cultures describe themselves in terms of their social roles and other context dependent characteristics while Westerners talk about fixed personality traits (Bond & Cheung, 1983). As a result, studies show that Eastern self-concept is less consistent across contexts than Western self-concept (Suh, 2002; Kanagawa, Cross, & Markus, 2001). In short, while describing the self, Westerners express the more global conceptions of the self, while Easterners express themselves in context specific terms (English & Chen, 2007).

Despite the inconsistency in self-expressions, the need for psychological coherence is universal and everyone seeks a consistent sense of self. English and Chen (2007) hypothesized that this stability can be found in both cultures but in different forms. Westerners seem to express stable and global self-concepts, and Easterners talk about stable, if-then self-concepts. In addition, there is low consistency in relationship contexts along with high temporal stability. The inconsistency in self-concept across relationships comes from the fact that the self is constantly being modified to promote relationship harmony (dialectical beliefs). The high temporal stability; on the other hand, gives partners a sense of security and smoothens interactions. Thus, it seems as though consistency in this culture comes as a means of accommodating others.

Gender distinction is another example of the effect of culture on self-concept. In some cultures, certain academic subjects are considered as more suitable for males and some others for females. Normally, boys have a positive self-concept in subjects like math, and science while girls have a higher self-

concept in areas such as language. These beliefs can determine how learning experience in any of these subjects forms the students' self-concepts (Williams, Mercer, and Ryan, 2015).

Past achievements. Past achievements and experiences of success and failure have a great impact on the way learners form their self-concepts. However, this is not entirely an external effect since individuals have different interpretations of success and failure and these terms are defined differently according to different individual beliefs (Williams, Mercer, & Ryan, 2015).

How individuals' view their past experiences and interpret them according to their own values and belief system is also an important factor in how that experience is going to affect their self-concept (Mercer, 2011a). This interpretation and what individuals might view as success or failure is not separate from feedback, social comparisons, norms, and values (Skaalvik, 1997).

On the relationship between self-concept and achievement, Calsyn & Kenny (1977) proposed two models of "Skill Development Model" and "Self-Enhancement Model". Self-Enhancement Model posits that self-concept is the main predictor of academic achievement. On the other hand, the Skill development model suggests the opposite. Research was carried out to prove both of these models; however, Marsh (1990a, 1990b, 1993) argued against these research methods saying that most of it was in contrast with academic self-concept theory. He, then, proposed another model called "Reciprocal Effects Model" in which he states that the relationship was a two-way one and that academic self-concept and achievement both had an effect on each other (Marsh, 1990b; Marsh and Yeung, 1997). There exists a dynamic and reciprocal causal relationship between the two constructs (Marsh & Craven, 2006). Lots of research has been carried out to support the REM model (Marsh, Hau, & Kong, 2002; Marsh & Yeung, 1997), and consequently, supporting the idea that academic achievement and academic self-concept should be enhanced in parallel and at the same time (Marsh, Hau, & Kong, 2002).

However, many researchers have strived to find out whether the effect of one side is stronger than the other and what are the measures of this causal relationship. The findings in this area are contradicting though. But these results

can be explained by developmental perspective (Skaalvik & Valås, 1999). Skaalvik & Valas argue that the relationship between achievement and self-concept changes as the students grow up. They state that relationship assumes a reciprocal nature when self-beliefs become more established.

There are mixed results on whether the correlation between these two constructs become weaker or stronger by age. In elementary schools, there is a stronger relationship between self-concept and achievement as students get older and go on to higher levels (Guay, Marsh, & Boivin, 2003). But in secondary school, some studies have found an age-dependent decreasing correlation (Marsh & Yeung, 1997), whereas others have found just the opposite (Marsh et al., 2002).

Fraine, Van Damme, & Onghena (2007) found that academic self-concept declines during adolescence. They also found gender differences and concluded that females tend to have a lower academic self-concept than boys. Academic self-concept and language achievement were found to be positively related. The causal relationship between self-concept and achievement was stronger for boys than for girls. Most importantly, they found that this association declines with age. They attribute this decrease to the fact that with age, emotions becomes more stable and have less impact on everyday life.

According to Shavelson et al. (1976), academic self-concept becomes more differentiated with age; meaning that self-concept and achievement in their specific forms become more correlated by age, because academic self-concept becomes more accurate and complex. But the correlation between a subject-specific achievement and the more general academic self-concept weakens. Thus, Fraine et al. (2007) concluded that domain specific achievement measures have a declined correlation with general academic self-concept as learners grow.

A positive self-concept is seen as a desirable outcome in many fields related to psychology and education. Many social outcomes are also mediated by self-concept. Marsh and Craven (2006) emphasize that the powerful outcomes of self-concept are based on the specific components of self-concept rather than the general self-concept. This view supports a multidimensional perspective of the self (Marsh & Craven, 2006).

Internal comparisons. Internal comparisons are the cross-domain comparisons that learners make as they strengthen their self-concept in one domain while weakening it in the other. Likewise, if students are learning more than one language, they can compare their abilities and form a high self-concept in one language and consequently, a low self-concept in the other. This comparison can also take place between different skills in the same language (Williams et al., 2015).

Feedback. Language learners receive explicit and implicit feedback from people around them. Feedback is another important factor in the way learners form their self-concept which in turn leads to high or low achievements and academic success. First, in order for the feedback to be effective, it should come from a source that the learner has respect for. The learner should also have trust in the knowledge and skills of the source of feedback. Teachers are usually important in this sense. The feedback that learners receive might be implicit or explicit. The explicit feedback they receive from teachers may or may not help them in forming their self-concept taking the teachers' behaviour, language use and intentions into account. If the feedback is not genuine, it is very likely that the students would notice that and thereafter, ignore the praise or in some cases, this may even have the opposite effect of what it was intended to convey. Hyland & Hyland (2006) refer to this type of feedback as 'empty' praise.

Reflected appraisals are a source of indirect feedback that students tend to get from the environment, other people, other students, and teachers about them. They try to interpret the clues they get to form an idea about what others may think about them.

The language used in the feedback is quite important as well. It is one source of indirect feedback that we might be communicating to students. Generally, it is believed that the more specific and task oriented a piece of feedback is, the less it will convey messages about general competence and ability and as a result, it will have better and less risky long term effects (Williams et al., 2015).

On the topic area of implicit feedback, there is a theory called self-fulfilling prophecies (Weinstein, 2002). The theory simply suggests that our beliefs, in one

way or another, affects our behaviour towards learners and we may tend to convey our feelings about the student implicitly. Accordingly, this would in turn affect their self-concept and performance. When our evaluations are positive, the effect we encounter is called the Pygmalion effect (Babad, Inbar, & Rosenthal, 1982); the opposite, where our negative evaluations implicitly hinder student self-concept and learning, is called the Golem effect (Babad et al., 1982).

Social comparisons. According to Festinger (1954), students make comparisons amongst their own abilities and that of other students, and these comparisons may result in higher or lower self-concepts. Social comparisons may be “upward” or “downward” with upward being the comparison students make with those who are better than them while downward with the students who are at a lower level of learning compared to them. The author states that if the person the comparison is made to sets a possible-to-reach goal, that leads to a higher self-concept. The opposite is also true. Unattainable abilities perceived in other people may lead to a lower self-concept in the learner. The article also states that students who compare themselves to students with lower abilities may be trying to feel better about themselves.

There are two effects of social comparisons. One is the ‘big-fish-little-pond’ effect (Marsh & Craven, 2002) and the other is ‘basking in reflected glory’ (Cialdini et al., 1976). These two effects occur when students at an institution have been put together according to ability groups. A child in a class which has been categorized as high ability, might develop a low self-concept and a student in a lower ability group might form a higher self-concept given the fact that their peers (to whom they make the social comparison) are higher or lower ability learners. In addition, basking in reflected glory may occur when the students associate the success of the group to themselves and develop a high self-concept based on group victory.

In the field of reflected appraisals, it is important to note that these appraisals are all assumed and perceived and may not be the real ideas others have about a learner. So once again, the individuals’ personal interpretations are considered important (Mercer, 2011a).

Stages of development. Harter (1999) describes the development of self as a continuous process in which each stage builds on the previous stage, and that self-representations change across time and different stages of life. Other researchers such as Damon and Hart (1988) also write about self-beliefs at different stages in time. They exemplify this by instances of childhood in which self-beliefs revolve around characteristics like preferences, in early adolescence when these beliefs comprise mostly of interpersonal characteristics whereas in late adolescence the focus is on moral beliefs. It is believed that by age, self-concept becomes more multidimensional and complex (Harter, 2006; Marsh & Ayotte, 2003). That is why in measures of self-concept intended for populations at different ages, we see fewer facets of self-concept for younger participants and more facets for adults. This variation in self-concept is not only a result of age and time but also experience (Harter, 1998, 2006).

Apart from age and experience, researchers have also pointed out the effect of transition in different stages of life (e.g., Cantor, Norem, Niedenthal, Langston, & Brower, 1987). The transition could be during an educational periods. Change of schools or transition to university are examples of educational transitions. As new contexts bring with them new frames of reference, this might result in a change in one's self-concept.

Demographic factors. Other demographic factors have been found to affect self-concept. Gender is one of these factors. Kling, Hyde, Showers, & Buswell (1999) for example, noticed that males show higher global self-esteem than females throughout their life. Academic self-concept, on the other hand, proves to be highly gender dependent. According to Sullivan (2009) while females show high self-concept in the domain of English as a subject, Males have stronger self-concepts in math and sciences. She also points out that single sex schooling reduces the gender gap which is lends proof towards the tendency of the effect on frames of reference. The majority of the researchers in the domain of gender differences emphasize that gender differences in self-beliefs are more apparent across domains and are influenced by gender stereotypes where girls are considered to be good at some subjects and boys at another (e.g. Eccles, Wigfield, Harold, & Blumenfeld, 1993; Harter, 1999a; Marsh and Yeung, 1998; Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2004).

Symbolic Interactionism: “Others”

The ideas about the effect of “others” on one’s self-concept has roots in symbolic interactionism which originates from Mead’s work (1934). The theory dictates that “self is primarily a social construction crafted through the linguistic exchanges with significant others” (Harter 1999b, p. 677, cited in Mercer, 2011a). This is concerned with the effect of “others” on the formation and development of one’s self-concept.

Blumer (1986) summarizes the nature of symbolic interactionism by pointing out to its three premises. The first premise is that human beings behave towards things based on the meaning that thing has for them. A “Thing” can be anything such as a pen, a friend, a concept, or a value. The second premise views the process of meaning formation as a social process and states that meaning is shaped through interaction with others, or more specifically, through the ways others treat you in relation to that specific thing. This is contrary to the philosophical and psychological views on the origin of meaning that believe either meaning is inherent in things (philosophical) or is built through elements of a person’s psychological system (psychological). These elements might include feelings, attitudes, motives, and etc. Blumer (1986) adds that the third premise deals with the use of meaning. Symbolic interactionism views the act of handling meaning by the individual as a process of “interpretation.” According to Blumer (1986), two steps are involved in this process. First, the individual identifies things that convey meanings to them. This is an internal social process and a communication with the self which seems to fit well with Mead’s division of the social self. He divides the social self into “I” and “me” with “I” being the conversational character of the self, and me as the response to that and to a person’s self-talk (Powell, 2013). The second step involves a process of interpretation of meaning which is “ a formative process in which meanings are used and revised as instruments for the guidance and formation of action.” Blumer calls this a “process of self-interaction” (Blumer, 1986, p.5).

Cooley (1902) is one of the famous figures in the field of symbolic interactionism. He is the one who introduced the idea of “the looking glass.” He argues that “I” is not mainly composed of only an “I”. He states that “I” is social and

is defined not in isolation but in relation to other people. If something in our life has no connection to other people nor is noticeable by other people, we probably will not even think about it or attach any importance to it. The idea of the looking glass can be more or less defined as the formation of an individual's idea of their self by imagining how this self is viewed by others. The reflection of their image in other people's minds is what finally drives them to adopt that reflection as their self-concept, which might in turn effect lots of other constructs, one of which is achievement (Marsh, 1990b). Looking glass or reflected self has three basic components: our imagination of how we look to others, our imagination of their judgments of that look, and a kind of self-feeling originated from that imagination; for instance, shame, pride, etc. (Cooley, 1902).

Another dominant theory in the field of reflected appraisals is Eccles's (1993) expectancy-value theory. This theory states that both children's expectations for succeeding in a particular domain and the value of achievement in that domain affect their academic performance. Children's perceptions of the beliefs and attitudes of other people who are important to them- socializers- helps form their own self-concept.

Numerous studies have demonstrated that student perceptions of what significant others of the students think of their competence in turn affect students' self-concept and their academic performance (Eccles, 1993; Eccles-Parsons, Adler, & Kaczala, 1982, cited in Bouchey & Harter, 2005). Moreover, Mead (1934) brings up another interesting idea that individuals try to assess how they are generally viewed by others instead of evaluating how they are viewed by specific significant others.

Self-categorization theory (Turner,1999) makes a distinction between personal identity and social identity. According to this theory, the "self should not be equated with enduring personality structure because the self is not always experienced in terms of personality or individual differences" (Turner, 2004, p.259). Turner (2004) states that self-concept is a "context-dependent cognitive representation" (p. 260) and it also views the social self as expressive of self-concept as the personal self is. Furthermore, research shows that when it comes to self-descriptions, expressions of self-concept derived from social self are situated before personal self and is made salient (McGuire & McGuire, 1988). The

theory goes on to further suggest that in some cases, the social self may result in the exclusion of personal self (Turner, 1999). In addition, a salient social self may lead to self-stereotyping (Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 2002). They claim that personal self is in interaction with social self and can be influenced by social self at that time and context (Turner, 2004).

According to Turner (2004), Self-categorization theory makes arguments against self-schema theory. Self-Schema theory views self-concept as a more stable construct and maintains that our core self-concept is comprised of "knowledge structures" that people form in order to talk about and elaborate on their own social experiences (Markus & Sertis, 1982, p.45). We develop these constructs to explain ourselves in areas that are the most defining and central to us (Markus, 1977). However, later these theorists began to perceive self-concept as more dynamic as they referred to the concept of "working self-concept" described earlier in the text. (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Markus & Wurf, 1987).

Finally, Mercer (2011a) concludes that an individual forms his core self-beliefs as they grow up based on their experiences, which brings a sense of consistency and is more a "trait-like" sense of self (p.77). Learners also have a "working" self-concept which is the self-concept of the moment which is more "peripheral" and is more dynamic and likely to change (Mercer, 2011a).

Dweck's Mindset Theories

In their book "Exploring Psychology in Language Learning and Teaching", Williams et al. (2015) talk about three types of beliefs that are central to learning and influence learning in important ways: epistemological beliefs, mindsets, and attributions. The beliefs regarding mindsets will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

Implicit beliefs. Dweck, Chiu, & Hong (1995) define implicit theories as "core assumptions about the malleability of personal qualities" (p.303). These theories provide the individual with a framework that makes it possible for them to predict and judge the events in their everyday life. They are sometimes called naive theories because they are an individual's common sense and personal justifications and explanations for everyday events (Molden & Dweck, 2006). The

two implicit theories that have a meaning for education are theories of intelligence and personality.

Williams et al. (2015) explain that we all have explicit beliefs; beliefs we are aware of having and are capable of articulating and implicit beliefs, the ones that we are not aware of. Implicit beliefs are generally mistaken for general knowledge. In other words, we think that everybody else has these beliefs and that makes these beliefs untouchable by counterarguments. Moreover, we hold certain implicit beliefs about learning in general and language learning in particular. The authors further report on Carol Dweck's (1999, 2006) work in the related field of mindsets and implicit beliefs about learning. Dweck proposes two kinds of theories in learning. The first one is entity theory and the other is incremental theory. People who hold the entity theory or fixed mindset believe that intelligence and talent are innate and cannot be changed or learned in any way. These people may have fixed beliefs about how good or bad they are at learning a subject and this strong belief may in fact affect their learning. People who have the second mindset - incremental theory - or growth mindset believe that intelligence and talent can be learned or improved with practice and persistence. They believe human beings are malleable and easily influenced and thus, open to change. It is apparent that these individuals tend to have an entirely different point of view about learning and are likely to have more motivation and perseverance while learning a subject. This mindset may greatly facilitate learning. The following paragraphs contain more information about the effects of mindsets on learning and related constructs.

Mindsets and the process of learning. Ryan and Mercer (2012) state that beliefs about what qualities are needed for successful language learning may in fact lead to the formation of language learning mindsets. They exemplify this by including learners who think language learning is an innate talent and you either have it or you do not. Other learners may believe that language learning depends highly on one's character and this may lead to another fixed mindset.

Williams et al. (2015) believe that mindsets have an impact on other constructs such as, goal setting and motivation. People with a growth mindset are usually risk takers and they tend to set more challenging goals in different domains and in this case, in the domain of language learning. Moreover, while this would result in better learning, people with a fixed mindset set goals and plan in order to

avoid the risk of any possible failure. The good news is that research shows these mindsets can change and teachers play an important role here (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, and Dweck, 2007).

Mercer (2011a) points out that learners have deeply rooted beliefs about FLL and these beliefs which are also holistic act as frames of reference for their self-concept. Research shows that beliefs about language learning have an impact on several factors such as, strategy use, autonomy, and motivation (Horwitz, 1988; Wenden, 1987; Dörnyei, 2001). Mercer (2011a) reports that learner beliefs about EFL can affect their EFL self-concept; this is because these beliefs play the role of internal frames of reference for language learners.

In her motivational model of achievement, Dweck (1999) shows how a growth mindset can lead to motivation for setting learning oriented goals. She states that a growth mindset can neutralize the effect of low self-efficacy and encourage the learners to challenge themselves with goals that will end with them learning.

According to Yeager & Dweck (2012), the entity theory world is concerned with measuring ability. It is a world in which the individual is threatened or is forced to defend themselves while the incremental mindset is more involved with learning and growing. In such a world, there is always possibility of improving. The authors also mention that the challenge students face in a fixed mindset is to avoid looking unintelligent. Their goal is to look smart instead of actual learning; this is due to the fact that they are faced with the threat of being judged as dense in a world where intelligence is considered an innate ability. This is one of the ways implicit theories affect student goals. When it comes to effort, to a student who believes in entity theory, making more effort is a signal that they do not have natural talent. Moreover, efforts would not necessarily lead to change and improvement. These theories also affect their attributions of their failure and success and whether they should make new plans and change their learning strategies or just give up.

Another effect of implicit theories is that they help form people's causal attributions (Robins & Pals, 2002). What learners attribute their success or failure to is very important in determining their future performance. People who believe some abilities are required in order to succeed will feel helpless after each failure

and are less likely to make more attempts because they do not want to risk failing (Dweck, 1975). On the other hand, people with growth mindset attribute their failure to lack of effort which makes them try harder in the future and put in more effort (Hong, Chiu, Dweck, Lin, & Wan, 1999). Moreover, Mori (1999) found a direct link between mindsets in language learning and achievement.

The nature of mindsets. In their study of Implicit language learning beliefs, Ryan & Mercer (2012) suggest that it is much wiser to avoid the simplistic view that people hold either fixed or growth mindsets and instead of categorizing them into models, think of mindsets more like a continuum with people being at some point between the two extremes. Moreover, Ryan & Mercer (2012) state that mindsets are domain specific and people can have a fixed mindset in one domain and growth mindset in the other. Learners may possess distinct mindsets for different language skills.

Another interesting point about mindsets is their flexibility for change. Accordingly, this holds many implications for educators. Research shows that intervention programs can actually refine these mindsets and change them. Blackwell et al. (2007) tried to teach kids that the brain was just like any other muscle in the body that needed exercise to improve. In the end, student grades were higher and their motivation level had increased. Unfortunately, lack of attention to mindsets has resulted in the failure of many intervention programs that are aimed at improving behaviour and it is suggested that in order for these intervention programs to be successful, students should be trained to develop a growth mindset (Yeager & Dweck, 2012).

In their research on language learning mindsets, Ryan & Mercer (2012) point to the dynamic nature of these implicit beliefs. But they also believe that focusing only on the nature of ability in mindsets is not enough to obtain a full insight into language learners' implicit beliefs. They suggest that notions of malleability and the degree of importance attached to mindsets are the key to a better understanding. In their findings, they point out that students hold a combination of these mindsets, but they also maintain that the degree of importance students attach to these beliefs are different and vary from student to student. Students in their research point to talent, and also personality as a factor that determines a successful language learning experience. Ryan & Mercer (2012)

also note that these beliefs are personalized and unique, variable, complex, and dynamic.

Table 1

Academic Mindsets, for Those With More of an Entity Versus Incremental Implicit Theory of Intelligence

	Entity	Incremental
Goal	Look smart	Learn
Value of effort, help, and strategies	Higher	Lower
Response to challenge	Tendency to give up	Work harder and smarter
Changes in grades during times of adversity	Decrease or remain low	increase

Table adopted from Yeager & Dweck (2012, p.303)

Resilience. Yeager & Dweck (2012) bring the notion of resilience into the discussion of implicit learning theories and discuss how these mindsets reduce or increase resilience in learners. They define resilience as responding positively to challenges learners might face in social or academic life. Looking for new strategies, or making more effort are some examples of such behaviour. Negative or non-beneficial responses to challenges are viewed as non-resilient behavior; for instance, quitting, cheating, or helplessness (Yeager & Dweck, 2012). In their article, they argue that fixed mindsets can result in low self-esteem and different attributions of success and failure. The authors state that fixed mindsets concerning intelligence or social behaviour can reduce resilience.

A Summary of Related Measures

In short, measures that have been developed and used for self-concept include the following:

Marsh's self-description questionnaires (SDQ) (Marsh, 1990a) are the most prominent ones in the field. These questionnaires measure learning self-concept in general and have been employed by a lot of researchers. However, a criticism they have faced is that even though they include academic self-concept items, they hold the presumption that even the specific self-concept items have a general self-concept as their basis. In other words, they believe in an underlying general

self-concept under more domain specific self-concepts. This was disproved by the Australian self-description questionnaire data, which showed low correlation between verbal and math academic self-concept, shedding doubt on the notion of an underlying general self-concept which may be responsible for more specific areas of self-concept. In contrast, the opposite may sometimes appear to be true. This means that the more domain specific areas of self-concept are responsible for global self-concept (Wenglinsky,1996). Moreover, Marsh's scale is not a language learning specific scale. Taking the problems concerning the hierarchical nature of a measure for a single global academic self-concept into account , Marsh et al. (1988) questioned the theoretical and empirical identity and definition of a global academic self-concept and suggested its use be discontinued in the future (Lau et al. 1999).

Despite the criticism concerning the questionnaire, Lau et al. (1999) adopted Marsh's questionnaire and made some changes in the statements concerning language learning skills. So each skill area included six items: "I have always done well in _," "Work in _ is easy for me," "I get good marks in _," and "I learn things quickly in _." Students had to choose options ranging from definitely false (1) to definitely true (8). Parallel items were written for the five components studied here: listening, speaking, reading, writing, and global English. Other than the problems mentioned about Marsh's questionnaire, this questionnaire does not account for all subcomponents of EFL concept such as vocabulary and pronunciation and it does not include lower order components, such as speaker or writer self-concept.

BALLI by Horwitz (1985, 1987) is another questionnaire designed to measure beliefs on language learning. Horwitz created four themes for her ESL-BALLI including: foreign language aptitude, nature of language learning, learning (and communication) strategies, motivation and expectations. However, first of all, this questionnaire is too broad for our subject which is language learning self-concept; it includes items about language learning beliefs in general but not specific to self-concept. Moreover, there are other problems associated with this scale; for instance, the items are created based on the opinions of teachers instead of students. Furthermore, the themes are not based on statistical analyses

and her measurements comprise of only descriptive statistics and they appear problematic for analysis (Kuntz, 1996).

Another scale developed is Burden's Myself As A Learner Scale (Burden, 1998, 2012) which is a general academic scale and is not specific to language learning.

There are also other tools for self-concept such as Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers & Harris, 1969) (The Way I Feel About Myself), The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts & Warren, 1996) or The Florida Key Self Concept Scale (Purkey, Cage, & Graves, 1973). But none of these are specific to language learning and they also lack the methodological sophistication of the scales mentioned above. There is clearly a need for a language learning specific scale on self-concept in order for the present study and related studies to be carried out.

Summary

In this chapter, a detailed literature review of self-concept and language learning was provided. The researcher presented definitions, similar constructs to self-concept, and their distinction from self-concept. Academic self-concept was discussed. Following that, some studies on foreign language learning self-concept and self-related beliefs and constructs were presented. Moreover, there was a review of the factors that affect self-concept formation. After touching upon the notions of Symbolic Interactionism and mindset theories, a summary of the related measures in the field of self was also provided.

As it was also mentioned in the literature, self-concept is a complex, multi-faceted and domain-specific construct with many interrelated facets. Research into beliefs has been challenging because of the abstract nature of beliefs that do not easily lend themselves to observations. The present research aims to explore the concept of self in foreign language learning and a proper scale would help investigate this construct. At the moment, there is a lack of an appropriate scale in the literature on language learning self-concept. Although measures have been criticized for the fact that they may not account for all the aspects of a concept, may impose beliefs and frames on the participants and might be limiting, the researcher decided to develop a questionnaire because studies such as case

study and interviews have their own limitations, too. They account for only a very small number of participants and the data extracted from them might only apply to a limited number of people and that can also lead to an incomprehensive set of data. The present study, however, has used both quantitative and qualitative methods in a complementary manner.



Chapter 3

Methodology

Introduction

This chapter involves the methodological procedures undertaken throughout the study. It will start with a theoretical framework on mixed methods and then will discuss the mechanics of scale development. Then the processes undertaken for scale development, and validation will be discussed. The last part will give information about a contrasting group analysis.

Theoretical Framework

The researcher adopted the sequential exploratory mixed method design developed by Creswell (2003). This method is a good fit for studies that involve any exploration of a concept or scale development studies. In order to explore the construct as it is and in order not to enforce any predetermined categories or limits on the study, the researchers first adopted a qualitative method of data collection. In the present study, an open ended questionnaire was used and then content analysis was performed both of which will be discussed in detail. The second phase of this approach is a quantitative method of collecting data. The reason for preferring mixed method design is detailed in the following paragraphs.

Mixed methods. Greene (2007) calls it “multiple ways of seeing and hearing, and making sense of the social world” (p. 20). Following the developments of first the quantitative and then the qualitative research, mixed methods research is seen as the third methodological movement and is quite popular among researchers now (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). One reason for this popularity, as Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) put it, is that it is an “intuitive” way of doing research. Initially, mixed methods was defined as any study containing both quantitative research (collecting numbers) and qualitative methods (collecting words) but later it evolved into more sophisticated definitions where the mixing was not only for the two methods but it was in all the phases of a methodology. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) define mixed methods as “a

separate methodological orientation with its own worldview, vocabulary, and techniques” (p. x). According to Tashakkori and Creswell (2007), “mixed methods research is defined as research in which the investigator collects and analyzes data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study or a program of inquiry” (p.4). The mixing in mixed methods aims at deep and wide understanding of a topic and its validation (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Creswell and Plano Clark also gave a definition of mixed methods:

Mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases of the research process. As a method it focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or a series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (2007, p.5).

Worldviews of mixed methods. The worldviews related to mixed methods are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Pragmatism. Many Mixed methods studies are generally associated with the worldview of pragmatism. As Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) put it, in this paradigm, the focus is on the results and the specific research questions asked rather than methods. Based on the needs the research questions put forward, the emphasis is on the use of multiple methods of data collection. That makes pragmatism “pluralistic and oriented toward ‘what works’ and practice” (p. 41). Pragmatism draws on many ideas and values both objective and subjective knowledge. However, the worldviews can shift according to the type of mixed method design and the phase of the study. The present research uses an exploratory design. In the first phase of research which is qualitative the researcher holds a constructivist perspective and the second phase is associated with post-positivist worldview.

Constructivism. Unlike most quantitative research, in qualitative research, rather than starting with a theory, the researchers try to inductively, form or elicit a meaning or theory. The focus here is on participants' subjective ideas and understandings of the world and phenomena under investigation which is formed through interaction with others. The understandings are varied and multiple. The researcher is looking for complexity in different understandings and he or she is not trying to narrow down meaning. Constructivist researchers focus on interaction and context. The research questions used are open ended and broad so that the participants can express their ideas and views (Creswell, 2014).

According to Crotty (1998), meaning is constructed through interaction with the world. People engage and make sense of the world and situations based on their historical and social perspective. In other words, our society is already fed with meanings that are based on our culture. So, the social context is a determining factor for researchers. And they try to visit this context and gather information personally.

Post-positivism. Post-positivist worldview claims that "we cannot be positive about our claims of knowledge when studying the behavior and actions of humans" (Creswell, 2014, p.7). According to Creswell (2014), post positivists believe in a deterministic philosophy. In such a worldview the effects of the phenomena are determined by their causes. They are also reductionist because they aim at reducing the ideas into small sets to test. It is based on detailed observations and measures of variables and it also tests hypothesis which are continuously refined.

Types of mixed methods design. There are four main types of mixed method designs. The first one is convergent parallel mixed methods in which the researcher merges qualitative and quantitative data. Both kinds of data are collected almost at the same time, and then the integrated information is used in the analysis and interpretation of results. Another form of mixed methods is called explanatory sequential mixed methods. This type of design starts with a quantitative data collection phase, and the results and findings of that phase are then expanded by qualitative phase of the study. Quantitative research method

plays a more important role here. In this type of design, the researcher uses the qualitative data to explain the results from quantitative studies. The third design which has been used in this study is exploratory sequential mixed design. In this design, the study begins with a qualitative exploration of a concept and is then followed by quantitative data collection and analysis. This type is best suited for instrument development projects.

The last design is embedded design. The rationale behind this design is that one data set is not enough to answer several research questions, and each type of question needs a different data set. The researcher combines the collection and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data within a traditional qualitative research design or quantitative research design. One set of data has a supportive and secondary role (Caracelli and Green, 1997).

Advantages and disadvantages of mixed methods. As there are shortcomings to both qualitative and quantitative research methods, a mixed method is believed to make up for the weaknesses of both approaches. Quantitative research methods have been criticized for not allowing for a clear understanding of the context and the setting in which the survey is completed, and for keeping people's voices from being heard (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Moreover, there is seldom room for the personal interpretations of the researcher to emerge because the researcher is normally in the background. On the other hand, in qualitative research, there is too much room for personal bias and judgments on the part of the researchers. And the number of participants cannot be as large as the one in quantitative research. As a result, the findings of a qualitative study cannot be generalized over large populations.

Mixed methods can provide more evidence. On the other hand, there are some questions that can't be answered by using only qualitative or quantitative research which mixed methods can make up for. One example would be: "Do participant views from interviews and from standardized instruments converge or diverge?"

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) argue that mixed methods encourage the use of multiple world views or paradigms. They conclude that:

“ Mixed methods is practical because individuals tend to solve problems using both numbers and words, combine inductive and deductive thinking, and employ skills in observing people as well as recording behavior” (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p. 13).

However, mixed method is not always the best choice for researchers because of the challenges that they might have. Some of these challenges are skills and resources. In order to carry out a mixed method approach effectively, researchers must have knowledge and skills in both qualitative and quantitative research. They must be familiar with appropriate ways of data collection and sampling, analyzing and interpreting the data. Another challenge is the amount of time required to carry out qualitative and quantitative research. One bigger issue might be finding participants for both surveys which should be chosen from different sources.

The sequential exploratory mixed design. The sequential exploratory mixed design, as described by Creswell (2003), is a two phase design, starting with a qualitative exploration of a concept. The quantitative phase is then based on the qualitative findings. This method is also called the instrument development design (Creswell, Fetters, and Ivankova, 2004), and the quantitative follow-up design (Morgan, 1998). Depending on the time of instrument development, we can say some exploratory designs consist of three phases, with the first phase as qualitative, the second the instrument design phase, and the third administration and validation of the questionnaire. In this type of design, the qualitative exploration is needed primarily for three main reasons: there is no instrument available-as it is the case with the present study- the variables are not known, or there is a lack of framework or theory (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This design is particularly useful for devising an instrument or to generalize the findings over different and larger groups (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). As this is the instrument-development variant of the exploratory design, the quantitative phase is prioritized over the qualitative phase. The researcher used the exploration phase of the design as a method to get an insight into the underlying constructs of the language learning self-concept, implemented the findings for item generation, and generalized the findings over a larger population using the quantitative phase. After conducting EFA, the researcher gained a better insight to the construct of

language learning self- concept. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), one of the advantages of this design is that two distinct phases make the research straightforward to describe, carry out and report. Also, it is more acceptable for quantitative-biased researchers because of its qualitative element.

Scale development. This section contains information on the theory and mechanics of scale development. Although some frameworks have been proposed by some researchers on scale development, a review of literature confirms the fact that researchers use different steps in scale development, and adherence to a fixed set of steps is rare. This section will include all the information about the processes of scale development that have been used recently in scale development literature.

To begin with, a questionnaire measures a construct, which is a hidden dimension of a behavior, and the more abstract this construct is, the harder it is to measure and to define (Nunnally, 1976), and the role of a proper measuring device becomes more crucial here. So, a valid and reliable scale is of utmost importance in organizational behavior studies (Stone, 1978). Researchers have used different methodologies in designing and validation of a questionnaire. Some scholars such as Hinkin (1998) have proposed frameworks for this. For example, Hinkin (1998) suggests that the following steps should be followed while designing a scale: Item generation, Questionnaire administration, Initial item reduction, Confirmatory factor analysis, Convergent/Discriminant validity, and Replication. However, as Morgado, Meireles, Neves, Amaral, & Ferreira (2017) have reported in their evaluation of studies published between 1976 and 2015, a scale development study in general can be carried out in three basic steps: item generation, theoretical analysis, and psychometric analysis. These steps are also agreed upon by authors such as Clark and Watson (1995), and DeVellis (2012).

First step: Item generation. As Hinkin suggests, the most important requirement for generating effective items is a well-defined theoretical framework of the concept, according to which the researchers provide the content domain of the scale. Of course, a complete representation of the construct is almost never possible and what we are aiming for is an “adequate” coverage of the concept (Ghiselli, Campbell, & Zedeck, 1981). Actually, at this stage we try to provide theoretical support for the initial item pool.

There are three ways the preliminary scale items can be created: either of the deductive and inductive methods (Hinkin, 1998) or a combination of both. The deductive method is applied when there is a strong theoretical framework for the construct to be measured. It needs a thorough understanding of the phenomenon and a detailed study of the literature in order to develop a wide theoretical definition of the construct. The items may then be developed from the definition. In this method, some items might also be borrowed from the existing scales. This method is also called classification from above.

In the inductive method, the researcher explores the construct for some qualitative information by asking the target population some very broad and open-ended questions, and then by the means of content analysis, preliminary items might be created. However, one disadvantage to this approach is that without a proper definition, interpreting responses and generating “conceptually consistent” items will be challenging (Hinkin, 1989, p.6).

In case of self-concept, as stated earlier, although theories and definitions exist, this is still a multifaceted and multi-dimensional construct and imposing measures would limit the outcome greatly. Inductive approach would work better with constructs such as self-concept in which the definitions won't lead to easily identifiable dimensions. However, in order to avoid walking in the dark completely, a combination of both methods has been used.

While developing items, these points should be taken into account. Effort should be taken in order to write items which are clear and as short as possible, and, of course, brevity should not come at the cost of losing part of the intended meaning. “Double barreled items,” namely those items that contain two or more ideas and thus are a source of confusion for the reader, should be avoided.

Another point to keep in mind is that items that elicit the same response from the participants should be avoided because they will generate little variance (Hinkin, 1998). The issue of negatively worded items, however, is controversial and has led to different ideas and discussions. Some researchers believe that the use of both negative and positive items reduces acquiescence, affirmation, or agreement bias (e.g. Price & Mueller, 1986) while others argue that reversing item polarity may confuse the participant, and the inclusion of some reverse scored

items in a scale might affect the psychometric properties of a measure negatively (Harrison & McLaughlin, 1991). But almost all agree that if a researcher uses reverse scored items, the wording and the language of the sentences must avoid ambiguity and be as clear as possible (DeVellis, 2012).

Second step: Theoretical analysis/content validity. The next step is to make sure that the item pool reflects the intended construct. This can be achieved by having the item pool reviewed by a group of people who are experts in the field, or else members of the target population. The researcher usually asks these experts to rate how relevant each item is to the intended construct. This is useful when the scale is measuring more than one construct. Normally, working definitions of the construct are also provided at this stage (DeVellis, 2012). The initial item pool developed for the self-concept scale was also reviewed by experts and then by a number of students. This procedure is discussed in the following sections.

Third step: Psychometric analysis. This step involves the construct validity and reliability test. "Construct validity, which lies at the very heart of the scientific process, is most directly related to the question of what the instrument is in fact measuring-what construct, trait, or concept underlies a person's performance or score on a measure." (Churchill, 1979, p. 70) It is theory-bound and related to the theoretical relationship of a variable to other variables (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955). Construct validity encompasses all forms of validity according to many scholars (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). We can ensure the construct validity of a scale by performing a series of analyses including exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), or with convergent, discriminant, predictive/nomological criterion, internal, and external validity. The steps the present study has taken for the psychometric analysis of the self-concept scale are EFA, and ICR.

Aims of the Study

This study aims to explore the complex and dynamic structure of self-concept, and to examine and better comprehend the underlying components that shape an individual's language learning self-concept. To achieve this aim, and due to the lack of a measure in literature, the researcher will go about developing a

scale on language learning self-concept, and explore the factor structure of the concept. Furthermore, the researcher will perform contrasting group analysis to learn more about the effects of achievement and student proficiency level on their language learning self-concept. Lastly, this study will develop answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the underlying components of language learning self-concept?
2. Do students at higher levels of language proficiency (level C, upper-intermediate and advanced) and students at beginner levels (level A, beginner and elementary) have different levels of language learning self concept in terms of the different dimensions of language learning self-concept?

Settings

The study was carried out both in digital and paper form in three different settings: English Time Language School, Çankaya University Prep school (CUPS), and Middle East University (METU) school of foreign languages. Paper-based questionnaires were used in English Time Language School, and METU school of foreign languages. However, the participants at Çankaya University Prep school filled out the questionnaire online through Google forms. The reason English Time was chosen as one of the settings was first its ease of access for the researcher, and also her familiarity with the language school, the students (their language learning goals, motivation levels), the methodology employed and the testing procedures. Another reason was that the students in ET came from different backgrounds; they held different jobs and different levels of education. This diversity was of Significant use throughout the study because it represented a better sample of English language learners in general. More information about each setting is provided in each relevant section.

Participants

In total, 221 people participated in the study. From the total of 221 participants, 20 took part in the first piloting of the questionnaire, and 201 were involved in the validation stage. The participants from English Time were language

learners with different educational backgrounds. They were enrolled in courses on a voluntary basis. The participants in METU, and Çankaya University were enrolled in English prep-school in order to prepare for their academic studies in various departments. Their enrollment was compulsory because they had not the required scores from recognized proficiency exams. More detail about participants is provided in the relevant sections.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of the Preliminary Study

English Time	N	Female	Male
Qualitative phase	30	13	17
Initial piloting	20	12	8
Total	50		

Table 3

Demographic Characteristics of the Main Study

Setting	N	Female	Male
English Time	128	64	64
Çankaya University	32	15	17
METU	41	21	20
Total	201	100	101

Instruments

The instruments used in this study were two questionnaires designed by the researcher. The first one was a qualitative open-ended questionnaire with ten questions which were used in the item development stage. The open ended

questions aimed to generate items which would tap into the learner's language learning self-concept.

The second one was a quantitative Likert type questionnaire including 51 questions derived from the first open-ended questionnaire. More detail about instruments is provided in the following relevant sections.

Scale Development

Item generation. In order to generate an item pool, the researcher followed the following procedures:

- Reviewed literature for existing definitions and similar measures;
- Prepared and administered an open-ended questionnaire to gather qualitative exploratory data;
- Analyzed and used the data in order to generate an item pool.

Concept clarification. As the first step of item development, the literature was examined for definitions of self-concept construct and its sub-components. The similar constructs were also taken into account as self-concept does not always act independently from constructs such as self-efficacy and self-esteem. As the next step, a student survey was conducted to determine components that students regarded as English language learning self-concept.

The focus in the literature has been on the researches concerning self-concept rather than defining the construct. Most of the definitions have been given while comparing the concept to other constructs. However, we have focused on some of these definitions and used them in organizing the item pool as well as the item development phase.

Pajares and Schunk (2005, p.105) define self-concept as "a self-description judgement that includes an evaluation of competence and the feelings of self-worth associated with the judgement in question," and, as Mercer (2011a) adds, it is domain-specific. Taking from the above definitions, we define foreign language learning self-concept as "an individual's self-descriptions of competence and evaluative feelings about themselves as a foreign Language (FL) learner" (Mercer, 2011a, p.14). The foreign language which is our focus is English. Self-concept has

both affective and cognitive elements. Mercer (2011a) views self-concept as “a dynamic, multidimensional psychological construct, which both influences and is affected by a person’s social contexts and interactions and that can vary across individuals and settings but that has a certain degree of internal stability” (pp. 13-14). Moreover, many believe that self-concept has a self-efficacy component and that it might be the most important component of self-concept (Mercer, 2011a; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003).

Skaalvik (1997a) mentions some of the key factors that influence and help shape self-concept. These include:

1) Frames of reference: In short they consist of the standards against which individuals evaluate themselves. Social comparison is a common frame which occurs when there are no other clear standards and sources of judgment.

2) Attributions: What an individual attributes his or her success or failure to affect subsequent self-concept. This is a reciprocal relationship and the self-concept can affect later attributions.

3) Reflected appraisals from significant others: Many researchers such as Sullivan (1947), Rosenberg (1979), and Mead (1934) have pointed out that how we think others perceive us shapes the way we perceive ourselves. This means that what you think and feel a teacher thinks of you can influence your self perception strongly and, finally, that strong perception will determine the way you behave and the decisions you make. Mead’s conception that in communication “we take the role of the other,” refers to this claim (Mead, 1934).

4) Mastery experiences: Past experiences in a particular domain might be quite important in an individual’s current self-concepts.

5) Psychological centrality: Harter and Mayberry (1984) found evidence that psychological centrality affect self-concept to a degree. In their research, children with the highest self-esteem possessed higher self-concepts.

In summary, based on the definitions derived from a review of pertinent literature, and relevant information collected from the qualitative phase of the study, as well as referring to some similar measures, we included the following constructs while developing items:

Effort, agency, skills, self-evaluation, metacognition (goal, plan, evaluating, monitoring) and social comparisons. The item pool has been provided in the Appendix-F .

Item pooling. In the following section, the procedures involved in item pooling will be discussed.

Setting. The first setting of this study is a private language school called English Time Language School located in Ankara, Turkey. The school offers general English and exam preparation courses to students at six different levels, starting with beginner, elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced. Students take 15 to 20 hours a week classes based on their enrollment type. A course is divided into four sections, and skills are developed separately during different phases of the course. These start with grammar and then move on to reading, writing, and speaking. Throughout the semester, students take different quizzes, including one exam after each skill section they have completed. The first reason why English Time was chosen as the main setting was that the researcher was also a teacher at ET at the time and was quite familiar with the setting, curriculum, testing, and the overall design of the courses. The second reason was that English Time is a culturally diverse institution where students and teachers come from different backgrounds and nationalities. Moreover, the language school claims to be using CLT, thus preparing the students for normal communications and interactions in real life and also academic life.

Participants. The administration of an open-ended questionnaire was done through convenience sampling, a non-probability sampling technique in which the participants are chosen based on their availability (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2006). Thirty students were asked to fill in the questionnaire. The students ranged in age from 17 to 55. They were at different levels, from beginner to advanced. Some were university students in Ankara, and some held jobs related to their field of study. The total was 17 male and 13 female students.

Instrument. The instrument used at this stage was an open-ended questionnaire prepared by the researcher. After a review of literature, the researcher devised this open-ended questionnaire with some questions which

would tap into the potential aspects of English Language Learning Self Concept and self-related constructs, including overall sense of self in relation to language learning, linguistic strengths and weaknesses, and also constructs such as metacognition, expectancy beliefs, mastery experiences, internal and social comparisons, past and future oriented self and effort. The instrument contained ten open-ended questions. The students could fill in the questionnaire in maximum fifteen minutes. As the intended final quantitative questionnaire is also in students' native language, and in order to avoid any linguistic limitations, Turkish was used in both qualitative and quantitative phases of data collection. Some of the items include: (see Appendix-E for the full open-ended questionnaire)

- Bir dil öğrencisi olarak güçlü ve zayıf yönleriniz nelerdir?
- Diğerleri ile kıyaslandığında kendinizi dil öğrencisi olarak nasıl tanımlarsınız?
- Bir dil öğrencisi olarak dil öğrenmeyle ilgili kaygılarınız nelerdir?

The initial item pool. After analyzing the student responses to the open-ended questionnaire and the literature review, the researcher developed an initial item pool. In the process of item-generation, the existing definitions of self-concept in the literature, and also theories related to the process of the formation of self-concept, were taken into account. After further analysis and revision, and exclusion of redundant items, the researcher came up with a pool of 54 items. The items were chosen based on themes observed in the literature and student responses to the open-ended questionnaire.

The items in the initial pool intended to draw from the following constructs:

Agency. According to Mercer (2015), a sense of Agency is a belief students have “that their behaviour can make a difference to their learning” at a particular setting (p. 121) , and that they have control over their actions. Agency is student engagement in their own learning. To develop this, they should believe they are able to learn a language, and also have the motivation to get involved in their own learning. Some of the items in the initial pool that reflect agency are : “İngilizcemi geliştirmek için daha çok çalışmam gerekiyor.” (Or “Yeterince İngilizce çalışmadığım için başarısızım.”

Skill. This section includes skills in English as a foreign language which include vocabulary, speaking, reading, writing, listening, pronunciation, and grammar. Example items are: “İngilizce konuşmada iyiyim.” or “İngilizce hikâye okuyabilirim.”,and “İngilizce telaffuzum iyidir.”

Effort. Effort can be defined as “the amount of time and energy that students expend in meeting the formal academic requirements established by their teacher and/or school” (Carbonaro, 2005, p. 28). An example of the construct is “Eğer çalışırsam sınavlarımı geçebilirim.”

Self-evaluation. Self-evaluation can be seen as a metacognitive strategy in which students evaluate their own learning process. Example items include: “İngilizce öğrenmekte iyi değilim.” ,and “İngilizceyi çabuk öğrenirim.”

Metacognition. As defined by Flavell (1979), metacognition is an individual’s knowledge about their own cognition and learning. It is thinking about thinking. And it is divided into metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies. Some of these strategies include planning (setting goals is part of this step), monitoring, regulation and evaluation of learning (Schraw, Crippen, & Hartley, 2006). Metacognitive strategies help students look at their learning from an outsider’s perspective. (Mercer, 2015) Some example items are: “İngilizce öğrenirken kendime hedefler koyabilirim.” Or “İngilizce çalışmalarımı dikkatle planlıyorum.”

Social comparisons and frames of reference. One of the factors that help shape an individual’s self-concept is social comparisons. Students choose to make external comparisons to the other language learners and depending on the environment they are in, they form low or high self-concepts (Bong and Skaalvik ,2003). Rosenberg (1979) believes that what we think others think of us may affect our self-concept. This is called frames of reference. Some examples of related items are: “Sınıf arkadaşlarıma göre İngilizcede gayet iyiyim,” and “Arkadaşlarım beni dil öğrenmeye hevesli buluyorlar.”.

Content/Face Validity. In order to ensure that each item represented the construct under measure (face validity as defined by Hardesty and Bearden, 2004), and also in order to make sure that the items are a proper sample of the theoretical content domain (content validity as defined by Nunnally and Bernstein

,1994) a total of ten experts were asked for their opinion on the newly developed items. The experts were Phd students in English Language Teaching at Hacettepe University. The definitions of the constructs were provided and the experts were asked to rate on a scale of one to five how much each item represented each construct. Any rating above a three was seen fit to be administered in the questionnaire. All the items were rated at above three. They were also asked to judge whether the constructs altogether represented the construct of self-concept sufficiently. The items satisfied this concern too. However, the only concern was the similarity between items representing Agency and Effort. For that reason three items of Agency were removed. The items are presented below:

İngilizceyi unutmamak için daha fazla pratik yapmalıyım.

Ödev yaparak İngilizcemi geliştirebilirim.

Ne kadar çok pratik yaparsam, hatalarım o kadar azalıyor.

Final instrument. The final instrument contained 51 items. The items represented two main sections, one was about English language learning skills and the other about English language learning in general. The two sections were named: “İNGİLİZCE DİL BECERİLERİM” and “BEN VE İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENME SÜRECİ”. The first section featured 22 items and the latter 29 items. As mentioned earlier, the intended constructs in the first section were vocabulary, speaking, reading, writing, listening, pronunciation, and grammar. The second section, however, included items concerning effort, agency, self-evaluation, metacognition, and social comparisons.

Pilot Study

Aims. This part of the study aimed at checking the comprehensibility of the scale. The researcher looked for any problematic item-wordings or ambiguities that might affect the data collection and analysis process.

Setting and participants. The first pilot study was carried out at English Time Language School. As previously mentioned, this is a private language school located in Ankara. The levels range from beginner to advanced. Students take 15 or 20 hour a week courses. The questions were distributed to 20 students at different levels. The students were all Turkish and had enrolled in a 20 hour a

week upper course. Convenience sampling was used again and students who were available were requested to take part in the study.

Initial piloting. Since the questionnaire is in Turkish, students at any level could respond with ease. The wording, clarity and relevance of the items were once again checked by the students. Participants were asked if there were any questions that they did not understand, or any they would refuse to answer for various reasons. They were asked to agree or disagree with the following statement: “The questionnaire is adequate in measuring my general feelings, abilities, weaknesses and strengths in learning a foreign language.”

Findings and Implications for the main study. The participants all reported to have no problem with comprehending the items. At the end, no new area of self-concept was suggested to be added to the questionnaire and participants agreed with the statement. After content validity and then the first piloting, the instrument was finalized with 51 items and was ready to be administered to a larger population for subsequent data analysis.

Validation stage

Questionnaire administration (Main study). In this section, the steps undertaken in order to administer the questionnaire and validate the newly developed scale will be discussed.

Aims of the study. After item generation and scale construction, this phase of the study aimed to administer the newly developed scale to a larger population and perform the subsequent analysis which will be further explained in the following sections.

Settings and participants. The questionnaire was administered both online and on paper. It was administered on paper in English Time Language School in Ankara, and also at Middle East Technical University prep-school. Students of Çankaya University were asked to fill the form online.

Middle East Technical University prep-school was one of the main settings. The school of foreign languages consists of two departments, namely basic English, and The Department of Modern Languages. The aim of the school is to

prepare students for their academic life at METU, where English is the medium of instruction. There are eleven courses offered at the school, and the questionnaire was filled out by students at the intermediate level.

The last setting of the study is Çankaya University English prep-school (CUPS). The school is focused on individual differences in learning and employs a student centered program. CUPS follows contemporary trends in language teaching, promotes student autonomy, and emphasizes individual differences in learning a language. The school also aims at preparing the students for their academic life at Cankaya University. There are four levels: A1,A2 (starter), B1 (Intermediate), B2 (Advanced). As mentioned before, a total of 201 students participated in the this phase of the study. Of the 128 that took part from English Time, 64 were female, and 64 were male. Convenient sampling was preferred. From METU, 41 students, and from Çankaya University 32 students took part in the study. The procedure for participants from Çankaya was online.

Instrument. The Language Learning Self-Concept Scale (LLSCS) was used as the instrument. The scale contained 51 items, and consisted of two sections: the general self-concept in learning English, and skills in language learning. As no change was made to the scale after the first piloting, the same measure described earlier was used. The two sections were named: “İNGİLİZCE DİL BECERİLERİM” and “BEN VE İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENME SÜREÇİ.” The first section had 22 items and the latter 29 items. The intended constructs in the first section were vocabulary, speaking, reading, writing, listening, pronunciation, and grammar. The second section, however, included items concerning effort, agency, self-evaluation, metacognition, and social comparisons.

Item scaling. It is important that the item scaling provide enough variance among participants for further analysis (Stone, 1978). As improper item scaling might yield minimal variance and consequently lead to elimination of items that were actually useful. (Hinkin, 1998) The most widely used item response format is Likert type scaling (Foddy, 1994) which is said to be particularly useful in FA, and also to increase the coefficient alpha reliability by five points –but it levels off – (Lissitz, 1975) and a five point Likert scale type is a scale with five equal appearing intervals along with a neutral midpoint. Hinkin (2005) advocates using a midpoint (neutral point) in the data mentioning that gives students the choice to

remain neutral about an item, and information about items that could possibly be retained in the data. Students in the present scale are required to choose between 5 agree points ranging from 1 to five. The 5 options are:

5. I strongly agree.
4. I agree.
3. I am not sure.
2. I disagree.
1. I strongly disagree.

The titles of these options are given at the top of each page of the questionnaire.

Procedures for Data Collection

Before starting the data collection process, applications were made to the Hacettepe University Ethics Commission. Forms such as student consent forms, and written approval from English Time Language School were attached to the application. The committee approved the proposal, stating that the project conformed to ethical principles of Hacettepe University. The approval from Cankaya and METU was obtained orally (see Appendix for the written approvals).

The participants of this study were chosen through convenient sampling. The researcher was a teacher at English Time Language School at the time. That is the reason why ET was chosen as the main setting of the study. After getting permission from the director and also course instructors, the researcher visited classes available at certain hours and gave a brief explanation about the study. The students were informed that they could either accept or refuse participating in the study. They were told that the information they would share would remain private and that the questionnaire was totally anonymous. The data collected would be used only for research purposes. They were free to refuse filling out the form even after they had started filling it in. They had the right to skip answering any questions that they didn't feel comfortable with (although in the pilot study no such questions were pointed out). Finally, they were given consent forms. The information given to the students orally was also printed on the first page of the questionnaire. It took a maximum of 15 minutes for students to fill the questionnaire.

The students at METU were contacted through their teacher. The researcher visited the class with her colleague and followed the same procedure. The students at Çankaya University were given the information in class, and then the link to the online questionnaire was extended to them.

Procedures for Data Analysis

In order to answer the first research question an exploratory factor analysis was performed. The first research question is: “What are the underlying dimensions of language learning self-concept?”

Construct validity. Construct validity is the most widely accepted and agreed upon form of validity. To define, a construct is an attribute or a skill which exists in the human brain, and exists in theory. Construct validity will tell you whether it also exists in practice and to what extent the construct under study conforms to the existing theory. However, in its unified and recent definition, the three notions of content, criterion, and construct validity are all viewed as construct validity (Brown, 2000). EFA was one of the steps taken in order to ensure construct validity.

Rationale for EFA. Factor analysis was used to refine the scale (Hinkin, 2005) and determine the number of underlying constructs in the new measure (Churchill, 1979). This is a method used to explore the inter-relations of the variables without designating a specific hypothetical model (Bryman & Cramer, 2005). By use of EFA, the researchers are able to explore the latent variables and usually it helps generating a theory or model (Williams, Onsman, and Brown, 2010). According to Williams, Onsman, & Brown (2010), the objectives of EFA are:

- Variable reduction
- Exploring the variable structure and their relationships
- Examining the unidimensionality of a theoretical construct
- Assessing construct validity
- Development of parsimonious (simple) analysis and interpretation
- EFA addresses multicollinearity
- Developing theoretical constructs

- Prove/disprove proposed theories

EFA. As a part of evaluating construct validity, exploratory factor analysis was performed. The following paragraphs contain information regarding assumption checks and measures for EFA.

Assumption checks. The next step was to determine the suitability of data for EFA. The scale was checked for sample size and multicollinearity. There are many disagreements on the adequate sample size. For example Munro (2005) suggests a minimum of five participants per item. Hair, Anderson, & Tatham (1995) argue that the sample size should be above one-hundred. Such rules however, may be misleading and overlook the complex dynamics of a factor analysis. MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong (1999) argue that a small number of participants would be sufficient if the communalities are above .60 and several items group under each factor. In order to check sampling adequacy in the present study the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were used. According to Kaiser in their article (Kaiser and Rice, 1974), values above 0.5 mean the sample is adequate and suitable for EFA. KMO is one of the most commonly used methods to determine sampling adequacy, especially when the cases to variable ratio is less than 1:5, which is the case in the present study (Williams, Onsman, & Brown, 2010).

The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (M.S.Bartlett, 1937) tests the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix has an identity matrix. And values less than 0.05 show that the data is suitable for factor analysis (Dziuban, C. D., & Shirkey, E. C. ,1974). The results of these tests showed that the data was suitable for exploratory factor analysis.

Another method used to inspect strength of the inter-correlations among items was checking the correlation matrix, which in this case contained many coefficients at .3 or higher. This is also another evidence of the factorability of the data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). The data was also checked for multicollinearity by scanning the correlation matrix for any strong correlations. ($r > .90$) (Field, 2009). The scale was also checked for univariate and multivariate outliers by using tests of normality and calculating Mahalanobis distance.

Measures for EFA. An exploratory factor analysis was performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 23. As the extraction technique, principle component analysis was preferred because, unlike PFA in which only the common variance is analyzed, in PCA the total variance is analyzed and it is considered a more reliable method. (Bryman & Cramer, 2005). In order to attain “simple structure” (Thurstone,1947), oblique rotation (direct oblmin) was chosen as the rotation method. The reason for this preference was that the factors in LLSCS are presumed to be correlated (like the factors in most measures) and orthogonal rotation would not allow for that presumption. (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2007)

EFA helped refine the instrument further and helped determine the underlying dimensions. (Gilbert A. and Churchill, Jr., 1979) To determine the number of factors to assign, the researcher used Kaiser’s criterion, checked the scree plot and performed parallel analysis using Monte Carlo PCA. According to Kaiser’s criterion, only factors with eigenvalues of 1.0 or higher were kept. But because in this method the number of factors retained were too high,(Pallant,2016) the other mentioned methods were consulted to make a better decision about the factors to extract. As another method to explain the variance, Catell’s scree test was used. (1966) Parallel analysis was also administered (Horn, 1965) as it is reported to be the most accurate of all three. (Hubbard and Allen,1987) In this method, a random set of data with the same number of cases is produced, and then the eigenvalues in both data sets are compared. Only those factors with eigenvalues that exceed the ones in parallel analysis are retained. Unlike the other two methods, the number of factors are not exaggerated. However, the three methods were all used for optimum accuracy. The results of EFA are explained in the findings section.

Reliability analysis. In order to check the internal consistency of the scale, test of reliability was utilized for each of the seven dimensions and the scale as a whole. Cronbach’s alpha values were calculated for all the 7 subscales. Pallant (2016) states that a Cronbach’s alpha value of between 0.6 to 0.7 is acceptable in a test of reliability, and between 0.7 to 0.9 is good reliability, and any score above 0.9 shows excellent internal consistency. The overall alpha value of LLSCS was 0.93, which shows excellent internal consistency of the scale. The results of reliability analysis are given in detail in the findings section.

Contrasting group analysis. A two-way MANOVA was run to answer the following research question:

- Do students at higher levels and students at beginner levels have different levels of language learning self-concept in terms of the different dimensions of language learning self-concept?

In order to answer the above mentioned research question, the mean score for each of the 7 constructs of LLSCS was calculated and assigned as dependent variables. Students were classified into 3 levels of A, B, and C. This was according to CEFR levels (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages). Level A represented the two levels of beginner and elementary, level B was taken for pre-intermediate and intermediate, and level C represented the two high and advanced levels. The reason students were classified like this was to also create a balanced number for MANOVA. Groups were compared according to their mean score for the 7 dimensions of LLSCS. Prior to running the MANOVA, several assumptions were tested. These assumptions included: sample size sufficiency, normality and checking for outliers, linearity, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, equality of variance, and multicollinearity.

After satisfying the required assumptions, MANOVA was run using IBM SPSS Statistics 23. Wilks Lambda and Pillai's Trace values and their significant levels were used to ensure difference among the groups. The results are explained in the findings section.

Chapter 4

Findings

Introduction

In this section, the results of the study will be presented with regard to the research questions. First, the research questions will be restated and then the results of the analysis for each section will be described in detail.

The study focuses on the following research questions:

1. What are the underlying components of language learning self-concept?
2. Do students at higher levels and students at beginner levels have different levels of language learning self concept in terms of the different dimensions of language learning self-concept?

The components of language learning Self Concept

Research Question 1. What are the underlying components of language learning self concept?

In order to get an insight into the underlying components of self in language learning, an exploratory factor analysis was performed on the data from the newly developed questionnaire.

Assumption checks. Before conducting exploratory factor analysis, the suitability of the data for EFA was checked. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy was .895 which, according to Kaiser (Kaiser and Rice, 1974), indicated a good sample size for the analysis to be conducted. Furthermore, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (M.S.Bartlett, 1937) was found to be significant at .000 ($p < .05$) indicating the factorability of the data (M.S.Bartlett, 1937). The results are presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4

KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.895
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5494.953
	Df	1275
	Sig.	.000

As further evidence of factorability, the correlation matrix was checked for values above .3 and in this case there were many coefficients above .3 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). The assumption of multicollinearity was also checked by scanning the correlation matrix for any strong correlations ($r > .90$) (Field, 2009). In this case, there were no strong correlations and the variables were moderately related. One could say that there was no multicollinearity in the data and that the assumption was also met. The correlations of the first 18 items are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1																			
2	,13																		
3	,31	,28																	
4	,40	,19	,53																
5	-,12	-,14	-,15	-,11															
6	,32	,26	,27	,29	-,26														
7	-,12	-,34	-,18	-,25	,17	-,08													
8	,42	,15	,40	,52	-,21	,33	-,26												
9	,29	,20	,37	,42	-,14	,23	-,23	,58											
10	-,16	-,12	-,18	-,24	,13	-,29	,07	-,23	-,16										
11	,49	,15	,44	,52	-,20	,31	-,20	,65	,56	-,22									
12	,28	,26	,36	,29	-,43	,33	-,14	,37	,23	-,20	,25								
13	,29	,23	,43	,44	-,23	,47	-,16	,52	,47	-,41	,48	,49							
14	,24	,17	,26	,34	-,09	,38	-,21	,33	,26	-,52	,36	,23	,51						
15	,32	,32	,36	,32	-,42	,33	-,22	,40	,34	-,12	,36	,73	,44	,27					
16	-,24	-,30	-,20	-,20	,11	-,14	,49	-,18	-,24	,19	-,21	-,26	-,25	-,28	-,28				
17	-,32	-,12	-,15	-,32	,12	-,15	,28	-,38	-,18	,22	-,37	-,24	-,28	-,31	-,18	,25			
18	,27	,36	,37	,34	-,10	,33	-,34	,33	,49	-,22	,40	,30	,39	,42	,40	-,49	-,17		

To test for normality, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk statistics were calculated using SPSS 23 and Q-Q Plots were generated. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilk statistics were found not to be significant ($p > .05$), and thus confirming normality of the data (see Table 4.2). An investigation of the Q-Q Plot also confirmed the normal distribution of the data (Pallant, 2010). (Figure 1)

Table 6

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
mean	.050	201	.200 [*]	.993	201	.502

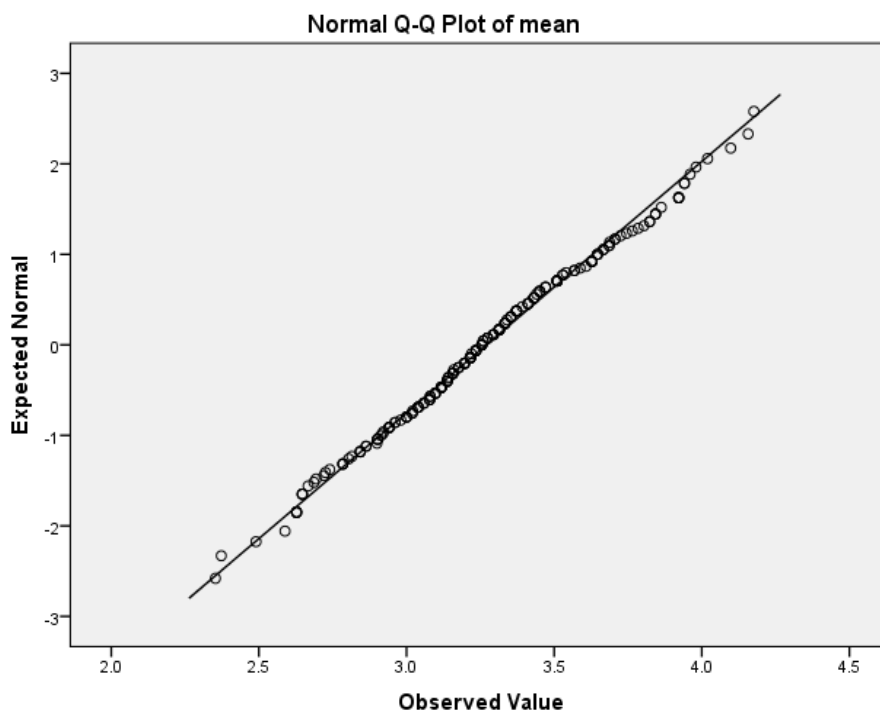


Figure 1. Q-Q plots for the distribution self-concept scores

Exploratory factor analysis. After the assumption testing, EFA was run on the questionnaire. Three criteria were used in order to determine the number of factors. First, Kaiser (1960) criterion states that the eigenvalues should exceed 1.0. The Total Variance Explained table revealed 12 factors with eigenvalues

greater than 1.0. These factors combined to explain 67.01% of variance of the results. The initial eigenvalues are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

The Initial Eigenvalues after the First EFA

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	14.92	29.255	29.255
2	3.441	6.747	36.003
3	3.001	5.883	41.886
4	2.108	4.133	46.019
5	1.986	3.894	49.913
6	1.636	3.207	53.12
7	1.446	2.835	55.955
8	1.285	2.52	58.475
9	1.15	2.255	60.731
10	1.098	2.154	62.884
11	1.078	2.113	64.997
12	1.027	2.014	67.011

Catell's Scree test (1966) was used in conjunction with the Kaiser's criterion in order to avoid overestimation in the number of factors extracted (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Field, 2009). According to the scree plot, the LLSCS consisted of 7 components. These 7 components represented 57.7% of the total variance, considering the eigenvalues. These values mentioned above were generated after some item reduction. Therefore, the numbers are different from the ones presented in the initial Eigenvalues table. Moreover, According to Reckase (1979), the percentage of explained variance by the prime factor in valid scales is at least 20%. The explained variance by the first factor in the present scale is 29.2 which is higher than the proportion mentioned by Reckase (1979) and it confirms the presence of one major factor which is further evidence for the internal consistency of the scale. The scree plot is presented below.

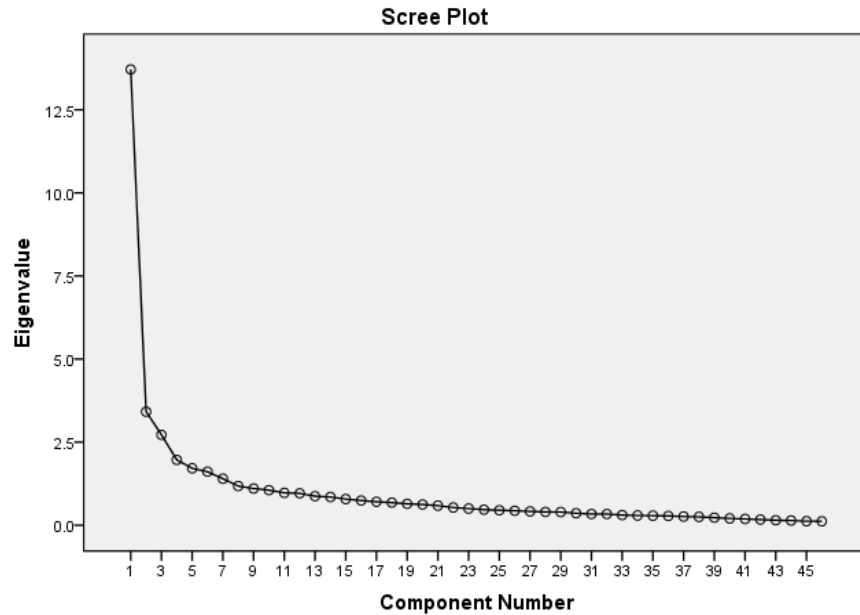


Figure 2. The scree plot

As another reference, the number of factors to extract was also checked by means of Horn's parallel analysis (Horn, 1965). The parallel analysis was performed through Monte Carlo PCA. The results showed the presence of 5 factors. However, after a thorough inspection of the factors and based on expert view, the results of the scree test were viewed as more accurate and suitable for this study. The 7 factors were retained and EFA was run with the 7 factor solution one more time.

The initial EFA. The initial factor loadings of items after the first EFA are provided in the Table 8 below. See Appendix for the full pattern matrix of initial factor loadings.

Table 8

The Initial Factor Loadings

No	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12	Communalities
23	<u>.75</u>	-.03	.02	.05	-.10	-.02	-.14	-.08	-.01	-.13	-.01	.03	.69
30	<u>.70</u>	.10	.05	.01	-.07	.03	.00	-.01	.07	.22	-.26	.05	.69
28	<u>.68</u>	.07	-.14	.03	-.06	-.03	-.13	-.11	-.09	-.05	.20	.03	.78
41	<u>.65</u>	-.03	.08	-.12	-.07	-.03	-.04	-.08	-.05	.10	.22	.03	.71
39	<u>.63</u>	.16	-.16	-.09	.01	.06	-.13	.11	.11	-.02	-.18	-.06	.61
47	<u>.63</u>	-.01	.05	-.06	.11	-.13	-.02	-.12	.05	.06	.20	.11	.66
25	<u>.60</u>	.07	.09	-.14	-.07	-.21	.12	-.04	-.05	.06	.13	.08	.66
51	<u>.43</u>	-.13	-.09	-.17	.15	-.25	-.17	-.04	.32	.07	.12	-.02	.68
36	-.03	<u>.75</u>	.01	-.10	.05	-.07	-.04	.15	.05	.19	.15	.19	.80
27	-.04	<u>.72</u>	-.22	.06	-.15	.00	-.02	-.18	-.05	-.04	.01	.01	.67
31	.10	<u>.59</u>	-.22	-.04	.09	-.03	.17	-.13	.16	.18	-.08	-.09	.62

No	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11	F12	Communalities
38	.28	<u>.58</u>	-.03	.07	-.03	-.16	.00	.02	.05	.01	-.08	.04	.62
35	-.02	<u>.56</u>	.09	-.25	.09	-.11	-.11	.22	-.06	-.02	.19	.29	.63
48	.10	<u>.55</u>	.08	.02	-.13	.03	.09	-.25	.11	.04	-.16	.22	.65
24	.27	<u>.53</u>	.10	-.13	-.02	-.21	.03	.10	.01	-.05	.05	.04	.61
33	-.16	.06	<u>-.82</u>	.06	.03	.13	-.09	.07	-.02	.00	-.01	.18	.76
32	.03	.02	<u>-.81</u>	-.16	.04	-.06	-.02	-.13	.00	.05	-.07	.01	.69
43	.16	.03	<u>-.58</u>	.29	-.07	.00	.00	.04	.09	-.16	.34	-.16	.69
46	-.04	-.03	-.03	<u>.69</u>	.13	.10	.05	-.02	-.02	.01	-.16	-.03	.64
45	-.20	.00	.20	<u>.52</u>	.12	.02	.00	-.05	-.09	-.14	.19	.03	.52
17	-.15	-.21	-.20	<u>.45</u>	-.03	.06	.18	.33	.16	.20	.12	.15	.66
44	-.33	-.09	.28	<u>.34</u>	.11	.10	.20	.02	.15	-.03	-.11	.27	.75
5	.17	-.01	-.05	.00	<u>.87</u>	.02	.09	-.04	.03	.07	.13	-.03	.70
12	.14	.01	.02	-.04	<u>-.69</u>	-.08	.07	.04	.09	.11	.20	-.05	.72
15	.26	-.10	.00	-.02	<u>-.65</u>	.00	.02	.00	.16	.18	.12	.10	.76
22	-.06	.04	.11	.13	<u>.58</u>	.10	.12	.14	.45	.03	-.13	-.03	.71
10	.04	-.01	-.05	.00	.00	<u>.83</u>	.01	-.04	.07	.04	.06	.14	.64
14	.08	.01	.06	-.02	.02	<u>-.77</u>	-.14	-.02	.01	-.11	.00	.11	.73
13	-.03	.00	-.08	-.11	-.14	<u>-.57</u>	.08	-.24	.02	.21	.15	-.03	.69
6	-.11	.14	-.11	.07	-.24	<u>-.49</u>	.09	-.06	.34	.10	-.06	.04	.57
20	-.11	-.02	.08	-.17	.08	.16	<u>.77</u>	.01	.02	-.03	.00	-.01	.79
7	.11	.05	-.05	.31	.01	-.12	<u>.75</u>	.06	-.16	-.01	.02	-.09	.70
64	-.09	-.04	.13	.01	.05	.05	<u>.74</u>	-.05	.08	-.01	.01	.20	.71
18	.22	-.06	.03	.32	-.03	-.21	<u>-.56</u>	-.09	.15	.12	.03	.10	.73
11	.10	-.03	-.07	.01	-.01	-.13	-.07	<u>-.72</u>	-.05	.09	-.08	.17	.74
8	-.06	-.13	-.07	-.20	-.04	-.21	.01	<u>-.69</u>	.02	.15	.02	.07	.72
1	.12	.12	.00	.11	-.14	.04	.01	<u>-.64</u>	.11	-.18	-.04	-.14	.57
4	.06	.13	.14	-.09	.00	-.03	-.02	<u>-.56</u>	.04	.07	.27	.07	.64
9	.03	-.20	-.11	.05	.03	-.15	-.19	<u>-.53</u>	-.11	.32	.09	.15	.65
19	.20	.05	.10	.17	-.07	-.21	-.29	<u>-.50</u>	.00	-.02	-.01	.12	.75
21	.00	.35	.24	-.02	-.02	.06	-.14	<u>-.37</u>	-.04	.15	.15	-.22	.52
2	-.03	-.08	-.04	-.03	-.08	-.01	-.35	.04	<u>.57</u>	.04	.19	-.07	.58
34	-.10	-.15	-.10	.20	.18	.18	.09	.26	<u>-.29</u>	.22	.15	.20	.60
40	.15	.11	.06	-.16	-.15	.00	-.11	-.18	.06	<u>.56</u>	-.12	-.01	.68
29	.04	.41	-.03	.28	.08	-.10	-.13	.04	-.13	<u>.50</u>	.05	.00	.58
49	.06	.22	.08	-.11	-.20	.02	-.08	-.17	.21	<u>.49</u>	.13	-.03	.72
50	.24	.11	-.11	-.12	-.23	.10	-.04	-.12	.24	<u>.39</u>	.03	-.04	.65
37	.08	.30	-.07	-.01	.11	-.10	.01	-.07	.32	<u>-.37</u>	.05	.36	.58
3	.03	.06	.12	.06	-.09	.01	-.04	-.38	.16	.11	<u>.52</u>	.04	.64
26	.11	.13	-.36	-.11	-.14	-.03	-.05	.11	.04	-.10	<u>.50</u>	-.14	.61
42	.13	.14	-.12	.01	-.10	.12	.04	-.11	-.07	-.03	-.06	<u>.78</u>	.73
% of Variance	29.26	6.75	5.88	4.13	3.89	3.21	2.83	2.52	2.26	2.15	2.11	2.01	
Total variance explained: 67.011													

The Final EFA. EFA was run with the 7 factor solution, and after the item reduction and interpretation of the factors, the final factor loadings were presented (Table 9). Also see Table 4.6 for eigenvalues for the final EFA.

Table 9

The Final Factor Loadings

No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Communalities
23	.75	-.07	-.03	.03	.08	.02	-.11	.66
30	.72	.12	.06	.07	.07	.14	.04	.59
41	.72	-.02	.07	.13	.10	-.01	-.07	.68
28	.69	.03	-.17	.07	.09	-.02	-.13	.75
39	.69	.11	-.16	-.01	-.15	.08	-.07	.55
47	.67	.04	.03	-.10	.18	-.11	-.03	.64
25	.63	.13	.12	.11	.08	-.15	.09	.63
51	.52	-.03	-.11	-.07	.06	-.25	-.23	.59
36	.01	.86	.02	.03	-.09	-.06	-.09	.73
35	.00	.75	.14	-.03	-.19	-.07	-.18	.56
27	-.04	.67	-.20	.18	.10	.01	-.01	.60
48	.07	.64	.11	.07	.29	.08	.09	.62
24	.30	.58	.12	.06	-.15	-.21	-.01	.61
31	.17	.57	-.16	.04	.09	.02	.16	.52
38	.28	.56	-.05	.02	.00	-.13	.02	.58
42	.00	.46	-.12	-.07	.34	.29	.07	.43
37	.06	.46	-.16	-.27	.05	-.17	.02	.38
33	-.21	.10	-.84	-.05	-.05	.16	-.07	.76
43	.16	-.13	-.74	.03	-.11	-.13	.01	.60
32	.08	.05	-.73	.09	.04	.00	-.03	.60
5	.16	-.03	-.01	-.81	.04	-.02	.06	.61
12	.21	.04	-.03	.74	-.03	-.10	.02	.71
15	.32	.01	-.05	.66	.09	.04	-.02	.71
22	-.04	.05	.05	-.61	-.13	.04	.13	.52
11	.08	.01	.01	-.01	.81	-.02	-.04	.74
8	-.02	-.04	.06	.15	.73	-.12	-.03	.67
9	.00	-.12	-.07	.02	.70	-.02	-.20	.58
19	.16	.05	.07	-.02	.61	-.15	-.24	.70
4	.11	.16	.18	.04	.57	-.08	-.06	.55
1	.13	-.03	.01	.07	.56	-.04	.06	.40
10	.04	.01	-.03	-.01	-.01	.80	.00	.63
14	.05	.12	.04	-.07	.13	-.71	-.15	.70
13	.03	.06	-.06	.25	.32	-.51	.03	.65
6	-.08	.23	-.15	.23	.20	-.43	.10	.46
7	.03	-.08	-.13	-.07	-.06	-.13	.77	.61
20	-.06	-.03	.15	-.03	-.11	.11	.76	.77
16	-.11	.04	.12	-.10	.07	.05	.75	.68
18	.14	.01	-.09	-.06	.29	-.14	-.55	.62
Mean	3.39	3.43	3,47	3,49	2,8	3,43	3,39	
% of Variance	30.20	8.68	6.26	4.95	4.25	3.91	3.28	
Total variance explained								

Of note, there are 7 factors with at least 3 items for each.

Table 10

The Initial Eigenvalues of the Final EFA

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.477	30.201	30.201
2	3.297	8.678	38.879
3	2.378	6.259	45.138
4	1.88	4.948	50.086
5	1.616	4.254	54.34
6	1.486	3.91	58.25
7	1.246	3.279	61.529

Item reduction. The initial pattern matrix was loaded in 12 components with multiple problematic items. The rotation was repeated several times while removing the problematic items during each rotation. In total, 13 items were removed.. The items and the summary of the reasons are given in table 4.7. The final version of LLSCS contained 38 items.

- Items loading under .40 : Items 44(.344), 21(.373), 50(.392), and 34(.29) were removed because of low loading. They also cross-loaded on more than one factor but all were less than .40.
- Items with cross-loadings above .40 with less than a .10 difference (Şencan, 2005). : Item 2 was removed because of the cross-loadings of .408 and .436.
- Items not clustering meaningfully: An additional reason for removing some items was the meaningless clustering of items. Although some items clustered together under a factor, the clustering was not meaningful and items were unrelated. These items were item 29(.631): “İngilizce öğrenirken hedeflerimi bazen değiştiririm.” Item 40(.461): “İngilizceyi etkili öğrenme yöntemlerini biliyorum.” And item 49(.412): “İngilizce öğrenmede başarılı olmanın yollarını biliyorum.” It was demonstrated that item 29 is entirely different from items 40 and 49. Additionally, two items are not enough for a component to be considered a factor, therefore these three items were removed. Items 3(.524): “İngilizce yazmada yaratıcıyım.” and 26(.491):

“Yeterli zaman verilirse İngilizcede başarılı olabilirim.” were also removed due to inappropriate clustering. Items 46(.685): “İngilizce öğrenirken dikkat dağınıklığı yaşıyorum.” ,45(.520): “Hafızam kötü.”, and 17(.445): “Konuşurken istediğim İngilizce kelimeleri bulamıyorum.” Were removed because the clustering was nonsensical.

Table 11

Deleted Items

Item Number	Item	Item Loading	Reason for Deletion
44	İngilizce öğrenmekte iyi değilim.	.344	low Loading
21	İngilizceyi hatasız yazabilirim.	-.373	low Loading
50	İngilizcemi nasıl geliştireceğimi biliyorum.	.392	low Loading
34	Yeterince İngilizce çalışmadığım için başarısızım.	-.29	low Loading
2	İngilizce kelimeleri duyduğum şekilde tekrar edebilirim.	.408/.436	Cross-loading
29	İngilizce öğrenirken hedeflerimi bazen değiştiririm.	.631	Inappropriate Clustering
40	İngilizceyi etkili öğrenme yöntemlerini biliyorum.	.461	Inappropriate Clustering
49	İngilizce öğrenmede başarılı olmanın yollarını biliyorum.	.412	Inappropriate Clustering
3	İngilizce yazmada yaratıcıyım.	.524	Inappropriate Clustering
26	Yeterli zaman verilirse İngilizcede başarılı olabilirim.	.491	Inappropriate Clustering
46	İngilizce öğrenirken dikkat dağınıklığı yaşıyorum.	.685	Inappropriate Clustering
45	Hafızam kötü.	.520	Inappropriate Clustering
17	Konuşurken istediğim İngilizce kelimeleri bulamıyorum.	.445	Inappropriate Clustering

After the item removal and data reduction stage, the final pattern matrix presented a clearer picture (Table 9).

Factor interpretation. For the final version, seven factors were named according to the common characteristics of the items loaded in the same factor. The names of the dimensions and the items are given in Table 4.8. (See Appendix-F for an English translation)

Table 12

Items in Factors

Dimension 1: language Learning Aptitude
23. Arkadaşlarım beni İngilizce dil öğrenmede yetenekli buluyorlar.
30. Arkadaşlarım bana çok hızlı öğrendiğimi söylüyorlar.
41. İngilizceyi çabuk öğrenirim.
28. İngilizce öğrenme konusunda yetenekliyim.
39. Arkadaşlarım beni dil öğrenmeye hevesli buluyorlar.
47. Sınıf arkadaşlarıma göre İngilizcede gayet iyiyim.
25. İngilizce öğrenme becerimden memnunum.
51. Dil öğrenmeye kulağım var.
Dimension 2: Self-Regulation
36. Çalışma yöntemlerimi gözden geçiririm.
35. Dönem sonunda daha iyi olmak için bir sonraki dönemde ne yapacağımı gözden geçiririm.
27. Yaptığım planların işe yarayıp yaramadığını kontrol ederim.
48. İngilizce çalışmalarımı dikkatle planlıyorum.
24. İngilizce öğrenirken gelişmemi takip ederim.
31. Bir etkinliği yaparken aklımda hedeflerim olur.
38. İngilizce öğrenirken kendime hedefler koyabilirim.
42. Arkadaşlarıma çalışma yöntemlerimi dikkate alırım.
37. Ödevlerimi düzenli olarak yaparım.
Dimension 3: Effort
33. İngilizcemizi geliştirmek için daha çok çalışmam gerekiyor.
Dimension 3: Effort
43. Eğer pratik yaparsam İngilizcede daha iyi olacağıma inanıyorum.
32. Eğer çalışırsam sınavlarımı geçebilirim.
Dimension 4: Linguistic Resources

5. İngilizce gramer konularını karıştırıyorum.
12. Yeni İngilizce gramer kurallarını öğrenmede sıkıntı çekmem.
15. İngilizce grameri hızlı öğrenebilirim.
22. Öğrendiğim İngilizce gramer kurallarını uygulayamam.

Dimension 5: Production

11. İngilizceyi akıcı bir şekilde konuşabiliyorum.
8. İngilizceyi etkin bir şekilde konuşabiliyorum.
9. İngilizce vurgum iyidir.
19. İngilizce konuşmada iyiyim.
4. İngilizcede istediğimi yazabiliyorum.
1. İngilizce günlük konuşmalarda sıkıntı çekmiyorum.

Dimension 6: Reception

10. İngilizce dinleme konusunda sıkıntı çekerim.
14. İngilizce dinleme konusunda iyiyim.
13. İngilizce okuduğumu anlayabilirim.
6. İngilizce hikâye okuyabilirim.

Dimension 7: Articulation

7. Bazı İngilizce sesleri telaffuz edemem.
 20. İngilizce telaffuzum kötü.
 16. İngilizce kelimelere dilim dönmüyor.
 18. İngilizce telaffuzum iyidir.
-

Description of LLSCS dimensions. The 38 items were neatly loaded under one of the 7 factors that accounted for 61.529% of the total variance. The first factor with 8 corresponding items accounted for 30.201% of the variance. The items in this component included statements such as “Arkadaşlarım bana çok hızlı öğrendiğimi söylüyorlar.” and “İngilizce öğrenme konusunda yetenekliyim.”, These items accounted for students` awareness of their language learning aptitude. Language learning aptitude has been defined as the competence of an individual in learning a foreign language, in certain amount of time and under certain conditions, when compared to other learners (Carroll & Sapon, 1959, 2002). It has been reported to involve abilities such as auditory ability, linguistic ability, and memory ability (Skehan, 1991). The first factor is therefore named “language learning aptitude.”

The second factor, with 9 items, accounted for 8.678% of the variance. Some of the items that clustered together here were “Dönem sonunda daha iyi

olmak için bir sonraki dönemde ne yapacağımı gözden geçiririm.” , “ Yaptığım planların işe yarayıp yaramadığını kontrol ederim.”, and “İngilizce çalışmalarımı dikkatle planlıyorum.” All these items fall under the category of “Self-regulation”, which refers to the ability to monitor and make adjustments to one`s language learning strategies (Ellis, 1997). Self-regulation is discussed under theories of motivation. Dornyei states that students who are able to keep themselves motivated and remain “on-task” reflecting on and revising their learning strategies and beliefs are more likely to succeed. The second factor is called “self-regulation”as a result.

The third factor, called “Effort”, has 3 item loadings and has items that express a sense of “effort” in students` language learning process. The items are “İngilizcemi geliştirmek için daha çok çalışmam gerekiyor.”, “Eğer pratik yaparsam ingilizcede daha iyi olacağıma inanıyorum.”, and “Eğer çalışırsam sınavlarımı geçebilirim.”. This factor accounts for 6.259% of the total variance.

The fourth factor has four items and accounts for 4.948% of the variance. This factor, called “linguistic resources”, is mainly about grammar and it shows how students perceive this. An example item would be “ İngilizce gramer konularını karıştırıyorum.”.

The fifth factor, “Production”, includes 6 items and accounts for %4.254% of the variance. This component includes items about students` speaking and writing skills. Some of the items are “İngilizceyi akıcı bir şekilde konuşabiliyorum.” and “İngilizcede istediğimi yazabiliyorum.”.

The sixth factor, named “Reception”, corresponds to 4 items and accounts for 3.910% of the variance. These items display students` perceptive skills in language learning including listening and reading. Some of the items are “İngilizce dinleme konusunda iyiyim.” and “İngilizce okuduğumu anlayabilirim.”.

The 7th factor has items that refer to pronunciation skills. Some of these items are “ Bazı İngilizce sesleri telaffuz edemem.” and “İngilizce telaffuzum kötü.”. This factor involves four items and accounts for 3.279% of the variance. It is aptly named “Articulation”.

Lastly, there is a 7 factor solution scale with items loading under each component. These components are Aptitude, Self-regulation, Effort, Linguistic resources, Production, Reception, and finally Articulation.

Reliability Analysis

The internal consistency estimate of reliability of the 7 subscales of the instrument was calculated. Cronbach's Alpha coefficients confirmed strong reliability for all the subscales and the scale as a whole ($\alpha = .932$, $n = 188$). Tables 13 to 20 shows item-total statistics for each subscale. These tables show that the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for each subscale are higher than .7, which indicates strong reliability and internal consistency of the scale (Nunnally, 1967). Additionally, retention of all of the items results in a higher Alpha or substantially higher Alpha in any of the subscales.

Table 13

Item-Total Statistics for Aptitude

Item Number	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
23	23.83	32.559	.725	.883
25	23.94	32.128	.672	.888
28	23.64	31.776	.793	.876
30	24.16	32.796	.650	.890
39	23.73	33.499	.581	.896
41	23.81	32.603	.752	.881
47	23.97	33.288	.701	.885
51	23.59	32.365	.629	.892

The Cronbach Alpha calculated for Aptitude is .899 and none of the items threaten the reliability of this sub-component.

Table 14

Item-Total Statistics for Articulation

Item Number	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
7	10.3265	8.098	.513	.823
20	10.1684	6.859	.753	.702
16	9.8622	7.832	.656	.754
18	10.25	8.26	.621	.771

With a .813 Alpha value, the factor of Articulation has good internal consistency reliability within the LLSCS. Although with the omission of item 7, there appears to be a higher Cronbach's Alpha. It was decided to keep the item because the increase in the Alpha coefficient was minimal and the original Alpha level of the construct was already above the threshold.

Table 15

Item-Total Statistics for Production

Item Number	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
1	13.7	17.703	.532	.865
4	13.92	17.927	.614	.847
8	14.22	17.148	.700	.832
9	14.02	18.383	.606	.848
11	14.36	16.603	.769	.819
19	13.93	17.052	.738	.825

Production has an Alpha coefficient of .863. With the deletion of item 4 the Alpha would be .865 which is a very moderate increase and .863 is already above the threshold. It was decided that the construct already had strong internal consistency and item 4 was retained.

Table 16

Item-Total Statistics for Effort

Item Number	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
32	8.75	1.823	.517	.631
33	8.76	1.517	.588	.540
43	8.69	2.044	.489	.666

The factor, Effort, has a total Cronbach's Alpha of .709 and demonstrates strong internal consistency reliability within the scale.

Table 17

Item-Total Statistics for Self-Regulation

Item Number	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
24	27.48	35.672	.621	.837
27	27.37	36.143	.635	.836
31	27.4	36.019	.583	.840
35	27.61	35.782	.545	.844
36	27.5	34.129	.744	.824
38	27.37	35.137	.663	.833
42	27.58	37.991	.395	.859
48	27.91	34.993	.635	.835
37	27.36	36.385	.442	.857

The Cronbach's Alpha calculated for self-regulation is found to be .856 which is above .7 and is proof of good reliability of the construct. Deletion of two items shows a very small increase in Alpha level. However, it was decided to retain those items as the increase was too small and Alpha was already high.

Table 18

Item-Total Statistics for Reception

Item Number	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
10	10.5404	5.285	.513	.709
13	10.2071	5.566	.598	.663
14	10.3333	5.086	.611	.650
6	10.101	5.868	.461	.733

The factor Linguistic resources had an Alpha coefficient of .748 and no items threaten the reliability of this factor .

Table 19

Item-Total Statistics for Linguistic Resources

Item Number	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
5	10.95	6.972	.492	.793
22	10.28	7.750	.534	.762
12	10.32	6.601	.687	.684
15	10.285	6.737	.684	.687

The Alpha coefficient for linguistic resources is .786 and is proof for internal consistency reliability of the construct within the scale. Table 4.16 below shows the reliability findings for each construct and the scale.

Table 20

Reliability Findings

Factors	Number of Items	N	Alpha
Aptitude	8	198	.899
Self-regulation	9	198	.856
Effort	3	199	.709
Linguistic Resources	4	200	.786
Production	6	194	.863
Reception	4	198	.748
Articulation	4	196	.813
Reliability of the scale	38	188	.932

It should be noted that all the constructs have high Alpha coefficients proving internal consistency reliability of LLSCS.

Contrasting Group Analysis

Research Question 2: Do students at higher and lower levels have different levels of language learning self concept in terms of the different dimensions of language learning self-concept?

In order to answer this research question, contrasting group analysis was performed through MANOVA, using SPSS 23. The categorical independent variable was student proficiency level with participating students divided into two

groups at the lowest levels and two groups at the highest levels. In order to divide the students into groups, the 6 levels of beginner to advanced students were given equivalents according to CEFR and the two levels of A (beginner, elementary) and C (upper intermediate, advanced) were used as independent variables. The combining of the levels was done in order to ensure sampling adequacy and to increase power so that Type II errors could be avoided. The mean scores of the 7 factors of the LLSCS were used as dependent variables. These factors are Aptitude, Effort, Linguistic Resources (referred to as LinguisticR in the data), Production, Reception, Articulation, and self-regulation(referred to as SelfR in the data). This phase of the study started with the assumption checks. Information regarding the sample and the variables are provided in the descriptive statistics table (Table 21).

Table 21
Descriptive Statistics for Contrasting Analysis

	level	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Aptitude	A	3,1358	,73243	48
	C	4,1818	,62883	22
	Total	3,4645	,85146	70
SelfR	A	3,4031	,65406	48
	C	3,9899	,61330	22
	Total	3,5875	,69366	70
Effort	A	4,2500	,58951	48
	C	4,5303	,63960	22
	Total	4,3381	,61514	70
LinguisticR	A	2,9896	,41565	48
	C	3,2727	,42893	22
	Total	3,0786	,43727	70
Production	A	2,4250	,71009	48
	C	3,9015	,80287	22
	Total	2,8890	1,00811	70
Reception	A	3,1354	,48091	48
	C	3,8295	,42529	22
	Total	3,3536	,56385	70
Articulation	A	2,8135	,40956	48
	C	2,6545	,28406	22
	Total	2,7636	,37992	70

Assumption checks. Before running the MANOVA, the required assumption tests were run. These tests were sampling adequacy, univariate and multivariate normality, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, equality of variance, and multicollinearity.

Sampling adequacy. The first assumption was sample size sufficiency. When performing MANOVA, there must be more cases than dependent variables in every cell (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). There are 22 cases in one cell and 48 cases in the other which is already higher than the number of dependent variables (7). Another assumption regarding sample size is that 20 measures are needed for each level of the independent variables to make sure a non-normal distribution of variables won't affect the results. (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013) This robustness, however, is only true if the non-normal distribution is not due to outliers. The sample size is large enough to meet the second assumption. Therefore, the data is robust to non-normal distribution of data provided that there are no outliers (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013).

Normality. There is no direct way to test multivariate normality in SPSS, therefore several tests are used to test this assumption. First, univariate normality was tested for each of the seven dependent variables using Explore. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed numerical results of normal distribution ($p > .05$) for the components of Aptitude, Self-Regulation, Reception, and Articulation. However, the results showed a non-normal distribution of data for the other 3 components: Linguistic Resources, Effort, and Production ($p < .05$). Therefore, the visuals of normality tests (Q-Q plots) were referred to in order to check normality. The Q-Q plots displayed almost normal distribution for all 7 dependent variables with minor deviations. The results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, and the Q-Q plots are displayed in the tables below.

Table 22

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Aptitude	,087	70	,200	,973	70	,127
SelfR	,082	70	,200	,982	70	,405
Effort	,195	70	,000	,891	70	,000
LinguisticR	,116	70	,021	,958	70	,018
Production	,122	70	,012	,959	70	,023
Reception	,96	70	,177	,968	70	,068
Articulation	,080	70	,200	,976	70	,195

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a Lilliefors Significance Correction

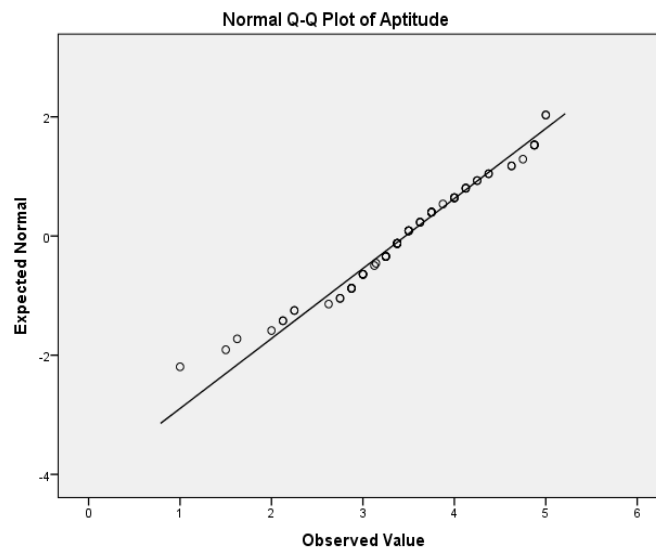


Figure 3. Normal probability plots of Aptitude

The Q-Q plots of Aptitude show a nearly perfect straight line with moderate deviations that can be overlooked because the deviations are not significant and can be overlooked if there are no outliers in the data (Tabachnick and Fidell ,2013; p. 253).

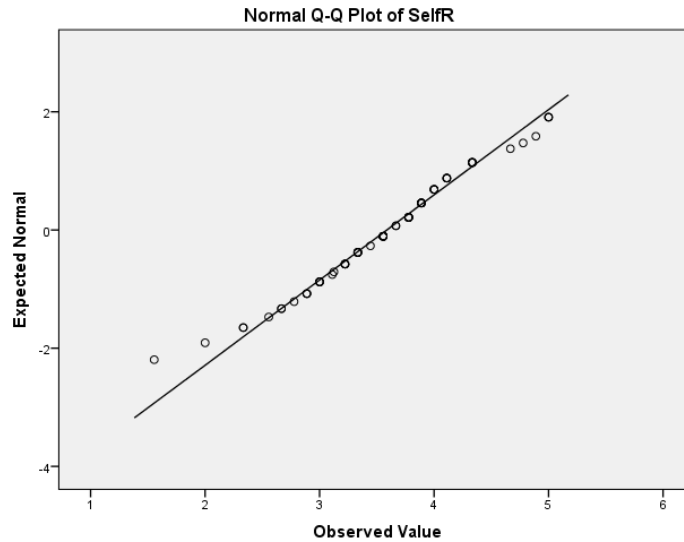


Figure 4. Normal probability plots of Self Regulation

The Q_Q plots for Self Regulation fall on a nearly straight line and are a sign of normal distribution of the data. The moderate deviations can be overlooked due to aforementioned reasons.

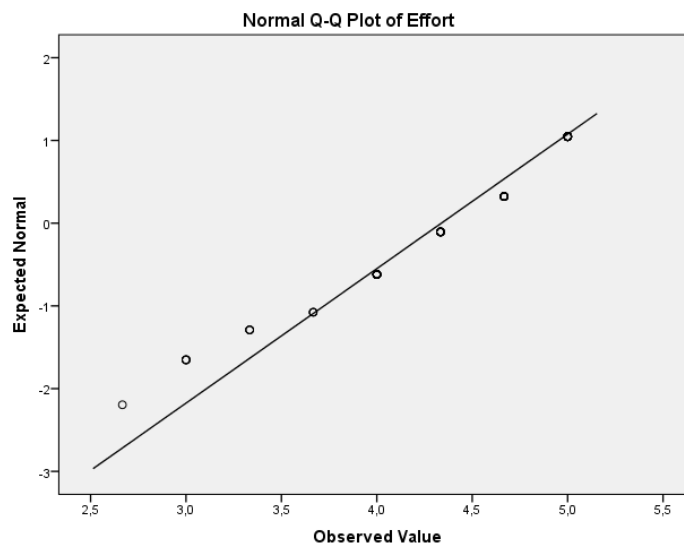


Figure 5. Normal probability plots of Effort

This is also a nearly straight line with small deviations which are overlooked due to “robustness” gained by the large sample size (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013).

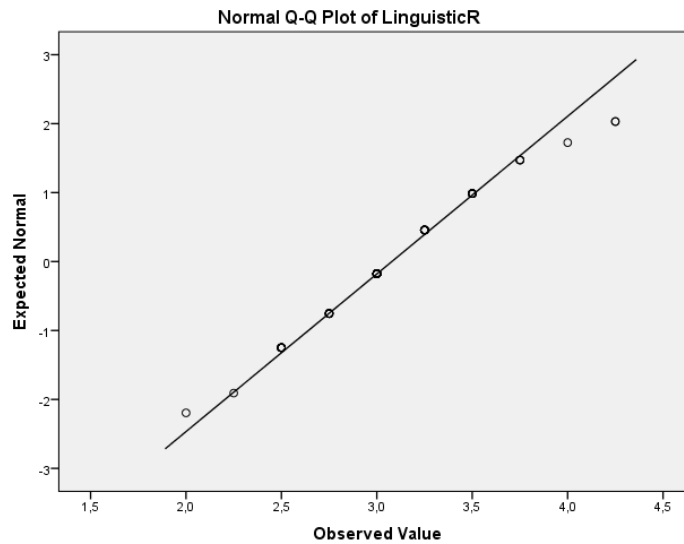


Figure 6. Normal probability plots of Linguistic Resources

The Q-Q plots of Linguistic Resources also show a nearly perfect straight line which suggests normal distribution of the data.

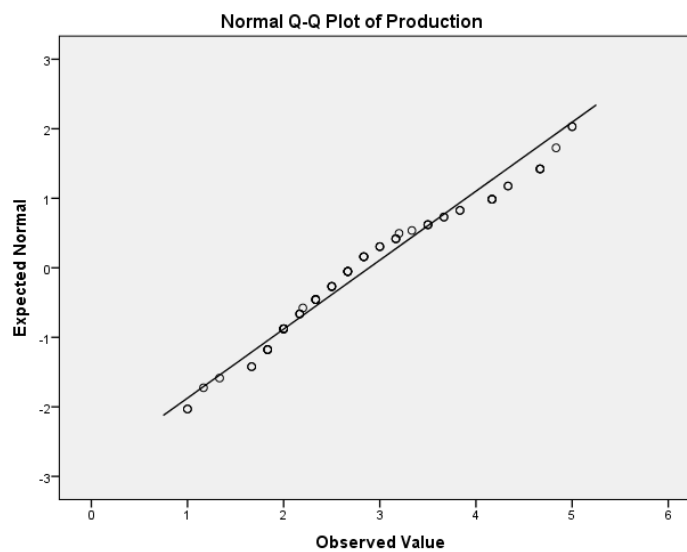


Figure 7. Normal probability plots of Production

Normal probability plots of Production show moderate curves on the line. However, this can be overlooked because of “robustness” of the sample size.

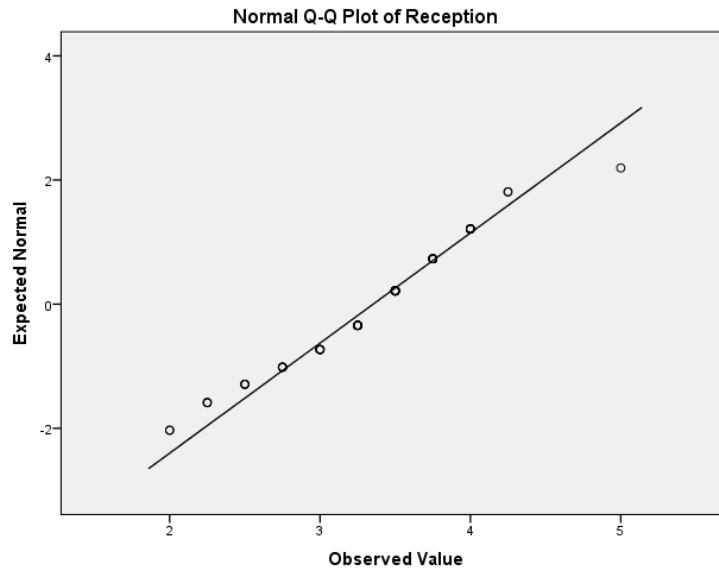


Figure 8. Normal probability plots of Reception

It is clear from the 7 figures that some of the dependent variables of the study display a nearly perfect straight line, which shows normal distribution of the data. Other variables show moderate deviations, which can be overlooked because the deviations are not too large. Moreover, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013, p. 253), a large enough sample (20 in each cell) ensures that MANOVA is “robust” to moderate deviations of normality of course on the condition that this violation is not due to outliers. Multivariate outliers were checked for via the Mahalanobis distance.

In order to check for this assumption, the researcher also checked for multivariate normality through Mahalanobis distance. Mahalanobis distance was obtained through linear regression. The Mahalanobis critical value is considered to be 24.32 for the 7 dependent variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). The maximum Mahalanobis was found to be 20.4, which is well below the critical value and confirms the presence of no outliers, thus proving “robustness” (2013, p. 253). Moderate deviations of normality found in the data will not change the results of MANOVA.

Homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. Box’s M test of equality of covariance matrices was referred to in order to check the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance. The result showed that this assumption was not violated (sig.value=,892 , $p > .001$) (Pallant, 2010) (Table 23).

Table 23

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Box's M	22,259
F	,686
df1	28
df2	6263,828
Sig.	,892

Equality of variance. Levene's test was used to ensure equality of variance and that the sig. Values for all the variables were higher than .05. Thus the assumption of equality of variance was not violated for any of the variables.

Multicollinearity. Univariate multicollinearity was checked. Multicollinearity means that the dependent variables are highly correlated. Following Pallant's (2010) suggestion, the multicollinearity of the data was checked by running a correlation. The cutoff point was considered to be .9. ($r > .90$) which would indicate a high correlation between the variables. No such case was reported. Therefore, the assumption of no Multicollinearity was not violated. The results are shown in Table 24.

Table 24

Pearson Correlations among Variables

Correlations							
	Aptitude	SelfR	Effort	LinguisticR	Production	Reception	Articulation
Aptitude							
SelfR	,715**						
Effort	,110	,185					
LinguisticR	,358**	,311**	,192				
Production	,714**	,479**	-,019	,200			
Reception	,607**	,598**	,103	,172	,681**		
Articulation	-,144	,019	-,092	-,065	-,081	0,039	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

MANOVA. A one-way between-groups multivariate analysis of variance was performed after the assumption check in order to determine whether there was a significant difference among the two groups of students in terms of the 7 components of language learning self concept. The seven dependent variables

were: Aptitude, Linguistic Resources, Self-Regulation, Effort, Production, Reception, and Articulation. The independent variable was “Level” with two levels of A and C. Wilks’ Lambda was found to be .474, significant at $.000 < 0.5$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference among students at two levels of A and C in terms of the components of language learning self concept $F(7, 62) = 9,836$, $p = .000$; Wilks’ Lambda = .474; partial eta squared = .526 (Table 25).

Table 25
Multivariate Tests

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Level	Pillai's Trace	,526	9,836	7,000	62,000	,000	,526
	Wilks' Lambda	,474	9,836	7,000	62,000	,000	,526
	Hotelling's Trace	1,111	9,836	7,000	62,000	,000	,526
	Roy's Largest Root	1,111	9,836	7,000	62,000	,000	,526

a Design: Intercept + Level

b Exact statistic

For a more detailed analysis, between subject effects were investigated and the results for the dependent variables were considered separately. In order to avoid Type I error, the Alpha level was adjusted. Taking the 7 dependent variables into account, the original alpha was divided into 7, leaving a modified alpha value of .007 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). All the 7 components of LLSCS displayed significant difference. The first components with significant differences using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .007, was Aptitude, $F(1, 68) = 33.48$, $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .330. The second component was Self-Regulation $F(1, 68) = 12.61$, $p = .001$; partial eta squared = .156. The next component was Effort $F(1, 68) = 18,85$, $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .217. Next was Production with $F(1, 68) = 60.06$, $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .469. Reception was significant with $F(1, 68) = 30,03$, $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .306. The next components were Linguistic Resources $F(1, 68) = 23.45$, $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .256, and Articulation $F(1, 68) = 39,98$, $p = .000$; partial eta squared = .37. The results are presented in Table 26 below.

Table 26

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Level	Aptitude	16,506	1	16,506	33,488	,000	,330
	SelfR	5,195	1	5,195	12,614	,001	,156
	Effort	1,806	1	1,806	18,850	,000	,217
	LinguisticR	16,250	1	16,250	23,450	,000	,256
	Production	32,888	1	32,888	60,061	,000	,469
	Reception	17,427	1	17,427	30,038	,000	,306
	Articulation	21,837	1	21,837	39,984	,000	,370

An inspection of mean scores indicated that although the difference was significant, the students at levels A and C only reported a small difference in terms of means. In general, students at C levels reported a slightly higher meanscore for all the components than students at A levels. The results are presented in Table 27.

Table 27

Estimated Marginal Means

Dependent Variable	level	Mean	Std. Error
Aptitude	A	3,136	,101
	C	4,182	,150
SelfR	A	3,403	,093
	C	3,990	,137
Effort	A	3,306	,045
	C	3,652	,066
LinguisticR	A	3,167	,120
	C	4,205	,177
Production	A	2,425	,107
	C	3,902	,158
Reception	A	3,073	,110
	C	4,148	,162
Articulation	A	3,047	,107
	C	4,250	,158

Conclusion

This section is based on the two research questions put forward by the study. First, the underlying components of Language Learning Self-Concept were tried to be determined. To this aim, a questionnaire was developed, and then an exploratory factor analysis was performed to gain insight into the underlying factors of the construct. After item reduction and factor extraction, the factors were interpreted.. The second research question sought to find out whether there was a significant difference between two groups of students at levels of A and C. For this purpose, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed. The results are discussed in the following chapter.



Chapter 5

Conclusion, Discussion and Suggestions

Summary of the Study

The aim of the present study was to explore the English Language Self-Concept in order to shed light on the underlying constructs of the concept. The study further sought to investigate the relationship between self-concept and the variable of “student proficiency level.” An attempt was made to determine whether “level” was a predictor of language learning self-concept and if there was a significant difference between high level and low level students.

A questionnaire was developed to search for the underlying factors that build up a student’s language learning self-concept. The items were constructed from the open-ended questionnaire filled out by students. It is recommended to involve students in the process of item generation in order to get a better insight into their perceptions and opinions (Dörnyei, 2003). Expert opinion was sought out for the initial item pool to ensure the content validity of the scale. Next, a sample group of the participants were also asked to fill out the questionnaire for both content and face validity.

The next step was to administer the questionnaire to 201 participants. Following the main piloting, EFA and tests of reliability, along with contrasting group analysis (MANOVA), were performed on the data. In the following section, a summary of the main findings will be presented and discussed. Suggestions will also be provided for future research.

Overall Evaluation and Discussion of Findings

From the data driven from the scale, a seven factor structure emerged for English Language Learning Self-Concept. This finding further supports the fact that self-concept is a multifaceted construct (Marsh & Shavelson, 1985). Having a Multifaceted structure refers to the fact that there are different domains that represent language learning construct and learners hold distinct self-concepts in

different domains. A student who has a high self-concept in Production does not necessarily have the same level of self-concept in Reception or other domains. Furthermore, various factors influence a students' self-concept in a domain. Marsh & Shavelson (1985) explain the multifaceted nature of self-concept as an outcome of a process in which individuals categorize the self-knowledge into categories or facets and they relate these facets to each other. So the facets may be different for each learner because they represent the category system adopted by the individual.

The factor structure. The factors extracted from questionnaire data are presented and explained below:

Language Learning Aptitude is one of the factors that emerged from the data. The items grouped under this factor conform to the definitions of language learning aptitude. Language learning aptitude is considered to be the ability or talent to learn a language. It compares the competence of an individual learning a foreign language, in a certain amount of time and under certain conditions to other learners (Carroll & Sapon, 1959, 2002). The emergence of this factor proves the presence of a talent or ability factor in the students' perception of their learning. This finding is in line with the definitions of self-concept and academic self-concept in literature. For example, Felson (1984) defines academic self-concept as "self-appraisals of academic ability" (p.944), or according to other researchers perceived competence and perceived capability are the key ingredients of self-concept and self-efficacy respectively (Harter, 1982; Marsh, 1990c). However, the items that are under this factor are not at a task level and are more general than self-efficacy items.

Furthermore, according to the element of comparison in the definition of aptitude which is also visible in the items, the items represent the comparisons that students may make between their own abilities and the abilities of others. That supports the influence of social comparisons in self-concept formation (Skaalvik, 1997). An overview of the aptitude items also indicates the presence of external frames of reference in language learning self-concept (Marsh, 1986). Items such as "Arkadaşlarım beni dil öğrenmeye hevesli buluyorlar" (My friends think I am an eager language learner), suggest that students rely on the perceptions of their peers in forming their own perceptions of the self. Moreover,

as the items suggest, some key concepts that fall under this domain are talent, eagerness to learn, and ability and competence.

- Ability and competence: Arkadaşlarım bana çok hızlı öğrendiğimi söylüyorlar (My friends tell me that I learn really fast/easily).
- Talent: Dil öğrenmeye kulağım var (I am language gifted).
- Eagerness to learn: Arkadaşlarım beni dil öğrenmeye hevesli buluyorlar” (My friends think I am an eager language learner).

The next factor is self-regulation. Self-regulation refers to the effort that students make to search for and then use personalized learning strategies (Tseng, Dörnyei, and Schmitt, 2006). Strategic learning is also related to mindsets and resilient behaviour; resilient behaviour partially refers to looking for new strategies and making effort (Yeager & Dweck, 2012). The items grouped under this factor represent student perceptions of their efforts in strategic learning. So we can conclude that, as stated in the literature, students’ self-concepts are affected by their mindsets and that self-concept includes perceptions of self-regulatory behaviour.

The self-regulatory behaviours in the items fall under the definitions of metacognitive strategies (Schraw et al., 2006). Examples of self-regulatory behaviors apparent in the items are:

- Goal setting: İngilizce öğrenirken kendime hedefler koyabilirim (I can set goals for myself when I am learning English).
- Planning: İngilizce çalışmalarımı dikkatle planlıyorum (I plan for my English studies carefully).
- Evaluating: Yaptığım planların işe yarayıp yaramadığını kontrol ederim (I check the effectiveness of my plans).
- Monitoring: Çalışma yöntemlerimi gözden geçiririm (I review my study methods).

Another factor that was extracted from the data is effort. Effort has been defined as attempts that an individual makes consciously and with persistence to achieve a certain goal (Meltzer, Katzir-Cohen, Miller, and Roditi, 2001). Effort in language learning is dependent on the students’ attributions of success and failure

and is similar to self-regulation in that it stems from students' implicit beliefs or mindsets. People with growth mindset attribute their failure to lack of effort which makes them try harder in the future and put in more effort (Hong et al., 1999). These findings further prove the multifaceted nature of self-concept and the fact that the underlying components of self-concept are interrelated. However, if we take the hierarchical nature of self-concept into account, self-regulation seems to be at a lower and more specific facet or domain than effort. Effort is about the amount of work and type of behaviour students engage in to learn and improve their skills. Whereas, self-regulation is the subcategory of that definition meaning it is that type of effort student makes at strategic learning. In other words, self-perceptions of self-regulation seem to be a component of self-perceptions of effort. Thus, this finding seemingly proves the hierarchical nature of self-concept. However, it does not necessarily mean that these items can be grouped under one factor because that way we would be dismissing the hierarchical nature of self-concept.

The other dimension found in the data is linguistic resources. The items that represent this dimension refer to the students' perceptions of their ability to learn and apply grammar rules.

Production is another factor retrieved from the data. Not only does this dimension refer to perceptions of productive skills such as speaking and writing in general, but it also includes perceptions of fluency and efficiency in speaking. Accent is another element in the items. It can be concluded that the present scale takes the specific subcomponents of EFL into account (e.g. pronunciation) and it allows for lower-order EFL self-concepts such as English speaker or writer self-concept.

The next dimension is Reception which refers to the skills of reading and listening. The other skill related dimension is Articulation which refers to pronunciation. The distinction between production and articulation is that production refers to producing the language and articulation refers to the production of sounds and accent in speaking English has been categorized under production which concerns speaking the language. So, once again the dimensions share aspects but they also have reasonable distinctions and as such, are grouped under distinct factors. The findings hold that learners may have four

distinct skill related self-concepts. However, one unanticipated finding was that except for one item that fell under pronunciation skill (articulation factor), there was no mention of “vocabulary” in the skill related dimensions of the scale after EFA was performed.

In conclusion, the factor analysis revealed the existence of 7 factors in language learning self-concept. From the findings we can say that self-concept is indeed a complex multifaceted structure with these facets being interrelated and at the same time distinct in many ways. There is also evidence in the data representing the hierarchical nature of this construct. It also shows the domain specific nature of self-concept and reveals that the levels of specificity of these domains differ from each other.

Contrasting group analysis. The data driven from contrasting group analysis showed that student proficiency level is a predictor of language learning self-concept as there was a significant difference in the scale scores between higher level and lower level students. This finding shows that the scale is able to discriminate between high level and low level students regarding their language learning self-concept. This is an indicator of predictive validity of the scale.

The observed significance could be attributed to several reasons; one of which might be the fact that high level students have more experience with the language and this gives them more confidence in reporting higher degrees of self-concept. On the other hand, another possible reason could be the internal or external frames of reference that are available to them at higher levels of language learning. They can make comparisons between their past and present selves, or they may compare their skills with those of lower level students. This is in line with Marsh’s (1986) I/E frames of reference model and also Mercer’s (2011a) extension of it. According to the I/E model, students make comparisons between their own perceived abilities and competence in one domain with the same perceptions in different domains and this process affects their self-concept in that particular domain (internal frame of reference). Although this definition does not include comparisons across time, there is possibility that this is one of the reasons. External frames of reference, on the other hand, refer to the comparisons students make between their perceived competences in a domain with that of other students. In the case of our data, external frames of reference could be the

students at lower levels with whom the participants were in touch with in the settings mentioned in Chapter 3. This finding corroborates the ideas of Festinger (1954) about downward/ upward social comparisons that students make with other students. However, this data must be interpreted cautiously because of the complex nature of self-concept and the various unknown factors which are specific to an educational setting and may affect the results.

Another finding of the present study concerns the sub-scales of self-concept scale that demonstrate the significant differences mentioned above. A review of the results reveals that the significant difference in self-concept scores were detected in the all the seven components of the scale.

A review of the meanscores of the components reveals that with a small difference from the other components, Self Regulation has the highest meanscore and the lowest meanscore belongs to production.

Validity & reliability. To check for reliability cronbach alpha was calculated for the scale and the 7 sub-scales. This is the most common method in reliability checks (Price & Mueller, 1986). It has also been suggested to use this method along with factor analysis (Cortina, 1993). The results of reliability tests showed that the scale and its sub-scales performed adequately with respect to internal consistency. The scale and all the sub-scales exhibited cronbach value of more than .7 which confirms the internal consistency of the scale (Nunnally, 1976) by indicating strong item covariance and is an indication of adequate coverage of the sampling domain (Churchill, 1979).

Limitations of the Study

- Self-concept is a dynamic and multifaceted construct. So constructing items that represent the construct completely is seemingly impossible.
- Because of the use of convenience sampling, the results may not be generalizable and the data might have under or over represented the group of language learners.
- Due to time constraints and inaccessibility of a large and independent sample, confirmatory factor analysis was not performed.

Conclusion

The results emerged in this study show that the Language Learning Self-Concept Scale (LLSCS) is a valid instrument in that it identified the underlying dimensions in language learning self-concept and it was able to identify students self-reports of their perceptions of their language learning process. The scale was also able to discriminate between higher level and lower level students of English and it demonstrated predictive validity. The instrument can be used to investigate student evaluations in other areas of language learning.

Implications of the Study

In this section the pedagogical and methodological implications will be presented.

Pedagogical implications. The findings of this particular study have some pedagogical implications that can be considered useful for educators of English as a second or foreign language. The first finding was the seven factor solution of language learning self-concept. According to EFA, self-concept in language learning includes the 7 factors of Aptitude, Self-Regulation, Effort, Linguistic Resources, Production, Reception, and Articulation. Having an understanding of the underlying components of self-concept and the factors that help form self-concept enables the teachers to understand their learners better and helps learners form a healthy self-concept in the areas that are in their control. Moreover, teachers can become aware of the factors that may pose risks and threats to students' self-concept and try to remove or minimize those elements. Branch and Wilson (2009) emphasize promoting a healthy and realistic sense of self rather than a high sense of self because that is the only way effective learning can take place. According to Mercer (2011a), self-concept is a construct which consists of complex and interrelated domains, it is multifaceted, and many factors have an influence on one's present self-concept at the same time. This complex nature of self-concept makes it almost impossible to offer any simplistic plans that will ensure a promoted self-concept in an individual. Intervention plans could work but they will have a different effect on different students due to their differences in perceptions, mindsets, personal values, past experiences, frames of reference, etc. However, effort should be taken to provide a positive and safe atmosphere

which does not threaten student self-concept. Besides, due to the fact that self-concept is formed in domain specific levels, any intervention should be domain specific in order to be effective (Craven, Marsh, & Debus, 1991). Attempts to influence self-concept at global levels directly may not be successful. A further reason for this probable failure would be the dynamic and stable elements of self-concept in relation to core and peripheral beliefs (Markus and Wurf, 1987). But if more task and domain specific layers of self-concept improve, there is hope that they will improve global self-concepts in the long run.

Some of the questionnaire items that were grouped under Aptitude factor indicate the effect of reflected appraisals and social comparisons in the formation of this dimension. First of all, educators and planners can be more careful with grouping the students in ability groups. Any inaccurate placements of the students can lead to either a low self-concept or loss of motivation. As a teacher, the researcher has observed that due to social comparisons, students who are at a much higher level compared to their classmates appear to intimidate the other students. Students who are at a lower level of language skills, on the other hand, tend to lose their motivation and quit. A more accurate placement test can help with this issue. Of course, the effect is not certain and equal on all the students because of the nature of self-concept that was defined before. But at least one of the threats to student self-concept can be eliminated here. Moreover, according to Bailey (1983), educators should try to guide students to focus on internal comparisons that focus on their progress rather than external social comparisons that tend to be competitive.

Another dimension found in the data is the four factors of Articulation, Production, Reception, and Linguistic resources. These facets refer to skills and tasks. They include elements of self-efficacy. A useful suggestion offered by Williams et al. (2015) is to promote a positive self-concept in students through experiences of success. However, the authors emphasize that these experiences must be real as students have the ability to sense any ungenune positive feedback or activity. In the same article, Williams et al. (2015) point to scaffolding activities as ways of allowing for students with varying level of competence to experience success and progress at any pace. A further implication for educators and people who actively participate in curriculum and test design is to adjust the

level of difficulty of the tasks, material, and exams according to the level of the students.

Another finding concerning group differences is the effect of level of proficiency on the components of language learning self-concept. Student level or proficiency level in the current study has been defined as the current course student is taking and in this particular research setting (English Time), this variable is determined by placement tests on entrance and later by language course grades. In case these methods have been applied effectively and accurately, this variable is a result of experience with the target language. Thus, we may conclude that experience with the language in the present study has resulted in higher levels of reported self-concept. But we still need to be extra vigilant here, because there are many factors that may lead to a student being “labeled” at a certain proficiency level and this “label” will have different effects on a students’ self-concept (for instance, the student may be an advanced learner but at the same time a repeat student at that particular high level and thus, has experienced failure). With much caution, the suggestions mentioned above about accurate placement procedures and genuine experiences of progress and success can be applied here as well.

In regard to mindsets, teachers can discuss learners’ implicit beliefs with them (Dweck, 2006; Dweck et al., 1995; Mercer and Ryan, 2009) and try to encourage them to make internal attributions rather than attribution to factors that are external and out of their control, and make more of a purposeful effort (Mercer, 2011a). Based on research findings, improved mindsets can improve some other constructs such as self-regulation and motivation (Horwitz, 1988; Wenden, 1987; Dörnyei, 2001) and effort (Hong et al., 1999; Yeager & Dweck 2012). According to the present scale, effort and self-regulation are also dimensions of language learning self-concept.

Methodological implications. The first limitation of this study is that the number of participants was not adequate enough to be able to generalize the findings with other populations. Only 201 students were used for the main piloting. Recommendations for sample size range from an item-response ratio of 1:4 (Rummel, 1970) to 1:10 (Schwab, 1980). In addition, Guadagnoli & Velicer (1988) state that on the condition that the intercorrelations of items are strong, a sample

size of 150 is enough to obtain accurate data in EFA. Although the sample size in the present study is in-line with some recommendations for sample size in the literature, it is still not sufficient enough to perform all the validation stages of a scale including confirmatory factor analysis and replication study. In order to be able to run a CFA, an independent sample of at least 200 participants was needed. Unfortunately, CFA could not be conducted due to time constraints and lack of access to a larger independent sample.

Because a confirmatory factor analysis was not performed, the factor structure obtained from exploratory factor analysis could neither be assessed nor confirmed. That is why the present scale is not completely validated and the results of contrasting group analysis performed with this scale cannot be entirely confirmed.

Another limitation is the sample bias that may exist in the data. Due to the use of convenience sampling the results may not be generalizable and the data might have under or over represented the group of language learners. First of all, all the participants were adult learners of English and younger learners were not included in the survey. One of the developmental factors that affect Self-concept is age and older learners tend to have more complex, detailed and multifaceted structure of self-concept. For that reason, the findings of the present work cannot be generalized with young learners. Susan Harter (1999a, 2006) assigns 6 stages of development to self-concept from childhood to late adolescence and she stresses the fact that the development of self-concept is a continuous process while each stage builds up on the previous stage. So our sample is missing the younger learners of English and thus, excludes information on the content, organization and accuracy of self-perceptions within those age ranges.

The third problem with the sample is that the participants were chosen from only three settings with English Time being the main one. This could reduce the generalizability of the findings because it may not represent the whole population. It would have been better to include participants from several educational institutions.

The next limitation of the study is that the researcher was not able to perform a language proficiency test to all the participants who were chosen from

different educational institutions which may lead to bias in the interpretation of contrasting groups analysis.

The last limitation arises from the nature of the construct under study. Self-concept is a dynamic and multifaceted construct with an unlimited number of possible facets and domains which are interrelated to each other in multiple ways. Devising items that represent the construct completely is seemingly impossible. Due to the limitations mentioned above, the present study does not aim to generalize the findings over the whole language learning population.

Suggestions for Further Research

As stated before, one limitation of the present study is that CFA was not performed. In future research on language learning self-concept, the factor structure of the scale could be validated using CFA. Furthermore, the validated scale could be used to investigate the relationship between language learning self-concept and other constructs. Another line of work, could involve cross-cultural comparisons on self-concept and the underlying constructs, in order to investigate the effects of culture and environment on self-concept.

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APPENDIX-A: The Open Ended Questionnaire

Yabancı dil öğrenmeyle ilgili duygu ve düşünce tarama formu

Demografik Bilgiler

Cinsiyetiniz: _____

Yabancı dil seviyeniz: _____

Lütfen dil öğrenmekle ilgili duygu ve düşüncelerinizi aşağıda anlatın.

1. Bir dil öğrencisi olarak GÜÇLÜ ve ZAYIF yönleriniz nelerdir?
Güçlü yönlerim:
Zayıf yönlerim:
2. Diğerleri (örn. Öğretmeniniz veya arkadaşlarınız) bir dil öğrencisi olarak sizin hakkınızda ne düşünürler?
3. Diğerleri ile kıyaslandığında kendinizi dil öğrencisi olarak nasıl tanımlarsınız?
4. Sizi iyi yada kötü hissettiren bir dil öğrenme deneyiminden bahsedebilir misiniz?
Lütfen bunun sizi nasıl etkilediğini de anlatınız.
Kendimi kötü hissettim:
Bu yüzden:
Kendimi iyi hissettim:
Bu yüzden:
5. Bir dil öğrencisi olarak dil öğrenmeyle ilgili kaygılarınız nelerdir?
6. Bir sonraki dil sınavında göstereceğiniz performans hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?
7. Bu kurun sonundaki İngilizce performansınızın hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?
8. İngilizce öğrenme fikri ve süreci hakkındaki duygu ve düşünceleriniz nelerdir?
9. Kendinizi İngilizceyi etkin kullanabilme konusunda nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?
İngilizceyi etkin konuşabilme:
İngilizceyi etkin yazabilme:
Duyduğumu anlayabilme:
Okuduğumu anlayabilme:
Bildiğim kelimeler:
Dilbilgisi:
10. İngilizce ile ilgili geleceğe dair istek, hedef, plan ve beklentileriniz nelerdir?

Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

APPENDIX-B: The Initial Item Pool

EFFORT	
1	Eğer çalışırsam sınavlarımı geçebilirim (If I study hard I can pass my exams)
2	Ödevlerimi düzenli olarak yaparım (I do my homework all the time)
AGENCY	
3	İngilizceyi geliştirmek için daha çok çalışmam gerekiyor (I need to study harder in order to improve my English)
4	Eğer pratik yaparsam İngilizcede daha iyi olacağıma inanıyorum (I believe if I practice I can be much better at English)
SKILLS	
5	Yeterince İngilizce çalışmadığım için başarısızım (I cannot succeed because I do not study hard enough)
6	Konuşurken istediğim İngilizce kelimeleri bulamıyorum (I cannot find the English words that I need while speaking)
7	İngilizce konuşmada iyiyim (I am good at speaking English)
8	İngilizceyi akıcı bir şekilde konuşabiliyorum (I can speak English fluently)
9	İngilizce günlük konuşmalarda sıkıntı çekmiyorum (I don't have a problem with everyday conversations in English)
10	İngilizceyi etkin bir şekilde konuşabiliyorum (I can speak English efficiently)
11	İngilizce okuduğumu anlayabilirim (I understand the English texts that I read)
12	İngilizce hikâye okuyabilirim (I can read stories in English)
13	İngilizce dinleme konusunda sıkıntı çekerim (I have problems with English listening)
14	İngilizce dinleme konusunda iyiyim (I am good at English listening)
15	İngilizceyi hatasız yazabilirim (I can write without any errors)
16	İngilizcede istediğimi yazabiliyorum (I can write whatever I want in English)
17	İngilizce yazmada yaratıcıyım (I write English creatively)
18	Yeni İngilizce gramer kurallarını öğrenmede sıkıntı çekmem (I don't have any difficulties while learning new English grammar rules)
19	Öğrendiğim İngilizce gramer kurallarını uygulayamam (I can't apply the grammar rules that I have learned)
20	İngilizce grameri hızlı öğrenebilirim (I can learn English grammar rules easily)
21	İngilizce gramer konularını karıştırıyorum (I confuse English grammar subjects)
22	İngilizce telaffuzum iyidir (I am good at English pronunciation)
23	İngilizce kelimeleri duyduğum şekilde tekrar edebilirim (I can pronounce English words just the way I hear them)
24	Bazı İngilizce sesleri telaffuz edemem (I can't articulate some English sounds)
25	İngilizce telaffuzum kötü (I am bad at English pronunciation)
26	İngilizce kelimelere dilim dönmüyor (I cannot pronounce English words correctly)
27	İngilizce vurgum iyidir (I have a good English accent)
SELF-EVALUATION	
28	İngilizce öğrenme becerimden memnunum (I am pleased with my English learning skills)
29	İngilizce öğrenmekte iyi değilim (I am not good at learning English)
30	Hafızam kötü (I have a poor memory)

SELF-EVALUATION

- 32 İngilizce öğrenme konusunda yetenekliyim (I have the ability to learn English)
- 33 İngilizceyi çabuk öğrenirim (I learn English easily)
- 34 Dil öğrenmeye kulağım var (I am language gifted)

METACOGNITION

- 35 İngilizce öğrenirken kendime hedefler koyabilirim (I can set goals for myself when I am learning English)
- 36 İngilizce öğrenirken hedeflerimi bazen değiştiririm (In the process of learning English, I sometimes change my goals)
- 37 Dönem sonunda kendimden iyi bir performans bekliyorum (I expect to perform well at the end of the term)
- 38 Bir etkinliği yaparken aklımda hedeflerim olur (I have goals in my mind while doing an activity)
- 39 İngilizceyi etkili öğrenme yöntemlerini biliyorum (I know how to learn English effectively)
- 40 İngilizce öğrenmede başarılı olmanın yollarını biliyorum (I know the ways to succeed at English learning)
- 41 İngilizce çalışmalarımı dikkatle planlıyorum (I plan for my English studies carefully)
- 42 İngilizceyi nasıl geliştireceğimi biliyorum (I know how to improve my English)
- 43 Yaptığım planların işe yarayıp yaramadığını kontrol ederim (I check the effectiveness of my plans)
- 44 Dönem sonunda daha iyi olmak için bir sonraki dönemde ne yapacağımı gözden geçiririm (In order to do better, I go over my plans for the following term, at the end of each course)
- 45 İngilizce öğrenirken gelişmemi takip ederim (I regularly check my progress when I am learning English)
- 46 Arkadaşlarımın çalışma yöntemlerini dikkate alırım (I pay attention to my friend's study methods)
- 47 Çalışma yöntemlerimi gözden geçiririm (I review my study methods)

SOCIAL COMPARISONS/ FRAMES OF REFERENCE

- 48 Arkadaşlarım beni dil öğrenmeye hevesli buluyorlar (My friends think I am an eager language learner)
- 49 Arkadaşlarım beni İngilizce dil öğrenmede yetenekli buluyorlar (My friends think I am talented at learning English)
- 50 Arkadaşlarım bana çok hızlı öğrendiğimi söylüyorlar (My friends tell me that I learn really fast/easily)
- 51 Sınıf arkadaşlarıma göre İngilizcede gayet iyiyim (compared to my classmates, I am much better at English than they are)

APPENDIX- C: The 51 Item Questionnaire

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu anket sizlerin kendinizle ve İngilizce öğrenmenizle ilgili duygu ve düşüncelerizi almayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışmanın sonunda sizleri ve öğrenme sürecinizi daha iyi anlayabilmeyi umuyoruz. Bu ankette sorulan soruların DOĞRU veya YANLIŞ cevabı yoktur. Bu yüzden soruları içinizden geldiği gibi cevaplamanızı rica ederiz. Sorulara verdiğiniz cevaplar ve kişisel bilgileriniz kesinlikle saklı tutulacaktır ve araştırmacılardan başka kimse tarafından incelenmeyecektir.

Bu ankette iki bölüm bulunmaktadır ve toplam 51 sorudan oluşmaktadır. Her bölümde sizlere rakamsal değeri olan 5 seçenek verilmiştir. Rakamlar, her ifadeye ne kadar katıldığınızı göstermektedir. Bu seçenekler aşağıdaki gibidir:

5. Kesinlikle katılıyorum
4. katılıyorum
3. Emin değilim
2. Katılmıyorum
1. Kesinlikle katılmıyorum

Lütfen soruları tam olarak okuduktan sonra kendinize en uygun olan cevabı işaretleyiniz. Katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Demografik Bilgiler:

Cinsiyetiniz:-----

Yabancı dil seviyeniz:-----

Dil okulunuz: -----

Geçen dönem İngilizce dersi notunuz:-----

Lütfen diğer sayfaya geçiniz

1. BÖLÜM
İNGİLİZCE DİL BECERİLERİM

Bu bölümdeki soruları İngilizce dil becerilerizi düşünerek cevaplayınız.		Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Emin değilim	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
1	İngilizce günlük konuşmalarda sıkıntı çekmiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2	İngilizce kelimeleri duyduğum şekilde tekrar edebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
3	İngilizce yazmada yaratıcıyım.	5	4	3	2	1
4	İngilizcede istediğimi yazabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
5	İngilizce gramer konularını karıştırıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
6	İngilizce hikâye okuyabilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
7	Bazı İngilizce sesleri telaffuz edemem.	5	4	3	2	1
8	İngilizceyi etkin bir şekilde konuşabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
9	İngilizce vurgum iyidir.	5	4	3	2	1
10	İngilizce dinleme konusunda sıkıntı çekerim.	5	4	3	2	1
11	İngilizceyi akıcı bir şekilde konuşabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
12	Yeni İngilizce gramer kurallarını öğrenmede sıkıntı çekmem.	5	4	3	2	1
13	İngilizce okuduğumu anlayabilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
14	İngilizce dinleme konusunda iyiyim.	5	4	3	2	1
15	İngilizce grameri hızlı öğrenebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
16	İngilizce kelimelere dilim dönmüyor.	5	4	3	2	1
17	Konuşurken istediğim İngilizce kelimeleri bulamıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
18	İngilizce telaffuzum iyidir.	5	4	3	2	1
19	İngilizce konuşmada iyiyim.	5	4	3	2	1
20	İngilizce telaffuzum kötü.	5	4	3	2	1
21	İngilizceyi hatasız yazabilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
22	Öğrendiğim İngilizce gramer kurallarını uygulayamam.	5	4	3	2	1

Lütfen diğer sayfaya geçiniz

2. BÖLÜM
BEN VE İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENME SÜRECİ

Bu bölümdeki soruları kendinizi ve İngilizce öğrenmeyi düşünerek cevaplayınız.		Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Emin değilim	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
23	Arkadaşlarım beni İngilizce dil öğrenmede yetenekli buluyorlar.	5	4	3	2	1
24	İngilizce öğrenirken gelişmemi takip ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
25	İngilizce öğrenme becerimden memnunum.	5	4	3	2	1
26	Yeterli zaman verilirse İngilizcede başarılı olabilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
27	Yaptığım planların işe yarayıp yaramadığını kontrol ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
28	İngilizce öğrenme konusunda yetenekliyim.	5	4	3	2	1
29	İngilizce öğrenirken hedeflerimi bazen değiştiririm.	5	4	3	2	1
30	Arkadaşlarım bana çok hızlı öğrendiğimi söylüyorlar.	5	4	3	2	1
31	Bir etkinliği yaparken aklımda hedeflerim olur.	5	4	3	2	1
32	Eğer çalışırsam sınavlarımı geçebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
33	İngilizcemi geliştirmek için daha çok çalışmam gerekiyor.	5	4	3	2	1
34	Yeterince İngilizce çalışmadığım için başarısızım.	5	4	3	2	1
35	Dönem sonunda daha iyi olmak için bir sonraki dönemde ne yapacağımı gözden geçiririm.	5	4	3	2	1
36	Çalışma yöntemlerimi gözden geçiririm.	5	4	3	2	1
37	Ödevlerimi düzenli olarak yaparım.	5	4	3	2	1
38	İngilizce öğrenirken kendime hedefler koyabilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
39	Arkadaşlarım beni dil öğrenmeye hevesli buluyorlar.	5	4	3	2	1
40	İngilizceyi etkili öğrenme yöntemlerini biliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
41	İngilizceyi çabuk öğrenirim.	5	4	3	2	1
42	Arkadaşlarımla çalışma yöntemlerimi dikkate alırım.	5	4	3	2	1
43	Eğer pratik yaparsam İngilizcede daha iyi olacağıma inanıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
44	İngilizce öğrenmekte iyi değilim.	5	4	3	2	1
45	Hafızam kötü.	5	4	3	2	1
46	İngilizce öğrenirken dikkat dağınıklığı yaşıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
47	Sınıf arkadaşlarıma göre İngilizcede gayet iyiyim.	5	4	3	2	1
48	İngilizce çalışmalarımı dikkatle planlıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
49	İngilizce öğrenmede başarılı olmanın yollarını biliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
50	İngilizcemi nasıl geliştireceğimi biliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
51	Dil öğrenmeye kulağım var.	5	4	3	2	1

Zaman ayırıp bu anketi doldurduğunuz için teşekkür ederiz.

Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN

iherten@hacettepe.edu.tr

Hajar GOLMOHAMMADZADEH

hajar.golmohammadzadeh@gmail.com



APPENDIX- D: The Final Version of LLSCS

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu anket sizlerin kendinizle ve İngilizce öğrenmenizle ilgili duygu ve düşüncelerizi almayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışmanın sonunda sizleri ve öğrenme sürecinizi daha iyi anlayabilmeyi umuyoruz. Bu ankette sorulan soruların DOĞRU veya YANLIŞ cevabı yoktur. Bu yüzden soruları içinizden geldiği gibi cevaplamanızı rica ederiz. Sorulara verdiğiniz cevaplar ve kişisel bilgileriniz kesinlikle saklı tutulacaktır ve araştırmacılardan başka kimse tarafından incelenmeyecektir.

Bu ankette iki bölüm bulunmaktadır ve toplam 38 sorudan oluşmaktadır. Her bölümde sizlere rakamsal değeri olan 5 seçenek verilmiştir. Rakamlar, her ifadeye ne kadar katıldığınızı göstermektedir. Bu seçenekler aşağıdaki gibidir:

6. Kesinlikle katılıyorum
4. katılıyorum
3. Emin değilim
2. Katılmıyorum
1. Kesinlikle katılmıyorum

Lütfen soruları tam olarak okuduktan sonra kendinize en uygun olan cevabı işaretleyiniz. Katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Demografik Bilgiler:

Cinsiyetiniz:-----

Yabancı dil seviyeniz:-----

Bölüm: -----

Geçen dönem İngilizce dersi notunuz:-----

Bu anket çalışmasına katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır.

1. BÖLÜM

İNGİLİZCE DİL BECERİLERİM

Bu bölümdeki soruları İngilizce dil becerilerizi düşünerek cevaplayınız.		Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Emin değilim	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
1	İngilizce günlük konuşmalarda sıkıntı çekmiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2	İngilizcede istediğimi yazabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
3	İngilizce gramer konularını karıştırıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
4	İngilizce hikâye okuyabilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
5	Bazı İngilizce sesleri telaffuz edemem.	5	4	3	2	1
6	İngilizceyi etkin bir şekilde konuşabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
7	İngilizce vurgum iyidir.	5	4	3	2	1
8	İngilizce dinleme konusunda sıkıntı çekerim.	5	4	3	2	1
9	İngilizceyi akıcı bir şekilde konuşabiliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
10	Yeni İngilizce gramer kurallarını öğrenmede sıkıntı çekmem.	5	4	3	2	1
11	İngilizce okuduğumu anlayabilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
12	İngilizce dinleme konusunda iyiyim.	5	4	3	2	1
13	İngilizce grameri hızlı öğrenebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
14	İngilizce kelimelere dilim dönmüyor.	5	4	3	2	1
15	İngilizce telaffuzum iyidir.	5	4	3	2	1
16	İngilizce konuşmada iyiyim.	5	4	3	2	1
17	İngilizce telaffuzum kötü.	5	4	3	2	1
18	Öğrendiğim İngilizce gramer kurallarını uygulayamam.	5	4	3	2	1

2. BÖLÜM
BEN VE İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENME SÜRECİ

Bu bölümdeki soruları kendinizi ve İngilizce öğrenmeyi düşünerek cevaplayınız.		Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Emin değilim	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
19	Arkadaşlarım beni İngilizce dil öğrenmede yetenekli buluyorlar.	5	4	3	2	1
20	İngilizce öğrenirken gelişmemi takip ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
21	İngilizce öğrenme becerimden memnunum.	5	4	3	2	1
22	Yaptığım planların işe yarayıp yaramadığını kontrol ederim.	5	4	3	2	1
23	İngilizce öğrenme konusunda yetenekliyim.	5	4	3	2	1
24	Arkadaşlarım bana çok hızlı öğrendiğimi söylüyorlar.	5	4	3	2	1
25	Bir etkinliği yaparken aklımda hedeflerim olur.	5	4	3	2	1
26	Eğer çalışırsam sınavlarımı geçebilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
27	İngilizcemi geliştirmek için daha çok çalışmam gerekiyor.	5	4	3	2	1
28	Dönem sonunda daha iyi olmak için bir sonraki dönemde ne yapacağımı gözden geçiririm.	5	4	3	2	1
29	Çalışma yöntemlerimi gözden geçiririm.	5	4	3	2	1
30	Ödevlerimi düzenli olarak yaparım.	5	4	3	2	1
31	İngilizce öğrenirken kendime hedefler koyabilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
32	Arkadaşlarım beni dil öğrenmeye hevesli buluyorlar.	5	4	3	2	1
33	İngilizceyi çabuk öğrenirim.	5	4	3	2	1
34	Arkadaşlarımın çalışma yöntemlerini dikkate alırım.	5	4	3	2	1
35	Eğer pratik yaparsam İngilizcede daha iyi olacağıma inanıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
36	Sınıf arkadaşlarıma göre İngilizcede gayet iyiyim.	5	4	3	2	1
37	İngilizce çalışmalarımı dikkatle planlıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
38	Dil öğrenmeye kulağım var.	5	4	3	2	1

Zaman ayırıp bu anketi doldurduğunuz için teşekkür ederiz.

Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN

iherten@hacettepe.edu.tr

Hajar GOLMOHAMMADZADEH

hajar.golmohammad@tedu.edu.tr

APPENDIX-E: GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM VE İZİN FORMU

Sayın Katılımcı,

Katılmış olduğunuz çalışma, yüksek lisans tezi araştırmamda kullanılmak üzere Hacettepe Etik Komisyonu tarafından etik onayı verilmiş olup, siz öğrencilerin benlik algılarını ölçmek için bir ölçek oluşturmayı ve bu kavramın akademik benlik algısı arasında ilişkini ve akademik başarıyı nasıl etkilediği araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu amacı gerçekleştirebilmek için sizlere iki anket uygulanacaktır. Bunların ilki yabancı dil öğreniminde benlik algısı ölçeğidir diğeri Öğrenci Olarak Ben Ölçeğidir. (Myself-As-A-Learner Scale, MALS). Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Çalışma esnasında sizi rahatsız edecek herhangi bir durumla karşılaşmanız durumunda istediğiniz zaman yardım talep edebilirsiniz ya da çalışmadan istediğiniz zaman çekilmekte serbestsiniz.

Bu belgeyle elde edilen bilgilerin herhangi bir üçüncü şahıs veya grupta araştırma amacı dışında paylaşılmayacağını temin ederim. Kişisel bilgileriniz gizli tutulacak ve basılmış ya da çevrimiçi yayınlanmış herhangi bir belgede açık olarak verilmeyecektir. Veriler araştırma amaçlı olmak üzere ilgili araştırmacı ve veriye akademik katkı sunacak araştırmacılar tarafından kullanılacaktır. İşbu belgeyi, ilgili prosedürü onaylıyor ve kayıtlarınızın araştırmacı(lar) tarafından kullanımına izin veriyorsanız lütfen imzalayınız.

Saygılarımla.

Hajar GOLMOHAMMADZADEH

Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi / Hacettepe Üniversitesi

hajar.golmohammadzadeh@gmail.com

Sorumlu Tez Danışmanı:

Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN

Eğitim Fakültesi / Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü

Tel : 05327271732

E-posta: iherten@gmail.com

Yukarıda anlatılan çalışma için araştırmacı tarafından verilen ölçekleri içtenlikle doldurmam gerektiğini, rahatsızlık hissettiğim zaman çalışmadan çıkabileceğimi ve araştırmacıyla paylaşmış olduğum tüm kişisel bilgilerimin gizli tutulacağını anlamış bulunuyorum. Bu belgeyle, çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılacağımı beyan ederim.

Tarih:

Ad-Soyad:

Telefon:

E-posta:

İmza

APPENDIX-F: Written Approval From English Time Language School



T.C
BEYAZ DİL ÖZEL EĞİTİM DANIŞMANLIK HİZ. TİC. LTD.ŞTİ
English Time Dil Okulları Ankara Şubesi

06.11.2015

İLGİLİ MAKAMA ;

HAJAR GOLMOHAMMAD ZADEH 'ın Yüksek Lisans için tez araştırmasının bir kısmını anket çalışması olarak English Time Dil Okullarında yapmasının bir sakıncası yoktur.

Bilgilerinize arz ederiz.

Ankara Şube Müdürü
BEYAZ DİL ÖZEL EĞİTİM DANIŞMANLIK HİZ.
T.C. REKL. İNŞ. MİM. DANIŞMANLIK TİC. LTD. ŞTİ.
Ankara Şubesi
Koray İş Hanı No:1 / Kat:1 / Çankaya/ANKARA
Tic.Sic.372676 Alemdar V.D. 157 056 36 91

BEYAZ DİL ÖZEL EĞİTİM DANIŞMANLIK HİZ.TİC. LTD.ŞTİ.
English Time Dil Okulları Ankara Şubesi
www.englishtime.com
Meşrutiyet Cad. Koray Han No: 1 Kat :1 Kızılay / Ankara
Tel : 0 (312) 418 61 01 Fax : 0 (312) 417 41 01

APPENDIX-G: Ethics Committee Approval



T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Rektörlük

Sayı : 35853172/ 433- 3455

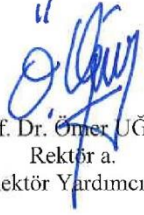
14 Aralık 2015

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi: 23.11.2015 tarih ve 2220 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı tezli yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi **Hajar GOLMOHAMMADZADEH KHİABAN**'ın, **Doç. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "**Dil Öğreniminde Benlik Algısı Ölçeği**" başlıklı tez çalışması, Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun **01 Aralık 2015** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.


Prof. Dr. Ömer UĞUR
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

Ek: Tutanak

Hacettepe Üniversitesi Rektörlük 06100 Sıhhiye-Ankara
Telefon: 0 (312) 305 3001 - 3002 • Faks: 0 (312) 311 9992
E-posta: yazimd@hacettepe.edu.tr • www.hacettepe.edu.tr

Ayrıntılı Bilgi için:
Yazı İşleri Müdürlüğü
0 (312) 305 1008

APPENDIX H: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

APPENDIX H: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that...

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

16/07/2018



Hajar GOLMOHAMMADZADEH KHIABAN

APPENDIX-I: Thesis Originality Report

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16/07/2018

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Educational Sciences
To The Department of Foreign Language Education

Thesis Title : An Exploration of Foreign Language Learning Self-Concept

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ADVISOR APPROVAL


APPROVED
(Prof. Dr., Ismail Hakki ERTEN)

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APPENDIX-J: Yayınlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

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Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversiteye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki tüm fikri mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının ya da bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım hakları bana ait olacaktır.

Tezin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinlerin yazılı izin alınarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversiteye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yayınlanan "Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge" kapsamında tezim aşağıda belirtilen koşullar haricince YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi / H.Ü. Kütüphaneleri Açık Erişim Sisteminde erişime açıktır.

- o Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulu kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren 2 yıl ertelenmiştir. ⁽¹⁾
- o Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihimden itibaren ... ay ertelenmiştir. ⁽²⁾
- o Tezimle ilgili gizlilik kararı verilmiştir. ⁽³⁾

16 /07/2018

(İmza)

Hajar GOLMOHAMMADZADEH-KHABAN

"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge"

(1) Madde 6.1. Lisansüstü teze ilgili patent başvurusu yapılması veya patent alma sürecinin devam etmesi durumunda, tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu iki yıl süre ile tez erişime açılmasının ertelenmesine karar verebilir.

(2) Madde 6.2. Yeni teknik, materyal ve metotların kullanıldığı, henüz makaleye dönüşmemiş veya patent gibi yöntemlerle korunmamış ve internetten paylaşılması durumunda 3 şahıslara veya kurumlara haksız kazanç, imkânı oluşturabilecek bilgi ve bulguları içeren tezler hakkında tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile altı ayı aşmamak üzere tez erişime açılması engellenebilir.

(3) Madde 7.1. Ulusal çıkarları veya güvenliği ilgilendiren, emniyet, istihbarat, savunma ve güvenlik, sağlık vb. konulara ilişkin lisansüstü tezlerle ilgili gizlilik kararı, tezin yapıldığı kurum tarafından verilir. Kurum ve kuruluşlarla yapılan işbirliği protokolü çerçevesinde hazırlanan lisansüstü tezlerle ilişkin gizlilik kararı ise, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşun önerisi ile enstitü veya fakültenin uygun görüşü üzerine üniversite yönetim kurulu tarafından verilir. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler Yükseköğretim Kuruluna bildirilir.

Madde 7.2. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler gizlilik süresince enstitü veya fakülte tarafından gizlilik kuralları çerçevesinde muhafaza edilir, gizlilik kararının kaldırılması halinde Tez Otomasyon Sistemine yüklenir

* Tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu tarafından karar verilir.

